Newcastle University

**An Investigation into the Impact of Extensive Reading Activities
on the Development of EFL Learners' Speaking Accuracies:
A Quasi-Experimental Study of Saudi University Students**

Abduh Almashy

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Completed under the supervision of:

Dr. Mei Lin

Professor Steve Walsh

Declaration

I hereby certify that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any University or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text.

(Signed): *Abduh Almashy*

Abduh Almashy

Date: 12th November 2020

Abstract

Saudi university students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) often have inadequate grammar and vocabulary skills, which limits their ability to speak in English. Reading broadly and at high volume – extensive reading (ER) – may improve EFL learners' ability to speak as it helps acquire grammatical accuracy and a larger vocabulary (e.g., Mart, 2012). This study evaluated the impact of ER on the development of EFL students at a Saudi university to speak accurately. An intervention combining ER with oral reporting (OR) activities was designed based on Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. Male students studying intermediate level English (equivalent to CEFR B1) from one Saudi university participated in this research (n = 93). They were assigned to one of the three groups: received an ER intervention (EPCD1); received another ER intervention plus OR (EPCD2); and a control group (CG) who did not receive an intervention. A mixed methods approach was used, involving pre- and post-International English Language Testing System (IELTS) tests and attitudinal surveys plus post-intervention interviews. The findings reveal that a combination of ER and OR activities was most effective for improving EFL students' vocabulary and grammatical accuracy in speaking among the three learning contexts. For EPCD1 there was no significant increase in lexical resource or grammatical accuracy scores but both scores increased significantly for EPCD2 after the intervention. Similarly, comparisons between the three groups revealed no change in attitude towards speaking English for EPCD1 participants after the ER intervention, but EPCD2 participants showed significantly more positive attitudes after the combined ER plus OR intervention. Further, after the intervention, EPCD2 participants had significantly more positive general perceptions towards speaking English than both EPCD1 and CG. Interview data confirmed that students' positive perceptions improved most when the intervention combined both ER and OR. The study therefore concluded that combining ER with OR is more advantageous than ER alone, both in improving speaking accuracy and improving learner self-confidence, as OR provides learners with more opportunities to practise speaking in class. Future research in similar contexts would further determine the impact of ER and OR activities on other EFL language skills.

Conferences

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Abduh Almashy and Mei Lin, 'University EFL Students' Perceptions Towards the Use of Extensive Reading Activities on Enhancing Speaking Competencies', The European Conference on Education (ECLL2018), Jurys Inn Brighton Waterfront, Brighton and Hove, UK, 29 June–1 July 2018.

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Dedication

To my late father, may Allah rest his soul in peace.

To my mother for her unconditional love and prayers.

To my wife Nawal for her sacrifice, support and love.

To my sister for her support.

To Atheer, Ali and Ahmad for making me happy and proud.

To all my family members.

Acknowledgement

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List of Abbreviations

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CG	Control Group
CI	Comprehensible Input
CO	Comprehensible Output
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EPCD1	Extensive Reading Experimental Group
EPCD2	Extensive Reading Plus Oral Reporting Experimental Group
ER	Extensive Reading
ESL	English as a Second Language
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
KMO-MSA	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
OC	Output Plus Correction
OR	Oral Reporting
SB	Skill-building Hypothesis
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study conducts research into the speaking accuracies of university students in Saudi Arabia who are learning English as a foreign language (EFL) or second language (ESL). It investigates the ways in which speaking accuracies develop through the lens of extensive reading (ER). A substantial body of literature connects the implementation of ER activities in the EFL classroom to improve language skills (e.g., Ariyanto, 2009; Arnold, 1999; Bell, 1998; Day & Bamford, 2002; Elley, 1991; Guo, 2012; Iwahori, 2008; Jang et al., 2015; Mason & Krashen, 1997a, 1997b; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Renandya et al., 1999; Renandya, 2007). In some studies, ER is viewed theoritically in scholarship and by educators alike as a possible effective way of enhancing EFL/ESL speaking (Akbar, 2014; Baker, 2007; Bell, 1998; Elley, 1991; Mart, 2012; Novita, 2016), the core components of which are accuracy and fluency (Abbaspour, 2016; Celce-Murcia, 2001). Both these components are key to successful and effective communication (Lan, 1994; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1995), and this thesis is an empirical study which investigates how ER activities can be used to develop speaking accuracies, with a specific focus on EFL learners.

Extensive reading activities involve students undertaking mostly self-directed reading tasks in the target language, and can complement in-class instruction by providing a different viewpoint on certain themes and ideas in written texts that can then be analysed by the students through note-taking, summarising and commenting on what they have read (Mason & Krashen, 1997b). It is focused on reading broadly and at high volume, giving students a wealth of material from which they can derive meaning and thereby develop skills in comprehension as well as grammatical accuracy and a larger vocabulary (Bamford & Day, 1997; Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Yang, 2001).

The focus of this thesis is derived from the researcher's own experiences working with EFL students at a university in Saudi Arabia, where he noticed that students were not developing adequate speaking accuracy in English. The researcher became interested in both understanding the nature of the issue, and determining how best it could be tackled by introducing ER activities into the classroom, which a number of education scholars have shown engage learners, encourage reading to become a

habit and resultantly help them to improve their language skills, competencies and accuracies (Bell, 1998; Day & Bamford, 2002; Mason & Krashen, 1997a, 1997b). This became the focus of this study, whereby ER as an intervention was implemented among two experimental groups and one control group, and involving both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses. This chapter sets out the background to the research, looking first at the reasons why studying the English language and developing speaking are important, before outlining the scope of the study, the core issues the research aims to address, the rationale of the study and its contribution to existing research, the theoretical basis for the study and the chapter summary and organisation of the thesis.

1.1 Definition of key concepts

This section will define the key concepts to be employed throughout the thesis, and will provide a justification for this conceptual focus. The use of grammar and vocabulary in speaking EFL is the main focus of this study. Importantly, the thesis focusses on these two components of *speaking accuracies* of EFL learners rather than *speaking competencies*, of which both accuracy and fluency are a part (Abbaspour, 2016; Mora & Valls-Ferrer, 2012; Wang, 2014). Speaking accuracy and speaking competencies often appear in the literature on EFL education and are often considered as interconnected elements of language learning, but they differ in aims and scope (Canale & Swain, 1980; Knight, 1992; Oldin, 1989). ***Speaking accuracies*** can be defined as the correct use of English in terms of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, and thereby relate to the error correction methods used by learners to correct inaccuracies as they speak (Gumbaridze, 2013). According to Yuan and Ellis (2003), accuracy in speaking indicates the extent to which the language produced conforms to language norms' (p. 2). It requires the production of both grammatically and lexically correct language, and relies on a learner's ability to use the mechanics of the target language to clearly articulate their meaning appropriate to the situation or context (Gumbaridze, 2013; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Lessons focused on accuracy tend to precede fluency because they are building the foundations of the language through awareness of elements such as vocabulary and grammar, which are fixed and can be studied and drilled until spoken production is accurate (Nation, 2003).

Speaking competencies entail a wider range of English-speaking skills which, along with accuracy and fluency, include confidence (Bhatti et al., 2019) and complexity (Housen et al., 2012; Mora & Valls-Ferrer, 2012; Vesal, et al., 2015). While arguably a higher level communicative function than accuracy (Fatt, 1991), *speaking competencies* are nonetheless dependent on speaking accuracies, whereby the correction of errors in vocabulary and grammar can lead to the development of a learner's speaking ability (Canale & Swain, 1980; Fatt, 1991; Gumbaridze, 2013). Hence, the two can be considered as interrelated concepts. However, it is important to note that in this research the focus is on ***speaking accuracies*** and, specifically, grammar and lexical resources. *Speaking accuracies* are herein considered to be elements of language production that can be tested, manipulated and practised, providing data for an analysis of learners' progress (Vesal et al., 2015). Other research that has focused on *speaking accuracies* has used diagnostic tests (Firman & Ul Haq, 2012), dialogue exercises (Rokni & Seifi, 2014) and pushed and non-pushed instruction (Beniss & Bazzaz, 2014) to show that this component of *speaking competencies* can be quantified for study.

The development of speaking accuracies can be understood in terms of their connection to ***speaking performance***, which captures the notions of complexity, accuracy and fluency, each of which influence a speaker's oral expression of a language (Skehan, 1998). As Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) explain, speaking performance can also be understood as a form of communicative behaviour that relies on utterances used by an interlocutor to share meaning with listeners. Skehan and Foster (2001) argue that speaking performance relies on the performance of certain decision-making tasks that ultimately leads to oral production, and that affect the accuracy of the spoken language. De Jong et al. (2012) extend this idea by suggesting that undertaking those tasks can produce either functional accuracy, despite linguistic errors, or fluent oral production that has less functionality. As such, speaking performance has some interesting implications for speaking accuracies, showing that "accuracy" can be understood differently depending on the context. In this thesis, the focus on speaking accuracies is related specifically to vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, suggesting that either of De Jong et al.'s (2012) conditions could apply. However, this thesis does not focus on performance but rather accuracy as one of the

three primary concepts identified above from Skehan's (1998) research, and is thereby not concerned with functionality.

The concept of *speaking skills* also shares similarities and differences to those of speaking competencies, accuracies and performance. As Boonkit (2010) explains, as one of the four macro language skills, speaking is a productive skill that is perhaps the most important in terms of effective communication. Involving collocation, pronunciation and vocabulary, speaking skills enhance fluency, and ultimately lead to both confidence and competence in using the language (Boonkit, 2010). As Goh (2007) explains, there are four types of skills that language learners must master to develop effective speaking: phonological, speech function, interaction management and extended discourse skills. Together, these lead to the effective organisation of spoken discourse, allowing for interactive, dialogic communication that is well structured, coherent and cohesive (Goh, 2007). As Dìnçer et al. (2012) explain, speaking is the most challenging and complex aspect of EFL learning due to 'the dynamic interrelation between speaker and hearer' (p. 98). Developing effective speaking skills can overcome these issues and lead to the facilitation of speaking competencies because they rely on an ongoing interaction between language development and error correction that fosters confidence in learners (Boonkit, 2010). This can be extended to the concept of speaking accuracies because at the core of these interactions is the actual language that is used by the speaker, which, when more accurate, leads to more effective communication (Derakhshan, et al., 2016). According to Boonkit (2010), speaking skills may be facilitated by using methods of teaching and syllabus design and implementing tasks and activities that allow for learners to perform and practice those skills. Such methods would therefore facilitate speaking accuracies by encouraging learners to improve their use and acquisition of vocabulary and grammatical accuracy (Mart, 2012; Novita, 2016), including the methods to be examined in this thesis.

Another concept central to this thesis is that of *language acquisition*, which Clark and Hecht (1983) define as a coordinated process involving production and comprehension, through which an individual acquires the capacity to understand language and use that language to communicate intentions. However, it is essential to note that there are limits to how much an individual can acquire of the language without engaging in formal learning processes (Ellis, 1999; Krashen, 1976). As

Krashen (1976) argues, there are important distinctions between language acquisition and *language learning* that can provide for a deeper understanding of the processes involved. He notes that the former requires the learner to progress through certain predictable stages using a number of meta-cognitive strategies, and usually only occurs without tuition during the critical period (i.e., during childhood) (Krashen, 1976). In comparison, language learning is the process through which adult learners acquire a second language (L2; Krashen, 1976). As such, language acquisition by learners after the critical period can be understood as occuring as the result of some level of formal instruction (Ellis, 1999; Krashen, 1976). However, as Ellis (1999) argues, such acquisition can still occur in conjunction with informal learning, such as through interaction with others (including native speakers), which facilitates language acquisition by providing the right conditions for interlanguage development. For this reason, as Ellis (1999) notes, learners who wish to truly acquire a language need to engage in learning approaches that embed the learning process in certain contexts, which will allow for incidental acquisition through the negotiation of meaning. For example, in formal lessons, learners may acquire the ability to structure and verbalise sentences after learning about vocabulary and grammar, but genuine acquisition will require contextual practice in the language (Ellis, 1999). These concepts could also be viewed differently from *language development*, which can be understood as a cognitive process involving taking information from the environment and transferring it in such a way as to produce and understand language in a progressive fashion (Hoff, 2006). As Hoff (2006) explains, the environment influences how language development occurs because the internal mechanisms that relate to language acquisition rely on features of that environment for support. Through an ongoing process through which the learner receives and comprehends linguistic information, language gains are made which ultimately constitute steps within a process of development (Hoff, 2006). Paralleling Ellis' (1999) argument about language acquisition, Bronfenbrenner and Morris (2008) argue that this environment is most beneficial when it provides opportunities for interaction with others. As such, the three interrelated concepts of language acquisition, language learning and language development all rely on communication with others.

Other central concepts related to speaking accuracies are those of *grammatical development* and *lexical knowledge*. The concept of *grammatical*

development is a central aspect of EFL learning as it is the foundation upon which language learning occurs, and can be used as a basis for temporal and linguistic elements of the spoken word to be developed (Khoshsima & Saed, 2016). *Lexical knowledge* is defined as a learner's systematic understanding of the meaning of words or sentences, and is an essential tool for language learning as it requires the learner to interpret specific meanings and information (Caro & Mendinueta, 2017). Together, grammatical development and lexical knowledge further pave the way of language acquisition and the development of speaking.

Oral practice is a common way to practise speaking skills. It provides a supportive environment for learners to practise newly learned concepts and develop their speaking proficiencies and competencies (Tarnopolsky, 2016). In contrast, **oral report** may require some reading or listening activities bofore practising speaking skills. It is an important concept to this study and can be an effective way of developing English language speaking accuracy because it requires the communicative use of language (Ferlazzo & Sypnieski, 2018). EFL instructors may encourage their students to engage in oral reporting (OR) to encourage creative writing and initiative talking, and motivating their involvement in interactive learning processes (Ferlazzo & Sypnieski, 2018). According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), speaking a second language and demonstrating oral proficiency primarily relates to fluency, which entails a learner's ability to create meaning, use paralinguistic factors and socio-linguistic elements to build sentences and constructions, and to develop accurate pronunciation in terms of intonation patterns and stress. Oral practice and OR can both improve communicative abilities by reducing learner anxiety and stress when speaking EFL.

A final conceptual distinction pertinent to this thesis is that between ***attitudes, perceptions,*** and ***opinions***, as they relate to EFL. According to Kroskrity (2016), *language attitudes* are a settled way of feeling and viewing language acquisition and may have a positive or negative valence. In contrast, *language perceptions* can be defined as the ability to hear, recognise, and understand English as a second language, whereas *language opinions* are defined as judgements or points of view with respect to EFL (Tarnopolsky, 2016). Importantly, language attitudes, perceptions and opinions determine how effectively learning occurs, such that positive attitudes, perceptions and opinions facilitate language proficiency and fluency (Miller & Johnson-Laird, 1976). Correspondingly, negative language perceptions, attitudes and opinions

can lead to lower language proficiency, mistakes with grammar and vocabulary, and decreased levels of learning motivation (Kroskrity, 2016).

In this thesis, both **perceptions** and **attitudes** are used, with survey items relating to both, and **speaking accuracies** refers to the correct use of English in terms of vocabulary, grammar in speaking.

1.2 Importance of English and its global spread

Worldwide, English is the primary language for more than 350 million people and the L2 for another 430 million people (Wil, 2015). In the context of globalisation, the need for people living in non-English-speaking countries to learn English is increasing. English language competencies provide opportunities for those people to participate in global business transactions, undertake education in English or in English-speaking countries, to communicate with others (including native speakers), and to engage in other activities requiring adequate English skills (Mastin, 2011; Wil, 2015). English has also become the primary language for communication over the internet and across social media, pointing to the need for the development of English competencies to better engage with online communities (Mastin, 2011; Wil, 2015). To emphasise the global nature of English, Mastin (2011) developed a geographical map of the types of English spoken in the form of a family tree, as depicted in Figure 1.1 (below). This shows the proliferation of English as a language used worldwide across a broad scope of cultures.
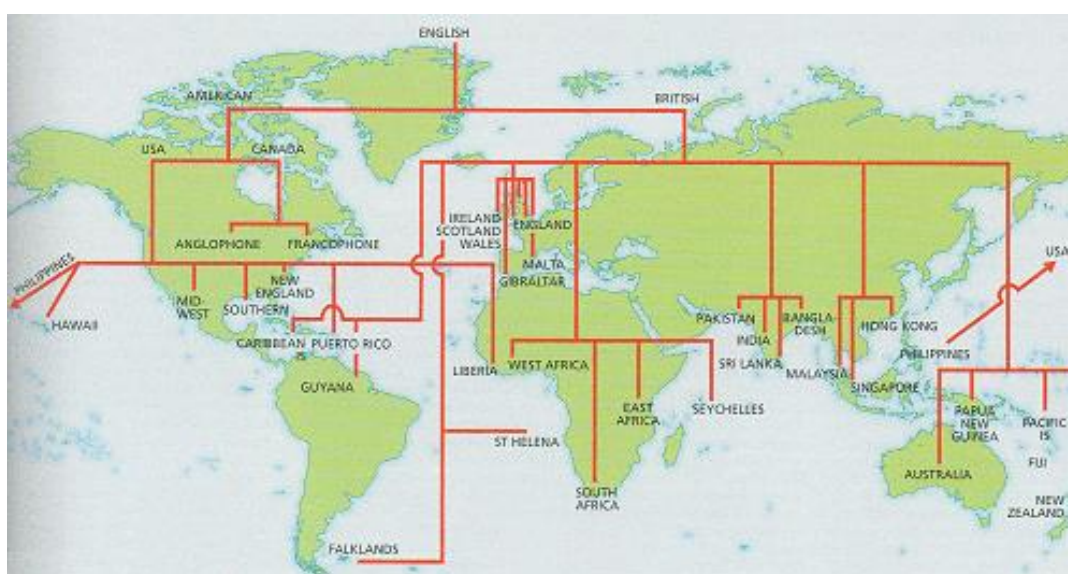
Figure 1.1: Family tree of English explaining the types of English used in different areas of the globe (Mastin, 2011, "Is English a Global Language?")

Kachru's (1992) Concentric Circle is a well-known model that conceptualises English usage across the world as occurring in three settings: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle comprises countries and territories where English is the native language, including the United Kingdom, its former colonies and Commonwealth countries including Australia, New Zealand and Canada, and the United States. Kachru (1992) terms the varieties of English stemming from the Inner Circle as 'norm-providing', meaning they have a certain level of global prestige that can be associated with their use of English as a primary language.

Kachru's (1992) Outer Circle comprises countries that previously had strong ties to the UK (e.g., through commercial trade) and consequentially use ESL. These countries include Singapore, Kenya, Nigeria and some parts of South Africa (Kachru, 1992). Differences exist between the use of English in the Outer and Inner Circles; for example, English inflections vary and are highly influenced by social and cultural factors (Leung, 2014). Kachru (1992) also described these countries as 'norm-developing' because they also have a profound impact on the global use of English. One example relates to the use of English in India, which spawned many words that are now common in the English language such as avatar, bungalow, jungle and punch (Kachru, 1992).

Lastly, the Expanding Circle comprises countries where English has become the preferred lingua franca only relatively recently, and most often in academic, political and business contexts. They include, those in the Middle East, and Francophone African and Asian countries. Kachru (1992) describes these countries as 'norm-dependent' because they traditionally use varieties of Inner Circle Englishes; i.e., English is not a *second* language but is rather a *foreign* language (EFL) (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Saudi Arabia can be classified as an Expanding Circle country, in which teaching and learning EFL is based on standardised grammatical rules and linguistic structures imported from elsewhere (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). However, as Mahboob and Elyas (2014) argue, the notion idea that Saudi Arabian English is norm-dependent is contentious, because the use of English in Saudi Arabia is influenced by social, religious and political values that are very much Saudi. As such, differences in cultural and regional norms and practices influence the use of English, creating locally-oriented versions based on discursive features (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). This should therefore be taken into account when studying the acquisition of English in the Saudi

context by understanding why the use of English is important, but also why Saudi EFL learners may currently be struggling to learn. The next section discusses how speaking is acquired and therefore provides the background to the study, before the study moves on to discuss problems associated with such acquisition, especially as they relate to the Saudi context.

1.3 Acquiring English language speaking

The development of English language speaking can be understood as core to one of the four basic skills central to English language learning, alongside reading, writing and listening, all of which are recognised by many scholars in linguistics and education as central to English language learning (e.g., Akram & Malik, 2010; Hinkel, 2006; Juan & Flor, 2006; Powers, 2010). To become competent in English, a language learner must acquire proficiency in all four language skills (Akram & Malik, 2010; Powers, 2010). Other scholars have argued that there is more to English language competencies than just the four skills, noting that factors like conversational abilities and comprehension should also be considered as core skills; nonetheless, these authors also argue that the four main language skills must be mastered to develop fluency and accuracy (e.g., Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Volle, 2005). Among studies of language acquisition and the four skills, there is substantial evidence that shows that speaking skills are core to developing language competencies (Powers, 2010; Shumin, 2002; Ur, 1981). Interestingly, up until 2005, the test of English as a foreign language (TOEFL) did not measure speaking in its assessments, even though they are currently viewed as some of the most crucial factors associated with English language acquisition (Powers, 2010). The later shift towards their inclusion points to the growing interest in speaking skills as precursors to higher level skills such as conversational abilities and comprehension and their role in developing complete communicative competence (Powers, 2010).

The four language skills are interrelated but independent, and their acquisition can be assessed individually, noting the specific factors that influence the acquisition of that skill (Akram & Malik, 2010; Powers, 2010). In this thesis, the focus is on speaking accuracies, and as such the acquisition of speaking skills is analysed both in isolation and as influenced by, or interconnected to, one or more of the other skills. The acquisition and development of speaking accuracies are investigated in terms of

how they are affected by ER activities in the specific EFL context of Saudi Arabia. Thus, connections between and influences of one skill (reading) on another (speaking) will be assessed.

A number of theorists argue that the successful acquisition of L2 speaking skills requires the learner to overcome different linguistic problems, including transfer errors and interference (Kambal, 1980; Khan, 2011a; Mukattash, 1983; Zughoul & Taminian, 1984). These problems can be understood in the specific context of developing countries that are typical of Kachru's (1992) notion of the Expanding Circle. The first problem relates to vocabulary and the inability to choose accurate words to express thoughts and ideas and communicate easily (Kambal, 1980; Khan, 2011; Mukattash, 1983; Zughoul & Taminian, 1984). The second problem relates to the insufficient understanding of grammar in terms of the correct use of words and formation of sentences (Kambal, 1980; Khan, 2011; Mukattash, 1983; Zughoul & Taminian, 1984). A third problem that impacts negatively on speaking accuracies relates to inaccurate pronunciation and accent, which impacts negatively on communication efficacy (Kambal, 1980; Khan, 2011a; Mukattash, 1983; Zughoul & Taminian, 1984). A fourth problem relates to interferences in speaking due to the speaker's use of their first language (L1; Kambal, 1980; Khan, 2011a; Mukattash, 1983; Zughoul & Taminian, 1984).

Knight (1992) argues that EFL teacher development should focus on developing students' range and consistency of grammar and vocabulary as central linguistic elements that can encourage speaking accuracies. Knight (1992) also suggests that linguistic accuracy in pronunciation is achieved when learners are able to produce individual sounds emphasising phonemic distinctions, stress, rhythm and intonation and the linking/elision/assimilation of words. Knight (1992) also stresses that fluency and conversational skills are also important linguistic elements that contribute to speaking accuracies. Knight (1992) explains that fluency includes the speed of talking, and appropriate use of hesitation before and while speaking. At a higher level, fluency involves the development of conversational skills that allow a speaker to develop a topic, show resourcefulness in voluntarily taking a conversational turn, and control the topic within the scope of a conversation, while also showing cohesion between one's own speech and that of other participant/s in the conversation (Knight, 1992). For Knight (1992), fluency also entails maintenance of the conversation

supplemented with clarification, repair, checking, pause fillers, and other conversational linguistic markers. Knight (1992) argues that conversational skills are therefore highly complex, arising from the self-confidence that develops alongside more basic skills of vocabulary and grammar.

Due to their primacy in second language acquisition (SLA) and speaking accuracies, much existing research has focussed on linguistic factors associated with vocabulary and grammar (e.g., Brown, 2007; Canale & Swain, 1980; Gilakjani, 2011; Oldin, 1989). Brown (2007) examined how learners recognise and work to correct errors in language learning, and refers to the phenomenon of 'negative transfer' between the EFL speaker's native and second language. In negative transfer, the grammatical rules and vocabulary of the native language are applied to the L2, resulting in errors in pronunciation, sentence structure and meaning (Brown, 2007). As such, negative transfer is a language difficulty preventing the speaker from becoming fluent unless errors are corrected (Brown, 2007). One example of when negative transfer can occur is when EFL learners read textbooks and lack grade-level-appropriate vocabulary to understand technical and abstract reading materials (Brown, 2007). Oldin (1989) argues that learners whose native language has a similar syntax to the L2 find it easier to use correct grammar than learners who do not. Odlin (1989) also suggests that similarities between the vocabularies of different languages help learners to learn more quickly and effectively. Odlin (1989) thereby shows how cross-linguistic similarities can play an important role in the development of speaking accuracies, especially when considering vocabulary and grammar. In work highly relevant to this thesis, Al-Hammad (2009) has shown that teachers at universities in Saudi Arabia neglect vocabulary in their teaching methods, which results in the limited opportunities for their students to develop accuracy. However, the study showed also that vocabulary acquisition significantly improved when ER was applied as an intervention, showing the potential of ER to be used as a successful classroom intervention (Al-Hammad, 2009). The study also found that ER activities helped students to become more interested in learning, and that as a result their attitudes towards learning English improved (Al-Hammad, 2009). Similarly, a study by Mason and Krashen (1997b) investigated the effectiveness of an ER intervention among Japanese EFL students and found students who wrote summaries of their reading experienced improvements in the acquisition of English.

Several other researchers who have highlighted the importance of vocabulary development to teaching and learning argue that speaking English accurately is connected to various linguistic strategies that learners can use to develop language skills (e.g., Beheydt, 1987; Meara, 2002; Folse 2004; August et al., 2005). For example, in one study Beheydt (1987) found that learning vocabulary is crucial to developing English language skills as a form of 'semantization', that being a linguistic strategy in which learners learn words and meanings in specific contexts, which contribute to speaking accuracies due to this contextual focus. Moreover, research by Goulden et al. (1990) and Nation (1994) shows how vocabulary is core to the teaching and learning of speaking skills, and improvements in language usage, including speaking. Research by Folse (2004) also showed that improvements in vocabulary align with improvements in accuracy and comprehensibility, including in speaking. Further, a study by August et al. (2005) demonstrated that students who experienced greater levels of vocabulary improvement were better able to comprehend textual content and verbalise the meaning in what they had read. As Meara (2002) argues, because vocabulary is central to language acquisition, it is an important area of study when researching language acquisition, including speaking accuracies, as will be shown in this thesis.

The importance of learning grammar to the development of speaking was further stressed by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), who argue that improvements in grammar is core to communicative competence being developed. This aligns with work by Canale and Swain (1980) that strongly connects teaching and learning activities focused on grammatical competence to communicative competence. At the same time, Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1995) research shows that grammatical competence also relies on vocabulary, such that both grammar and vocabulary are two essential components of communication competence and therefore speaking; this finding is supported in the work of a number of other researchers (e.g., Bachman & Palmer 1996; Evans & Green, 2007; Fulcher, 2014; Ockey et al., 2015). For example, with a focus on TOEFL, Ockey et al. (2015) found that both vocabulary and grammar significantly influenced speaking scores when speaking assessments were undertaken.

Even though much of the research on SLA has focussed on how to promote speaking by enhancing vocabulary and grammar, some work has also investigated

the role of pronunciation in EFL, such as that of Canale and Swain (1980), which shows that intelligible pronunciation to is core to the development of communicative competence and speaking. Canale and Swain (1980) argue that pronunciation is a key factor in speaking as learners can readily asses their communicative competence by assessing whether their speech is understood by others with whom they are in conversation. They can also easily learn pronunciation by listening to others, which can have positive outcomes for speaking accuracies (Canale & Swain, 1980). Another more recent study by Seyedabadi et al. (2015) demonstrated that if pronunciation is neglected, there are cascading effects on other aspects of language learning, whereby a lack of focus on one aspect of language can be detrimental to language learning as a whole. In Gilakjani's (2011) work the centrality of four elements of pronunciation – sound, stress, syllables and intonation – are shown to be central aspects learners require to develop speaking accuracies. Gilakjani (2011) argues that specific time should be set apart in EFL classes to teach pronunciation using appropriate methods for the specific needs of students.

It is clear that developing speaking is connected both to the acquisition of vocabulary and grammar as foundational skills, as well as to the more complex skills of pronunciation, fluency and conversation (Knight, 1992). As shown in the work of Canale and Swain (1980), Seyedabadi et al. (2015) and Gilakjani (2011), the latter are measurable outcomes; however, the evidence for their successful measurement in existing studies (especially on ER) is limited. For this reason, the research presented in this thesis will focus on an investigation of how ER promotes improvements in EFL by specifically focusing on vocabulary and grammar as the two primary, measurable factors that influence speaking. Any overlaps with the skills of pronunciation, fluency and conversation will not specifically be measured, although they will likely be reflected in the data. Further details of the methodology used to analyse improvements in vocabulary and grammar as they relate to speaking accuracies will be discussed in Chapter 3.

1.4 Scope of this study

This research studies the specific utility of ER activities in improving the speaking accuracies of male EFL students at a university in Saudi Arabia. The research uses a quasi-experimental approach to test whether either of two major

theories in SLA – Stephen Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Merrill Swain's (1985) output hypothesis for language acquisition – would be useful for devising strategies for improving the oral vocabulary and grammar skills of students. The study also examines the shortcomings of both theories, and suggests the use of an integrated approach that combines both input and output theories. The study evaluates the effect of structured ER on speaking accuracies, and the quasi-experimental approach involves the use of interventions, whereby three groups are studied in comparison and contrast to one another, those being a group in which ER was the intervention (EPCD1), a group where ER with OR (ER + OR) was the intervention (EPCD2), and a control group with no intervention (CG). The effects on speaking accuracies due to these interventions were evaluated using the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) nine-band speaking tests. The study also measures students' perceptions towards ER, and their perceptions of any improvement in their vocabulary and grammar skills and speaking accuracies as possible explanatory variables. In addition, qualitative interviews were used to discover the "why" of the observed phenomena and to support the findings from the quantitative analysis.

The study examined the English speaking accuracies of participants from a university in Saudi Arabia, who were studying English at Level 4 – considered by the university to be an intermediate EFL course. This level aligns with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) Level B1 – Intermediate English. Students had by this stage undertaken courses covering all four language skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking – and had completed beginner, elementary and pre-intermediate EFL courses at the university. The English department at the university in this study teaches students English for about four years and awards them a Bachelor of Arts in English (BA in English). In the first two years (Levels 1, 2, 3, 4) students study only the four language skills; in the last two years students also study linguistics, literature and translation. The study measured the interventional effects on male Saudi university students only (not female), and only their impact on speaking accuracies was noted. Impacts on the other three skills were excluded, as were factors such as culture and socioeconomic status because they were irrelevant to the study. Other universities were excluded from the study for the same reason.

There is a great need for the teaching of speaking accuracies in developing countries to be improved, but though teaching methods in developed countries may be studied by educators in developing countries like Saudi Arabia, there may be a misfit between the language and the learning context that means those teaching methods cannot be applied directly (Coleman, 2010; 2011). Part of the problem is that traditional teaching methods in developing countries are quite different in practice, meaning they are difficult to change to match other methods (Coleman, 2010; 2011). For instance, in Saudi Arabia it is common for English SLA to occur through the use of one-sided lectures where teachers talk and students listen; this has been identified by several authors as an inadequate teaching method (Al-Hazmi, 2003; Norton & Syed, 2003; Al-Seghayer, 2005). Lectures of this nature can encourage passivity in students as there is no chance for them to react or respond by way of asking for clarifications, expressing doubts and even asking questions (Al-Hazmi, 2003; Norton & Syed, 2003; Al-Seghayer, 2005). Such methods are common in traditional teaching practices in many developing countries, and are not very effective (Coleman, 2011). This points to the need to introduce modern methods of effective teaching and learning that are two-sided, founded on communication and dialogic interaction.

As this thesis will show, speaking activities are a method of extending one-way communication into two-way dialogue, and can be enhanced through the use of ER, as suggested in research by Mart (2012), because they rely on the development of a good vocabulary and grammar knowledge. ER can help students develop vocabulary and grammar within various contexts as they learn about different topics through reading. Similarly, OR, which is also used in this study as an intervention in close connection with ER activities, and which involves students speaking with one another about various topics, is an effective way of developing and enhancing speaking accuracies based on both grammar and vocabulary (O'Malley et al., 1985). Both methods can be implemented into in the current teaching enironments in Saudi Arabia, as this study will go on to demonstrate.

1.5 Problems in acquiring English as a foreign language

The use of English globally is increasing significantly. According to Coleman (2011, p. 1), 'governments increasingly recognise the importance of English to their economies and societies, and individuals see English as a tool that can help them to

fulfil their personal aspirations'. However, some English language teaching and learning programmes have failed to achieve their goals. Despite systematic efforts, many developing countries are far from achieving their goals of a significant percentage of the population with basic competencies in English. In Coleman's (2011) extensive edited collection, studies of English SLA in developing countries identified some factors responsible for this poor state of English, those being:

1. Variability in or limited views on the importance of learning English.
2. Resistence to policymaking regarding the national government's implementation of new English SLA schemes in educational institutions.
3. Problems substituting the first language with a second language as the educational medium.
4. Societal inequalities with respect to individuals' and communities' access to English.
5. Uncertainties regarding the manner in which the English language can facilitate development.
6. Methods used for imparting language skills are often inappropriate and ineffective.

In the context of this study, some of these issues are reflected in research that focuses on Saudi Arabia. For example, a study by Al-Nofaie (2010) shows that teachers prefer to use Arabic in English classes to explain language aspects rather than English itself, and that this limits SLA. A similar study by Alshammari (2011) also showed this preference, while research by Tanveer (2007) indicated that limited knowledge of pronunication, vocabulary and grammar among Saudi EFL learners could be due to the use of 'local' Englishes, which are not accurate in terms of proper language skills. Despite these issues, the fact that Saudi government policies encourage the younger generation to learn English, irrespective of socio-economic status, shows strong potential for the improvement in English SLA in the country (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018).

1.6 English education in Saudi Arabia

English has been taught as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia since the late 1920s (Alshahrani, 2016). In the country's K–12 education system, English is introduced in Grade 4 in state schools, and from kindergarten in most private schools,

and is taught up to the last year of secondary school for four hours per week (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). It is an integral part of learning at the secondary stage and allows students to learn specialised subjects such as science, which uses English terminology and therefore requires good knowledge of English (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). In religious secondary schools, where students mainly study the Islamic religion and its applications in daily life, English is taught for the same reason (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). English is also very important for students at technical secondary schools who wish to specialise in engineering, business and agricultural industries (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018).

In Saudi Arabia, the English language curriculum for elementary, intermediate and secondary school classes is aimed at using the language in meaningful contexts and building learners' abilities to communicate freely, accurately, fluently and confidently (Ministry of Education – Saudi Arabia 2014; Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). The objectives of learning English are explained as being important as a tool to promote mutual understanding among nations, for advocating for and participating in spreading Islam, to improve the skills of the learners for academic and professional acheivements, to make learners aware of the international significance of English, and to develop positive attitudes towards learning English (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). Methods to achieve curriculum goals are specified as relating to learning meaning rather than form, and to develop language competencies within real world contexts (Ministry of Education – Saudi Arabia, 2014; Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). The curriculum is founded on learner-centred approaches, learning materials designed to motivate and entertain while meeting the needs and interests of learners, and the provision many types of learning materials – an altogether eclectic approach that uses different methods simultaneously (Ministry of Education – Saudi Arabia, 2014; Saudi Arabian Education, 2018).

The principles of assessments of English in Saudi Arabia relate to the four language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, how far educational goals have been achieved and which learning skills will be effective for learners considering their strengths and weaknesses (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia utilise a range of learning materials including quizzes, tests and examinations, classroom participation activities, project work, home assignments and assessment portfolios (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). The curricular objectives of

elementary, intermediate and secondary grades are viewed in terms of global scale, ranges for general linguistic ability, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy, phonological control, orthographic control, and socio-linguistic appropriateness (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). In the case of speaking competencies and accuracies, range, fluency, coherence and interaction are specifically included as primary objectives (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018).

At Saudi universities, English is used as the medium of instruction in science, medicine, engineering, technology and management courses; thus, students need to be able to understand published sources of knowledge, which are mainly written in English (Saudi Arabian Education, 2018). Additionally, they need to be able to express themselves clearly and write assignments in English accurately. For this reason, students enrolling in professional, technical or scientific subjects at a Saudi university are required to pass the prescribed English language courses offered by the university, which are either pre-requisites or learned alongside regular programmes in the first one or two terms. Often, the competencies and accuracies they need to express themselves are not taught in their school curriculum to the required extent due to reasons such as the absence of necessary facilities and a lack of qualified English teachers (Al-Hazmi, 2003). Therefore, special programmes exist in Saudi universities to enhance the English language competencies and accuracies of the students to the required level. Most of the English departments in Saudi universities teach the four primary language skills intensively during the first two years of a bachelor degree programme that usually lasts for four years. English literature, linguistics and translation courses are often taught in the last two years of the bachelor degree programme. Despite the existence of such programmes, the performance of students in terms of acquisition of the required English language skills is often poor (Al-Nasser, 2015; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015; Nazim and Hazarika, 2014). The next section will discuss some of the problems Saudi students face in acquiring English language skills, with a specific focus on speaking accuracies.

1.7 Problems in acquiring English language speaking

Studies have highlighted the types of problems students face when learning to speak English in Arab countries, and Saudi Arabia specifically, most of which relate to the learners' willingness to speak (Alqahtani, 2015; Hamouda, 2012). A number of

factors influence this willingness, and include both affective factors – including anxiety, low self-esteem, engagement levels and losing face – as well as linguistic factors, such as lack of fluency and accuracy and issues with pronunciation, which are all connected to the actual conditions of the learning environment and its favourability (Alqahtani, 2015; Hamouda, 2012). A study by Hamouda (2012) showed that when speaking in the presence of listeners, Saudi students' anxiety and low self-esteem were exacerbated due to poor assessment methods, insufficient preparation and a low threshold for errors in classroom pedagogy. There is evidence that similar issues can be found in classrooms in other Arab countries, as shown in a study by Jdetawy (2011), which found that a lack of quality in input language in teaching and poor curricula led to a lack of motivation among Arab students, meaning they developed poor speaking. In another study, Fareh (2010) showed that low student engagement was connected to a lack of assessment standards for speaking and listening competencies and an absence of student-centred pedagogical strategies, leading to poor outcome delivery of EFL in Arab states.

As a barrier to the teaching and learning of English, speaking anxiety weakens the oral performance of EFL English speakers (Alqahtani, 2015; Ansari, 2015; Fareh, 2010; Hamouda, 2012; Jdetawy, 2011; Tanveer, 2007). Although lack of motivation or low performance can increase speaking anxiety, it may also arise from fear of negative evaluation from their peers and perception of low ability (Ansari, 2015; Tanveer, 2007). Based on a set of qualitative studies, Ansari (2015) and Tanveer (2007) suggested some steps teachers might take to reduce speaking anxiety, including free classroom interactions like OR, which reduce speaking anxiety by increasing self-confidence. This possibility was explored in this research, where OR was used as an intervention. Another interesting study by Liu and Jackson (2009) shows the connections between willingness to speak and language proficiency. The study showed that willingness to speak in English in class and with peers increased with increased proficiency, but that irrespective of proficiency level, students communicated less freely with teachers than with peers (Liu & Jackson, 2009). This also has connections to OR as an intervention, which involves students talking to one another and developing speaking accuracies.

Linguistic issues around the lack of fluency and accuracy in EFL speaking by Saudi university students have been identified by researchers such as Aljumah (2011) and Almashy (2013) as connected to students' reluctance to speak in class. They have

linked this reluctance to a lack of confidence and a fear of losing face, from which recovery may be difficult (Aljumah, 2011; Almashy, 2013). Almashy's (2013) study reported that the majority of the speaking difficulties encountered by Saudi students are related to poor mastery of grammar, inadequate vocabulary and a lack of engagement in activities or tasks that required critical and analytical thinking skills. These speaking difficulties are common to EFL learners in many non-Western countries, and the reasons behind them have been examined by a number of scholars, including Reda (2009), who looked at quietness among students, and Liu and Jackson (2009), who studied the retience of students to speak in class. While this study does not specifically focus on motivation, it does take self-confidence into account; as such, reluctance of this nature is of interest.

Noting that pronunciation has been afforded secondary importance in EFL, Hameed and Aslam (2015) used multiple methods to investigate pronunciation problems among students at two Saudi universities. Phonetic contradictions between English and Arabic words stood in the way of correct pronunciation, and were based in part on cultural differences between English and Arabic (Hameed & Aslam, 2015). Based on their findings, some recommendations were given by Hameed and Aslam (2015) to teach pronunciation effectively, such as remedial steps like oral practice with native English speakers. Oral reporting, instead of oral practice with native English speakers, was tested in this research, which has some overlaps in terms of performance.

In her self-reflective book, Reda (2009) analysed what she terms 'silent classes', which do not engage students, as a way to envision how students who were anxious, with low self-esteem and self-confidence became engaged in learning. Reda (2009) argues that given a 'favourable environment' – one which encourages interaction and collaboration – these silent students become effective speakers, willing to learn and share knowledge, discuss their doubts and ask questions of the teacher and classmates. The favourable environment leads to engagement and motivates the students to speak (Reda, 2009). Extensive reading and OR, used in the study, could provide such favourable environment as they expand the context in which students learn and provide possibilities for interaction and discussion.

Lastly, in the specific Saudi context, research by Aljumah (2011) showed that Saudi university students felt speaking or taking part in class discussions with the

teacher publicly and openly was confronting because they feared being seen as challenging the teacher. Aljumah (2011) tested an approach integrating all four communication skills and found that improved class participation based on encouraging communication and dialogue between students, rather than with the teacher, led to an improvement in speaking, suggesting that speaking with peers was less confronting, and connected this further to OR, which is of interest to this study. The next section will expand upon these ideas.

1.8 Improving English language speaking

There are different ways in which speaking may be improved. Some of these have been studied as interventions set up by researchers, similar to the way in which interventions were set up in this study for ER and OR, and will be outlined in this section.

1.8.1 Interventions

A number of authors have used interventions in their work to examine language learning skills. Among the existing research in this area, a study on cooperative learning achivement was undertaken by Khan et al. (2017). They used participants of a preparatory year programme, where an intervention with cooperative learning improved the academic achievement of students, which was mostly caused by low and medium achievers rising to the higher level, and high-level achievers performing well both with and without a cooperative learning intervention. Another study by Jassem (1997) used assignment-oriented seminars to engage Malaysian students in academic discussions. Furthermore, a study by Aljumah in 2011 attempted to replicate the research by Jassem (1997) among Saudi students. One of Aljumah's (2011) primary findings was that a lack of engagement – defined as the inability or unwillingness to connect with the material and a lack of interest. Where students understood the topic background, they enjoyed it more and became more familiar with it; this meant they were more likely to speak in class due to their increased confidence, and thus their speaking improved. These intervention-based studies therefore have significant relevance to the study of speaking accuracies, language acqusition and attitude, and show the usefulness of interventions in studying EFL.

Interventions have also been used to examine the responses of students to different kinds of learning materials. In an intervention-based study conducted in the

Saudi context, Abu-Ghararah (2014) reported that many students exhibited disconnect from, disinterest in, or dissatisfaction with their usual curriculum-based teaching materials, and considered the use of these materials in contrast to authentic learning materials. Abu-Ghararah (2014) found that speaking activities were not interesting for many of the students, and that role play and pair work were not widely practised. Group discussions among students were almost absent (Abu-Ghararah, 2014). Based on the student responses on the recorded texts, reading a written text aloud (such as the recitation of the Holy Quran in English) was considered as speaking, while strictly it is not (Abu-Ghararah, 2014). The influence of Islamic culture is evident here. In this case, there were no authentic teaching materials provided students could learn English from in context, or any possibilities for students to practice speaking in a natural way – either through a solo presentation (such as OR) or dialogic conversation with other students and/or the teacher in English (Abu-Ghararah, 2014). Further, as Abu-Ghararah (2014) explains, the materials taught only grammar and pronunciation, and not speaking fluency, of which vocabulary is a central part. The author found that these teaching materials were not interesting or enjoyable for the students, and did not capture their attention and keep them engaged. Further, Abu-Ghararah (2014) identified that students were highly negative of their learning experiences, and that the constant corrections of their mistakes by teachers demotivated them to speak in class. The fact that there was no adequate assessment of their speaking competencies or accuracies also meant they lacked confidence in how well they were doing (Abu-Ghararah, 2014). Abu-Ghararah's (2014) study also showed that classes that use direct translations from English to Arabic do not convey the exact meaning of the first language, and that differences among synonymous words of the target language are not adequately defined. These findings show the problems relating to current teaching methods used for acquistion of speaking by EFL learners in Saudi Arabia, as well as the limitations of current language learning pedagogy.

To follow Abu-Ghararah's (2014) important research, it is evidently important that students are encouraged to learn the language through enjoyable free interactions in class that are not possible using textbook-based activities alone. From this study, we can assume that the best way to make learning interesting for students is through the provision and use of authentic materials, including the use of ER activities that allow students to engage with texts, which can also encourage students to

communicate between themselves about the topics read. This study is therefore highly relevant to this thesis, which looks at the role of ER activities – as authentic texts – on speaking accuracies in Saudi Arabia in connection with OR, which in this case relates to learners presenting what they have learned from these interesting and authentic materials. It also shows (along with the previously mentioned studies) how useful interventions can be for assessing EFL learning. The next section will specifically consider ER both in terms of its usefulness to developing speaking accuracies, and as an intervention.

1.8.2 Extensive reading (ER)

The practice of reading in English is considered as crucial to the development of the other three language skills (Bamford & Day, 1998; Bearne, 1988; Grabe & Stoller, 1997), and studies have shown that a variety of reading activities positively impact on the acquisiton of vocabulary (Brown et al., 2008; Day et al., 1998; de la Garza & Harris, 2016; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006) and grammatical accuracy (Day et al., 1998; Lee et al., 1996; Rodrigo, 2006). ER in particular is viewed as a highly effective way for EFL learners to develop those skills (Bell, 1998; Day & Bamford, 2002; Mason & Krashen, 1997b; Renandya, 2007; Renandya et al., 1999). The specific benefits of ER are identifiable in the work of a number of scholars in the field of SLA. According to Bell (2001) and Maxim (1999), ER benefits comprehension and reading speed, while Taguchi et al. (2004) and Iwahori (2006) found it improved reading fluency. Studies by Grabe and Stoller (1997) and Horst (2005) demonstrated that ER influences vocabulary, while Yang (2001) shows that it aids grammatical proficiency and has motivational benefits. Research by Jang et al. (2015), Peacock (1997) and Takase (2007) also showed distinct connections between the use of ER activities and learner motivation. Mason and Krashen (1997b) observed a resultant general increase in L2 proficiency through the use of ER, while other studies show further benefits, such as for overall academic literacy (Ariyanto, 2009) or general linguistic improvements developed through an increased interest in reading (Arnold, 1999; Guo, 2012). In an article specifically focused on developing speaking accuracies through ER via the development of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, Mart (2012, p. 91) commented that:

> reading outside the classroom is the most significant influence on oral communication ability. Students who read a lot are more likely to speak well.

Students through reading develop in both fluency and accuracy of expression in their speaking.

Mart's (2012) study was a brief review, which took into account the findings of a number of other studies (e.g., Lazaraton, 2001; Ur, 1996), all of which supported his conclusion. This study has been used to provide the initial justification for testing the impact of reading on improving speaking accuracies in this thesis, and shows that in general, ER activities should be designed to remove the barriers to fluency in speaking using special efforts to augment reading with correct comprehension, as well as the enrichment of vocabulary and grammar (Mart, 2012).

Other studies have shown that while ER activities may not necessarily be systematic in terms of their implementation in a classroom setting, they may develop as an activity of interest to studies when reading becomes a habit; i.e., occuring out of class in a self-directed manner (Robb & Kano, 2013). Other research has indicated that there are targets to be met within the limited time of the duration of a course using ER such as expectations by the end of the first term of a course for learners to have achieved a certain number of vocabulary words. As some research suggests, reading materials can be provided that are carefully designed to help students to achieve these targets, especially when authentic materials are included in ER activities (Guo, 2012; Maxim, 1999; Peacock, 1997). We can extrapolate from these studies that the more one reads, the better their vocabulary and the higher the grammatical competence gained, all of which contribute to speaking accuracies. Therefore, ER could be used to develop specific SLA activities for improving EFL speaking for the Saudi university students in this study. Further discussion of ER, its potentials and its application to this research will be discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2.

It is interesting to analyse the connectons between ER, the development of language skills and enjoyment, which appears to be a driving force in enhancing students' learning. Day and Bamford (2002) show that students who gain enjoyment from an activity will learn from it; in contrast, if learning or any component of learning is not enjoyable, the students may not do well. The practice of ER, in particular, is founded on the principle that the reading itself should be enjoyable to the student (Day & Bamford, 2002). Further, reading for pleasure has been shown to improve the attitudes of EFL learners towards reading (Ro & Cheng-ling, 2014), and those positive attitudes in turn influence the learner's likely uptake of further reading activities (Ro,

2016; Stokmans, 1999). Considering that Saudi students typically lack fluency and accuracy in English, and given that the competencies and accuracies of these students tend to improve significantly when they are engaged with the teaching materials (Abu-Ghararah, 2014), ER could offer the potential to improve Saudi students' speaking and accuracies in the EFL classroom. Thus, this study seeks to investigate to what extent this is a true empirical possibility.

Extensive reading means reading a wide range of books as a routine habit (Day & Bamford, 2002). As Day and Bamford (2002) explain, in the early twenty-first century, self-directed reading habits were dwindling among students due to the advancement of internet communication technologies, and cultivating a regular reading habit as part of a daily routine has become less common among students. Encouraging it can help with EFL learning significantly (Abu-Ghararah, 2014; Day & Bamford, 2002). The use of ER encourages students to read whichever sources they come across in the target language, upon any subject that may interest them (Abu-Ghararah, 2014; Day & Bamford, 2002). This can be termed unstructured ER, as it is not specifically designed or implemented by a teacher or institution. Although this method helps to acquire vocabulary and grammar, confidence in speaking with the correct use of words and grammatical structure according to the topic of context might not always be improved by this method (Day & Bamford, 2002). Further, the quality of vocabulary and grammar may not be good enough to enhance fluency to any significant manner (Day & Bamford, 2002). Structured ER can be considered as a more effective alternative. Since ER is intended to augment classroom activities, it should be structured to complement or be complemented by classroom activities. According to Day and Bamford (2002), a prescribed reading volume with specific targets consisting of a number of reading materials to be read within a specified time should be developed, and the subjects should be interesting to the students. A variety of subjects and topics can be used, and the books should be easy to read and structured to increase vocabulary and grammar in a graded fashion, step by step, as the student moves from one stage to the next (Day & Bamford, 2002). Day and Bamford (2002) also argue that there should be a measuring and monitoring system in place whereby the student can review the progress they have attained themselves. If necessary, the learner can then take corrective steps with the help of teachers or peers to fill in any gaps (Day & Bamford, 2002). These activities are done as out of the

classroom or at-home activities, but need to be connected with classroom speaking activities in order to monitor the effectiveness of the structured ER (Day & Bamford, 2002). The classroom activities may include a seminar presentation by the student on what was read, followed by freehand question-answer or discussion sessions in the classroom in the week following each reading assignment (Day & Bamford, 2002). These are the aspects examined in detail in this research. The ER guide presented at Appendix F, has been consulted for the application of ER and ER + OR interventions in this research. ER will be discussed in more depth in Chapter 2, where an explanation will also be provided as to why the methodology of this thesis is based on both ER and OR as a two-fold intervention in one of the experimental groups.

1.9 Rationale of the study and contribution to existing research

In Saudi Arabia, English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) with teaching conducted in the native tongue rather than the target language (Abu-Ghararah, 2014). Thus, instead of engaging the class by having students learn and interpret and speak English, teachers tend to allow the students to speak in their native language (Abu-Ghararah, 2014). According to Abu-Ghararah (2014), this means that the opportunity to interact in English (which would have improved speaking and accuracies) is limited. This is all the result of cultural dimensions; as Abu-Ghararah (2014) explains, English teachers and students are all Saudi Arabian, and therefore belong to the same, fairly homogenous culture. Further, the collectivist culture of Saudi Arabia means students are often mute spectators of classroom lectures, not permitted to contribute their own opinions. This is because there is a power distance between teacher and student, and uncertainty avoidance ('loss of face') means students do not feel comfortable asking questions and freely interacting in class (Abu-Ghararah, 2014). As Abu-Ghararah (2014) explains, unless the teacher takes the initiative to implement speaking exercises and encourage students to contribute, students cannot properly engage with speaking activities, which means their speaking accuracies remain low. Studies outside Saudi Arabia have also noted that speaking proficiency tends to be low in such environments. For example, Khamkhien's (2010) study of Thai EFL learners who lacked the opportunity to interact with others in the classroom in English showed that these students often failed to develop fluency in the target language. Khamkien (2010) concluded that lack of motivation and enjoyment contributed significantly to poor English proficiency. Another study conducted Tsou (2005) in Taiwan similarly showed

that speaking was negatively affected by classroom environments where interactive engagement was not encouraged. Research by Lee (2009), based in Korea, also showed that the classroom environment significantly affected learner participation, and that cultural issues led to learners developing anxiety around speaking with others in class. Further, research by Widiati and Cahyono (2006) found that Indonesian classrooms needed to shift towards more interactive speaking activities to overcome learners' reticence to participate in speaking activities. These studies were confined to identifying problems with engagement and analysing their cause rather than on providing effective solutions by finding appropriate methods to develop speaking proficiency.

The research in this thesis aims to address issues around speaking accuracies by providing students with ER materials to improve their engagement with English and foster a personal investment in developing English speaking accuracies. It does so in recognition of the fact that materials that are uninteresting to learners may stand in the way of engagement and enjoyment, and that students are unlikely to reap the full benefits of learning materials due to the pedagogical issues associated with the teaching culture in Saudi Arabia. Adequate materials that act as a form of language input are important for the development of speaking in an EFL classroom, yet the matter of adequacy is often neglected, as shown in a study by Wang and Sachs (2011). Working in China, these authors identified ER as a means of correcting deficiencies in speaking caused by similar cultural factors as in Saudi Arabia. Other scholars have also identified ER as critical to the improvement of target language proficiency and literary development in cases where there can be cultural issues that affect the development and implementation of learning materials and activities (Dupuy, 1997; Sachs & Mahon, 2006). Nonetheless, ER still only rarely makes its way into a curriculum. While the study by Wang and Sachs (2011) found conclusively that ER provided an excellent input-rich environment and increased students' reading proficiency, the study did not consider the influence of ER on speaking. In fact, no studies seem to have yet empirically investigated this particular subject, which is of note for this study and will be discussed later in this section.

Yamashita (2008) found that the benefits of ER can be difficult to observe in the short term, and that different competencies and accuracies may develop at different rates depending on how ER is undertaken. Yamashita (2008) cautions that it is

important to investigate individual L2 competencies and accuracies to determine any correlation with ER or what specific competency ER can enhance. Thus, the individual needs of students must be examined when considering the ways reading acquired due to ER come about, and further what the relationship between reading (not just ER) and speaking may be. One study that did so by Akbar (2014) investigated the relationship between reading and speaking in the context of EFL learning, and concluded that reading helps foreign language learners to improve their speaking. Akbar's (2014) study was a theoretical representation of the phenomena, and did not provide extensive empirical evidence to support the claims, though the study is reflective of others in the area. Baker (2008) studied the relationship between oral fluency and ER activities and noted that students displayed positive attitudes towards book discussions and ER activities. He stated that 'empirical research, as well as, qualitative evidence, affirms the positive effects of ER to develop oral fluency, and by extension, communicative competence' (Baker, 2008, p. 1). However, Baker's (2008) research was limited to oral fluency only and ignored other aspects of speaking competencies such as the accurate and appropriate use of vocabulary items and grammatical structures, which are of interest in ths research. Furthermore, Baker's (2008) study did not consider the impact of students' attitudes on ER activities. Despite the solid theoretical foundation, this study lacked statistical data, research instruments, valid tests and detailed scientific explanations for the use of ER to enhance speaking competencies, showing its limitations and the scope for further research. An earlier study by Baker (2007) did in fact provide empirical evidence on the effects of ER activities on the speaking of students; however, the evidence was classroom-based, non-experimental, and non-validated, again showing the potential for further research with a more scientific, experimental scope.

Another study that considered the relationship between ER and EFL skills considered the experiences of ESL adults in the USA (Cho and Krashen, 1994). While the sample size used by Cho and Krashen (1994) was just four adult students in an environment vastly different from the Saudi EFL environment, it still has some relevance to this research. The adult students in their study were fans of the Sweet Valley Kids series and were provided with reading material based on the books they had already engaged with. ER proved to be highly beneficial in enhancing their vocabulary and literacy in ESL. Although the participants were Korean and Spanish

and were only asked to do free-reading for a certain time every day, there are elements of the study that are relevant to studies of the use of structured ER in Saudi classrooms because both are interested in student engagement. It appears that the benefits of ER may be ideally suited to address the shortcomings observed in Saudi classrooms. Thus, student engagement becomes a major determining factor of the relationship of ER with speaking.

The above discussion shows that attempts have been made to study the relationship between ER and speaking, and have shown interesting and generally positive outcomes (Akbar, 2014; Baker, 2007, 2008). However, it is also evident that these studies were on the whole somewhat limited in terms of their conceptualisation of good practice for improvements in speaking; for example, Baker's (2007, 2008) work did not consider perceptions, which are a crurial facet of developing competencies and accuracies. Further, Yamashita's (2008) research shows the necessity of undertaking further investigations into the influence of ER on language acquisition, which would provide a stronger foundation for understanding how those activities might be successfully implemented in the EFL classroom. This need is supported by research into ER and its effectiveness by Poorsoti and Asi (2016), which found little to no change in grammatical accuracy, and by Johansson (2014), which found no evidence of improved grammatical performance, measured using a number of accuracy tests. As such, the development of a statistically valid research design that employs a quantitative data collection method would expand the scope of research into this area. As noted earlier, there have been no statistically validated experimental studies that directly link the outcomes of ER activities specifically to speaking accuracies in EFL contexts, thereby constituting a significant gap. The intention of this research is to fill this gap by analysing the outcomes of ER on speaking accuracies – using a quasi-experimental design including both quantitative and qualitative research methods – which will be used to develop an empirical model to understand how ER activities might have positive outcomes for EFL speaking accuracies, with a specific focus on vocabulary and grammar. This model intends to highlight the teaching methods that could be applied in EFL learning contexts to assess the influence and value of ER in SLA.

This research considered a wide range of scientific work directly and indirectly related to the subject area and the gap identified above, which will be discussed in

greater detail in the following chapter. Scope for the application of theoretical models published by various authors are examined, and a central focus on two of the most significant theories in the area is taken. These were found to be the most suitable to apply to the research in this thesis. As previously mentioned, the two theories used were Krashen's input hypothesis (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. As will be shown in Chapter 2, neither theory appeared adequate to explain the phenomena observed in this research on its own; thus, an integrated model with positive elements of both theories was considered more appropriate for application to this research. Overall, working from the information presented in the literature, this project sought to fill gaps in current research as regards to ER and its connection to input (Krashen, 1981, 1982) and output (Swain, 1985) in the Saudi classroom, the basic definitions of which will be provided in the next section, and then further in Chapter 2 with respect to the concept and practice of language production.

1.10 Theoretical basis

The frameworks provided by Krashen's input hypothesis (1981, 1982) and Swain's output hypothesis (1985) form the theoretical basis for this study. According to Krashen's input hypothesis (1981, 1982), the ability of L2 learners to understand target language input is dependent on three elements: the learning context, the learner's background knowledge; and the additional linguistic information around the input. Krashen (1981) imagined three conceptual bases that may lend support to task-based language teaching. Firstly, for learning to occur, learners first must be exposed to meaningful materials during the early stages of language acquisition (Krashen, 1981). Secondly, learners must be allowed to go beyond their current proficiency levels to learn new features of a language, a sentiment echoed by Brown (1998, p. 3), who argued that educators should 'grade the task, not the language'. Thirdly, it is important to create a more relaxed learning environment as this motivates students and promotes learning (Krashen, 1981). To return to Abu-Ghararah's (2014) research, it is evident that Saudi students generally find the source materials provided uninteresting and unstimulating, suggesting that applying Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis might positively affect learning outcomes in Saudi classrooms. This will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter, which will show how students can acquire a language through what Krashen (1981) terms 'comprehensible input' (CI), and the processing of this input. The literature review will show that ER can serve

as an excellent means of providing students with vast amounts of CI in a relaxed environment.

While Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis emphasises the importance of inputs such as meaningful teaching materials to language learning outcomes, Swain's (1985) output hypothesis suggests that input alone is insufficient for language acquisition to occur, and that other factors must be taken into account to improve language learning outcomes. Essentially, Swain (1985) argues that learners need to produce a lot of language *outputs* in order to effectively acquire that language. Swain's (1985) concern is that learners may produce limited comprehensible output (CO) leading to a lack of productive competence if the input materials are not sufficient to facilitate effective engagement. In an extensive series of studies, Swain (1985, 1995, 1997, 2000, 2001, 2013) investigated language learning among students in a French immersion programme and observed that the output of these learners was limited in two ways. Firstly, the students had little opportunity to use the language in the classroom productively, and secondly, they were not 'pushed' to produce more and better output. Swain (1985, 1995) thereby argues that L2 learners must make a significant effort to stretch their inter-language resources and go beyond their present language development level. Of particular interest for this study is Swain's (1985) original and enduring contention that in order to effectively learn how to speak, learners need to be able to produce substantial output in the form of actual speaking practice. Swain (1985) also proposed that factors other than input affect language performance. In her hypothesis she suggests that when learners are forced to speak, they pay greater attention to linguistic elements (e.g., syntax and vocabulary) than they do when merely listening, i.e., only being exposed to input (Swain 1985).

Despite their divergences, Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis can complement one another when used together to form a holistic understanding of how English is acquired by L2 and EFL learners. Correspondingly, the present study will incorporate Krashen's (1982) and Swain's (1985) hypotheses by introducing activities that are both input *and* output-based in interventions, those being ER (input) and OR (output). After being provided with the ER input, the oral reports will be used to 'push' students to speak, thereby producing outputs in the form of spoken language (Beniss, 2014). In this way, Krashen's (1982) and Swain's (1985) work will provide a theoretical and practical framework upon which

an analysis of the specific factors that impact speaking accuracies can be undertaken. This analysis will provide conclusions as to how both inputs and outputs relate to speaking accuracies, expanding upon research that primarily links outputs to the acquisition of grammatical rules (Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Shehadeh, 2002), and, to a greater extent, vocabulary (De La Fuente. 2002; Ellis & He, 1999; Izumi et al., 1999; Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006; VanPatten, 2003). It will support research that notes the equivalent importance of inputs and outputs in developing speaking accuracies (Zhang, 2009). It will also provide a deeper investigation of different output tasks and their impact on speaking accuracies, extending existing research in this area (Barcroft 2006; Holster & de Lint 2012; Nassaji & Tian 2010) and drawing comparisons with input tasks. This is still an under-researched area, and it is still unclear as to the types of input and output tasks that promote speaking accuracies and which do not. In accordance with the focus of this study, observations of output tasks in the form of oral reports will concentrate entirely upon accuracy in speaking skills, particularly regarding vocabulary and grammar. More elaborate discussions of the two hypotheses and certain other associated models are set out in Chapter 2 in the literature review.

1.11 Chapter summary

This introductory chapter provided the background to this research, and shows that students in Saudi Arabia need to acquire stronger speaking in the English language. This is the result of various issues within language learning pedagogy that are primarily the outcome of cultural factors. Structured ER was offered as a means to enhance speaking accuracies, if opportunities exist for practising speaking about what was read *outside* the classroom *in* the classroom. This research is aimed at examining the relationship between structured ER with or without speaking practice on the enhancement of speaking competencies. The scope for explaining the results obtained in this research were explained with reference to Krashen's input hypothesis, Swain's output hypothesis, or a framework integrating both of these theories.

1.12 Organisation of this thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. This introductory chapter described the research background, scope and rationale for this study. Chapter 2 presents a critical review of research related to this study. The purpose of this literature review is to

identify the research gaps within the broad themes of the study. As resources and time limit the number of gaps that can be addressed in the research, two specific gaps are selected and discussed, and a guessed model extracted by connecting the findings of the reviewed literature with this research will be presented. Chapter 3 describes the aim of this research, and sets out research questions, hypotheses and the research context. It justifies the research design, including the methdology used in data collection and data analysis. In Chapter 4, the results of the quantitative analysis and testing of the hypotheses are presented first, followed by a thematic analysis of the qualitative data. Finally, the ways in which Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) hypotheses can be used to explain the results will be discussed, as will whether the two theories can be integrated for a complete explanation of the results. The results are discussed in Chapter 5, where specific attention is paid to examining the extent to which the hypotheses are verified. After that, a discussion of the qualitative analysis is undertaken and evidence provided to support the integration of Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) theoretical models. Conclusions from the results of this study are presented in Chapter 6. Based on the findings, recommendations are given for educational institutions and the national government of Saudi Arabia to enhance the development of speaking in EFL classes. A few limitations of this research are given that affect the generalisability of the research and its replicability elsewhere, before indications for future research on these aspects. Lastly, the researcher provides a self-reflection on his PhD journey.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter undertakes a critical review of selected literature related to ER, OR and facilitating speaking. It will analyse theoretical models and methodological issues in studies on speaking in general, and will identify research gaps used as a foundation for the framework used in this study. Section 2.2 sets out background information about speaking and cognitive, affective and linguistic aspects that relate to developing them. Section 2.3 discusses and analyses some theoretical language acquisition models, which have overlaps based on understanding speaking and are categorised as cognitive and cognitive-experiential (affective) models, which relate to the aspects of speaking in section 2.2. Section 2.4 then focuses on the two models of Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, which are the most applicable to the theoretical framework for this study and have cross-overs with the models discussed in section 2.3. Section 2.5 outlines research on ER and evaluates literature that shows the potential for ER to assist with developing speaking. Section 2.6 lists the research gaps identifiable from this review with some brief descriptions. A guessed model for evaluating the role of ER in developing speaking is proposed in section 2.7, and a summary of the chapter is given in section 2.8.

2.2 Developing speaking

It is essential to understand how speaking develops in order to understand the similar development of speaking accuracies, especially considering much of the literature has a more broad focus (Boonkit, 2010; Levelt, 1989; Zaremba, 2006). According to Boonkit (2010, p. 1305), speaking is 'one of the four macro skills necessary for effective communication in any language, particularly when speakers are not using their mother tongue', the other three macro skills being reading, writing and listening. Boonkit (2010, p. 1305) stresses the importance of developing speaking:

> As English is universally used as a means of communication, especially in the internet world, English speaking should be developed along with the other skills so that these integrated skills will enhance communication achievement both

with native speakers of English and other members of the international community.

For Zaremba (2006), speaking is the most important skill required for communication, and the capabilities needed when speaking allow for people to transfer information between themselves; therefore, developing speaking is the most significant way to foster exchanges of knowledge, ideas, feelings, opinions and beliefs. Abbaspour (2016) states that speaking is the primary way that learners of foreign languages can become fluent in that language, and stresses that while often learners focus on reading and writing that developing speaking competencies – including fluency along with accuracy – is the most important factor if their communication is to be successful. Studies of speaking often focus on cognitive (e.g., Levelt, 1989; Liyanage et al., 2014) and linguistic (e.g., Brown, 2007; Odlin, 1989) factors. Some studies related to these factors are set out in the following sections.

2.2.1 Cognitive factors of speaking

A number of studies have explored cognitive factors of speaking. Levelt's (1989) speaking production model considers how messages are passed from speakers to listeners, and how what he terms 'encoding' activates and triggers functions of language. In his work, the cognitive processes involved in learning a language are responsible for the effective performance of the language, which goes beyond simply speaking using factors such as correct grammar towards communicating in an articulate manner (Levelt, 1989). For Levelt (1989), these processes are executed unconsciously, and occur through learning, or are intrinsic genetically to the learner, or both. Levelt's (1989) model provides an important foundation for studies that consider how language processing occurs and how lexical elements, including vocabulary and grammar, form the basis of speaking and communication. For example, a study by Bock and Levelt (1994) showed that grammar and vocabulary are part of a syntactic framework where processes taken together control the articulation of speech, while another study by Hulstijn (2001) suggested that the form of encoding Levelt (1989) described is responsible for fluent word recognition and the development of vocabulary. Levelt's (1989) work and associated studies are relevant to this thesis as they present a way of looking at cognitive factors as connected both to a framework for learning and the learner's own capacities.

Related research undertaken by Liyanage et al. (2014) used a large sample study of Chinese tertiary EFL learners to show that students tend naturally to think in their mother tongue and translate those thoughts into English for speaking or any other purpose. Deduction is the primary cognitive process here, in which grammar and other rules of the language are used for producing error-free messages (Liyanage et al., 2014). Liyanage et al. (2014) also consider what is known as cognitive conceptualisation, which involves using a new word in a sentence so that the context of using the new word is understood. These aspects relate to vocabulary acquisition and grammatical knowledge, two factors relevant to this study, which similarly investigates the cognitive aspects of language learning with respect to vocabulary and grammar. Their work shows that vocabulary and grammar are central to language production and successful communication, and that therefore these two factors need to be carefully considered when undertaking studies of speaking, particularly in L2 and EFL contexts.

2.2.2 Linguistic factors of speaking

Numerous linguistic factors can be attributed to the successful or unsuccessful acquisition of a second language. The work of theorists Kambal (1980), Mukattash (1983), Zughoul and Taminian (1984) and Khan (2011a, 2011b), who all studied English SLA in developing countries, showed that the achievement of speaking is affected by the following linguistic factors:

1. Insufficient vocabulary, leading to the inability to choose the correct words to express desired ideas and communicate freely.
2. Insufficient knowledge of grammar for the correct use of words and formation of sentences.
3. Problems with correct pronunciation and accent, leading to inaccurately conveying messages.
4. Mother tongue interferences.

The first two of these linguistic aspects are central to this research, which focuses primarily on vocabulary and grammar in speaking accuracies, though by association pronunciation, accent and mother tongue interferences are all part of speaking using accurate vocabulary and grammar.

Research on the linguistic factors associated with vocabulary and grammar includes that by Brown (2007), who focused on the ways learners recognise and work to correct errors in language learning. He focused on what he calls a 'negative transfer' between the EFL speaker's native and second language, whereby the grammatical rules and vocabulary of the former are applied to the L2, resulting in errors in pronunciation, sentence structure and meaning (Brown, 2007). This negative transfer can be defined as a language difficulty that prevents the speaker from becoming fluent unless the errors are corrected (Brown, 2007). This therefore has a direct impact on speaking accuracies.

Another author who considers vocabulary and grammar with respect to speaking accuracies is Odlin (1989), who also notes that learners who speak a language with a similar syntax to the language being learnt find it easier to use correct grammar than learners who do not. Odlin (1989) also argues that similarities between the vocabularies of different languages also help learners to learn more quickly and effectively, and argues that, largely, cross-linguistic similarities play a strong role in the development of language acquisition and speaking accuracies.

A significant body of work has considered pronunciation specifically, and is therefore worth assessing when interested in speaking, even if its direct application to this research, which focuses primarily on vocabulary and grammar, is limited. Morley (1991) explained how primary research concerns in this area relate to whether pronunciation should or can be taught, and if it can, what should be taught, and how. The author discusses the communicative competency model of Canale and Swain (1980), which will be discussed in more detail in section 2.3.1, which, though a cognitive model, has a strong association with linguistic factors, and showed the connection between intelligible pronunciation and competence in communication in both in EFL and ESL settings. Canale and Swain (1980) argue that there is a close connection between general elements of pronunciation and oral communication capabilities. Both are related to overall speaking (Canale & Swain, 1980); thus, to reiterate, while this study does not directly consider pronunciation, it is an underlying factor in all learning situations focused on L2 speaking.

As a final point regarding pronunciation, a study by Seyedabadi et al. (2015) showed that neglecting pronunciation has cascading effects on other aspects of language learning, highlighting that insufficient focus on one aspect of language can

be detrimental to language learning on the whole. A study by Gilakjani (2011) showed that all four elements of pronunciation – sound, stress, syllables and intonation – are important aspects to be taught to develop speaking accuracies, and specific time needs to be set apart in the EFL/ESL classes for teaching pronunciation using methods appropriate for the characteristics of the learners (Gilakjani, 2011). This idea could be applied more broadly to all aspects of language learning, and suggests that studies should pay attention to the finer details of language and how they play out over time. This has been considered in this research with specific focus on grammar and vocabulary as the fine points of speaking.

In an interesting study looking at conducting workshops for EFL teacher development on the assessment of speaking, Knight (1992) listed items of assessment that reflect the research outlined above and are largely applicable to this study in terms of the central focus points. The necessary focuses were argued to be:

1. Grammar, consisting of range and accuracy, which will be directly studied in this research.
2. Vocabulary range and its accuracy. Vocabulary acquisition will be directly studied in this research.
3. Pronunciation of individual sounds emphasising phonemic distinctions, stress, rhythm and intonation and linking/elision/assimilation of words (not studied in this research).
4. Fluency, including speed of talking, hesitation before and while speaking. Lack of fluency affects general speaking accuracies and makes speaking difficult; both are measured in this research.
5. Conversational skill, which includes topic development, initiative in voluntarily taking a turn and controlling the topic within the scope of discussions allocated, cohesion maintained with own utterances and with the interlocutor. Also includes maintenance of the conversation supplemented with clarification, repair, checking, pause fillers, etc. Conversational skills arise from self-confidence, which was measured in this study, which, in turn, will develop only when one becomes knowledgeable in how to use correct words and sentences in speech, achieved through practice. Oral reporting is one way of practising conversational skills and is used in this research.

In this research, the focus on ER and OR is intended to cross over these five different elements of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency and conversation, while maintaining focus on the first two of these elements as the foundation for speaking accuracies. The three other elements are subsets that are singularly functions of speaking, while the others – vocabulary and grammar – are elements necessary for all forms of language learning, from writing, to reading, to listening, to speaking.

In the next section I consider how the factors described above – cognitive, affective-experiential and linguistic – are reflected in major theoretical models of language learning that address the same areas.

2.3 Theoretical models of language learning

A number of different models have been developed by theorists to examine how learning processes can be applied to the study of language learning. In this section I focus on two categories of models that align most with the work of this thesis – cognitive models and cognitive-experiential models. The first is based on understanding mental processes associated with learning, the second on how personal experiences shape learning. After examining some of the core elements of theories associated with these two models, I then focus on two specific learning models that are almost diametrically opposite yet equally applicable to discussions of language learning, communicative competence and speaking accuracies: Stephen Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis, and Merrill Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. These have been chosen as the basis for the theoretical framework in this thesis because they present the most comprehensive way of examining language learning using the most useful parts of the cognitive and cognitive-experiential models discussed. In doing so, they provide the means to view speaking accuracies as the product of interactions between inputs and outputs, which effectively account for the complex exchanges that occur within language learning processes (Beniss, 2014; Zhang, 2009). In the next sections I discuss the various influences of these two models on learning theory and show how they can be applied to studies of English language learning, including that in this thesis.

2.3.1 Cognitive learning models

In their influential book, *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argue that the behaviour of learners can be understood in terms of the cognitive processes they use to interpret and make sense of information. For those authors, this form of information processing is used to enhance learning, comprehension, retention and memory, and language learning is explained as a complex cognitive skill whereby knowledge of the language is stored in memory and processed for use in different ways involving automatic comprehension and production (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). For O'Malley and Chamot (1990), there are special techniques involved in SLA that are connected to perceptions of learning and interpretations of language. For these authors, someone who is a highly engaged language learner may have a keen ability to interpret language cues in a way that less engaged learners are unable to, while also perceiving the language learning process in a more positive light (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). This can mean they develop advanced cognitive abilities in language learning, and may use those abilities more effectively or may possess some special or different skills to less engaged learners. This cognitive theory postulates that individuals who do not have such abilities can learn these special techniques, and the authors present two different cognitive approaches to doing so, proposed in theoretical models of language learning around 1) language proficiency or competence, and 2) second language acquisition (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) proposed a Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) to attend to learners' needs to improve in these areas. A diagram of the CALLA model is reproduced in Figure 2.1 (p. 41) and shows how students comprehend and retain language skills and concepts, which is useful when considering how knowledge and learning production and processes interact. This was one of the earliest models to describe learning as strategic processing, and was influential on the work of other cognitive theorists and theories such as:

- Rubin (1981), who proposed two types of primary learning strategies – direct and indirect learning strategies – to be applied to language learning with a central focus on the development of vocabulary.
- Naiman et al. (1978), who proposed strategies and techniques for language learning with a special focus on vocabulary and grammar as the basis for reading, writing and speaking. Listening comprehension, learning how to

speak, write and read were categorised as the four basic skills required for any language learning, though these authors did not focus on learning a second language.

- Bialystok (1978), who proposed four categories of SLA strategies (monitoring, inferencing, formal practising and functional practising) that provide the learner with information appropriate to the task. According to Bialystok (1978), the learner uses these strategies to acquire information appropriate to the task at hand, and each strategy provides the learner with a different form of knowledge, such as explicit linguistic knowledge, implicit linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world (Bialystok, 1978).
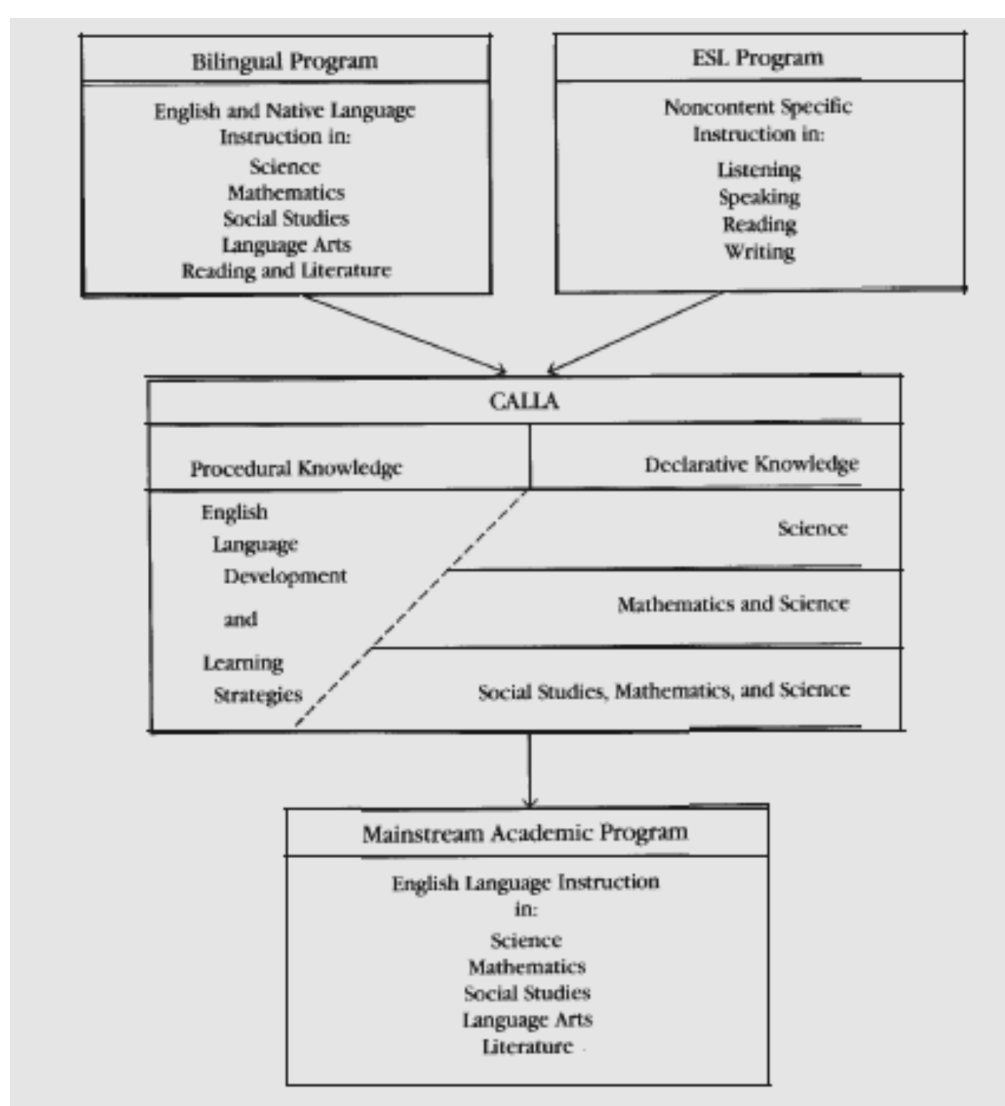
Figure 2.1: The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model of language learning (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987, p. 230)

Another relevant cognitive model proposed by McLaughlin et al. (1983) based on information processing suggested the learner organises incoming information actively, but is limited in terms of the extent of their processing capabilities. For these authors, the learner's ability to store and retrieve information is determined by the degree to which the information processing has occurred. According to their model, in L2 learning, learners actively employ cognitive skills for organising incoming information (McLaughlin et al., 1983). Learners can then use the knowledge-governed system of a top-down approach (known as an 'output governed system') for achieving automaticity in SLA; internal schemata or a bottoms-up approach (known as an 'input-governed system') can be used for external input (McLaughlin et al., 1983). There is cognition involved in both approaches. According to McLaughlin et al. (1983), the degree of cognition is determined by the interaction between task requirements and mental processes and the knowledge used by the learner.

A cognitive model developed by Spolsky (1985) suggested that three conditions apply in L2 learning: necessary, graded and typicality. Necessary conditions are absolutely required for learning to happen, such as innate capabilities for acquiring grammar and interpreting speech; graded conditions are those where there is a relationship between the extent to which a condition is met and the outcome of learning as per that condition (for instance, a learner's capabilities for EFL speaking and the outcome of speaking exercises); and typicality conditions typically occur in learning, but also do not need occur for learning to be successful (Spolsky, 1985). Spolsky's conditions are very much based on the settings and opportunities for learning, and also take interactions between learners and others into account, such as between students and teachers and EFL learners and native speakers, all of which are relevant to L2 studies.

Another early cognitive model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) focused on communicative competence, and considered the grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic elements of learning. For these authors, the concept of communicative competence is based upon a system of knowledge and skill that is needed for communication, and relates to both the conscious and/or unconscious knowledge an individual holds about language and its use (Canale & Swain, 1980). Communicative competence means having knowledge of grammatical principles, of how to use language in its social context, and how to combine utterances and communicative

functions in communicative discourse (Canale & Swain, 1980). For them, strategic competence is a central part of communication, which compensates using verbal and non-verbal strategies when there are communication breakdowns.

In discussions on the theoretical basis of the learning process, a cognitive model proposed by Biggs (1993) suggests that optimal student learning is best conceptualised as an open system that functions within a teaching/learning context, whereby two groups in close interaction – teachers and learners – exist within a whole system based upon the principle of constructive alignment. This means that there is constant, two-way engagement between teachers and learners, and that a central feedback mechanism is involved whereby the teacher is constantly made aware of the learners' progress (Biggs, 1993). Such an approach introduces some clarity to the use and interpretation of study process inventories. It can also render study processes measurable to obtain functionally useful data (Biggs, 1993). The system approach facilitates research on learning language, such as that undertaken in this research (Biggs, 1993).

In an effort to integrate the linguistic and affective parts of cognitive concepts, a model proposed by Wong-Fillmore (1985) suggests that learning strategies play an important role in influencing the rate and level of SLA. For Wong-Fillmore (1985), SLA involves the use of memory, associative skills, inferential skills, analytical skills and social knowledge, as well as the recognition of patterns, categorisation, induction, generalisation and inferences. In the model, general cognitive processes may influence the rate and level of L2 learning, but cognition is not the only crucial element involved in learning and retaining language skills, with linguistic capabilities also being essential to their development (Wong-Fillmore, 1985). Wong-Fillmore's (1985) work therefore shows that there can be a crossover in the core ideas of learning models. It also parallels work by Arnold and Brown (1999) and Swain (2013), which similarly showed connections between cognition, affective responses and language learning.

The cognitive models listed above present some interesting concepts that are applicable to this research, and which will be considered in more detail below with reference to Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) hypotheses. We can note that some of the important elements of these theories include attention to:

- Different kinds of learning strategies, including direct and indirect.

- A focus on vocabulary and grammar.
- The importance of acquiring both linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world.
- The significance of necessary, graded and typicality conditions.
- Communicative competence, including having knowledge of grammatical principles, social contexts and communicative functions.
- The possibilities presented by feedback.
- The use of various cognitive skills to apply to SLA.

These points are also revisited throughout the thesis, most significantly in the discussions in Chapters 4 and 5.

2.3.2 Experiential-cognitive learning models

An experiential theory of learning proposed by Kolb (1984) and revisited by Kolb et al. (2001) provides a holistic model of the learning process based on the idea that personal experiences are the over-arching influence on learning. Kolb's (1984) theory is based on the cohesion of experience with cognitive processing, and sets itself apart from other cognitive theories by combining a focus on mental processes with that of the learner's subjectivity. To follow Kolb's (1984) and Kolb et al.'s (2001) work, experiential theory looks at learning as the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience, and stresses the centrality of both cognition to learning and matters of experience such as affect and interaction.

Kolb's (1984) experiential language learning model was adapted for a model of cooperative learning of a second language developed by Kohonen (2006). Kohonen's (2006) model, shown from the learner's perspective, is reproduced in Figure 2.2 (p. 45). Personal growth, learning processes and learning tasks form a triangle of focal areas with experiential learning at the centre, where all the four elements of experiential learning – experience, reflection, conceptualisation and application – coexist. Kohonen's whole model of experiential learning is reproduced in Figure 2.3 (p. 46), and shows the cyclic process of experience, reflection, conceptualisation and active experimentation, which results in the development of language competence and eventually provides for communicative uses of the language. Notably, Kohonen's (2006) work has influenced this study by informing the methodology (Chapter 3), which

aims to examine how learning processes tied to similar aspects of the individual's experience foster speaking competencies.
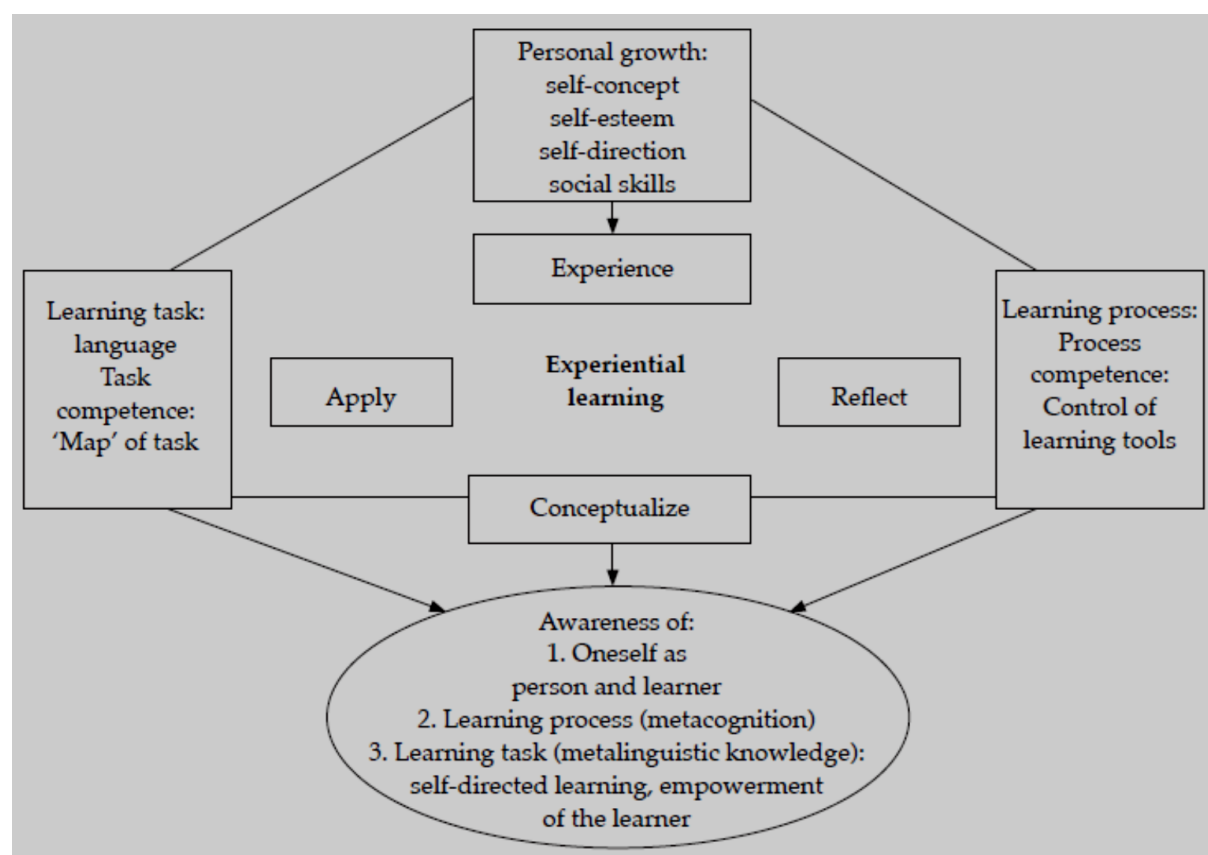
Figure 2.2: Theoretical model of experiential learning in second language acquisition from the learner perspective (Kohonen, 2006, p. 50)

It is important to note that, for Kohonen (2006), at the heart of experiential learning is cooperative learning, whereby interactions that occur between members of the group (students) and the teacher as facilitator create the foundations for the development of pedagogical tools and learning activities. According to Kohonen (2006), in a cooperative learning classroom ground rules are developed jointly between teacher and students, based on mutual trust and respect. Cooperative learning can also foster self-directed learning, built on the teacher's recognition and encouragement of learner involvement (Kohonen 2006). For the author, these factors encourage collaborative learning among students and between students and teachers.
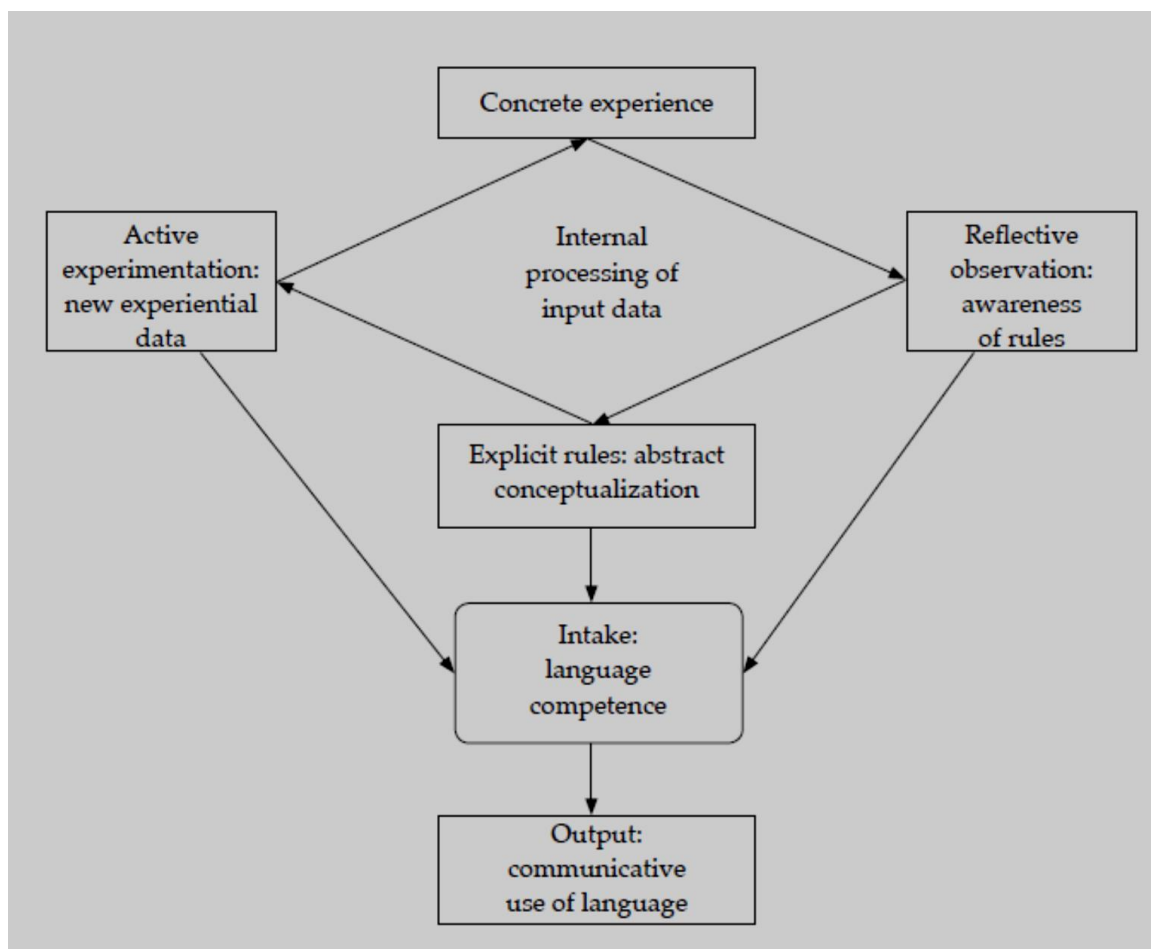
Figure 2.3: The whole model of experiential learning (Kohonen, 2006, p. 55)

Another experiential model for cooperative learning was suggested by Slavin (2011) and is reproduced in Figure 2.4 (p. 47). This path model is based on the idea that group goals are developed with the aim of facilitating learning for all members of the group (Slavin, 2011). According to Slavin (2011), this instigates social cohesion among group members and motivates them both to learn and to encourage others in the group to learn. The collaborative processes used by the members of the group consist of peer tutoring, peer modelling, peer practice and peer assessment and correction, all of which enable cognitive capabilities to be achieved and enhanced through group empowerment along the entire pathway of learning.
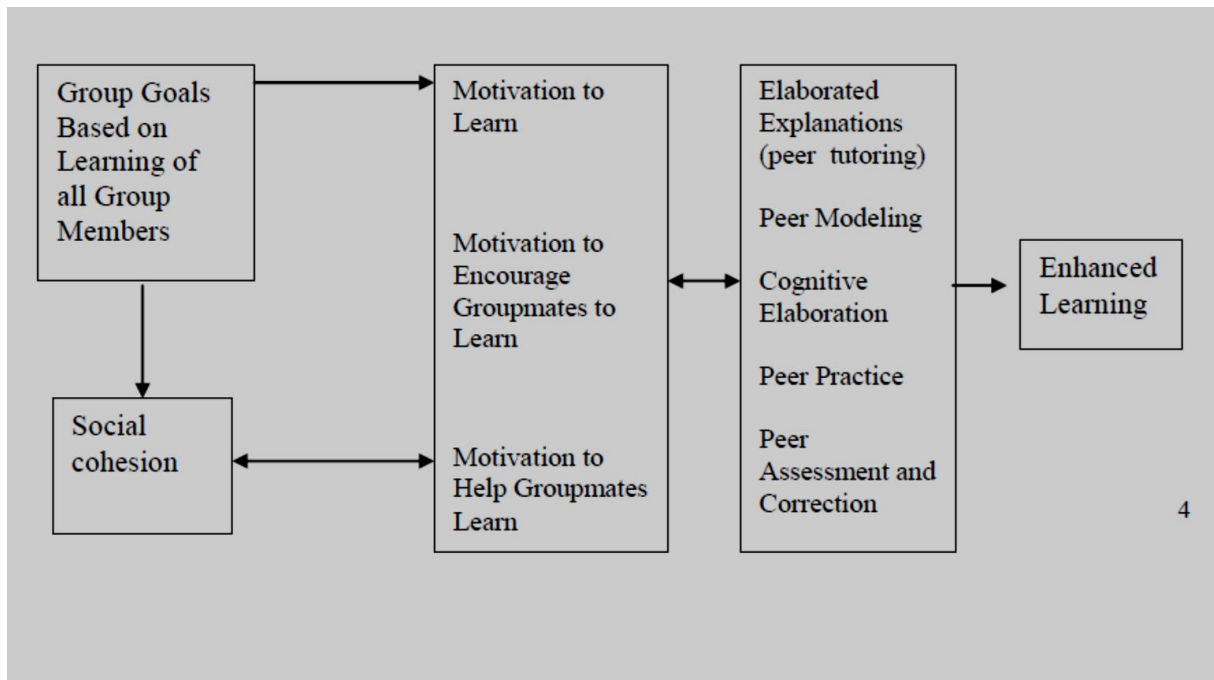
Figure 2.4: A path model of cooperative learning (Slavin, 2011, p. 346)

A theory of connectivism proposed by Siemens (2005) crosses over with some aspects of the experiential models because it recognises the diversity of learners' backgrounds and how this affects their ability to learn. Using new technologies is viewed as a way to enhance user experiences of connectivity, autonomy, openness and diversity, and to improve the connections between learners and educators (Siemens, 2005). Connectivism was developed to address the problems of applying cognitive and behavioural theories developed in earlier technological ages to understand the increased connectivity and internet communication facilities available in the 21st century, as well as possible future trends. By 'connectivism' Siemens' (2005) refers to the ways technology has, over the past three decades, changed how we connect with one another, and therefore the ways that we learn. His theory of connectivism is founded on the following principles (Siemens, 2005, p. 4):

1. Learning and knowledge rest in diversity of opinions.
2. Learning is a process of connecting specialised nodes or information sources.
3. Learning may reside in non-human appliances.
4. Capacity to know more is more critical than what is currently known
5. Nurturing and maintaining connections is needed to facilitate continual learning.

6. Ability to see connections between fields, ideas, and concepts is a core skill.

7. Currency (accurate, up-to-date knowledge) is the intent of all connectivist learning activities.

8. Decision-making is itself a learning process.

The focus on connections in Siemens' (2005) work points to the fact that, as a process, learning engages learners with various educators, whether human or technological, as well as other learners both in close proximity (classroom) or via the web, etc. (Siemens, 2005). For this reason, connectivism is important in contemporary studies of language learning. What we can take from these experiential-cognitive models are the significance of the concepts of cooperation, collaborative and connectedness, and the creation of knowledge through experience to SLA.

The next section considers the work of Stephen Krashen and his theories for language learning and acquisition, which have some overlaps with the cognitive models described in this section.

2.3.3 Krashen's input hypothesis

Stephen Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis for SLA is a cognitive model with interconnected linguistic factors that is commonly used to analyse and interpret the ways learners acquire L2 skills. It is therefore central to the work in this thesis, providing a solid foundation for the methodology that utilises aspects of the theory relevant to the study, as will be outlined below. The input hypothesis is a subset of Krashen's (1981, 1982) broader SLA theory, which consists of five hypotheses: the input hypothesis; the acquisition learning hypothesis; the natural order hypothesis; the monitor hypothesis; and the affective filter hypothesis. In this section I discuss the broad scope of his theory before focusing on the hypothesis most relevant to this thesis: the input hypothesis.

Krashen's (1981) theory for SLA was developed around the idea that the learner's conscious and subconscious play the central roles in SLA. Like the cognitive models discussed in the previous section, Krashen (1981, 1982) is interested in how the use of various cognitive skills help in learners' SLA. For Krashen (1981, p. 15), learning '"initiates"' our utterances in a second language and is responsible for our fluency', but only has one function, 'and that is as a Monitor, or editor'. According to Krashen (1981, p. 15), 'learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of

our utterance, after it has been "produced" by the acquired system. This can happen before we speak or write, or after (self-correction)'. This means that learners, through monitoring, are consciously able to edit their output – i.e., the words that they write or speak – to be more accurate, based on what they have learned (Krashen, 1981, 1982). However, this also suggests that the monitoring aspect of learning does not affect the actual subconscious processes of language acquisition, which are needed to become fluent and accurate (Krashen, 1981, 1982). The theory thus shows a distinction between learning and acquisition itself, based on the idea that acquisition 'requires meaningful interaction in the target language … in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding' while language learning requires learners to understand formal rules and instruction, and to engage in error correction (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). However, Krashen (1982) also argues that such monitoring can slow down the learner's move towards acquiring fluency as it focuses too much on accuracy, and suggests that learning that involves monitoring be only one part of the full SLA experience.

While Krashen (1981, 1982) ascribes greater importance to subconscious acquisition over conscious learning, and separates the two with no interface between them, there are still inter-relations between the learner's conscious and unconscious learning/acquisition. Krashen (1981, 1982) explains that language acquisition involves interactions where the primary concern is the accuracy of meaning and not the form of messages conveyed between individuals in communication (Krashen, 1981, 1982). Neither error correction nor teaching rules are relevant in this respect. Krashen (1981, 1982) argues that native speakers and caretakers can modify their utterances to facilitate learning by the acquirers, who behave similarly with respect to the early or late acquisition of language structures. Conscious learning is facilitated by error corrections and explicit rules, but feedback corrections may not be very effective (Krashen, 1981, 1982). Further, a complex sequence of conscious learning is not always followed in the case of language acquisition (Krashen, 1981, 1982).

Krashen's (1981, p. 21) input hypothesis is based upon the concept of comprehensible input (CI), which he states is 'the crucial and necessary ingredient' for the acquisition of language. CI can be defined in terms of the way the L2 is acquired, and is based on the idea that a learner cannot produce a second language themselves, but can learn to understand it (Krashen, 1981, 1982). CI is not just the words that the

learner uses or understands, but also involves the context in which the language is learned, processes of explanation and the negotiation of meaning (Krashen, 1981, 1982). By extension, the input hypothesis refers to what happens when learners comprehend language input (Krashen, 1981, 1982).

When the level of the language comprehended exceeds the learner's current abilities, the next stage of language acquisition occurs (Krashen, 1981, 1982). Krashen (1981, 1982) uses the formula 'i+1' to explain this phenomenon, whereby 'i' refers to the learner's interlanguage – that being the in-between point of learning a language where there are linguistic cross-overs – and '+1' relates to the next stage of language acquisition. According to Krashen (1981, 1982), when CI is present in learning environments, the structures required for learning are also present, and can be an effective way of developing language skills, such as grammatical accuracy. In learning CI, the learner may fall back on old knowledge of the first language when sufficient competency is not achieved in dealing with the context in which learning occurs (Krashen, 1981, 1982). This stage denotes the lowest level of SLA, or its earliest stage. To follow Krashen (1981, 1982), when used to develop the learners' understanding of spoken and written language, CI is the only mechanism to gain competency in that language, with no role ascribed to the capability of the learner for producing language output. According to his input theory, speaking is not practising the language, as it does not lead to acquisition; rather, it only assists in the acquisition (Krashen, 1981, 1982).

A number of authors have applied Krashen's input hypothesis to their own studies and have found that doing so reveals much about the effectiveness of teaching methods. Lightbown and Pienemann (1993), Faltis (1984) and Tsang (1996) have all suggested that the input hypothesis is an effective way of considering the processes involved in SLA. A number of other studies support their contention. Li (2013) adopted the hypothesis to investigate English language acquisition among Chinese college students, and found that the model was operable and highly applicable in terms of teaching listening skills. Li (2013) believes that the use of the theory can increase the effectiveness of teaching, and that the concept of 'i+1' is beneficial in determining teaching methods. A study by Rowell and Redmond (2016) used the input hypothesis to consider oral CI using Francophone film clips in Level 3 French classes in a US public school. The study showed that meta-cognitive strategies used for teaching

language learners to listen more effectively by activating their prior knowledge made them aware of the purpose of the listening task and motivating critical thinking among them about how they listen, and that this was due to the input being interesting and comprehensible (Rowell & Redmond, 2016). Similarly, a study by Rahimi and Katal (2013) that focused on the outcomes of listening – as a form of input processing – on oral language proficiency – as the production of output – was enhanced through the use of meta-cognitive instruction. Another study by Renduchintala et al. (2016) used the input hypothesis and the concept of CI as a model to study German learners' understanding of L2 vocabulary. The model developed was used to collect data and estimate the learner's understanding, and to predict which words the user might understand (Renduchintala et al., 2016). The input hypothesis provided the solid foundation for these authors to contemplate SLA as a process involving the expansion of vocabulary, which is of interest to this study. If CI can foster learners' acquisition of vocabulary, it evidently shows promise for speaking by expanding learners' capacity to build their ability to understand meaning in oral communication.

Despite its evident applicability, there are substantial critiques of Krashen's work, usually relating to the vagueness of the terminology used by the author. For example, Zafar (2011, p. 141) critiques Krashen's concept of acquisition, which he argues could be understand less as separate from learning and more as a process 'enriched by the learned system'. For Zafar (2011, p. 141), 'instead of drawing a borderline separating acquisition and learning into two discrete disciplines, the cross-currents of both the systems constantly at work in second language acquisition could be acknowledged and explained'. Zafar (2011) also criticised the limited applicability of the model due to its lack of proper measurement methods, making it difficult to test the theory.

Bahrani (2011, p. 282) has also critiques Krashen's work, stating that his 'insistence that "learning" cannot become "acquisition" is quickly refuted by the experience of anyone who has internalized grammar that was previously consciously memorized'. One of the other main issues with Krashen's work, as identified by scholars such as McLaughlin (1987), is that he focused more on rejecting the results of others' research and reasoning than establishing his own thesis and supporting his hypothesis with high quality evidence. McLaughlin (1987, p. 36) believes that Krashen 'simply argues that certain phenomena can be viewed from the perspective of his

theory'. Liu (2015) concurs, arguing that the model lacks empirical constructs, meaning it is essentially flawed as a method. In 1988, Krashen anticipated the need to change or reject his propositions over time, but recognised that making frequent changes and modifications can frustrate researchers who either want to test the model or want to use it. Thus, as Liu (2015) argued, there is a need for a more testable, viable and useable model than Krashen's to exist.

Other criticisms of the input hypothesis include that by White (1987), who believes that by focusing on meaning and context, the input hypothesis misses certain aspects of how grammar development is internally controlled in EFL learning, independent of context and meaning. He also argues that Krashen overestimated the benefits of CI to acquisition, and noted that the lack of a precise definition of CI devalued the model (White, 1987). Other studies have utilised the hypothesis while also pointing out its shortcomings. For example that of Hu (2015), which shows how CI plays out in the use of multimedia tools but has significant limitations in terms of the hypothesis' uncertainty about the specific circumstances needed for students' to maintain language input at "i +1" level, that which Krashen (1981) deems to be required to improve learners' SLA.

In a review on the role of interaction in making input comprehensible, Xu (2010) referred to Krashen's work and utilised an interactional approach to input that built on Krashen's hypothesis by modifying the structure of discourse for learner comprehension. In Xu's (2010) interactional approach, input is defined in terms of the linguistic forms of words, utterances, morphemes, etc., that are directed at the non-native speaker. In the analysis of interactions, the functions of those forms in conversational discourse are described (Xu, 2010). This distinction is necessary as the linguistic input forms in L2 inputs may be modified. This combined input-interaction hypothesis is interesting as it shows how the limitations of Krashen's hypothesis, identified by Xu (2010) as relating to the absence of focus on interaction, can be adapted. This is relevant to this study, where a combined hypothesis has been used to utilise the most useful aspects of both Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis and Swain's (1993) output hypothesis, which I will discuss in detail in the next section.

White (1987) offers an amendment to Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis in the form of her incomprehensible input hypothesis. White (1987) argues that when input is incomprehensible to the learner, this triggers the learner to make modifications to

the language, providing impetus for them to recognise the inadequacy of their own rule system. According to White (1987), when learners face incomprehensible input due to L2 rules not presenting a structure for understanding the language, they tend to modify the L2 rules to accommodate the structure, which might not be accurate. If there are comprehension difficulties, these may act as negative feedback for the learner (White, 1987). Later, Gass (1988) argued that incomprehensible input might enable learners to recognise mismatches between the grammar of their input language and the L2.

In his later work, Krashen (1992, 2009, 2015) readdressed his hypothesis with reflection upon both his critics and work that had provided evidence for the efficacy of his own. In 1992, ten years after his initial research, Krashen listed and defined six hypotheses of language acquisition. In addition to the existing input hypothesis, the five others were:

1. The reading hypothesis, an extension of the input hypothesis, which postulates that reading facilitates language acquisition as a CI.
2. A simple output hypothesis, which states that language production, including reading or writing, without feedback or interaction, leads to language acquisition.
3. The skill-building hypothesis (SB, also known as the learning becomes acquisition hypothesis, or interface hypothesis), which states that a language is acquired by conscious learning of rules and games, and that these rules can be made automatic using output practice such as drills and exercises.
4. The output plus correction (OC) hypothesis, which states that a language is acquired by attempting new rules or items of production. Negative feedback (including explicit corrections) results in alterations or corrections of the hypothesis on the language rule, or the spelling or meaning of the new vocabulary.
5. The comprehensible output (CO) hypothesis, which states that new language skills are acquired through attempts to produce a message which the partner or reader was initially unable to understand. The output is adjusted to try new versions of rules or items until the message is correctly understood.

Through his analysis of these hypotheses, Krashen (1992) argued that CI leads to acquired competence, subconsciously held in the brain, while conversely, OC and SB lead to learned competence, held consciously in the brain. Krashen (1992) also argued that CO leads to learned competence. His interest in output reflected his engagement with the work of Merrill Swain, who theorised about SLA in terms of output rather than input. However, while noting the significance of output to language models, in later work Krashen (2009) still argued against it as a hypothesis and continued to support his input theory. His more recent comprehension hypothesis, which argues that an individual acquires language and develops competency by understanding what is received/heard/read as CI, is still input-focused.

In his most recent work, still with input at its forefront, Krashen (2015) hypothesised that motivation does not play any role in successful language acquisition, contrary to some of his earlier claims (1981, 1982). He now considers language acquisition the result of obtaining truly interesting, or 'compelling' comprehensible input, which inspires the learner to acquire skills by interpreting something they desire to understand (Krashen, 2015). When this happens, he argues, the focus shifts from merely improving in another language to fully and accurately understanding the message (Krashen, 2015). Thus, the most efficient language acquisition occurs when a message so compelling is conveyed that the language in which it is delivered becomes immaterial; the learner will aim to push past their lack of understanding and seek meaning (Krashen, 2015). Thus, Krashen (2015) believes, language acquisition occurs automatically when CI that is truly interesting or compelling is provided. However, it could be argued that if the input is not immediately comprehensible to the learner, and they need to seek the help of another person to make it comprehensible, that acquisition does not always occur automatically in these cases. It is clear that compelling CI motivates language learning; this can be considered in the case of ER, which, as has previously been discussed, facilitates learning when it is interesting, enjoyable and engenders self-confidence. While as previously mentioned, motivation is not a focus of this study, self-confidence is, and, to follow Krashen (2015), compelling CI may influence self-confidence if the learner is inspired to speak after reading something they find highly interesting.

With respect to this study, it is interesting to note that Krashen's ideas of how CI and, more importantly, compelling CI are created have significant relation to

reading, and the more specific activities related to ER. For Krashen (2013, p. 103), the production of compelling CI through reading can be connected to what he terms 'flow', that being when 'the concerns of everyday life and even the sense of the self disappear – our sense of time is altered and nothing but the activity itself seems to matter'. The implication here is that through becoming immersed in the flow of reading, learners acquire language without having to try to do so; without having to be interested in the language itself when they are already interested in what is being read (Krashen, 2015).

The focus on both input and output is of central important to this research, as ER is considered input, as will be discussed later in this chapter, while OR, also used as an intervention in this research, is considered output. In the next section I discuss Swain's work to show how her output hypothesis can be used to understand SLA.

2.3.4 Swain's output hypothesis

Swain's (1985), output hypothesis has three functions: the noticing function; the hypothesis-testing function; and the metalinguistic function. Swain (1985) states that learning takes place when the learner notices a gap in their linguistic, L2 knowledge. Recognising this gap means the learner may be able to modify the output – or comprehensible output (CO) specifically, in contrast to Krashen's (1981, 1982) comprehensible input (CI) – to learn some new aspect of the language. Swain (1985) does not claim that the output hypothesis is the only way to explain how learning takes place. Nevertheless, she argues, under certain conditions, it certainly facilitates L2 learning, which differs from and enhances input through the mental processes related to language production (Swain, 1985). Of the three conditions defined for the CO hypothesis to work, the first, which is the noticing function, is the gap perceived by the learner between what is desired to be said and what can be said based on the learner's competencies. Noticing the gap enables the learner to identify what needs to be learned to improve those competencies. (Note: the basic element of the noticing hypothesis was proposed by Schmidt (1990), and was then later borrowed by Swain in the development of her hypothesis.) The second condition, which is the hypothesis-testing function, states that at least a tacit hypothesis exists by which the learner assumes they need to know something specific – such as correct grammar – when they say something (Swain, 1985). That is, the learner hypothesises that in learning correct grammar, for example, their speaking competencies will improve. The utterance thus becomes a testing of the hypothesis (Swain, 1985). Swain (1985)

argues that the feedback received from the interlocutor provides verification of this hypothesis and shows the learner that corrections are required. The third condition, which is the metalinguistic function, encourages the learner to review or reflect on the language learned and skills developed, which enables the learner to control and internalise the knowledge gained from the output (Swain, 1985). Apart from L2 acquisition, the CO is also useful to elicit modified output in foreign language acquisition, which engenders language production in a meaningful way.

Comprehensible output was proposed as a reaction to Krashen (1981, 1982) ascribing a major role for CI in SLA. Many years of research on French immersion programmes in Canada by Swain (see for example, 1985, 1989, 1997, 2000) showed students were successful in achieving fluency, improving listening comprehension, and increasing confidence in using L2 and functional capabilities through the conditions of the immersive process, whereby students learn in an acquisition-rich environment where French is the sole language of instruction. However, students fell short in the case of developing grammar, specifically in morpho-syntactic areas, even after many years of the programme. Swain (1989, 1993, 1997, 2000) explains this as the result of failures to pay attention to language production, thus preventing them from progressing beyond the acquisition of merely functional L2 proficiency to higher levels. These learners were therefore found not to have had access to output opportunities or any 'push' factor towards producing output (Swain, 1993). The concept of a 'push' factor is intrinsic to Swain's (1993) work; she discusses what she terms 'pushed output', which occurs when learners are pushed to produce language, and in doing so, are faced with their limitations in it. For Swain (1993), such a push is essential for learners to refine their language skills, making their language production more precise and appropriate. This shows the central importance of output in SLA – rather than input alone – whereby noticing and attention to language forms and meanings generates and develops L2 knowledge. This can be contrasted to Krashen's (1981, 1992) focus on input which, to follow Swain's hypothesis, does not 'push' learners to undergo the cognitive processes that are essential to language production.

In her later work, Swain (2000) extended the concept of output, understanding it as a socially-constructed cognitive tool. In this extended version, collaborative dialogue mediates the construction of the dialogue itself and associated knowledge (Swain, 1997; 2000). Collaborative processes in learning tasks are seen to be

especially useful for learning grammar, and collaborative dialogue is an extremely effective exercise to enhance problem-solving and knowledge-building skills. Cognitive activities are exemplified through speaking; however, not all dialogues build knowledge (Swain, 2000). According to Swain (1997, 2000, 2001), language learning only occurs when there is collaborative dialogue, as opposed to a less connective form of verbal interchange. For Swain (2000, 2001), speaking thereby facilitates the appropriation of both the knowledge of the language and the strategic processes associated with it.

In later work in the same area, Swain and Lapkin (2001) provided a summary of topics covered in previous studies, such as their older work (Swain & Lapkin, 1995), which examined whether learners are able to notice gaps in their knowledge through the output activities of talking and writing. The authors found that if they were able to notice gaps, an analysis of the input they were exposed to was useful for filling these gaps. Swain (1995) examined how learners might notice gaps and thereby view output as a means to learn how to convey their intended meaning, constituting a hypothesis through which language learning may be enhanced. Swain and Lapkin (1998) used various learning tasks as stimuli to generate discussions among students. Whether learners reflected on their own or their interlocutors' use of language to externalise their ideas was evaluated in two papers (Swain, 1998, 2000). Swain (1998, 2000) analysed the implementation of tasks that allowed students to generate discussions, and showed the relationships between collaborative speaking activities and SLA. The tasks tested how the students were engaged in collaborative problem-solving, and involved the production of spoken or written texts as output. Such problem-solving collaborations were shown to relate to SLA in progress. Swain (1998, 2000) also showed that the further development of language outside the classroom can be traced to those collaborative dialogues, all of which consist of the noticing function as well as a stage involving both hypothesis formation and hypothesis testing. In another paper, Swain (1997) described this outcome in relation to the use of various pedagogical methods to develop tasks that act as stimuli for students to enter into collaborative dialogue. According to Swain (1997), when engaging in collaborative dialogues, learners can focus on negotiated meaning, or form, or both, depending on the methods used and the types of outcomes expected (Swain, 1997). For Swain (1997), negotiated meaning relates to the process in which a speaker engages to understand and make

sense of the other speaker/s in collaborative dialogue. To follow her earlier work, this involves the speaker receiving negative evidence about their own output (i.e., an inability to understand the other speaker/s or errors in their own speech), allowing them to modify their output and make it more comprehensible (Swain, 1985). However, it may not necessarily encourage the accurate usage of language, including grammar (Long, 1997). Negotiated form, on the other hand, relates to learners understanding linguistic structures, which can be used to inform the direction of the dialogue, but which may be too focused on stilted, simplified speech than less structured but more engaging conversation (Swain, 1997). Swain (1997) argues that a focus on form alone will not provide learners with the chance to evaluate meaning and correct errors. Rather, to follow Long (1997), it encourages rote learning and is not a realistic model of language usage.

The negotiation of both meaning *and* form is one way of producing comprehensible outputs that together create comprehensible, communicative dialogue (Swain, 1997). It means not only that speakers learn to understand each other through processes of engaging with negative evidence and error correction, but that they also gain accuracy in terms of linguistic structures (Swain, 1997; Long, 1997). To follow several authors whose arguments parallel Swain's (1997) and Long's (1997), this dual focus provides the impetus for students learning how to speak in the L2 to develop both grammatical/syntactic skills and communicative skills, such as pronunciation (De la Fuente, 2006; Isaacs, 2009; Jiang, 2002). From this, we can extrapolate that there are interesting connections between noticing gaps and errors in language skills, attempts to fill those gaps by seeking feedback and correcting errors of form, and clarification of the meaning of what L2 speakers intend to express. It suggests that students can recognise limitations in the ways they express themselves in the L2 both in terms of structural aspects (grammar, syntax) as well as aspects related to meaning (vocabulary, pronunciation, expression). This could mean that, even if they cannot fully comprehend their misinterpretation of content, they can recognise that they have misinterpreted something and work to correct it.

Swain's (1985) output hypothesis contradicts Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis because it shows that if learning is only based on CI, complete language acquisition only occurs in form and not meaning. That is, the student may be able to recognise the input, but may not be able to produce any output that is in fact as

comprehensible as the input is intended to be. If we consider that students themselves can do part of the work of negotiating meaning and form through the learning process, the associated CO is therefore the product of the translation of input to output. Thus, it makes sense for input to be comprehensible and compelling as a means to engage students, but also to have the potential to drive the formation of output based on responding to that compelling CI in ways that promote an understanding of both form and meaning.

In further comparison with Krashen's (1992, 2009, 2015) later work on the other four hypotheses (reading, simple output, skill-building, output plus correction), the output plus correction hypothesis might be considered incommensurate with Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. Swain (1985) argues that in order for learners to master the target language, they must produce 'pushed' output in order to make themselves understood. However, if language output expectations do not align with the inputs received by the language learner, there will be a similar misalignment between the learner's conversational abilities and their comprehension abilities. However, the acquisition of grammatical and conversational mastery comes about through linguistic negotiations that occur in the process of interactions with others. In the output plus correction hypothesis, Krashen (1992, 2009, 2015) argues that learners should be encouraged to make mistakes through interactions in which they can try out the elements of language they have been exposed to, and then use feedback provided by those their interlocutors to either confirm or correct those elements. There are certainly some shared characteristics between both conceptualisations, which focus equally on the importance of feedback mechanisms as the way that learners develop their skills. However, while through the scope of the output plus correction hypothesis language learners are seen as having been supplied with metalinguistic information through the feedback process, in Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, learners still need to be pushed to improve the accuracy of their output at the time of interaction to make themselves understood by their interlocutors.

Swain's (1985) hypothesis has been supported by and utilised in work by various authors, as has also been further expanded upon by the theorist herself working with other researchers (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2002). For example, in a study on the scope of using collaborative tasks to promote language awareness in intermediate and advanced French learners, Kowal and Swain (1994)

validated the output hypothesis by examining the potential for student collaborations involving language reconstruction tasks to promote language learning. The study examined students' awareness of gaps in their knowledge, and the collaborative attempts they made to fill them, as well as considering students' increasing awareness and knowledge of the relationships between the attributes of form, functional and meaning of words while undertaking tasks and receiving feedback from peers and teachers. This was further supported in Swain's (2001) later study of immersion classes where the usefulness of collaborative tasks to the integration of language and content teaching was demonstrated. A similar finding by Swain and Lapkin (2002) showed how stimuli for L2 learning via collaborative dialogue works through one-on-one student engagement. The authors examined the outcomes on language acquisition of a task involving the reformulation of a story written collaboratively by two French immersion students (Swain & Lapkin, 2002). The study showed that talking through the task allowed the students to solve many language problems by comparing the original story and its reformulation. It showed that the noticing and hypothesis-testing functions of the output hypothesis model could interplay to help students develop their competencies and accuracies, and further, that collaborative, communicative tasks drive further language acquisition skills.

In her detailed discussion of the role of collaborative dialogue in L2 learning, Swain (1997) argues that collaborative dialogue involves the joint construction of the language or knowledge about the language by two or more individuals. This typically results in a synergistic effect of performance beyond individual capabilities, whereby use and learning of the language occur simultaneously. According to Lynch (1997), in work expanding upon this study of Swain's (1997), teacher interventions in cases of conversational repair, where learners try to correct faulty expressions and errors in vocabulary and grammar, should be minimal and based on absolute need, because learners are able to direct their own learning processes in such cases.

Swain's (1989) theory was applied to Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) theory of composing process and Schmidt's (1990) conscious attention theory, two studies analysed in depth by Uzawa (1996). Uzawa (1996) used Swain's output hypothesis and Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) and Schmidt's (1990) theories to examine shifts in translation from L1 to L2 through a sentence-by-sentence approach, whereby attention was paid to students achieving high scores in language use in the

comparison of L1 writing, L2 writing, and L1 to L2 translation. By viewing Swain's output hypothesis as 'a promising concept in second language learning' (Uzawa, 1996, p. 273), the author showed that the chance to produce words, expressions and syntax as forms of output was essential in learning, and that input alone was not sufficient. This provides further support for the idea of both input and output working together to promote language acquisition, including speaking.

In a comprehensive review of Swain's (1989) work, Gass and Mackey (2006) developed an interaction hypothesis to understand SLA contexts. The hypothesis argues that learners can use input and interactions with interlocutors to recognise variabilities and limitations of their language competencies with respect to comparisons between their own production of the L2 and that of their conversation partners. In such interactions, and aligning with Swain's work, the learners are provided with feedback in such a way that the linguistic input they receive is modified, and this, in turn, pushes them to modify their own output during the conversation. A review by Yan (2013) also considers Swain's work with respect to input, output and interaction hypotheses, and recognises her theory as crucial to understanding language learning and development in EFL contexts, including at the university level. Another important study in support of Swain's work on interactions was undertaken by Nabei (2012) in a study of Japanese college-level EFL learners, and showed that engaging interactively in output activities changed the mindset of students from receptive to productive when they were able to foresee themselves using words correctly, as well as when they were provided with feedback from their instructor, aligning with the notion that feedback through collaborative dialogue plays a central role in language acquisition.

A study by Philp and Iwashita (2013) showed that, compared to passive observation, output in the form of active language production pushes learners to think about methods of expressing meaning in the target language. It also helps them to utilise explicit knowledge of the language, and plays a distinct role in L2 learning (Philp & Iwashita, 2013). What these authors argue is that output is an effective means of providing feedback as language learning is taking place, and that it is essential in terms of comprehension, because learners must improve their communicative skills in order to be comprehended by interlocutors (Philp & Iwashita, 2013). Thereby, in support of Swain's work, Philp and Iwashita (2013) suggest that when learners notice errors and

mistakes in their language production, such as through speaking, they have a better chance to improve their language skills than if they were to merely listen to the language, which would be an input-focused activity. It is therefore in the production of the language itself that speaking are developed and improved.

Swain's work is also supported by findings obtained by Birjandi and Mamaghani (2014), which showed positive effects for the grammatical accuracy of language learners who were giving pushed output opportunities, and a study by Williams (2012), which demonstrated that all three conditions of the output hypothesis are present when writing is considered an output production task, which ultimately means learners focus on forms and retrieve and utilise explicit language knowledge. Further support is provided by Younesi and Tajeddin (2014), who compared the use of meaningful output with structured input in the acquisition of nominal clauses by students. They found that the former outperformed the latter, and suggested that while input activities did help learners improve their grammar knowledge, that the output activities, and particularly their focus on meaning, were of greater benefit, most likely because of the noticing hypothesis (Younesi & Tajeddin, 2014).

Further support for the output hypothesis is seen in Liming's (1990) work, which analysed the author's own direct experiences of learning through his diary entries. After studying his experiences with respect to three comparative aspects – CO and negative input, comprehensible vs incomprehensible output and CO and CI – the author noted that a simple process of understanding the message is insufficient for language acquisition, therefore contradicting Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis. As a self-directed learner, the author's experience was more in line with Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, as he noticed his language limitations and worked to improve them.

Another interesting study by Thwaites (2014) pointed to recent evidence on the long-term role of output on language acquisition. This was done through simple task sequences where output preceded input, and generated an increased noticing effect. The author suggests methods by which teachers can use such devices to help students to identify their knowledge gaps, and rectify them for improved writing output, pointing to a connection between input and output, but one predicated on output as playing the central role in language production (Thwaites, 2014). A study by Russell (2014) similarly found an increased noticing effect through pushed output, and that

subsequent exposure to forms of future tense in input facilitated inductive learning of the language. However, similar learning gains were not observable when the same learners were exposed to textually enhanced input rather than pushed output (Russell, 2014). Another study by Uggen (2012), using quantitative data on underlining and subsequent performance tests, did not show any notable effect of output on specific attention to grammar in subsequent input, but did show that output has a strong influence on learners' subsequent noticing of vocabulary. It was also shown to enhance awareness of the limitations of their linguistic abilities related to the structure of grammar (Uggen, 2012). Uggen (2012) also found that when the structure was more complex, learning increased. A study by Vahidi et al. (2016) also showed further support for the output hypothesis, with a specific focus on the effect of noticing on learners' writing ability. Their study showed a significant effect of reconstruction, as a form of noticing, whereby the conscious recognition of mistakes led to correction, and ultimately, improved EFL writing skills (Vahidi et al., 2016). Further, similar research by Jing and Lin (2012) drew connections between the use of recitation as an output activity and improved writing skills.

Numerous other studies show how Swain's work can be applied to various aspects of the L2 learning process, each of which demonstrates the broad scope of the hypothesis including work by Pei (2004), who compared the input and output hypotheses, and through a study of SLA in-classroom teaching methods found that such methods should be output-oriented. Similarly, work by Grabe and Stoller (1997) found more support for Swain's output hypothesis than Krashen's input hypothesis in the case of content-based instruction in Canadian immersion programmes.

Other studies provide further support for the output hypothesis while also hinting at the most useful aspects of Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis. As has already been suggested in this section, studies of this nature give greater credence to the importance of input in language acquisition, providing a challenge to the many critics of Krashen's (1981, 1982) work by showing its usefulness when integrated with other theories. This has outcomes for this research, as will be discussed later in this chapter. One such study was conducted by Jernigan (2012), who showed that output-focused, video-based instruction provided increased effectiveness in terms of the completion of written tasks, whereby the input (video) motivated the output (writing), leading to the students' increased ability to understand complex pragmatics. In

Jernigan's (2012) study there are clear connections between the quality of the learners' written outputs and their exposure to video-based instruction, which suggests that language learning and acquisition is a process of input-output integration. This indicates that language learning does not occur simply as the results of input (e.g., motivation, encouragement) and output (i.e., production), but is in fact optimised when the learner's outputs are directly driven by their inputs.

Turning further to the possible integration of the hypotheses, there are a number of studies that provide support for a theoretical model that considers the processes of input and output production. In their experimental work with Persian adult EFL students, Soleimani et al. (2013) obtained evidence for the positive effect of noticing on language knowledge acquisition, with a specific focus on the rhetoric structure of academic compare and contrast paragraphs and output-first-then-input activities. These activities were shown to promote noticing, and the extent of noticing appeared to increase due to learners' recognition of the gap in their knowledge of inter-language systems (Soleimani et al., 2013). These findings confirm Swain's (1985, 1995) argument that learners'u output might facilitate recognition of the gap between what they want to say and what they can say. According to Soleimani et al. (2013), noticing the gap facilitates internalisation of the specific structures in the input. Further, the study showed that this noticing contributed to better internalisation of some specifically targeted rhetorical structures in the input. The performance of learners was higher in the case of output-fronted activities than that of pre-emptive input activities normally applied in paragraph writing classes, showing the effectiveness of output over input and supporting Swain's theories (Soleimani et al. 2013).

A hypothesis by Wen (2013) proposed that language acquisition is output-driven but input-enabled, whereby output acts both as the driving force and the target of language acquisition. In this hypothesis, input provides the approach to learning, enabling learners to complete output tasks, while also serving to cultivate learners' comprehension abilities (Wen, 2013). According to Wen (2013), students who focus on searching for the knowledge required to understand the input will produce output during this process, showing the connections between the two. In another study by Hua (2015), output induced students to notice their linguistic problems when input was preceded by output activities. This consequently resulted in improvements in their problem-solving performance. The focal attention paid by learners to linguistic features

in the output-related input, which had caused difficulty in the preceding output, related to linguistic features that were processed by different degrees (Hua, 2015). This study showed that learning target forms occurred because of the noticing effect triggered by both output and output-related input. However, the author concluded that noticing triggered by output need not always lead to language acquisition; rather, it only facilitates intake of target forms in subsequent processing (Hua, 2015). This showed another interaction whereby output combined with relevant input is required for improving language competencies.

Another study by Yang (2016) also found that a teaching model using listening activities as input and speaking activities as output was highly effective for language learning. The former was found providing drive and aim, with the second encouraging the completion of tasks (Yang, 2016). After a term-long implementation of these activities, Yang (2016) concluded that understanding input and output as intrinsically connected can lead to a better understanding of how relevant teaching and learning materials can be used to engage students, foster enthusiasm and improve learning efficiency. As a result, the research shows that a combined teaching model based on both the input and output hypotheses is a valid method of measuring the feasibility of language learning activities.

In an important study, Izumi (2002) obtained results in favour of the efficacy of output-based learning programmes in SLA, while also connecting elements of output production to input. Izumi (2002) discusses the facilitation of pushed output in L2 acquisition, and his study shows that there were some circumstances in which output activities seemed to promote the detection of formal elements in the input and an identification of the mismatches between one's input language form and the target language input. Izumi (2002) analyses this in terms of how output activities might facilitate the achievement of the target structure through integrative processing. Izumi (2002) argues that the external manipulation of input might influence the production of output in language learning, suggesting that positive effects on learning cannot be attributed to output alone, but to some form of integration whereby language learners process and interact with both input and output. Izumi (2002) argues that learners' attention might be drawn to input if it is enhanced in such a way (in this case, using video) to highlight form, which allows them to identify issues in the input and develop their output based on that identification. His argument suggests that, in some

conditions, when learners produce output as a result of paying attention to and analysing input, that this can encourage cognitive processing and learners' engagement with the material and activities (Izumi, 2002). The study shows that while input alone is limited in SLA that the interconnectedness between input and output via the noticing hypothesis means both may play important roles in language learning (Izumi, 2002). However, Izumi (2002) also notes that visual input does not have any significant impact on enhancement if only a superficial external manipulation of the target form in the input occurs. If no additional instructional help is provided to learners besides this enhancement, they may only detect the explicitly highlighted issues of form and may not necessarily undergo the type of cognitive processing required in SLA. Izumi (2002) concludes that while input plays a role in SLA, that output plays a psycholinguistically motivated role that is essential to SLA. Therefore, while showing the interplay of input and output, the results of this study support Swain's hypothesis over Krashen's. Izumi's (2002) theory is based on Levelt's speech production model, and is shown in Figure 2.5 (p. 67).

De Bot's (1996) study shares parallels with Izumi's (2002) work by further examining psycholinguistic considerations in relation to output, which the author argues has the ability to generate very specific forms of input needed in cognitive systems to develop a coherent set of knowledge. Again, while noting the input-output relationship, de Bot's (1996) study shows that output is predominant in language learning as it directly increases fluency by converting declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, which occurs through the activation of input for the learner's use as output, rather than input alone. Based on this analysis, the output effect was located where the transition zone of declarative-procedural knowledge existed, suggesting that acquiring language competencies through output production helps learners discover the subtleties of the language (de Bot, 1996).
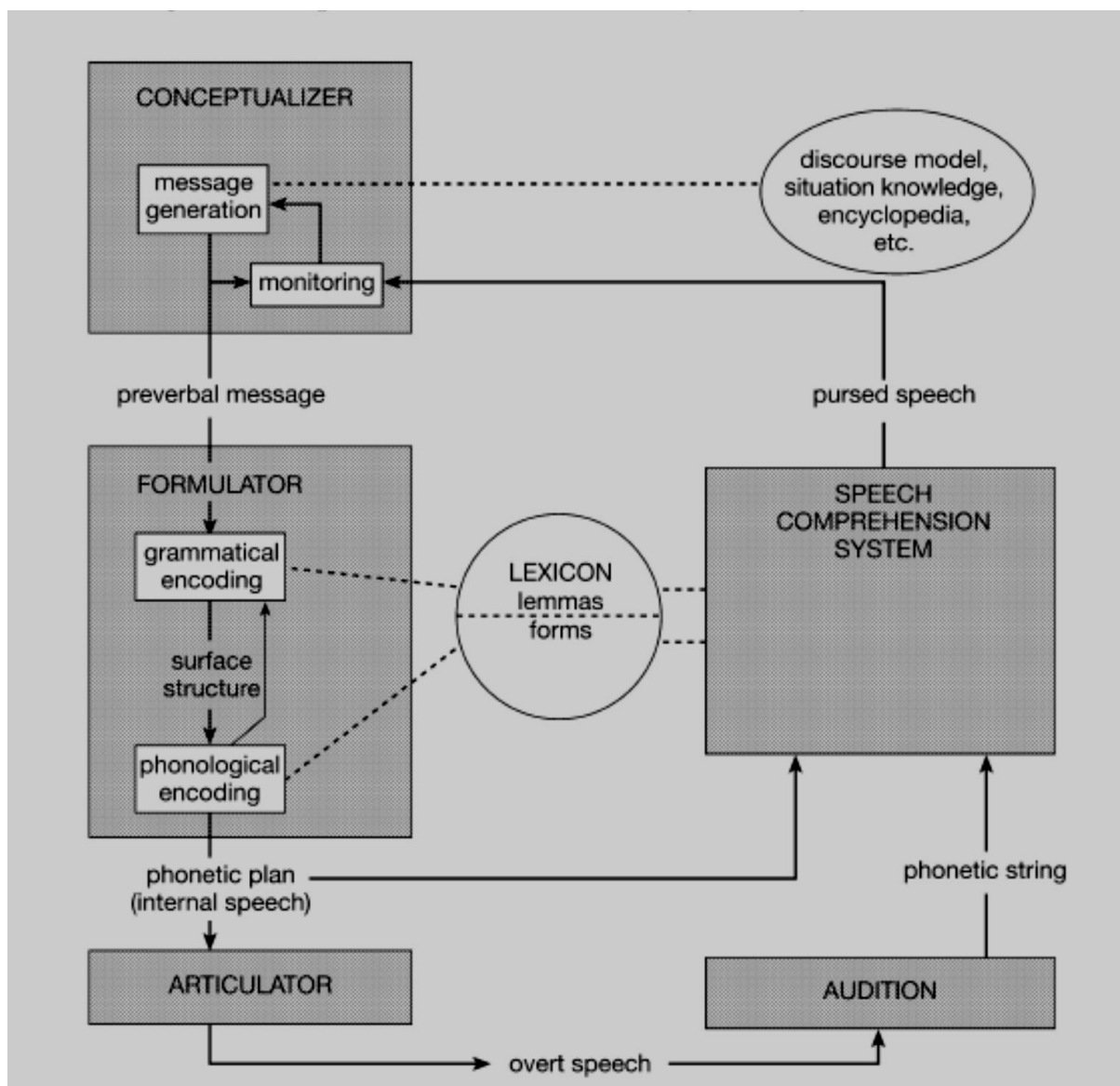
Figure 2.5: Speech production model of Levelt (Izumi, 2003, p. 181)

Another interesting visual representation of speech production is provided in Figure 2.6 (p. 68), which presents a simplified model of SLA as per the work of Gass (1988). The model shows how input is received from ambient speech and comprehended; then, the input is converted to intake and integrated to produce the output.
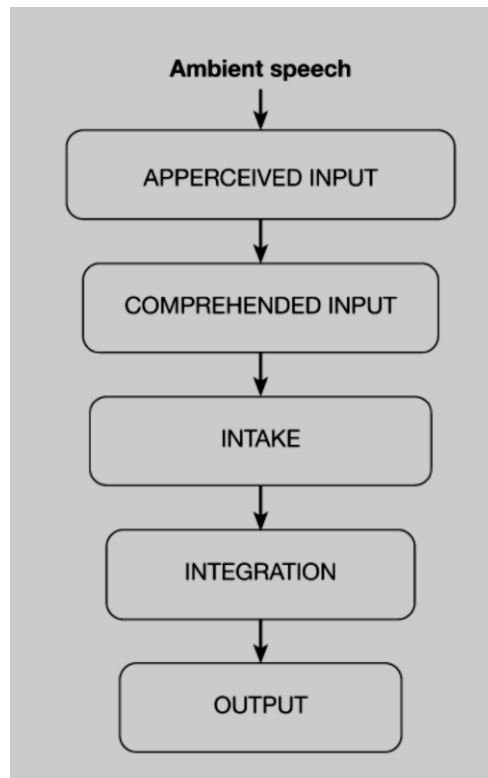
Figure 2.6: Second language acquisition model according to Gass (1988, p. 200)

Although in the work of Swain and Lapkin (1995) no diagrammatic presentation of the theorists' model is provided, Izumi (2003) used the descriptions from that research to construct a model of the output concept as presented in Figure 2.7 (p. 69). This shows that there are several options available to the learner depending upon the type of feedback available. These options lead to different types of output (e.g., shown in the diagram as output 1 and output 2).
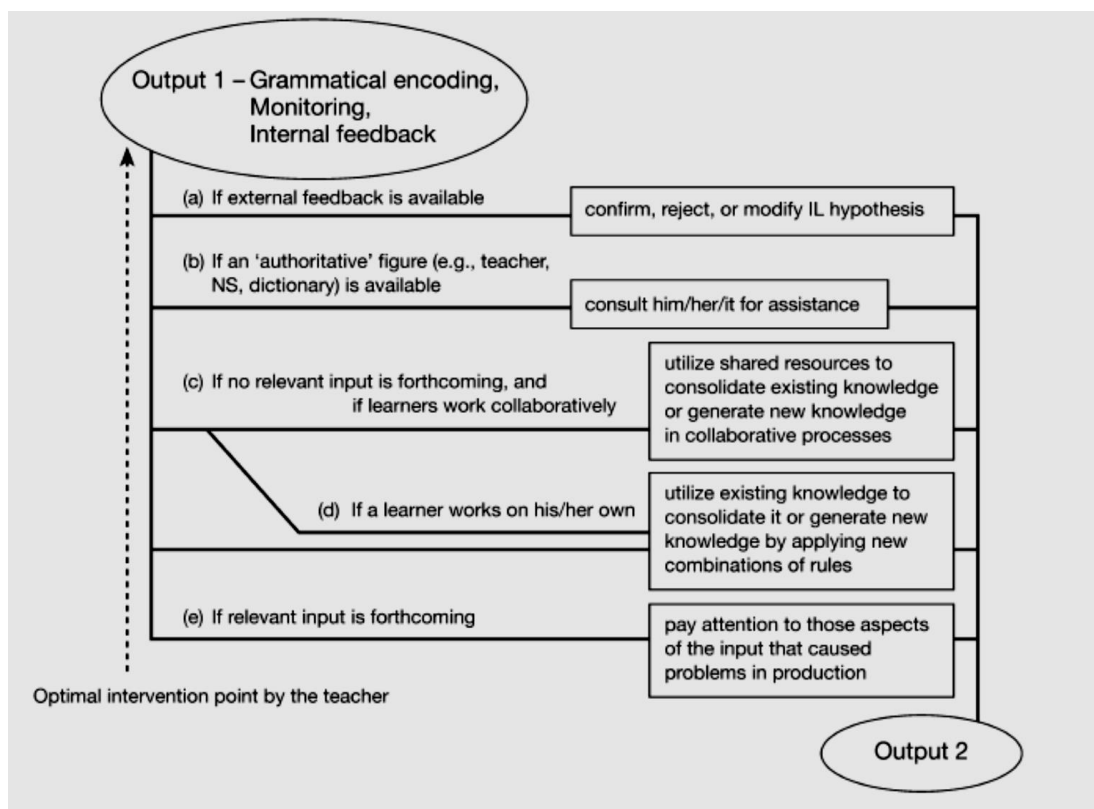
Figure 2.7 Output model of language acquisition as proposed by Swain and Lapkin (Izumi, 2003, p. 187)

Finally, the output hypothesis provides for an active role in SLA whereby apperceived input translates to output via a four-step process, as explained in Figure 2.8 (p. 70). This visualisation of the process, as designed by Izumi (2003), simply incorporates the three functions of CO listed by Swain (1985) into the model presented by Gass (1988) in Figure 2.6 (p. 68).
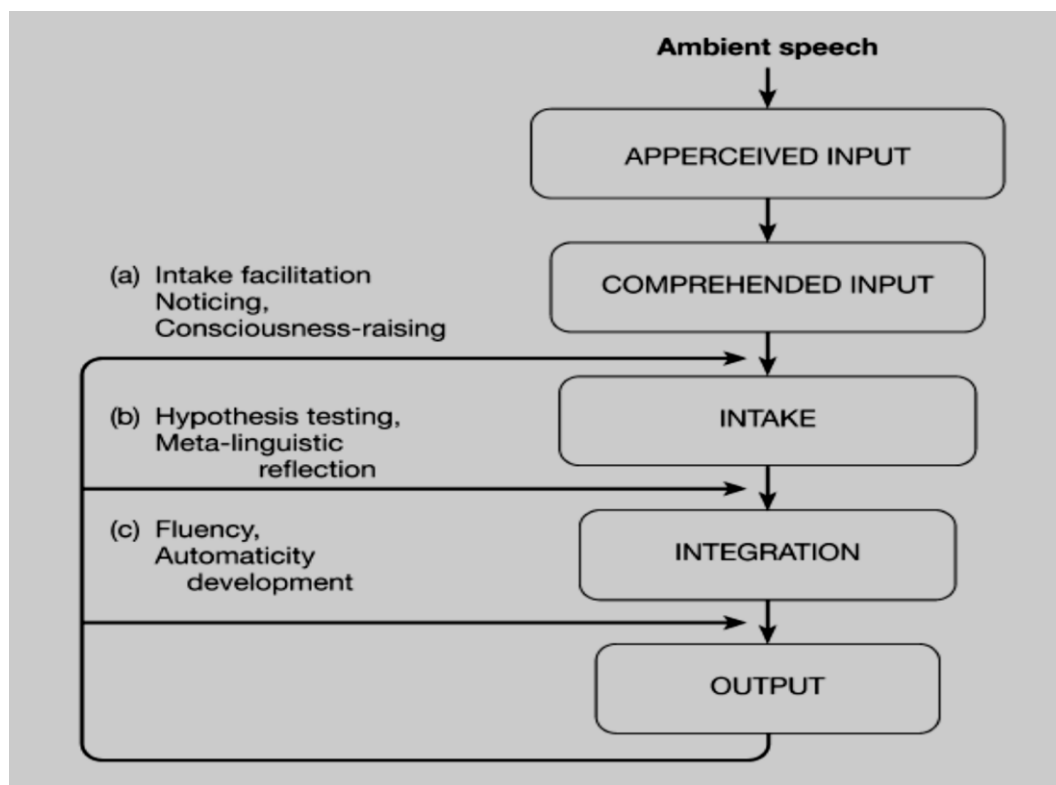
Figure 2.8: Active role of output in second language acquisition (Izumi, 2003, p. 188)

While there is substantial support for the output hypothesis, it is not without its critics. Several studies show the limitations of the theory and critique the role of output in SLA as over-emphasised (Hong, 2002; Quinn, 2003; Shehadeh, 2003). The findings of an experimental study by Izumi et al. (1999), aimed at testing the output hypothesis by investigating the effects of output on noticing and SLA, showed that output does not always encourage learners to notice linguistic forms, as per the noticing function. The study showed that while it can improve language performance, the usefulness of output for SLA is conditional, because its effectiveness is dependent on various factors, such as the cognitive load placed on learners. This aligns with Swain's understanding that the role of output in SLA is valid only under certain conditions, but also shows the limits of her hypothesis and perhaps its overstatement of the usefulness of output alone in SLA.

Another critic is Shehadeh (2003), who experimentally tested the hypothesis-testing function of the output hypothesis and its effect on internalising linguistic knowledge. Shehadeh (2003) found overall that failure to provide negative feedback to the learner might instead be interpreted as a confirmation signal to them, suggesting the error was not in fact faulty language, thus limiting the possibility for the learners to

take their own next step in internalising linguistic knowledge. Thus, the author showed a potentially negative aspect of the hypothesis-testing function of CO as a theory.

Another criticism of the output hypothesis relates to the need for sufficient cognitive resources for L2 learners before they can attend to form and meaning (Hong, 2002). Hong (2002) notes that this issue has not been considered in several studies on CO, and that greater attention needs to be paid to what happens when there are insufficient possibilities for students acquire language, which occurs when the materials provided are insufficient. For Hong (2002), this is a potential failure of the output hypothesis, which only works when such cognitive resources are appropriate and available. Qimin (2003) identified the same problems in a study of Chinese college EFL students, and showed the need to balance both input and output in language learning. The author explains that one cannot occur without the other, as that the CI must be adequate, and preferably compelling, before the output can be comprehensible and easily manipulated towards higher language learning, pointing to the limitations of an output-based model (Qimin, 2003).

Another notable critic of the output hypothesis is Krashen (1992, 1998) himself, who argues that learners do not make the adjustments the output hypothesis claims they do when learning the language. He argues that pushing learners to speak a new language may act as an affective filter and thus prevent them from learning the language (Krashen, 1992, 1998). This, he notes, is because students usually rate speaking as the most difficult and anxiety-producing part of learning a foreign language. He cites a number of studies that show that the actual production of CO is very rare, and that in fact language production is not necessary for language acquisition; in fact, evidence shows that output is not a necessary condition for achieving high levels of language proficiency (Krashen, 1998). He also critiques Swain's own admission that there are *conditions* under which CO occurs, noting that due to the limitations pertaining to noticing and self-correction, that it is not always possible for learners to adequately gain language knowledge from language production (Krashen, 1992, 1998). From Krashen's argument we can recognise that if learning is forced or reliant on too many conditions, that the outcomes supposed in the output hypothesis may not be realised.

Overall, there appears to be more positive evidence and support in the literature for Swain's (1985) output hypothesis and its components, especially the noticing

hypothesis and associated task-based approaches, than for Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis. However, this does not mean the input hypothesis is irrelevant, or that input does not play an important role in SLA. Further, Krashen's criticisms of the output hypothesis hold particular stead. As the discussion in this section suggests, there is room for both CI and CO to play crucial roles in the total comprehension of language. In the sections to come, I discuss the aspects of language learning of interest in this study – those being speaking accuracies, ER and OR – before outlining research gaps and presenting an argument for an integrated approach to understanding SLA using both Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, in recognition of their potential to be combined as a theoretical framework for SLA.

2.4 Improving speaking accuracies through extensive reading and oral reporting

2.4.1 Extensive reading as input

This section will discuss significant research that has shown that ER can improve L2 speaking accuracies. ER can be viewed as an input activity, because it involves a learner making sense of CI through the process of engagement with the written material (Alyousef, 2006). (It can also be connected with output activities such as oral communications, which will be discussed in a later section.) Research into the practice of reading and ER specifically as a form of input is highly influenced by Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis (Alyousef, 2006; Tanaka et al., 2007; Wang & Lu, 2015). By definition, ER 'involves learners reading texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills', and can be encouraged 'by setting up a class library, encouraging review writing, and incorporating reading of books into the syllabus, and dedicating some class time to quiet reading' (British Council, 2008, p. 1). A number of studies have shown strong connections between ER and SLA. For instance, work by Hafiz and Tudor (1989), motivated by Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis, experimentally investigated the impact of ER on language skills and found that writing skills improved in the experimental group upon which an ER intervention was applied. Similarly, a study by Burger (1989) showed that ER improved writing skills more than writing practice, and that ER interventions by language teachers helped to build confidence and satisfaction about the L2 learning in experimental comparisons.

Another study by Maxim (1999) showed that reading comprehension benefited the most greatly after an ER intervention, but that learners improved in terms of general language proficiency across all four language skills. Taguchi et al. (2004) studied the impact of ER on reading fluency, determining that when assisted repeated reading of the same texts was implemented, that ER was more successful. Iwahori's (2006) study used pre- and post-tests to determine that ER had a significant impact on reading rate, while Suk (2017) similarly found that reading rate, vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension improved with ER. Horst (2005) also found that ER leads to increases in vocabulary when EFL learners choose books that are of interest to them, and showed that vocabulary gains were significantly larger than in similar studies due to a novel measurement system aimed at specifically quantifying word knowledge gains. Overall, there is a substantial body of work that demonstrates the effectiveness of ER for L2 proficiency, and as Mason and Krashen's (1997b) study shows, ER activities are generally more effective than more traditional methods of EFL learning as well as being more popular among learners. This notion is supported by Arnold (1999) and Guo (2012), who also found that linguistic improvements were connected to a preference for ER over other methods of EFL teaching and learning. This is likely the reason that ER has been found to increase learner motivation (Jang et al., 2015; Peacock, 1997; Takase, 2007; Yang, 2001, 2016) and lead to more positive attitudes towards reading (Ro & Cheng-ling, 2014), which will be discussed in further detail later in the chapter.

A number of interesting and important studies have more specifically shown how students' speaking might be improved through reading practices (Huang & Van Naerssen, 1987; Hsu & Chiu, 2008), including in the specific context of university EFL students in Saudi Arabia (Alshamrani, 2004), and with a specific focus on ER (Mart, 2012; Novita, 2016). Analysing these is a good way of determining both how students learn and how different methods of teaching affect language learning, which have been applied to this study and used to structure the research framework. This section specifically focuses on the connections between ER and speaking accuracies, and explains that ER has been used as an intervention in this study to enable a specific analysis of the impacts of reading on speaking accuracies for the student participants. What is termed 'structured ER' is the adapted version of ER used in this thesis, which will be explained in greater detail in this section and those that follow. Firstly, however,

it is necessary to discuss how reading and speaking accuracies can be analysed with consideration of Krashen's and Swain's work, whereby we can consider reading as input and speaking as output.

A study by Bell (1998) connects reading, and ER specifically, to Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis, whereby it produces CI provided certain pre-conditions are met, those being 'adequate exposure to the language, interesting material, and a relaxed, tension-free learning environment' (Bell, 1998, p.2). Bell's (1998) study examined why and how an ER programme was implemented for elementary-level EFL at the British Council Language Centre in Yemen. As well as producing CI, the important roles ER can play as a mechanism for teaching were listed as: general language competency; exposure to the language; vocabulary; writing; motivation to read; consolidation of previously learned language; confidence in extended texts; exploitation of textual redundancy; and development of prediction skills (Bell, 1998). Some of these are components of Krashen's hypothesis, and Bell argues that ER can lead to successful language acquisition of the sort theorised by Krashen when learner involvement in maximised. Though the study only mentions speaking in passing, its focus on applying Krashen's theory directly to a practical study is relevant to this study, which does the same. What this study can take from Bell's (1998) is its focus on specific outcomes of ER, which also occurs in this research.

Further connections between reading proficiency and speaking have been identified by a number of authors, including Huang and Van Naerssen (1987), who in a Chinese study found reading practice to be a significant predictor of oral communication proficiency when evaluated in terms of speaking and listening skills. Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) found ER practice was a significant predictor of speaking and listening proficiencies, further pointing to the potential reading has for enhancing leaners' fluency. In a study of Taiwanese EFL learners, Hsu and Chiu (2008) found a significant correlation between knowledge of lexical collocations through reading and speaking proficiency. While this correlation did not extend to a significant relationship between the actual use of lexical collocations in speaking (Hsu & Chiu, 2008), the study nonetheless shows how reading can help students to speak. The connections between reading and speaking show the importance of encouraging EFL learners to engage with written texts.

A study by Day and Bamford (2002) presented ten principles that apply to teaching ER and its connection to output, which may well explain what is really involved in ER practice and why it can be useful and enjoyable for learners. These are 'the basic ingredients for extensive reading' that can encourage students to learn and therefore become competent in different language skills including speaking (Day & Bamford, 2002, p.1). These are as follows:

1. The reading material is easy.
2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics.
3. Learners choose what they want to read.
4. Learners read as much as possible.
5. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding.
6. Reading is its own reward.
7. Reading speed is usually faster than slower.
8. Reading is individual and silent.
9. Teachers orient and guide their students.
10. The teacher is a role model of a reader.

Taken together, these principles show that ER must do the most to make the learning process straightforward and accessible. There are evident cross-overs here to Krashen's work on compelling CI, whereby reading materials that spark the learner's interest can be used to drive SLA and produce high level input. Macalister (2015) divided these ten principles into four overarching categories, those being: 1) the nature of reading; 2) the nature of the reading material; 3) what the teachers do; and 4) what the learners do. These show the four most important influential factors on the learners' reading competencies.

Very early research by Bond (1926) set out a comprehensive study of the use of ER that provides a strong foundation for studies of this nature. Bond (1926) described and analysed the ER component of a French course at a junior level college. In addition to formal reading assignments, informal, voluntary and outside reading was also included for classroom analysis, and in each quarter, the students read hundreds of pages (Bond, 1926). There was no specific ER component in the first quarter, and the course was not subjected to conferences or tests or grading requirements (Bond, 1926). One ER conference a week was then added in the second quarter, where the

students were required to submit a reading slip containing the title and author of each book they read. They were also required to indicate what they liked and disliked about the book in a summary not exceeding 100 words, and to give a significant quotation in French. The students were instructed to only look up words they needed to understand the gist of the story, to select only materials interesting to them and to gradually proceed from easy to difficult texts (Bond, 1926). Classroom discussions in French were found to stimulate interest in reading, and increasing interest and self-confidence resulted in enhancement of the whole learning process. The reading rate tripled as a result of the intervention, and a significant correlation was found between the amount of reading and comprehension, and between reading and achievement (Bond, 1926). Overall impact on performance was reflected in an increase of honours grades and decreased failures (Bond, 1926). Bond (1926) also found that leaners acquired the feeling for the language within a short time, and argued that this was the direct result of ER and could not have happened with formal instruction methods. Though it does not focus on speaking accuracies, this study is very important as it shows how an ER intervention can be implemented, and its possible outcomes.

To follow Bamford and Day (1997), the significance of using ER arises from its ability to impart upon learners comprehension skills and fluency of using the language. They argue that ER is successful when reading becomes its own reward, meaning follow up exercises after reading are not required; students are motivated to self-study. In another study, Bamford and Day (1998) discussed four approaches to L2 reading – grammar translation, comprehension questions/exercises, skills and strategies, and ER – and showed the important status of in-classroom reading and its impact on word recognition and vocabulary, as well as its effects on affective and socio-cultural factors. This study shows the broad scope ER has to influence out-of-class activities and interactions, and is therefore relevant to this study, whereby ER had more than just in-classroom applications, but presented learners with the opportunity to develop their own skills.

Susser and Robb (1990) considered ER and other skill-based reading activities with respect to the work of numerous scholars who had considered both before presenting the results of their own research. The authors presented a study of the use of ER in classrooms to examine whether it or other skill-based activities like reading from textbooks could have the same influence on SLA; the ER materials used were

mainly young adult fiction (Susser & Robb, 2003). The studied showed that ER can be an effective and pleasurable way for students to learn, and that it is a more effective means of developing accuracies such as speaking than other skills-building activities that do not allow the students to choose what they read, or which do not provide as interesting materials (Susser & Robb, 1990). This study is relevant to this thesis as it presents a model for a practical study of ER using interventions.

In a comparative study of interventions on Taiwanese junior school students, Sheu (2004) found that, prior to ER intervention along with the introduction of group-based work, the learners responded negatively to English lessons and reading tasks. However, post-intervention, the experimental groups improved more than the control group with respect to every language development indicator (Sheu, 2004). Favourable attitudinal changes also took place (Sheu, 2004). The research context, methodology, variables and findings are similar to those in this research, and attention was paid to these in the development of the methodology, interventions and analysis.

In an interview by Barfield (2000), two influential theorists in the field of SLA, George Jacobs and Willy Renandya, shared their ideas on the implementation of ER and post-ER activities in classrooms. Some of these factors are more relevant than others to this study, so I have examined the most relevant to provide context for my study. In the interview, Jacobs and Renandya discussed numerous interesting facts and also apply Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis by considering how CI from ER activities can lead to language acquisition (Barfield, 2000). They specifically note that 'for low-proficiency L2 learners, we should be more concerned with the amount of reading (comprehensible language input) that they get, rather than with the types and forms of post ER activities (output)', and also argue that 'the key principle in designing post ER activities is that they should be easy to do and highly appealing to the learners' (Barfield 2000, p.5), which aligns with Day and Bamford's (2002) principle regarding pleasure and Krashen's (2015) compelling CI. Another aspect focused on in Barfield's (2000) review was graded readers, which are readers tailored to the students' language level. The grade of a reader will affect the student's engagement or interest in it, so it is something that needs to be considered in learning environments (Barfield, 2000), and several studies have noted their usefulness for developing EFL proficiency (Bamford, 1984; Brumfit, 1985; Iwahori, 2008; Tan et al., 2016). Further, some researchers have suggested using picture books or children's literature as reading

material that can engage learners by providing simple materials that may encourage them to eventually progress to more difficult books (Huang, 2015; Whitehurst, 1988). As their discussion with Barfield (2000) revealed, Jacobs and Renandya believe that if learners are not interested in or don't enjoy the book provided, or their autonomy in choosing a book is taken away, they will switch over to one of interest to them. This again has connections with the idea of compelling CI.

The findings of Beglar et al. (2012) in a study of a one-year pleasure reading programme for Japanese students showed that pleasure reading was more effective than intensive reading for enhancing reading rates among first year Japanese university students. One book read every two weeks was sufficient to improve the reading rate of most students (Beglar et al., 2012). As reading comprehension was high both in pre- and post-tests, passage comprehension was retained at the same level even when reading speed was increased (Beglar et al., 2012). While the study only focused on reading comprehension, the findings inform this study, which focuses on enjoyment, as Beglar et al. (2012) show that reading for pleasure, a positive aspect of ER, has great potential to increase language competencies. This also aligns with Day and Bamford's (2002) principle regarding the pleasure of ER.

In a subsequent paper, Beglar and Hunt (2014) supported the practice of providing criteria for annual word targets to be met for reading. Simplified texts that matched the linguistic competence of learners were found to be more effective in improving reading rates to the target levels among Japanese learners at the lower-intermediate proficiency level (Beglar & Hunt, 2014). The effectiveness of using simple texts could also be connected to maintaining learners' interest, and also aligns with Day and Bamford's (2002) first principle.

A number of authors have contemplated how ER activities can be designed, which had applications to this research during the methodological stages (Bamford & Day, 1997, 1998; Burling, 1968; Lee, 2007). To follow Bamford and Day (1997), the significance of using ER arises from its ability to impart upon learners comprehension skills and fluency of using the language. They argue that ER is successful when reading becomes its own reward, meaning follow up exercises after reading are not required; students are motivated to self-study (Bamford & Day, 1997). Bamford and Day (1998) argue that, when designed effectively, ER can have a profound impact on

word recognition and vocabulary, as well as positive effects on affective and socio-cultural factors.

The combined results of a study by Lee (2007) using three approaches proved that ER could be successfully integrated into an EFL programme when students were provided with adequate access to books and a wide selection of what to read. Lee (2007) showed that ER can be as effective as traditional instruction in the short term and is more effective than traditional methods in the long term. In the work of Ben-Yacov (1996), the requirements of ER were specified, and included graded readers as ER books, worksheets based on the ER books, pictures photocopied and enlarged from each book, flashcards for different levels of classwork and a set of post-reading activities. Another study by Burling (1968) showed that, in designing ER, numerous considerations must be accounted for. Burling (1968) outlines these in terms of three propositions on L2 learning:

1. There may be cases where some students only want of require reading skills. In such cases, it is sufficient to design courses for reading without oral skills if they do not help with reading.
2. It is possible that passive linguistic knowledge can develop far ahead of active ability. This can be exploited when reading is taught without the simultaneous need for writing skills.
3. Grammar, lexicon and phonology can be learned more independently of one another than is usually thought.

According to Burling (1968), these three propositions can be tested in courses that teach the recognition of grammatical forms first, followed by teaching lexicon while minimising both phonology and active production of sentences in L2. Finally, it is important to note, reflective of Krashen's (2015) views on compelling CI that, as Benson (1991) argues, varied content and types of texts enhance learners' SLA through ER.

Practical applications of ER were discussed in Barfield's (2000) work, which provides some ideas as to how to use ER exercises in class. According to Barfield (2000), the teacher can play an important role as a facilitator to motivate students undertaking in-class ER. Trust should develop between the teacher and the students (Barfield, 2000). If ER books cannot be bought due to funding problems, free e-books

or the circulation of books between schools can be considered, and content for ER can be created by teacher and students alike (Barfield, 2000). For weak L2 students, bilingual readers that have the L2 version on one page and the L1 version on the opposite page can be used, as long as the students don't depend solely on the L1 page, and once the students become sufficiently competent, they should then only read L2 ER books (Barfield, 2000). Barfield (2000) also notes that the amount of reading is more important than undertaking post-reading activities, but that post-ER activities, when used, should be easy and interesting to the students. Barfield (2000) argues that the influence of peers who are good in ER should be exploited to motivate the whole class, because attitudes, beliefs and behaviours can be influenced by one's peers; further, providing students with opportunities to produce language can be done by using peer power appropriately. Group activities, producing art forms on the topics read and creating literature circles after a reading activity can motivate students for further ER (Barfield, 2000). Students can also be asked to rate the book read and indicate how they sourced the book, assisting others in finding enjoyable texts (Barfield, 2000). Taken together, Barfield's (2000) suggestions are useful for any researcher looking into developing ER for use in studies such as this, and his work was drawn upon when deciding on how best to implement the ER intervention.

2.4.2 Learners' perceptions/attitudes towards extensive reading

A number of relevant studies have demonstrated that EFL learners' have positive perceptions and attitudes towards ER activities, highlighting their potential as a teaching aid and a means for engaging students both in the classroom and in self-study. In a study by Alshamrani (2004), students used both incidental and intentional vocabulary learning in L2 vocabulary acquisition through ER activities, showing its potential to facilitate self-study. Although students encountered various reading difficulties, they had positive attitudes and motivations toward ER of authentic texts even after the course had finished. ER was found to help students develop and improve their vocabulary, their ability to read for meaning, their grammar, listening skills, speaking skills and pronunciation, showing connections between positive attitudes and language knowledge (Alshamrani, 2004). A study by Brantmeier (2005) also revealed positive attitudes towards ER, with the research indicating that learners enjoyed ER activities, and that this led to positive perceptions of pleasure reading, which correlated with their own self-assessment of their reading skills. An experimental

research project by Brusch (1991) demonstrated similarly positive attitudes and enjoyment, but noted the need for ER materials to be better reflective of learners' needs and interests. Findings from Hitosugi and Day's (2004) research showed that after a ten-week ER intervention, learners developed more positive attitudes and motivation towards reading while also gaining new cultural knowledge about the English language. In a study of Turkish EFL students, Kulaç et al. (2016) found that ER improved learners' previously negative attitudes towards reading, while Ro (2016) examined teachers' implementation of ER in the classroom, and found that students' perceptions improved to the point where they began to undertake ER activities as a leisure activity.

In an interesting study by Al-Homoud and Schmitt (2009) in the Saudi context, in a challenging learning environment whereby students were engaged in a professional short course where pleasure reading was not typical, ER led to more positive attitudes towards reading, and had the outcome of improving students' abilities to handle challenging learning environments. Another Saudi study by Salameh (2017) also showed that learners exposed to ER and who read books of their choice developed positive attitudes towards reading, became more motivated and developed greater self-confidence. Another important study by Azabdaftari (1992) that used the L1=L2 hypothesis showed that when students read for pleasure from appropriate L2 texts, ER facilitates a process whereby reading skills are enhanced and students can comprehend progressively more difficult L2 input, similar to the standard of native language acquisition. This process was then shown to lead to the eventual approximation of L2 acquisition to the level of L1 acquisition by the substantial unconscious input associated with ER (Azabdaftari, 1992). This reiterates the findings that show that pleasure plays a very important role in SLA through ER.

Other notable studies discuss correlations between attitudes towards ER and certain variables. A study by Crawford Camiciottoli (2001) used a survey to examine the attitudes of 182 Italian EFL students towards ER, and found that, even with low-level reading skills, the students expressed favourable attitudes towards ER. Both reading frequency and attitude were correlated with the amount of reading the learners did in Italian, and their experiences abroad where they were exposed to English (Crawford Camiciottoli, 2001). A likely association was found between the learners past access to English books and their attitudes towards ER (Crawford Camiciottoli,

2001). However, the number of years students had studied English in the past was negatively correlated with reading attitude, and how past reading affected attitude was not clear. No validity test results were reported in the paper, but the findings do show an interesting connection between attitude and frequency and amount of ER. A similar study by Yamashita (2004) 61 Japanese EFL graduate students studying applied linguistics used a survey with 22 items in a pre- and post-test study method and contained two sections, one about L1 reading and the other L2 reading. The study also showed favourable attitudes towards ER that had a similarly positive effect on performance. This showed similar findings to a 12-item survey used to measure the attitudes of Japanese university students studying English by Robb and Susser (1989), which also documented positive student attitudes and positive outcomes as a result of ER. Other studies of ER and attitudes with similar findings include those by Ro & Cheng-ling (2014) and Shen (2008).

Positive attitudes towards ER in English literature courses undertaken by US undergraduates were found in a study by Davis et al. (1992) to be connected to how much reading L2 English learners did, the role or importance of literature at home and their preferred learning style, while a study by De Morgado (2009) found that students who had positive perceptions of ER and found it enjoyable showed improvements in vocabulary, reading comprehension, reading skills and confidence. An article by Gee (1999) proposed that affective variables influencing ER must be studied in order to determine learners' attitudes towards reading, especially regarding increasing comprehension. Motivation, beliefs, perceived task control, and perceived competence were some of the affective variables. Other researchers Leung (2002) and Powell (2005) also reported positive attitudes towards ER and showed how different elements of learning can contribute to positive attitudes if they make learning easier and more enjoyable, and connected such ease and enjoyment to different learning contexts and styles. They showed that speaking in English at home can contribute to favourable learning experiences, and that if one learns according to their preferred learning style, the experience becomes enjoyable (Leung, 2002; Powell, 2005).

An in-depth study that informed this research's methodology undertaken by Burrows (2012) used a quasi-experimental design with intensive reading control, ER, reading strategies, and ER+ reading strategies. The effects of reading self-efficacy on

reading comprehension, perceptions of the extent of usefulness of ER and reading strategies and the relationship of these perceptions with reading self-efficacy were investigated (Burrows, 2012). Further, the influence of the self-efficacy of retrospective ratings of readings was analysed, and data were obtained through tests and surveys (Burrows, 2012). All the experimental groups in this study performed significantly better than the control group in reading comprehension (Burrows, 2012). The groups that undertook reading strategies and ER+ reading strategies recorded significantly higher reading self-efficacy over the academic year, compared to those that undertook ER and intensive reading (Burrows, 2012). Both strategies groups and the ER group performed better than the intensive reading group overall (Burrows, 2012). Burrows (2012) theorised that reading strategies, rather than amount of reading, had a higher effect on reading skill self-efficacy because they were focused on the development of skills, rather than reading alone, and made learners become autonomous, empowered readers. These findings are of great relevance to this study, because they show how different approaches to the implementation of ER may affect outcomes, and provide support for the use of structured ER in this study, which is more strategy-based than unstructured ER, while still maintaining a focus on pleasure, enjoyment and self-efficacy in reading.

Two studies that examined the use of the internet for ER showed both positive attitudes and positive outcomes. Alshwairkh (2004) found it helped advanced ESL MBA students to improve word familiarity, form, and meaning levels of resulting in positive attitudes towards ER and vocabulary learning using internet resources, while Al-Rajhi (2004) showed that the use of internet texts for ER was one way of making learning interesting, both in terms of the delivery method and the content itself. Another study by Lin (2014) on the use of online ER activities similarly found that more positive attitudes were the outcome of ER, and that mobile devices used by learners to read ER texts were particularly effective. The second finding aligns with research by Wang and Smith (2013), which similarly found that reading using mobile phones was a highly effective way of teaching grammar to EFL learners, who demonstrated positive attitudes towards the method.

Some studies show positive attitudes towards ER even if they do not indicate a strong correlation with SLA. In a study on guided ER, Asraf and Ahmad (2003) noted progress from initial reluctance to increased engagement during the implementation

of ER. Though it showed no empirical evidence of the effect of ER on language proficiency, which the authors attributed to the short-term nature of the study, such increased engagement is suggestive of positive attitudes increasing the propensity towards learning. In a study on attitudinal factors among undergraduates, Yamashita (2013) found an increase in comfort and intellectual value accompanied decreased anxiety when ER activities were implemented. While again there was no empirical evidence of the practical value of ER to language competencies and accuracies, the positive attitudinal aspects are of interest and support the idea that ER can foster engagement in learning.

One study has shown negative attitudes towards ER, that being a survey conducted by Al-Nujaidi (2003), which showed that ER was unpopular among first year Saudi university students, and was potentially the reason students had a low reading ability and very small vocabulary size, despite them practising most of the reading and problem-solving strategies at moderate to high frequencies. It would be interesting to know more about the design of the ER in use; if it was not designed or implemented in such a way as to be compelling, interesting or enjoyable, this may have been its failing.

Overall, research into ER and perceptions or attitudes shows that variables such as self-assessment, enjoyment, anxiety, engagement and motivation can be examined to lead to a better understanding of L2 reading comprehension. While many of these studies do not show direct correlations between positive perceptions/attitudes and language competencies and accuracies, specifically around speaking, they do however provide broad support for the notion that ER can foster learner engagement with L2 materials and SLA. The studies point to the importance of analysing ER further to understand its potentials, such as in the areas of vocabulary acquisition and grammatical accuracy, which will be discussed in the following sections.

2.4.3 Extensive reading and vocabulary acquisition

A number of empirical studies consider the relationship between vocabulary acquisition and ER, which is significant for this study in its focus on both vocabulary and grammar as the main linguistic factors needed to develop speaking. In Krashen's (1989) work, the author sets out evidence of experimental data from various researchers showing not just the effectiveness of reading for the acquisition of

vocabulary, but that reading was more effective than more direct instruction as to words and their meanings. This evidence was presented as supporting Krashen's (1989) input hypothesis, showing that the CI produced from reading was directly responsible for acquisition (Krashen, 1989).

In a very early study that is still relevant due to its focus on the types of ER materials used for successful vocabulary acquisition, Bagster-Collins (1933) stressed the need for proper textbooks and reading material. At the time of his study, the overlap of vocabulary between different textbooks, readers and texts under examination was found to be just 10% or less, meaning there was little consistency in what students were learning, with each text containing a different range of vocabulary; thus, the vocabulary was too broad, where it should have been narrower (Bagster-Collins, 1933). Classification of these texts into elementary, intermediate and advanced levels was still too broad, and Bagster-Collins (1933) instead suggested developing a number of texts with narrower target levels of vocabularies. There are parallels between this study and Day and Bamford's (2002) argument for using easy reading material to encourage students and SLA, and which might also therefore reflect some of Krashen's (2015) ideas about compelling CI.

An important study that is highly relevant to this research is that by Al-Hammad (2009), which showed that teachers at universities in Saudi Arabia neglect vocabulary in their teaching methods, which results in the limited ability for their students to develop accuracy in their language usage. The study showed that when ER was applied as an intervention to classrooms of female students that their vocabulary acquisition was strongly enhanced (Al-Hammad, 2009). The study also showed that the ER activities helped students to become more interested in learning, and that their attitudes towards learning English improved, as did their perceptions of the benefits of ER (Al-Hammad, 2009).

In a study of the effectiveness of ER in EFL learning among Japanese students by Mason and Krashen (1997b), the authors defined ER as self-directed reading with minimal accountability. In the study, after undertaking ER activities, students wrote summaries of what they had read. Subsequently, the study found that vocabulary improved through ER, leading to increased EFL performance in acquiring the language (Mason & Krashen, 1997b). Recent work by Krashen (2013) supports these findings, presenting the latest evidence for the effectiveness of reading for vocabulary

acquisition. In that study, Krashen (2013) argues that CI and reading are closely linked, and that while the process of acquiring vocabulary through reading is gradual, the vocabulary range achieved in doing so can be sizeable. These ideas were further reflected upon in a recent study by Krashen and Mason (2015) that also focused on the relationship between reading and vocabulary and showed that a considerable range of vocabulary results from long-term, sustained reading practices. This study confirmed the conclusions of Nation (2014) that one hour of reading every day for three years can result in the acquisition of 9000-word families, which may be equivalent to a score of 900-950 TOEIC competency level. Nation (2014) recognised the difficulties of managing the heavy vocabulary load of unsimplified reading material and the input requirements for reaching specific vocabulary targets at each level of language proficiency. He suggested the use of freely available mid-frequency readers to select the required input type at each level (Nation, 2014). Another study by McQuillan and Krashen (2008) contended that even a small duration of free reading a day could provide an L2 reader with the number of vocabulary levels needed for fluency. In combination these studies show how time and frequency of reading can affect vocabulary acquisition, something relevant to this study, which looks at ER activities over a period of time.

In a study by Sun (2016), corpus analysis was done on 48 Magic Tree Series books used for ER. The series of books was analysed for vocabulary coverage across the series, the word-type repetition patterns observed across the three word lists, and the potential for incidental vocabulary learning, word list learning, and intensive new word learning (Sun, 2016). Findings demonstrated the usefulness of ER to support word list learning (Sun, 2016). The author ascribed these results to motivation, availability of reading materials and adoption of popular book series with repeated vocabulary and easy accessibility (Sun, 2016). This study has parallels with the concept of compelling CI as well as Day and Bamford's (2002) principles for ER and focus on simplicity and pleasure, once again showing the type of ER material that should be used in studies such as this thesis.

Overall, this section has shown that a number of studies look at the relationship between reading and vocabulary acquisition, including a couple that consider ER specifically. Further research into these relationships is warranted to see if some of

the benefits of ER can be applied to speaking accuracies specifically, with direct reference to vocabulary acquisition as a central part of this process.

2.4.4 Extensive reading and grammar acquisition

As previously identified, both vocabulary and grammar are central not just to developing speaking accuracies but to all aspects of language learning. This section considers studies that have analysed the relationship between ER and grammar acquisition, such as that by He and Yap (2012), that looked at the Reading and English Acquisition Program in Hong Kong, and found a positive relationship between ER and grammar acquisition. In that study, the most effective approach for grammar acquisition was the use of a combination of the grammar-translation method with ER, and with ER offered by means of graded readers, which provided what could be viewed as a wide range of CI that benefited the acquisition process (He & Yap, 2012). This concept was applied to this research, and is supported by the work of other scholars who have shown the effectiveness of graded readers in EFL classrooms (Brumfit, 1985; Iwahori, 2008; Tan et al., 2016), especially for ER purposes (Bamford, 1984). Other similar studies of note include those by Lee et al. (2015), Song and Sardegna (2014), Rodrigo (2006) and Alqadi and Alqadi (2013), all which demonstrate the positive relationship between ER and the acquisition of grammar. In Lee et al.'s (2015) study, translation activities associated with ER were found to improve grammatical accuracies; however, the extent of improvement depended upon the proficiency level of the learners. Song and Sardegna's (2014) study showed that secondary school EFL students gained incidental acquisition of English prepositions through enhanced ER, while an experimental study by Alqadi and Alqadi (2013) demonstrated the positive impact of ER on enhancing grammatical accuracy in writing tasks. Alqadi & Alqadis' (2013) study is interesting as the ER was accompanied by summarising what was read in written form, therefore producing output directly connected to input. This aspect seems to support the integration of Swain's (1985) output hypothesis with Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis. In terms of learners' attitudes and perceptions, McQuillan (1994), in a comparison study, noted that the students preferred ER over grammar exercises. The attitude of students was ascribed to their preference for pleasurable and beneficial experiences, as was shown to be related to ER, demonstrating that enjoyment could play an important role in grammar acquisition (McQuillan, 1994).

2.4.5 Oral reporting activity as output

This section will consider some studies that have focused on OR and other oral activities in EFL classrooms as a means to improve speaking accuracies, before turning to a handful of studies that look at both ER and OR. The study will firstly show connections between Swain's output hypothesis and OR as an output activity.

A study by Daif-Allah and Khan (2016) showed a significant improvement in speaking when open discussion sessions were implemented in the EFL classrooms of a Saudi university. These discussion sessions provided a relaxed learning environment where students were encouraged to talk openly with one another, without worry (Daif-Allah & Khan, 2016). This learning environment was found to increase self-confidence and speaking as a result, showing an interesting correlation between attitudes and competencies (Daif-Allah & Khan, 2016); this will be examined in more detail later in this own study. The students were actively involved in real communicative situations with other students, as well as with their instructors (Daif-Allah & Khan, 2016). Highly relevant to this study was the use of OR as an intervention method to improve speaking, based on the idea that through two-way communication, students would learn how to use the language in its context while making their ideas known to each other, and the class as a whole when observing those discussions (Daif-Allah & Khan, 2016). While not specifically focused on OR, other research provides support for these findings, with Gonzalez's (2003) work showing the benefits of educational chat as an oral activity to develop speaking skills, and Lee's (2009) research showing that participation in graduate seminars could be enhanced through further speaking practice through oral activities.

As Khan et al. (2015) noted in a survey of samples from three colleges of a Saudi university, there are limited opportunities available in the classroom for students to develop their speaking, pointing to the need to introduce out-of-classroom activities that would help students practice English and become more coherent in their speaking performance. Khan et al. (2015) showed that students in fact wanted language training sessions outside of normal classes to solve the problem of their poor speaking. In the study, students recognised the importance of good communication competencies in English for the development of their personalities as English speakers, which satisfied their social needs, provided them with the potential to get good jobs, and the tools to survive in the competitive job market (Khan et al., 2015). In Khan's (2015) study ER

as an out-of-classroom activity for language training was tested as the main intervention method, which has parallels with this study.

In a review by Khatib et al. (2011), speaking skills were shown to be developed by encouraging students to describe the events in a poem, novel, or short story in literature texts the learner could relate to his/her own experiences in real life. Their speaking proficiency was enhanced when they reflected upon the events and made critical comments (Khatib et al., 2011). To follow Khatib et al. (2011), the inclusion of literature in language teaching therefore facilitates speaking development. The use of materials such as poems and short stories is relevant to this study, which used similar, short ER texts. Further, Khatib et al.'s (2011) study has some methodological similarities to this research in terms of how it encouraged the students to reflect on their experiences in the surveys and interviews.

A survey of a large sample of Saudi university students (3,200) conducted by Alhaysony (2016) examined oral communications in the EFL classroom and their impact on speaking. Frequent corrective feedback on those communications was used not immediately but sometime after the activity was completed, and the study showed that both teachers and students on the whole desired this feedback process and that it had positive outcomes for speaking (Alhaysony, 2016). Typically, the students requested clarification, repetition, explicit and metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and recasting as a way to help them develop their skills, and an absence of correction was not acceptable to them (Alhaysony, 2016). They wanted all their speaking errors to be corrected, and as Alhaysony (2016) explains, their priority order of errors to be corrected was: serious errors; frequent errors; individual errors; less serious errors; and less frequent errors. The study showed that the order of teacher correction, self-correction and classmate correction was preferred by students in terms of who corrects the errors (Alhaysony, 2016). Female students responded more positively to corrections than male students, and correction feedback was preferred more by highly proficient students than those less proficient students (Alhaysony, 2016). Overall, Alhaysony's work (2016) showed that corrective feedback is one effective way to improve speaking. Feedback is a focus throughout this thesis, as it is a commonly-used method to both assess students' competencies and the effectiveness of teaching methods themselves, and I will return to Alhaysony's (2016) work later in the thesis.

Litz's (2005) research into the pedagogical merits and limitations of an English EFL textbook at a university in South Korea showed that oral presentations, dialogues and group work practised as class activities in addition to textbook learning had significant benefits for speaking. These practices were similar to the OR used in this study. In a Japanese study with a similar focus, Otoshi and Heffernen (2008) noted that students considered clarity of speech, voice quality, use of correct language and interactions with the audience as the most important factors of effective presentations in English, and that OR and discussions helped them develop speaking. Lastly, the utility of debate as a learning tool for the development of speaking was demonstrated by Aclan and Aziz (2016), who examined pre-debate, on-debate and post-debate assessments, and also by Aclan et al. (2016), who looked at the acquisition of soft skills like quick critical-thinking and effective communication through debate. Both studies showed that debates are interesting to students, and that students will actively participate in debates and express their ideas freely, which contribute to self-confidence in speaking. The focus on OR in this research and its connections to self-confidence is also analysed in this study.

To end, it must be noted that there are no studies of significance that look at how both ER and OR can be used together to develop speaking accuracies, or that combine both input and output hypotheses and examine them together in this context, as this review has shown it is possible to do. This constitutes a research gap, discussed below in section 2.5 in addition to two related others. It should also be noted that while a handful of studies discussed were specific to Saudi Arabia, further research is certainly needed that considers the development of speaking accuracies within the Saudi context, as the ways in which language acquisition occur have direct relevance to cultural, social and other nation-specific factors (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

2.5 A working model integrating Krashen's and Swain's hypotheses for the purpose of this study

Based on the analysis undertaken in this chapter, this section presents a working model that integrates Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) hypotheses to offer a fuller, more holistic understanding of the process of L2 learning, especially when applied to the Saudi context. The model developed for investigation in this study is shown in Figure 2.9 (p. 91) and shows how ER in a second language provides CI to

an EFL learner. From here, the learner engages in speaking output that bring to his or her attention any speaking inaccuracies. Via internal feedback, the learner then makes self-corrections to their speaking, or may use additional exercises to improve their output, thereby acquiring speaking accuracies.
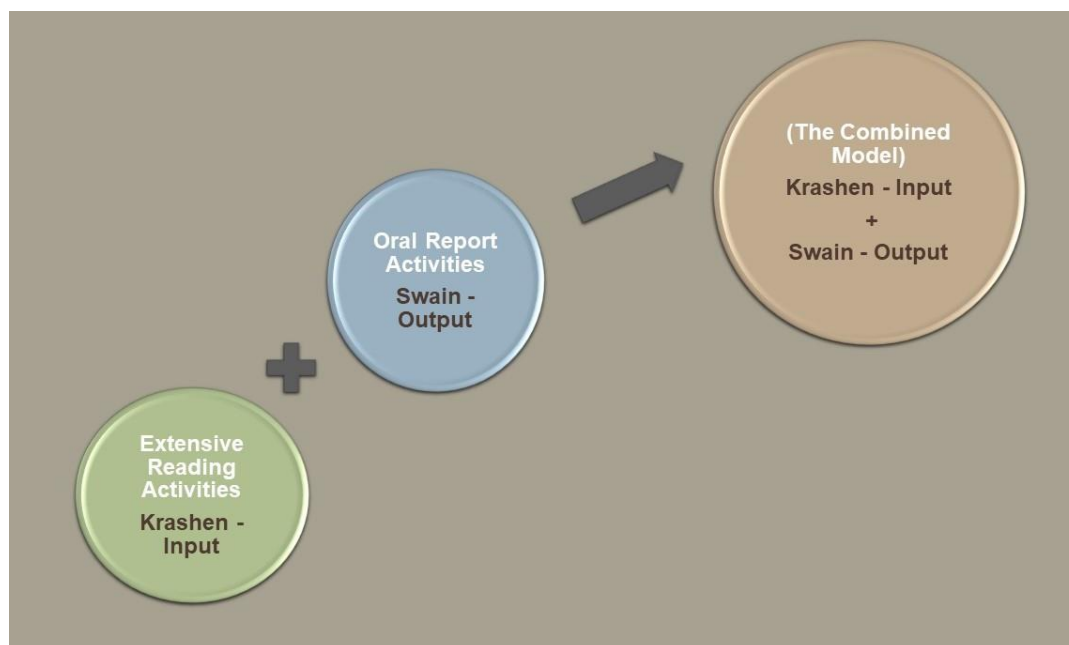
Figure 2.9: The proposed combined model

There are both similarities and differences between the proposed model and Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) frameworks. According to Krashen's (1981, 1982) model, speaking accuracies develop after a learner acquires sufficient competence through engagement with comprehensible inputs. Much of the empirical evidence reviewed in this chapter is supportive of this basic process, and thus is retained for inclusion in this model. The integrated model incorporates ER as the main exercise that contributes to CI, but is not the sole reason that learners develop speaking accuracies. One of the limitations of Krashen's (1981, 1982) theory is that while inputs can support the acquisition of new vocabulary, they are less useful in supporting the development and acquisition of syntactic structures. Consequently, CI, as conceptualised by Krashen (1981, 1982), may not be enough to help a learner to acquire accuracy in speaking a second language. The literature review in this chapter discussed several empirical studies that have confirmed that there is a positive relationship between ER and the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary; therefore, the proposed model presents ER as an effective means for learners to improve their grammatical skills and vocabulary.

Krashen's (1981, 1982) model also does not provide a role for the recognition, monitoring and correcting of errors, a criticism that has empirical support in Swain's (1985) work. Swain's (1985) output hypothesis offers a correction to this deficiency and is therefore included in the proposed integrated model used in this thesis. According to Swain (1985), when the EFL learner is pushed to produce output (primarily through speaking and interacting with others), he/she is forced to acknowledge gaps in their knowledge, whether these be partial or complete. This gap presents as the difference between what the learner wishes to say, and what they are able to say (Swain, 1985). It is proposed that when ER activities are used as comprehensible inputs, that the learner will notice gaps between what they are able to read – based on the vocabulary and grammar acquired through reading compelling CI – and what they cannot comprehend. This effectively acts as the means to assess their ability to read, measured by noticing this gap in their reading ability, as per Swain's (1985) work on the noticing function. Such noticing can occur when the learner attempts to explain verbally what they have read, and notices that they are not able to fully grasp the intended meaning. Thus, any perceived gap is recognised as a limitation to the production of CO.

In Swain's (1985) model, when a learner notices a gap, they become self-aware of their limitations and modify their output accordingly. It is through this process that new knowledge is acquired (Swain, 1985). However, there are issues associated with this element of the model, which has been criticised for not revealing the strategies that learners can use to take corrective action when they notice that they have made an error, aside from further negotiated interactions with others (Shehadeh, 2003; Hong, 2002; Quinn, 2003). In the integrated model proposed in this thesis, there are two possible feedback loops that represent new inputs to language learning that can be used as strategies for corrective action. By engaging in these feedback loops, the learner can return to the inputs (reading materials) and undertake further ER to fill in gaps in their knowledge. This is most likely to occur when the learner notices, along with these gaps, how ER can be used to develop grammatical skills and vocabulary. Alternatively, the learner could also use other class activities aimed at improving speaking accuracies, such as collaborative tasks supported by collaborative dialogue, as per Swain's (1985) hypothesis. These collaborative aspects could then lead to the realisation of the i+1 stage of Krashen's (1981, 1982) model. The comprehensive

output of the spoken statement could involve some trial and error based on input from the collaborative dialogue. Thus, repeated hypothesis testing and error correction could occur through this process, as per Swain's (1985) hypothesis. The final correct spoken statement is the successful output, and provides a metalinguistic function (Swain, 1985) whereby the learner reviews or reflects on the language learned and skills developed, enabling them to control and internalise the knowledge gained from the output.

Evidently, this is not the only holistic or integrated model of second language learning that has been proposed in L2 literature. One alternative approach – the Interaction Hypothesis (sometimes known as the Oral Interaction Hypothesis) proposed by Long (1996) has a slightly different focus, but similarly integrates elements of Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) models, with later refinements including other factors proposed by theorists such as Pica (1989). According to the Interaction Hypothesis, the main factor that drives L2 learning is the opportunity to interact with others (Long, 1996). In line with socio-interactionist perspectives on education, the Interaction Hypothesis places emphasis on the impact of the context in which the learner is embedded.

Like the proposed integrated model, the Interaction Hypothesis conceptualises the constructs of inputs and outputs as interlinked. More specifically, these elements are exchanged within the interactive setting; i.e., it is through inputs and outputs that the interactions occur (Long, 1996). While this is explicit in Long's (1996) model, it is more implicit in the model proposed here. However, the proposed model aligns with the Interaction Hypothesis in that it also views the learner's analysis of individual inputs and outputs as allowing for an evaluation of the learners' relative proficiency and fluency in the language. In the proposed integrated model, it is the learner themselves who engages in the evaluation process, the results of which are used to drive personal strategies (e.g., additional reading or collaborative exercises) to support further learning. However, the learner's noticing of the gap between what they want or intend to say and what they manage to say can also be facilitated by the learners' evaluation of the interaction itself. A learner might, for example, be frustrated by misunderstandings on the part of the interlocutor that draw attention to errors of the learner's making. Thus, like Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, the proposed integrated model does assign an important role to the process of interaction.

There are also a few similarities between the proposed model and the theoretical framework offered by Soviet psychologist Vygotsky (1987). Vygotsky (1987) placed significant emphasis on the role of deliberation and intent on processes of language learning. For example, he noted that:

The child learns a foreign language in school differently than he learns his native language. He does not begin learning his native language with the study of the alphabet, with reading and writing, with the conscious and intentional construction of phrases, with the definition of words, or with the study of grammar. Generally, however, this is all characteristic of the child's first steps in learning a foreign language. The child learns his native language without conscious awareness or intention; he learns a foreign language with conscious awareness and intention (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 221).

This is an important point because it suggests that learners' thinking processes play a role in shaping their abilities to acquire the L2 (Vygotsky, 1987). It emphasises that when a learner learns their first language, they are too young to be aware of their thinking processes (Vygotsky, 1987). In contrast, acquiring a second language later in life demands conscious and deliberate thought (Vygotsky, 1987). Consistent with this proposition, the proposed integrated model incorporates a system of internal feedback and deliberate intention with which the learner engages to further develop their own strategies for refining their skills and correcting observed errors.

To summarise, based on an extensive review of the theoretical and empirical literature, an integrated model of L2 learning has been proposed that integrates Swain's (1985) output hypothesis and Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis, while also focusing on the key roles that ER, social interaction and internal feedback and reflection can play in EFL acquisition. This model will be employed in the thesis to assess the influence of ER and ER + OR interventions on speaking accuracies, and to investigate the usefulness and importance of both input and output in language acquisition. While a focus on input *or* output is limited, a focus on a combination of both has the potential to provide important insights into the connections between reading as input and speaking as output.

2.6 Research gaps

The literature review has identified the following gaps:

1. Empirical evidence is needed as to the usefulness of ER in gaining vocabulary and grammar to improve speaking accuracies both alone and in conjunction with OR.
2. Further study is needed of the direct relationship between ER and speaking, and ER, OR and speaking accuracies, that takes into account both input and output hypotheses.
3. There is a paucity of research on ER and speaking accuracies conducted in the Middle East, especially from Saudi Arabia.

As such, the research will consider the direct and indirect relationships between ER and speaking accuracies, and ER, OR and speaking accuracies in the EFL context of a university in Saudi Arabia with Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis as the integrated theoretical model. The research will therefore also address an important gap in the research literature relating to the efficacy of the individual hypotheses, filling that gap with the creation of the integrated theoretical model that recognises the importance of both input and output in SLA.

2.7 Research questions

The aim of this research is firstly to examine the impact of ER and OR activities on speaking accuracies, with a specific focus on the acquisition of vocabulary and grammar and secondly, to examine students' perceptions towards ER activities. This study is therefore based on two distinct empirical pathways of investigation – one focused on measuring perceptions and the other on measuring speaking accuracies. The following five research questions were formulated to cover all aspects of this study, and to address the gaps determined through the review of the literature. Five related hypotheses are also presented.

Research Question 1. Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?

Hypothesis 1: Extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of vocabulary in speaking English.

Research Question 2. Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?

Hypothesis 2: Extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of grammar in speaking English.

Research Question 3. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?

Hypothesis 3: Extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of vocabulary in speaking English.

Research Question 4. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?

Hypothesis 4: Extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of grammar in speaking English.

Research Question 5. What are Saudi university EFL students' perceptions/attitudes towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracy through improving vocabulary and grammar?

Hypothesis 5: Saudi university EFL students will have positive perceptions/attitudes towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracies through improving vocabulary and grammar.

The research questions will be examined through a methodology founded on an integrated model based on Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1989) work across the different stages of language learning processes, and in doing so will provide more comprehensive results than either model used alone due to the synergistic interactive effect of the two frameworks, as outlined in the next section.

2.8 Chapter summary

This chapter first discussed theoretical models of language acquisition, examined with reference to two central hypotheses – Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis – both of which were examined in detail. Criticisms of both models and assessments of their limitations were assessed, which allowed for an investigation of the most evidence-based aspects of the hypothesis as well as associated gaps, with a view to developing a theoretical model appropriate to this study and its context that combined both hypotheses and will allow for a study of ER as input and OR as output. The proposed model developed in this chapter shows how the two complementary hypotheses can be combined to analyse both input and output in language acquisition, with a focus on ER and speaking accuracies. The literature on ER and its relationship with speaking was reviewed, and showed that the main effect of ER is to allow learners to increase their vocabulary and improve their grammatical skills, which was therefore used to guide the focus of the thesis. Based on the reviewed literature, three research gaps were identified, which provide the foundation for this research. The next chapter outlines the methodology to be used in this thesis, which has both quantitative and qualitative features. The chapter will describe the mixed methods approach used for the collection of data and the analysis used to verify the hypotheses and answer the research questions.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes as well as justifies the methodology adopted for the study. Firstly, it explains the nature of the study and outlines how the experiment was designed and undertaken, including information on participants and sampling methods and the three groups under study – those being one control group (CG) and two experimental groups (EPCD1 and EPCD2). The chapter then discusses the procedures used including an initial pilot study and a research activity schedule. Next, data collection methods are set out, including those related to the use of IELTS speaking tests and related criteria, the survey and qualitative interviews developed by the researcher. Details of data analysis are then presented in relation to the five research questions. The processes involved in both quantitative and qualitative data analysis are described, followed by an overview of the validity and reliability of the study. The chapter concludes with sections on ethical considerations and information management.

3.2 Nature of the study

This research adopts a positivist research paradigm as an overall methodological position. The central supposition of this paradigm is that reality can be understood objectively, which implies that truth and facts are not dependent on the observer. Positivist theorists maintain that the immediate aim of scholarly work is to illuminate objective realities, not subjective ideas (O'Mahony & Vincent, 2014). Notably, however, positivists are not uniform in their ideas (Bryman, 2012). For instance, logical positivism relies on a deductive approach, and is chiefly concerned with analytic propositions (Weinberg, 2013), while also being founded on the premise that reality constitutes two components, namely, the empirical and the theoretical. In contrast, empirical positivism relies on the practice of verifying or falsifying claims of truth, which results in another bipartite division of reality, namely, the division between science and non-science (Blaug, 1997). Ultimately, the division stems from Popper's (2014) finding that deductive and inductive approaches are non-uniform in terms of their content. Blaug (1997) explains this by stating that the occurrence of certain events historically have failed to serve as an assurance of continuous truths, the implication of which is that previous experience holds inadequate predictive power.

Blaug (1997) distinguishes between material truth and material falsehood, whereby the former is non-obtainable and the latter is obtainable. Through this lens, we can consider that scientific methods are concerned with falsifying initial suppositions about reality (i.e., a hypothesis), and subsequently generating a falsification-resistant hypothesis. This notion led Popper (2014) to conclude that knowledge is acquired by engaging in inductive and generalisable practices. In view of these considerations, it is justifiable to state that positivism revolves around the observation, measurement and explanation of objective realities and their interrelationships.

The philosophical paradigm one chooses to implement in their research project must be determined in light of two considerations: firstly, the project's aim, and secondly, the nature of the data that will be collected and examined. Importantly, this research is compatible with the deductive approach because it seeks to illuminate causal relationships. In particular, I am attempting to quantify the impact that ER activities have on students' speaking; thus, measurements must be conducted in this study. This is clearly the case when one considers that a subjective assessment of the causal relationship between these variables would certainly be inconsistent. Finally, it should be noted that because the topic of investigation and the evaluative approach are only reasonably sophisticated, this serves as another reason why the positivist philosophical paradigm is most compatible with the study.

The study relies on primary research consisting of a mixed methods approach that uses both quantitative and qualitative methods. A mixed methods research design is routinely shown to be highly valuable in the field of applied linguistics (Angouri, 2010; Hashemi, 2012). It is often described as a powerful way to illuminate the inner-workings of multivariable phenomena, primarily because it facilitates the simultaneous analysis of processes and outcomes (Hashemi, 2012). Nonetheless, just as a research philosophy must align with a project's aim and the data to be collected, a research design must be similarly compatible with the aims, data and context of the study (Bryman et al., 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

In the domain of applied linguistics, Hashemi (2012) argues that mixed methods research designs are a useful way to improve the generalisability, validity and reliability of a study. According to Johnson et al. (2007), because they include both quantitative and qualitative data and methods, mixed methods research, in contrast to solely quantitative or qualitative research designs, allow for a variegated consideration of a

range of perspectives. Various mixed methods research designs can be used: triangulation; embedded design; explanatory design; and exploratory design (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). The defining features of each design as described by these authors are outlined below:

Triangulation: Triangulation is 'the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings' (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004, p. 1142). It is a method of enhancing the rigor of research using multiple methods of data collection from different perspectives to obtain a fuller picture of the phenomenon (Williamson, 2005). As Bryman (2006, 2007, 2017) explains, researchers who combine quantitative and qualitative methods often employ interviews and survey-based studies to examine phenomena; these methods can be successful to varying levels. At its most effective, triangulation seeks collaboration between the two different methods, whereby the results of both forms of data collection are integrated and interconnected (Bryman, 2007). As Oberst (1993) argues, when applied correctly, triangulation allows for the quantitative and qualitative aspects of research to be considered from the same perspective.

Of the four types of triangulation (data, investigator, theoretical and methodological triangulation), this research uses methodological triangulation as a means to best integrate quantitative and qualitative research, which focuses on the methods of data collection rather than on theories and their application. By allowing the research to examine correlations between both types of data, triangulation provides the means to enhance the analysis of finding through a two-pronged approach to answering research questions (Bekhet & Zausniewski, 2012). This form of triangulation is most commonly practised by researchers, and is therefore the most tested method, with its reliance on convergent validity meaning the connections between the different types of data can clearly be identified (Trochim, 2006).

Embedded Design: In embedded design, two types of data collection methods are used to illuminate the same issue, where one serves as the primary method and the other as the secondary method (Plano-Clark et al., 2013). For example, a qualitative method such as a survey might act as the secondary method, and be embedded in a larger primary method such as an intervention. The two work together to present a comprehensive mixed methods research design (Caracelli & Greene, 1997). A strength of the embedded design is its compatibility with projects that gather

equivalent amounts of statistical and non-statistical data (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011).

Explanatory Design: Here, statistical and non-statistical data types are used, but an explanatory design draws on the latter to illuminate (or explain) the former. Explanatory designs are essential when anomalous statistical results have been yielded during a project, because drawing on non-statistical data can account for such events (Morse, 1991).

Exploratory Design: This mixed method design is characterised by the initial use of non-statistical data to facilitate the development of a plan of action for the subsequent utilisation of statistical methods. The collection of qualitative data in this way at the outset of a project can inform the choice of theoretical framework, variables and methods. The exploratory design's notable advantage is the way each phase can be straightforwardly reported.

Considering the features of the above mixed methods research designs and the aims of this study, a sequential explanatory research design has been implemented that also relies on triangulation to test hypotheses. In the current research, firstly the quantitative data (the speaking tests and the survey) were collected and analysed to give a general overview of the findings. Then, the qualitative data (interviews) were collected to explain or further explore the findings derived from the quantitative data. This mixed methods sequential explanatory design, whereby data is collected at multiple stages, aligns with the work of Ivankova et al. (2006), who argue that a multi-stage design that uses complementary quantitative and qualitative data can provide the foundation for a deeper analysis of the themes identified in data-driven, experiential research. The research design of this study is described below.

3.3 Research design

As Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011) explain, the term 'research design' refers to the methods and procedures used to integrate the different components of a research project in a coherent and logical way. This ensures the identified research problem is effectively addressed and the design contains a blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). As discussed above, the research design in this thesis is a sequential explanatory design, used to structure its mixed methods approach. It is a longitudinal study as only one set of pre-

test and one set of post-test observations were conducted. As the individuals in the samples share common characteristics, being male university students of a similar age in the same course, it is also a cohort study. The research procedure has been planned to ensure that the intervention effects are maximised, and random effects are minimised. The research questions and hypotheses were formulated to answer the research problem while fitting into these specific aspects of the design.

This study has a quasi-experimental design, chosen because it allowed the researcher to study a phenomenon with purposively chosen conditions that fit within the constraints of the research, including practicalities, time and the length and breadth of the thesis. As Campbell (1968) explains, in quasi-experimental designs, research subjects may be applied to different conditions with intention by the researcher, rather than being applied randomly, which would be a 'true' experimental approach (Campbell, 1968). To follow Reichardt (2009, p. 46), 'in quasi-experiments, different treatment conditions are not assigned to units at random … randomized experiments are not always possible because of either ethical or practical constraints'. In a quasi-experimental design of this nature, the causal impact of an intervention on the target sample without a random assignment can be tested.

In this study, to differentiate the effect of using the ER or ER + OR interventions specifically on speaking accuracies among students in comparison to any effect on speaking accuracies when ER or ER + OR is not used, a control group (CG) was created alongside two experimental groups with different conditions – ER group (EPCD1) and ER + OR group (EPCD2). Pre- and post-intervention tests took note of the effects before and after intervention by testing the effect of ER and ER + OR on students' speaking. The comparison of pre- and post-intervention tests provided a precise measurement of the effect of the interventions. The infrastructure of this research is explained in Table 3.1 (p. 103), and the details of the experiment will be discussed in the next section.

Table 3.1: Research infrastructure

Research questions	**Research Question 1.** Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?
	Research Question 2. Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?
	Research Question 3. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?
	Research Question 4. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?
	Research Question 5. What are Saudi university EFL students' perceptions/attitudes towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracy through improving vocabulary and grammar?
Theoretical framework	Krashen's input hypothesis and Swain's output hypothesis.
Research approach	Mixed methods.
	Positivist research paradigm.
Research design	Sequential explanatory design: combines statistical and non-statistical data types; draws on the latter to illuminate the former.
	Quasi-experimental design: the causal impact of an intervention on the target sample without a random assignment can be tested.
Tests	Pre-intervention: IELTS speaking tests.
	Post-intervention IELTS speaking tests.
Data collection methods	Survey using 4-point Likert scale.
	Semi-structured interviews.
Data analysis methods	Quantitative: data coding, exploratory factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha, test of normality, summary statistics, variable scoring, chi-square tests of independence, ANOVAs, ANCOVAs, paired t-tests, and two-sample t-tests.
	Qualitative: thematic analysis.

3.4 Setting the experiment

3.4.1 University and course content

The study was conducted in the English department of a large public university in Saudi Arabia. This is the university where the researcher worked before studying in the UK, and therefore was selected for convenience and familiarity, as it is easier to work in a familiar environment. The university is among the top five ranking universities in Saudi Arabia, according to QS World University Rankings (QS, 2018). The English Language Centre at the university is a sub-division of the English department, and is responsible for teaching language skills, while the English department teaches courses in linguistics, literature and translation. The English Language Centre is certified by the International Accreditation Board and is supported and certified by the Quality Assurance Programme at Oxford University, UK, with which it has a long-term relationship with Oxford University. The English Centre offers a range of courses from preparatory programmes for TOEFL and IELTS to accredited diplomas in English.

The Listening and Speaking course at the university at which the study was conducted is compulsory. The course at the intermediate level (Level 4), consists of a mandatory three hours of class time twice a week, including both lectures from the instructor and interactive in-class practice of the elements taught. The course outline is provided in Appendix G. The course aims to develop students' ability to understand a high level of spoken English, particularly in academic contexts, and to be able to express themselves verbally in English on academic matters and current events, and in social situations. The common curriculum-based activities in the course include speaking exercises, small group discussions, and tests on correct pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary. Many activities align with those in the textbook Interactions 2 by Tanka and Baker (2008), discussed below, in the form of speeches, tests and presentations.

The course covers broad and narrow aspects of spoken language, including 'accepting and refusing invitations', 'apologising and reconciling' and 'giving map directions'. The students are expected to give oral presentations throughout the course and to actively speak English in the classroom. However, the final assessment in the course focuses more on listening than on speaking, with 60 out of 100 marks allocated to listening comprehension and only 40 to oral production. Further, the speaking

assessment task takes the form of a presentation, which allows for preparation and practice and does not test proficiency in conversation. It is possible therefore to pass Listening and Speaking Level 4 without a high level of proficiency in spoken English and without one's speaking level being fully assessed. In comparison, the assessments used to measure the outcomes of the interventions in this study relied primarily on speaking tests, which used IELTS techniques to determine students' success in creating conversation. For this reason, this study is more comprehensive in terms of its focus on encouraging and testing speaking than the curriculum used at the university under study.

The tests students undertake in the course are held both in class and as homework and reflect the course's emphasis on listening comprehension. Those drawn from the textbook (Tanka & Baker, 2008) are designed to be undertaken alone or in a group accompanied by recordings that provide scenarios for students to listen to and interpret. Additionally, these recordings provide the students with the correct pronunciation, which assists them with the associated speaking tasks. This means the emphasis of the activities is on listening even when the targeted skill of a task is speaking. Students are, for example, asked to read difficult sentences aloud, and have discussions among themselves and in role-play situations. Moreover, many of the speaking tasks ask students to listen to examples of the component being taught and then replicate them alone or in a group. Thus, the development of speaking competencies in the course is reliant on the development of strong listening skills and memorisation or practising but less on using what was learned to construct their own messages in communication.

Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9 of Interactions 2 (Tanka & Baker, 2008) were used as course book for Listening and Speaking Level 4. Each chapter contains approximately 30 activities covering listening, speaking and writing skills. The speaking activities are primarily discussions undertaken between students before and after listening to the audio lectures, which concentrate on cultural topics or specific features of pronunciation and language. The speaking activities in each of the chapters are examine for opportunities to develop students speaking competencies.

Chapter 6 is about global customs and the use of technology for communication. It contains 31 exercises in total, 11 of which are speaking exercises. Four of these speaking exercises take the form of group discussions about audio

lectures, which are guided by specific questions asked both in pre-listening and post-listening stages. For example, one lecture is on trivia, and the pre-listening questions include: 'Do you know anyone who is a trivia expert? Describe this person.' Another lecture is about global customs, and the post-listening questions are somewhat more challenging, including: 'Compare the use of names and titles in the United States and other countries'; and 'What advice would you give an American visiting your country about the proper way to address people?'. The aim of this kind of task is to encourage students to use English in conversation. Of the remaining seven speaking tasks, three ask students to repeat correct pronunciation and intonation, and four are focused tasks that test proficiency to some degree. These include a prepared two-minute presentation, an interrupting game where one student tells a story and the others interrupt with questions, a game where students collect information about one another, and a role-play exercise to practise interruptions as a language feature.

Chapter 7 is primarily concerned with differences between British and American English expressions and spelling. It contains 27 exercises, of which just six are speaking tasks. Of these, two are discussion tasks based on a lecture or a written test, and include questions such as: 'Are you a good speller in your native language?'; and 'If you ever have children, do you want them to be bilingual? Why is this important or useful?'. There are two other speaking tasks that involve practising new vocabulary in pairs. The final task asks the student to look at photographs, write dialogue inspired by a photograph, and read this dialogue aloud. Thus, it combines writing and speaking.

Chapter 8 contains 31 general exercises, of which 12 are speaking tasks covering a variety of topics, for example, hobbies, the concept of Generation Y, tastes and preferences, and the idea of starting a family. Eight of the speaking tasks are pre- and post-lecture discussion tasks guided by questions. One of these requires students to discuss and write sentences describing their ideal partner, while another requires them to complete written sentences and then discuss their answers with another student. Three exercises test vocabulary, including quizzes on terms and meanings. The final exercise is more complex, comprising a full class activity where students draw questions out of a box. They are then required to give a one-minute impromptu spoken response to the questions drawn.

Chapter 9 is the shortest, containing just nine speaking activities focused on using language functions and on constructing narratives in chronological order. One

is a complex task, involving group and individual work. For this task, students are required to read a selection of sentences and then paraphrase them aloud within a group. Then, the group works together to weave the sentences into a coherent and logical narrative. Four of the remaining exercises are pre- and post-listening discussions guided by questions, three are pronunciation exercises including listening to and repeating challenging words, and the final exercise tests vocabulary.

In evaluating the textbook and these exercises, it is evident that there is a combination of input and output related activities, based around reading (input), listening (input), writing (output) and speaking (output). Correlations may exist between the way the reading and listening elicit students' interactions with the content and are able to produce accurate output as a result. The nature of the input has the potential to be compelling if the students find it interesting; by the same token, if students do not find it interesting or enjoyable they must undertake prescribed activities rather than those they can choose themselves, which could have an impact on output and the development of language skills. It is apparent from this analysis of the materials that there are opportunities for students to develop their speaking competencies, and the popularity of the textbook in educational institutions points to its effectiveness. Thus, this study does not aim to assess the textbook's efficacy, but to analyse how ER and ER + OR activities might further develop or enhance the skills already learnt in class.

3.4.2 Participants and sampling method

Participants were recruited when, after contacting the Department head, the researcher visited the university and talked to teachers in the English department about the research. The teachers who were interested engaged students who were willing to participate and provided them with all relevant background information and guidance regarding their role in the research. The researcher spent a total of three months working with the teachers and their students.

Members of each group in the quantitative study were comparable in terms of their level of English language proficiency, and all were in the first semester of their second year of university. This reduced the chance of any extraneous variables impacting on the dependant variables. At the time the study began the English language level of the students ranged from A2 ('an ability to deal with simple,

straightforward information and begin to express oneself in familiar contexts') to B1 ('the ability to express oneself in a limited way in familiar situations and to deal in a general way with non-routine information') according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, 2014). This was based on their IELTS scores, which ranged between 3 and 4.5 in the pre-intervention test phase. At that stage in their education (Level 4), the students had passed all Level 3 English language skills tests, including speaking, listening, reading and writing components. Thus, all participants in the research had already successfully passed their Level 3 examinations. The age of participants, their perceptions towards ER and their lexical resource and grammatical accuracy scores, measured before intervention, were comparatively similar. The values of these results are described in Chapter 4 (see Table 4.2: Pre-intervention values, p. 142).

In total, 93 male students[1] (average age of 20.24 years) who attended classes of the Level 4 Speaking and Listening EFL course at the university participated in the quantitative study and were recruited into three groups via non-probability convenience sampling. In probability sampling, each element in the population has a known non-zero chance of being selected by employing a random selection procedure. In contrast, non-probability sampling does not involve known non-zero probabilities of selection (Lavrakas, 2008). People are sampled simply because they are 'convenient' sources of data for researchers, and subjective methods are used to decide which elements should be included in the sample. What makes this a non-probability sample is the fact that not all Saudi university students had an equal chance of being chosen for inclusion in the study (Bordens & Abbott, 2013) and were recruited into the study for pragmatic reasons. Additionally, as previously mentioned, intact classes were used as the three groups; thus, participants did not need to be assigned to each of CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2. This, in contrast to non-probability sampling, where the population may not be well-defined, in the case of this study, the population was well-defined with fairly uniform characteristics (see Table 4.2: Pre-intervention values, p. 142).

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[1] Saudi Arabia's social structure can prevent women from being included in experimental studies conducted by males (the gender of the researcher) (Al-Bakr et al., 2017). Due to this constraint, only male students were selected to participate in this research.

At the same time, there are some notable drawbacks to non-probability sampling strategies that can impact both the external and internal validity of the findings. First, the researcher must recognise that convenience samples are suggestive rather than definitive in their generalisability, and therefore, the use of this type of sample undermines external validity (Crano, et al., 2014). In addition, participant characteristics often impact upon the dependent variables in samples of this type. Extraneous variables such as personality types, enthusiasm and intelligence quotient (IQ) can impact the internal validity of a study and the dependent variables (Bordens & Abbott, 2013). This is the reason that the control group was employed in this study as a crucial aspect of the experimental intervention, and a group with equivalent importance to the experiment as the two intervention groups.

Thirty participants were assigned to condition 1 – EPCD1 (the experimental group with the ER intervention); 30 were assigned to condition 2 – EPCD2 (the experimental group with the ER + OR intervention), and the remaining 33 students were assigned into the control group – CG. There was no attrition of participants throughout the study, meaning all 93 participants completed the speaking tests and the measure of perceptions toward extensive reading. For the qualitative study, three participants were recruited for interviews from each of the EPCD1 and EPCD2 conditions (six in total) by selecting every tenth participant under each condition using systematic random sampling (Lavrakas, 2008).

3.4.3 Control and experimental groups

A control group was used in this study to ensure that the effects of the introduction of the two interventions could be contrasted independently, following the recommendation of Crano et al. (2014). The use of a control group also mitigated any threats to the study's internal validity (Crano, et al., 2014) to ensure the intervention was the only difference between the groups in the study. The internal validity of the study was also aided by the fact that the nature of the samples ensured that no systemic differences between the control and experimental groups existed. The control group undertook only classroom activities and homework as set by the curriculum, based on textbook and course content as described above in section 3.4.1. As discussed in that section, the curriculum-based activities included speaking exercises, small group discussions, and tests on correct pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary. Homework comprised both tests, undertaking comprehension exercises,

completing written and spoken dialogues, and generally required half an hour of a student's time. In the study, the control group only undertook the prescribed homework.

Interventions were applied to the two experimental groups. The first experimental group, EPCD1, was exposed to ER only, without the oral reporting activity sessions. In addition to studying the course materials in class, and instead of the curricula homework activities, each member of this group was required to complete ER activities at home, which included reading a book and writing a short report (one page of approximately 200 words) on what they had read. The total time dedicated to the ER activities was three hours. The written report included a discussion of what they had understood of the story, and their opinions of it. Students were supplied with graded readers at different levels from the Oxford Bookworms Library, based on research that has shown their usefulness for ER (Bamford, 1984). Each student selected two graded readers each week out of the list of books the teacher assessed as suitable for them. The teacher provided information about the ER activities, including how often they should be reading the books, and what classroom activities were to follow each ER activity. At the time of the research, the Oxford Bookworms Library's Graded Readers were available in the English Department library; detailed instructions as to how to determine students' level in terms of the most suitable book from the series was provided to teachers in the form of the Extensive Reading Foundation Guide, which can be found in Appendix F. The average word length of the selected books ranged between 1001 (mid-intermediate) and 3600 (mid-advanced). Some included visual images, and all books were fiction.

The EPCD1 intervention was developed to test Krashen's (1981, 1982) theory that L2 accuracy occurs after learners have acquired sufficient competence via comprehensible inputs, which in this case were the books the EPCD1 read by the participants. In alignment with this theory, it was assumed that an intervention entailing extensive reading exercises would produce improved L2 speaking accuracies when tested using the IELTS criteria.

The second experimental group, EPCD2, was given the same ER homework activities as EPCD1, but only studied two units of the four usually covered in the curricula material due to time constraints associated with undertaking the more complex intervention. Like EPCD1, the intervention was undertaken instead of

curricula homework activities. In addition to the ER activities, they were asked to write an oral report task each week and present it during class. The total time taken for ER and OR activities at home was three hours. Students were divided into 15 groups of pairs, and each pair read the same book. The oral report was undertaken in the form of a 10-minute dialogue with the student who had read the same book, and the pairs met before class to prepare the dialogue based on what they had reported. Dialogues often involved one student discussing how the book began with the other asking questions to learn more about the story. The students would then swap so that the person asking the questions during the first half of the dialogue answered them in the second.

Like EPCD1, the report included both what the student had understood about the story and their opinions on it, and the dialogue allowed for a comparison and contrast of these views. This provided the conditions for the students to seek feedback and error correction from both classmates and teacher, and led to a group discussion at the end of each presentation that covered topics such as new grammatical structures and vocabulary. The EPCD2 intervention was used to test Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis in combination with Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. This included testing the following theory, based on Swain's (1985) work: that an EFL learner who is required to produce output through speaking and interacting with others will find gaps in their knowledge, based on errors or a lack of understanding. Thus, an ER + OR intervention would be an ideal test of whether the learner can find those gaps in their knowledge – enhanced by feedback and error correction – and produce comprehensible output as a result.

Ultimately, the design of the two interventions was such that EPCD1 constituted input + written output, and EPCD2 constituted input + spoken output + preparation in pairs + acting out a prepared dialogue in class + teacher-led group discussion with some focus on form (grammar and vocabulary). As such, the EPCD1 condition could be contrasted with the EPCD2 condition to determine the independent effects of extensive reading and the combination of extensive reading with oral reporting on speaking accuracies. This meant that the proposed integrated theoretical framework designed in this thesis could be tested to determine whether a model for language learning that relies on interactions between input and output and an ongoing feedback loop of error correction is a viable one.

After the students completed the interventions across a total of eleven weeks – two introducing the interventions and nine undertaking the interventions – a test identical to the pre-intervention test was administered to again assess their proficiency, according to IELTS speaking criteria. All students also filled out both a pre-intervention survey and a post-intervention survey. Only students in experimental EPCD1 and EPCD2 groups participated in the post-intervention interviews.

3.4.4 Variables

It is important to note that different variables were at play between each group that could not be controlled and were virtue of the differences between the activities undertaken by the control and experimental groups. For instance, both CG and EPCD1 undertook the same amount of curricula work in class, covering four topics, while EPCD2 only covered two curricula topics. This meant that EPCD2 had more time to focus on the oral reporting, which took up approximately half of the class time (approximately 3 hours a week), and therefore more practice speaking English. Even when students were not presenting, they were engaging in feedback and error correction in relation to the dialogues between pairs of other students. This meant the input and output were arguably of a higher quality than in the other groups due to the stronger focus on speaking, feedback and corrections than the two other groups, meaning that EPCD2 may have had a significant advantage. Extraneous variables such as these are common in experimental educational research, meaning that results cannot always be generalised, but must be understood as a product of certain conditions that influence how the study is undertaken and the behaviour of participants (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998). This must be taken into account when analysing the results, forming conclusions and determining the viability of findings.

3.5 Procedures

3.5.1 Pilot study

Pilot studies have several significant benefits for experimental and quasi-experimental research. Most importantly, they allow the researcher to test concepts, data collection tools and research instruments in a smaller and more controlled setting with a subset of the participants (Crano et al., 2014). This allows for misconceptions, mistakes, over-estimations or invalid methods to be identified and addressed before the full experimental protocol is undertaken (Bordens & Abbott, 2013). The participants

of pilot studies can also provide the researcher with feedback about their experiences of the intervention, enabling the researcher to correct any issues before they arise (Bryman, 2015). In research that measures student perceptions, as is the case here, this feedback can be invaluable in the final research environment. The pilot study undertaken herein was therefore a 'test-run' of the research.

The pilot study was carried out over four weeks (4–29 April 2016) with 10 male participants aged between 19 and 22, all who were enrolled in the Level 4 Listening and Speaking course described above. The pilot study activities paralleled those undertaken by EPCD1 and EPCD2, with participants undertaking ER activities and ER + OR activities. After the four weeks, a survey was disseminated electronically to collect data from participants concerning their perceptions towards reading and speaking English in general and towards their experience of the ER activities specifically. Of the 10 participants, seven responded within the time limit. The survey included six dimensions:

1. General attitude towards English speaking.
2. Attitude towards English-speaking course.
3. Attitude towards English textbook.
4. Attitude towards reading in English.
5. Attitude towards ER.
6. Attitude towards OR.

A preliminary assessment of the reliability for the instrument was conducted using Cronbach's alpha – a highly effective tool for assessing the reliability of scales (Reynaldo & Santos, 1999). The alpha values for each dimension were 0.402, 0.446, 0.380, 0.324, 0.501, and 0.558, respectively. By convention, an alpha of 0.65–0.80 is often considered adequate for a scale used in human dimensions research (Vaske, 2008). The common notion of there being a threshold of acceptability for alpha values does not imply that lower values of alpha should be taken as indicating an unsatisfactory instrument (Plummer & Tanis Ozcelik, 2015; Taber, 2018). As this was a pilot study and some survey items still needed to be adjusted and the number of participants was only 10, the alpha values for the pilot study were not further interpreted and the researcher decided to continue the data collection for the main study (after some modification of the survey items).

When developing novel empirical assessment tools, content validity is a crucial consideration. Content validity refers to the degree to which a tool measures what it is intended to measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Waltz et al., 1991). Content validity occurs via a fundamental procedure wherein abstract notions are connected with assessable and identifiable indicators. In any empirical study, it is important not to overlook the difficulties associated with any attempt to evaluate content validity, because this can have negative implications for the findings of the study. For example, when examining content validity for a survey, it is essential to ensure that each item addresses the construct being assessed, in order for the survey items and data derived from them to be representative. Overall, the pilot survey returned useful results, however, there were some issues with the pilot study findings that were addressed for the main study of this thesis. For example, there were some redundant questions in the survey that did not address any of the hypotheses or variables of this study. To ensure suitable content validity, survey items identified as having a close level of similarity to others, or those that were ambiguous were removed for the main study.

A pilot semi-structured interview was also conducted that aimed to explore whether the ER activities had any impact on participants' perceptions towards reading in English and reading for pleasure, as has been suggested by Elley (1991) and Mason and Krashen (1997a) in other similar research. The questions explored the experiences and feelings of participants during the in-class activities in relation to self-directed reading and examined from numerous angles how participants felt the activities and the readings impacted upon them or benefitted them. In terms of validity and reliability, the pilot study interviews indicated that the interview questions were appropriate and required few changes.

The speaking test was also conducted with all 10 participants during the pilot study (both pre- and post-intervention) to test whether the ER activities improved grammatical accuracy and lexical resources (vocabulary). As this was a pilot study, there was no control group for comparison, which made measurement of the validity of the speaking tests challenging. Nevertheless, the validity of a test can be increased by ensuring that assessment criteria are well-defined and relevant (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). This study used the IELTS speaking test criteria and rubric as a means to make the test and grading explicit and measurable by examining the range and

appropriateness of vocabulary and grammatical structures. As will be discussed below in section 3.6.1, IELTS examiners were employed to test the participants in this study and calculate their grammatical accuracy and lexical resource scores.

The results of the speaking test showed a small but definite improvement in scores for both lexical resource and grammatical accuracy. The largest single improvement in score was an increase by 0.5 grades. The average result for the lexical resource was an improvement of 0.18 grades. The average result for grammatical accuracy was also an improvement of 0.18. All ten participants showed improvements in either lexical resource or grammatical accuracy, and six showed improvement in both. Overall, the results of the pilot study indicated that the procedures and measures were appropriate to the investigation of the effects of ER on speaking performance as the survey, reading test and interview questions were able to gauge objective and subjective changes in speaking performance.

3.5.2 Research activity schedule

The study consisted of a quasi-experimental intervention, with its components as pre- and post-intervention IELTS speaking tests, a pre- and post-intervention survey, and post-intervention interviews with students under the EPCD1 and EPCD2 conditions. The three groups, designated according to the English department's schedule, participated in the following different activities:

The control group (CG; 33 students): Students studied the curriculum-based Listening and Speaking course (six hours per a week), as described above, without any intervention. Students in this group did the homework that would usually have been prescribed.

The first experimental group (extensive reading only) (EPCD1; 30 students): Students studied the curriculum-based Listening and Speaking course (six hours per week), plus ER activities (three hours per week) at home, which replaced the homework that would usually have been prescribed. Students chose two books to read each week and wrote a weekly report they presented to the teacher about what they had read.

The second experimental group (extensive reading + oral reporting) (EPCD2; 30 students): Students studied the equivalent of half the curriculum-based Listening and Speaking course (three hours per week), plus ER activities (three hours per week)

at home, which replaced the homework that would usually have been prescribed, plus OR activities (three hours per week, in class). Students were divided into 15 pairs for the purpose of undertaking the OR activities. In their pairs, the students chose two books to read at home, and prepared a 10-minute dialogue to present together in front of their classmates and teacher, which was followed by a group discussion managed by the teacher. The three hours of OR activities were divided as follows:

- 150 minutes for the OR dialogue activity (10 minutes for every group of two students x 15 groups = 30 students). This involved two students describing and discussing the story of the book they had read, and discussing elements of the narrative plot in front of their classmates and the teacher.
- 10-minute break.
- 20 minutes for group discussion (their opinions and what they have learned, e.g., new vocabulary or grammatical structures).

The three groups of students (CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2) and the instructors of the course attended introduction sessions held by the researcher Week one (2.10.2016) and week two (9.10.2016) of the study. The sessions provided an overview of the research and information about the interventions. Baseline data were collected during this period, which included:

- A pre-survey of students.
- A pre-test of students' speaking accuracies conducted by three IELTS examiners. This pre-intervention test evaluated speaking accuracies as per IELTS speaking test criteria, and was administered to all students from the CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2 groups. The test relied upon a measurable nine-band scale to assess speaker performance overall and by individual skill (IELTS, 2015). A baseline score for all participants was established through this test and was directly compared with the results of a similar post-intervention test. Since this test was quantitative, as per the international standard procedure, no cross-checking of scores was required or applied.

The intervention lasted nine weeks from 16.10.2016 to 11.12.2016, and the post-test was conducted in the 10th week. The post-test survey and the semi-structured qualitative interviews were also carried out in that same week.

3.6 Data collection methods

3.6.1 The International English Language Testing System speaking test

Testing EFL speaking accuracies is a challenging task, to the extent that some teachers, although they may accept that speaking is an important element of language learning, avoid testing it altogether (Brown, 2001; Knight, 1992). Some of the problems teachers face in assessing speaking competencies include: the difficulty of designing a productive and relevant speaking task; the problem of remaining consistent from one test to the next; the practical issues of finding time and facilities for assessing oral ability; and the difficulty of knowing which criteria to use in designing an assessment (Knight 1992). The objective testing of speaking accuracies is particularly challenging, given that speaking involves a variety of skills that may or may not be interconnected. Furthermore, there are many subtle elements of speaking competencies that may need to be factored into scoring and assessment (Brown, 2001). This requires teachers to pay attention to numerous elements simultaneously when assessing a student's performance. Consequently, a teacher examining oral speech is under as much pressure as the student who is speaking (Heaton, 1988).

When considering these points, it is evident that a speaking test must be valid, reliable, and effective for its purpose. The test must be based on appropriate material and must evaluate a student's progress towards agreed-upon learning objectives. Evidently, it can be very difficult to assess a test's validity prior to the test being conducted. This is because often the best way for a teacher to determine the validity of a test is by examining the scores achieved by a student. As this study tested participants' speaking accuracies both pre- and post-intervention, it was important to ensure the same assessment system and grading criteria were used in both instances to ensure the validity of the data. This was achieved through the application of IELTS banded speaking tests and the determination of the students' IELTS speaking scores.

These aspects of the IELTS test are relevant in the context of this study as it suggests the test can measure clusters of features rather than individual features that, as Seedhouse et al. (2014) explain, are not necessarily able to accurately measure the learner's speaking performance. This was one reason why IELTS tests were chosen over other types of speaking tests such as those offered in-class at the university under study, which are more focused on answering specific questions than

allowing learners to respond freely to open-ended questions. While the current study did specifically measure vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, these are viewed as just two components of speaking accuracies, rather than independent factors. The IELTS tests provided the potential to understand these factors within the broader scope of L2 speaking performance.

IELTS speaking scores were collected from the students in all three groups pre- and post-intervention, including the CG at the end of the study. The pre-intervention scores are shown in Table 3.2 (p. 119). The two IELTS test scores were based on lexical resources and grammatical accuracy, and were the dependent variables used in this study to measure if there was any objective improvement in speaking accuracies, rather than self-reported perceptions indicated through the survey and interviews. The IELTS speaking tests are of an international standard and were conducted by three IELTS examiners to ensure their consistent application. The examiners were native English speakers and employees of the IELTS Centre in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, who were therefore trained and experienced in IELTS scoring mechanisms. The researcher contacted the examiners and provided detailed information about the study and that their participation would entail scoring participants' pre- and post-tests for the IELTS criteria 'lexical resources' (vocabulary specifically) and 'grammatical range and accuracy'. After three examiners agreed to participate, inter-rater reliability was ensured by having examiners test students in rating-pairs; i.e., A + B, A + C and B + C. This was to ensure consistency across the examiners' testing procedures by checking the degrees of agreement and correlation between them (Stolarova et al., 2014). Reliability was further ensured by the standardised nature of IELTS tests.

Table 3.2: Pre-test results of the IELTS speaking for grammatical accuracy and lexical resource

Student	CG (N = 33)		EPCD1 (N = 30)		EPCD2 (N = 30)	
	Lexical resource	Grammatical accuracy	Lexical resource	Grammatical accuracy	Lexical resource	Grammatical accuracy
1	3.5	3.5	4	4	4	3.5
2	4	4.5	4.5	4.5	3	4.5
3	3.5	4	3	4	3.5	4
4	4	3.5	3.5	3	3.5	3.5
5	4.5	4.5	3.5	3.5	4.5	4.5
6	4	4	4	4.5	3	3
7	4.5	5	3.5	3	4	4
8	3	3	3.5	3	4	4
9	4	4	3	3.5	5	5
10	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
11	4	4	4.5	4	3.5	4
12	4	3.5	3.5	4	4	4
13	4.5	4	3.5	4	4	4.5
14	4	4	4.5	5	4	4
15	3.5	3.5	4	3.5	4.5	3.5
16	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
17	4	4	4	3.5	4	4
18	4	3.5	3.5	3.5	4	3.5
19	4	4.5	4	4.5	3.5	4
20	3	3	4.5	4	4	4
21	4	4	3.5	3.5	4	4
22	4	4	3	3.5	3.5	4
23	4	4.5	4	3.5	4	4.5
24	4	4	3.5	4	3	3.5
25	4	4	3.5	4	3.5	4
26	5	4.5	4	4	4	4.5
27	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
28	4	4	4	4	4.5	4
29	4	4	3.5	3.5	3.5	4
30	3.5	3.5	4	4	3.5	3.5
31	3	3.5				
32	4	4				
33	4	4.5				

Note. Test scores ranged from 0 (unintelligible) to 9 (fluent), with higher scores indicating better test results.

The IELTS tests on speaking criteria contained nine measurable bands to assess the overall speaking of the individual (IELTS, 2015). Examples of four speaking tests are given in Appendix K. The scores derived from the tests reflect the actual speaking accuracies of the learner, and hence reflect the level of achievement when

pre- and post-test scores are compared. The difference between the two reflects the extent of the improvement; however, the nature of this improvement should be understood in terms of its relationship with the level of achievement students of the programme were intended to achieve.

The criteria for the tests needed to be explicit, accurate, and measurable, to actively test the student on skills relevant to the course being taught. The examiners referred to the IELTS grading criteria when scoring students in this study to ensure speaking accuracy, grading each criterion from 0–9, whereby where 0 is unintelligible, and nine is fluent. As the structure of IELTS tests and their criteria remained the same over the course of study, the examiners were able to make direct and reliable comparisons between students' pre- and post-intervention test scores. It is important to note that despite the highly structured nature of the tests, maintaining full objectivity in administering speaking tests is not entirely possible. As Hagley (2010, p. 4) notes, 'when a marker of a test must make decisions on whether an answer is correct, better than another, or has some other characteristic, then the test becomes a subjective one automatically'. In other words, all answers that are 'correct' in speaking tests are subject to a degree of variability.

Overall, an examiner can utilise the detailed descriptions in IELTS to make the best objective judgement he or she can, but ultimately there will still be pronounced subjective aspects of this judgement within the scope of his or her specific experiences examining and scoring tests, which can include understanding that there can be more than one 'correct' answer when speaking (Hagley, 2010). Thus, as Hagley (2010, p. 4) notes, 'whatever way you go about it, you are going to strike paradoxes', whereby the 'norms' of the study are dependent on the examiner's viewpoint and not on a truly objective set of norms. Similarly, Pan (2015) observes that true objectivity cannot be achieved in a speaking test until students can be assessed by a machine, without bringing in human variables. Following this argument, it is evident that the most objective sets of scores for the test may be obtained by ensuring that the human variable remains constant. Consequently, in this study, the same examiners assessed the students' performances in both the pre- and post-intervention tests. All the speaking tests were recorded, and the examiners made their final judgement after listening to the recordings several times.

Addressing issues relating to the study's reliability and validity were fundamental to the efficacy of the research design. Broadly speaking, there are two forms of validity: internal and external. Internal validity refers to the confidence with which the researcher can conclude that the observed relationship between the independent and dependant variables is causal (Crano et al., 2014). Thus, an internally valid study is one that measures what it claims to be measuring and that reports findings that accurately describe the phenomena under investigation (Cohen et al., 2007).

The major element that has been introduced to address internal validity herein is the use of identical tests and rubrics for the pre- and post-intervention speaking tests, specifically, the IELTS speaking tests (Appendix H) and the IELTS scoring criteria (Appendix I). The use of tests and rubrics that are considered to be international standards for the assessment of English language proficiency contributes to the validity of the research by ensuring that the tests were objective. Two specific criteria of the IELTS criteria – 'lexical resources' and 'grammatical range and accuracy' – were also assessed, which provided an additional method to cross-validate the findings. These components alone were used as valid measures of speaking accuracies in the pre- and post-tests; i.e., the other IELTS speaking test criteria – 'fluency and coherence' and 'pronunciation' – were not measured. The tests specifically focused on vocabulary as a core lexical resource and grammatical structures so that accuracy could be analysed in relation to speaking. Though all four criteria are needed to develop complete speaking competency, as discussed in the literature review, vocabulary and grammar have been recognised as central linguistic elements to the development of speaking accuracy (Brown, 2007; Canale & Swain, 1980; Gilakjani, 2011; Knight, 1992; Oldin, 1989). Thus, to limit the scope of the study to speaking accuracy over broader competency, these two criteria formed the focus of the tests and analysis.

Applying identical pre- and post-intervention tests ensured internal consistency. However, this approach raises a familiarity threat: upon completion of the intervention, as the participants had taken the test once before, it was possible they would remember the questions and do better simply because they were repeating the test (Crano et al., 2014). Additionally, the use of the pre-intervention test could introduce pre-intervention sensitivity, whereby the participants are made aware of what is being

measured (i.e., speaking accuracies) and so try harder to improve in this area. The inclusion of the control group CG for comparison, vulnerable to the same threat, contributed to the internal validity of the study.

3.6.2 Survey

A survey is a method used to collect, analyse and interpret the views of a sample of individuals drawn from a target population. Sincero (2012) lists the advantages of surveys in the following terms: surveys can have a high degree of representation of a target population if the sample size is adequate and drawn statistically; surveys are a low-cost method of collecting a large amount of data within the shortest possible time; survey administration can be done conveniently using several different methods; and surveys limit the subjectivity of the researcher as input, providing precise information. Further, with specific reference to surveys, Bryman (2015) explains that they offer a simple, time-efficient and easily understandable method for collecting data from a large number of participants. To follow Cohen et al. (2007) surveys are one of the most commonly used and simplest methods for collecting data on beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours. A survey was used in this study to precisely measure the responses to a set of questions on perceptions and attitudes towards ER using rating scales ranging from strong disagreement to strong agreement. The survey participants were expected to give the rating nearest to what they felt. The data collected were quantitative and hence could be analysed using established statistical procedures.

In this study, the aim of the survey was to identify the perceptions of Saudi university students towards ER activities. The focus on perceptions is to operationalise how ER might encourage students to learn based on their personal experiences of learning and their enjoyment (or lack thereof) of reading. The survey developed for the study reflected models employed by several researchers in the same field to measure the perceptions of EFL students towards ER (e.g., Crawford & Camiciottoli 2001; Ro & Cheng-ling, 2014; Shen, 2008; Yamashita, 2004, 2013). Taken together, these studies qualify the use of surveys to study ER. The survey items developed for this study were based on those in similar studies conducted by Almashy (2013), Al-Hammad (2009) and Tamrackitkun (2010), which had demonstrated very good levels of validity and reliability. For example, Tamrackitkun's (2010) survey showed a very high Cronbach's Alpha score of 0.931.

The survey study used Likert scales to measure agreement with statements such as "Speaking English is an important skill at the University level", where 1 = strongly disagree and 4 = strongly agree. Likert scales have the advantage of increasing the chances of a high response rate as the scale is easily understood by the participants, and Likert scales make analysis a much simpler and a more efficient process than other types of survey analysis (Bryman, 2015; Cohen et al., 2007). A 4-point Likert scale was used in the study so that no neutral option was available. While this could be viewed as a 'forced choice', the lack of a neutral option meant participants needed to carefully consider their answers and give a specific indication of their attitudes (Johns, 2005). This circumvented any possibility of participants choosing only neutral options throughout, thereby 'opting out' of completing the survey (Garland, 1991; Johns, 2005).

Given that low response rates due to the amount of time taken to complete surveys are among the most significant limitations of surveys, the number of items in the survey in this study was reduced after the pilot study (see section 3.5.1) to prevent the survey from becoming overly time-consuming and burdensome for respondents (Bryman, 2015).

In this study, perceptions toward ER data were collected at both pre- and post-intervention through the online surveys. The pre-intervention survey consisted of 23 questions for all groups (see first 23 items in Appendix J). These related to the need to acquire English-speaking, the importance of vocabulary and grammar to the development of this skill, the usefulness of the course, and how reading English textbooks and other books were useful for acquiring this skill.

All pre-intervention survey questions were in the future tense, because the interventions were yet to be introduced, and all the post-survey questions were in past tense, as these were used after the interventions. The pre-intervention survey related to expectations, while the post-intervention survey related to students' actual experiences after completing the course. Thus, the difference between the pre- and post-test scores reflected the difference between expectation and actual experience, and thus determined perceptions toward ER.

The three groups had different post-intervention survey questions tailored to their intervention, or lack thereof, as follows:

- *CG post-intervention survey (23 items, Appendix K):* the same questions as in the pre-intervention survey.

- *EPCD1 post-intervention survey (34 items, Appendix L):* the same 23 questions as in the pre-intervention survey plus an additional 11 questions related to the ER activities undertaken. The additional items were related to completion of the assigned ER tasks in the course, the usefulness of graded books for ER, and recommendations to other EFL learners about ER. As only the post-intervention survey contained the additional items related to the intervention, it was not possible to make a comparison of expectation with actual experience in this case.

- *EPCD2 post-intervention survey (50 items, Appendix M):* the same 23 questions as in the pre-intervention survey, the same 11 questions related to ER activities as in the EPCD1 post-intervention survey, plus an additional 16 questions related to the OR activities undertaken. The additional items related to attending all OR and dialogue sessions in the class, their usefulness in developing speaking accuracies through grammar and vocabulary, the need to supplement ER with OR activities (implicitly including dialogue also), and recommendations to use both ER and OR together. As only the post-intervention survey contained the additional items related to the intervention, it was not possible a comparison of expectation with actual experience in this case also.

The table of survey item statements in Appendix J is appended to show the sources for each item. In summary:

- items 2, 3, 4, 11, 12, 13, and 14 were adapted from Almashy (2013).
- items 5, 6, 16, 23, 32, 33, 34, 48, 49, and 50 were adapted from Al-Hammad (2009).
- items 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, and 26 were adapted from Tamrackitkun (2010).
- items 1, 7, 8, 9, 10, 15, 24, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, and 47 were created for the specific needs of this study.

Altogether, the validity of the ER perceptions survey was enhanced by employing standard test administrations across participants and employing valid and

reliable questions. Although many survey questions were drawn from those developed by Tamrackitkun (2010), Al-Hammad (2009) and Almashy (2013), due their proven reliability and validity, some questions were modified slightly to ensure they addressed the specific aims of this research. All 93 participants completed and returned all surveys; thus, selection errors were avoided (Crano et al., 2014).

3.6.3 Interviews

The survey on perceptions and attitudes to ER was complemented by qualitative interviews while at the same time providing a way to triangulate the data (Bryman 2012; Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). The use of quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate research questions provides a certain level of validity to the findings through data triangulation (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2012; Devine, 2002; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016), as data from each method can be cross-checked to more carefully determine the factors that promote accuracies in speaking among EFL learners. At the same time, qualitative interviews can help the researcher understand the nuances of the participants' experiences and points of view (Bryman, 2012). As it is less structured than a quantitative survey, a qualitative interview can be used to examine the research topic with some flexibility, meaning that the approach to the topic can be adapted as the researcher learns more from the participants (Bryman, 2012). As Bryman (2012) also notes, it also provides ready data for coding and analysis. While sometimes viewed as less rigorous than quantitative data collection, a qualitative interview can take into account a broader range of ideas and diversities in participants because of the often-open-ended nature of the questions that comprise it (Bryman, 2012).

The interviews were administered only to students in EPCD1 and EPCD2, because the intention of the interviews was to evaluate what the learners thought about the intervention they had experienced. Thus, the interviews were relevant only to the two experimental groups and not to the CG. The purpose of the interviews was to gain insights into the students' perceptions towards the use of ER and OR activities in developing speaking accuracies. The interview questions concerned the administration and effectiveness of the respective interventions given to the groups (Appendix L). The researcher developed the interview questions with direct reference to the hypotheses being tested and the specific conditions of the ER and OR activity applied to ensure validity and reliability. The questions explored the experiences and

feelings of participants during the in-class activities and in relation to self-directed reading. The experiences and feelings of the participants were examined from several angles, including examinations of how participants felt about the activities and whether they impacted them beneficially or otherwise. The questions and details covered in the interviews aimed to gather a comprehensive overview of participants' experiences in relation to every aspect of the ER activity. Additionally, the questions explored whether participants would recommend that ER activities form part of mainstream English language courses, and whether they felt that their experiences with ER activities would influence their future capabilities in reading and speaking English.

The semi-structured interviews were intended to explore the perceptions of participants towards the ER activities in more depth than the survey alone. Their use was also intended to address the potential limitations of conclusions drawn only from quantitative data. To follow Bryman (2012), while the quantitative survey data provided findings on what the participants felt, the interviews provided richer data on why they felt that way. The semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to focus solely on perceptions towards ER, thus ensuring the interviews remained relevant to the study aims. This approach also ensured consistency between each interview. In addition, semi-structured interviews allowed the interviewer to probe further into interesting or incomplete answers and to follow potential lines of enquiry without any restriction (Cohen, et al., 2007). This allowed for a deeper exploration of participants' perceptions and attitudes than a survey or structured interview while ensuring that each interview achieved its aims, something an entirely unstructured interview might not (Bryman, 2012). The interviews were guided by a schedule that included both open- and closed-ended questions, as shown in Appendix Q (and summarised on p.127). The questions focused on several issues relating to perceptions, perceptions and behaviour towards reading and speaking in both English and Arabic; feelings about improvements to speaking accuracies; feelings and thoughts about experiences undertaking ER activities, and any future plans concerning reading in English. Several introductory questions enabled the interviewer and interviewee to establish a rapport, while careful wording avoided the use of leading questions (Bryman, 2012).

Three students were selected randomly (every tenth student) from both EPCD1 and EPCD2, and each group of three was interviewed independently. The interviews

with both groups were conducted on Thursday 22nd December 2016, and the total duration with each group was 30 minutes. The basic interview questions were:

1. What do you think about your English speaking?
2. Before attending this programme, had any of you heard the phrase "ER"?
3. Have you noticed any differences in your English speaking before and after the intervention?
4. Do you think ER has developed your English speaking in terms of grammar and vocabulary?
5. Could you tell me what you think could be added to the intervention to improve your English speaking in terms of grammar and vocabulary?
6. During the intervention, how did you read the assigned material at home?
7. What do you think about ER?
8. What do you think about ER and the oral report activities?
9. How did you prepare for the oral report activities?
10. Do you think that ER and OR activities can develop your English speaking in terms of grammar and vocabulary?

In the case of EPCD1, only the first seven questions from the above list were asked, because the remaining three questions were related to OR, which was used only as an intervention for EPCD2. For EPCD2, all ten questions were applicable, and all of them asked of the students in that group.

The validity and reliability of the data generated in qualitative phase of this study were important to develop as qualitative data is more subjective, open to misinterpretation and biases, and can be relatively difficult to interpret compared to quantitative data. Despite the strengths of qualitative research designs by giving voice to the individual perspective and by generating findings that are rich in content (Peshkin, 2000), one of the central criticisms of qualitative research is the potential for subjective views to influence the interview process and the interpretation of the data; ultimately undermining the validity of the findings (Gubrium and Holstein, (2012). Therefore, steps were needed to maintain validity as far as possible. In terms of internal validity, the interview schedule was developed in line with the project aims and modified to ensure that the questions were relevant to the research questions. This process was strengthened by triangulation with the quantitative surveys (Cohen et al., 2007). Two main processes were used to enhance the reliability and validity of the

qualitative data collection before and while conducting the analysis: member checking and peer examination (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2005; Zohrabi, 2013). Member checking involved asking the interview participants to read the transcripts of their interviews and confirm that the associated write-ups were accurate representations of their thoughts and feelings (Bryman, 2012). Peer examination focused on the data collection instruments. Peers in educational research and a research supervisor checked the interview schedule and ensured that the aims were being met, that all variables were addressed and that the schedule was valid (Cohen et al., 2007).

3.7 Quantitative data analysis methods

3.7.1 Analysis methods for Research Questions 1–4

IELTS speaking test results for lexical resources and grammatical accuracy were used to answer research questions 1–4. These were intended to investigate whether ER (EPCD1) and/or ER + OR (EPCD2) improved Saudi university students' use of vocabulary and grammar and therefore their accuracy in speaking English. To answer research questions 1–4, ANOVAs, ANCOVAs and paired t-tests were performed to examine if there was a difference in the IELTS speaking test scores (lexical resource/ vocabulary vs. grammatical accuracy/grammar) among and within EPCD1 and EPCD2 and the control group. The study variables included: a) dependent variables (IELTS post-test scores for grammar and vocabulary); b) independent variables (the three groups); and c) the control variable (IELTS pre-test scores for grammar and vocabulary).

To determine whether there was a difference between the groups at the start of the study, the following analyses were performed:

1. A one-way ANOVA to compare the pre-test vocabulary score of the three groups; and
2. A one-way ANOVA to compare the pre-test grammar score of the three groups.

To show whether there was a difference between the groups at the completion of the study, the following analyses were performed:

1. A one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test vocabulary score of the groups with pre-test vocabulary score as confounding variable; and

2. A one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test grammar score of the groups with pre-test grammar score as a confounding variable.

Finally, to show whether there was statistically significant improvement within each group (not in comparison to the others) as a result of the treatment, the following analyses were performed:

1. Three paired-samples t-tests using the pre- and post-test vocabulary scores for each group; and

2. Three paired-samples t-tests using the pre- and post-test grammar scores for each group.

For each test, a p-value less than 0.05 was considered significant. All p-values were two-sided.

3.7.2 Analysis methods for Research Question 5

Research Question 5 asked: What are Saudi university EFL students' perceptions towards the use of ER with or without OR in developing their speaking accuracy through improving vocabulary and grammar? To answer this, the six dimensions of perceptions towards ER with/without OR activities – general attitude towards speaking English (pre- and post-test); attitude towards the English-speaking course (pre- and post-test); attitude towards the English textbook (pre- and post-test); attitude towards reading in English (pre- and post-test); attitude towards ER (post-test only); and attitude towards OR (post-test only) – were analysed using ANOVAs, ANCOVAs and paired t-tests. These were based on the survey items.

To determine whether there was a difference between the groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2) at the start of the study, four one-way ANOVAs were performed to compare the pre-test scores for the first four dimensions of perceptions, those being: general attitude towards speaking English; attitude towards the English-speaking course; attitude towards the English textbook; and attitude towards reading in English. To show whether there was a difference between the groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2) at the completion of the study, the following analyses were performed:

1. A one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test general attitude towards speaking English of the groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2), with pre-test general attitude towards English speaking as confounding variable;

2. A one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test attitude towards English-speaking course of the groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2), with pre-test attitude towards English-speaking course as confounding variable;

3. A one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test attitude towards English textbook of the groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2), with pre-test attitude towards the English textbook as confounding variable;

4. A one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test attitude towards reading in English of the groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2), with pre-test attitude towards reading in English as confounding variable;

5. A two-sample t-test to compare post-test attitude towards ER between EPCD1 and EPCD2.

Finally, to show whether there was a statistically significant improvement within each group (not in comparison to the others) as a result of the interventions, the following analyses were performed:

1. Three paired-samples t-tests using the pre- and post-test general attitude towards English speaking for each group;

2. Three paired-samples t-tests using the pre- and post-test attitude towards the English-speaking course for each group;

3. Three paired-samples t-tests using the pre- and post-test attitude towards the English textbook for each group; and

4. Three paired-samples t-tests using the pre- and post-test attitude towards reading in English for each group.

For each test, a p-value less than 0.05 was considered significant. All p-values were two-sided.

3.7.3 Validity and reliability of analysis of survey items

Analysis methods were used that ensured the validity and reliability of the survey items. Note that the pre- and post-test items of the survey items for the three groups were not quite the same; i.e.:

- CG had 23 items for the pre-test and 23 items for the post-test;
- EPCD1 (ER only) had 23 items for the pre-test (q1–23) and 34 items for the post-test (q1–23 and q24–34 for ER); and

- EPCD2 (ER + OR) had 23 items for the pre-test (q1–23) and 50 items for the post-test (q1–23, q24–34 for ER, and q35–50 for OR).

For pre-test items (q1–23) and the first 23 post-test items (q1–23) of all three groups, the survey items were designed to measure:

- General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6);
- Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15);
- Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14); and
- Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23).

For post-test items q24–34 for EPCD1 and EPCD2, the questions were designed to measure perceptions towards ER. The post-test items q35–50 for EPCD2 were designed to measure perceptions towards OR. Thus, the analyses for validation (using exploratory factor analysis; EFA) and reliability (using Cronbach's alpha analysis) of the survey instruments were conducted using: 1) the pre-test data (q1–23) from all three groups (combining the data); 2) the post-test data for ER (q24–34) from the ER-only group and the ER + OR group; and 3) the post-test data for OR (q35–50) from the ER + OR group.

Specifically, for each sub-scale – general attitude towards speaking English; attitude towards the English-speaking course; attitude towards the English textbook; attitude towards reading in English; attitude towards ER; and attitude towards OR – a one-factor model using the principal axis method (Pett et al., 2003) as the estimation method of EFA was used to determine the contribution of the survey items of interest to the specific dimension. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (determining whether the partial correlations among variables are small overall; KMO-MSA) (Kaiser, 1970; Kaiser & Rice, 1974), an anti-image correlation matrix (determining whether each partial correlation between each pair of variables is small), and Bartlett's test of sphericity (testing whether the correlation matrix is an identical matrix) (Bartlett, 1954) were reported to help determine whether the common factor model was appropriate (Pett et al., 2003; Yong & Pearce, 2013). Factor loadings (measuring the correlation of the items with the factors) (Comrey and Lee, 1992; Pett et al., 2003) were used to determine the importance of the survey items for each specific dimension.

3.7.4 Normality of the survey variables

Study variables and composite scores of the six dimensions of perceptions towards the use of ER with or without OR in developing speaking accuracy in the pre- and post-tests included:

- General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6, for both pre- and post-test);

- Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15, for both pre- and post-test);

- Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14, for both pre- and post-test);

- Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23, for both pre- and post-test);

- Attitude towards ER (q24–34, for post-test only); and

- Attitude towards OR (q35–50, for post-test only).

These were computed by averaging the items associated with each dimension. Q2 (speaking English is difficult for me) was negatively worded and hence was reverse scored before computing the composite scores. For each dimension, the composite scores ranged from 1 to 4, with higher scores indicating more positive perceptions towards the specific measure.

Descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum were used to summarise the study variables. Skewness, kurtosis, and the z-scores of skewness and kurtosis (Fidell & Tabachnick, 2003) were used to assess the normality of the data. A value of the score greater than 3.29 or less than -3.29 (two-tailed alpha levels of 0.001) indicated that the data were not normally distributed (Fidell & Tabachnick, 2003).

3.8 Thematic analysis of qualitative data

Responses from the six interview participants were thematically analysed (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and also used to answer research question 5. The researcher modified and applied the steps outlined in Braun and Clarke (2006) in order to search for themes within the responses in an attempt to provide insights regarding participants' perceptions towards the ER activities used in the interventions, with or without OR, and their impact on their development of speaking skills. The aim of the analysis was to produce an overall description of the dataset using semantic (rather

than latent) themes in an inductive approach (rather than theoretical) as thematic analysis is defined as 'a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data' (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79). The research used the phases outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006) to analyse the interview transcripts, described in the following steps.

3.8.1 Step 1: Becoming familiar with the data

In order to become familiar with the data, the researcher read through all transcripts three times, with the first two read throughs not involving any note taking or coding. This allowed the researcher to understand the depth and breadth of the content. The third time the researcher systematically read through the transcripts he made note of what was significant about each response, and coded appropriately based on what topic was being discussed. The researcher did not make any assumptions about the topics and hence coded for as many potential themes/patterns as possible (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Commonly, responses included more than one topic. Hence, responses with several topics were coded under multiple topic headings. If a response discussed the topics of self-perception of English speaking skills and lack of vocabulary, then this response was coded under each topic heading.

Coding the topics allowed the researcher to subdivide the data and eventually categorise the data into themes. The coding was done manually without any specialised software. This process was done systematically, reading each response and deciphering its topic, and how the topic related to each other. At the end of this phase, each response was linked to at least one topic.

3.8.2 Step 2: Searching, defining and naming the themes

In this phase, the researcher generated a list of all the topics that arose from the responses that emerged in Step 1. Then, the researcher organised the responses into meaningful groups by grouping the responses that fit under each topic together (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For example, all comments regarding racism were collated together under that topic heading. This process helped to create meaning in the interview data (Thomas, 2006). After a list of all topics and the associated responses were generated, the researcher manually sorted the topics into potential themes. The researcher identified these themes by reading the topics coded and seeing which were related to each other. The researcher analysed the topics and considered how different

topics could be used to develop a theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006), whereby a 'theme' was defined as a compilation of all the topics that fall under that specific heading (Thomas, 2006). For example, the topics of 'lack of vocabulary' and 'lack of confidence' were grouped under the theme of 'reasons for poor English speaking skills'. In this phase, a theme called 'miscellaneous' was also created to include all the topics that did not seem to fit within any particular themes.

3.8.3 Step 3: Reviewing the themes

Next, a diagram of all potential themes and their accompanying topics was created (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Then, the researcher repeatedly reread all the responses and considered the validity of the responses under each theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). During the repeated reading process, the researcher carefully determined if any topics were missed or misclassified during the earlier coding process. For example, a topic regarding better grammar after the intervention first coded as 'benefits of the intervention' was changed to 'effects of the intervention'. In other words, in this phase the researcher ensured that all responses were well grouped under the appropriate themes. Topics that were under the 'miscellaneous' theme were also examined to see if they could be fit under another theme. For example, the topic of 'slow speed of speaking' was moved to the theme 'self-perception of English speaking skills' as it was related to how participants viewed these skills.

Themes that seemed irrelevant were discarded. For example, 'prepare for the oral report' was discarded since this theme was not relevant to the perceptions towards the ER activities. Large themes with many topics or separate elements were further divided to include sub-themes. For example, the theme 'effects of intervention' was divided into two sub-themes: 'effects of intervention for ER' and 'effects of interventions for ER + OR'. At the end of this phase, the themes that remained were those that emerged from the interview data and were used in the following step to produce the report.

3.8.4 Step 4: Producing the report

The purpose of writing a report for a thematic analysis is, as Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 93) explain, 'to tell the complicated story of your data in a way which convinces the reader of the merit and validity of your analysis'. For this particular study, the analysis results were presented in the order of the themes. The excerpts included

in the results are direct quotes by the participants. Interviewee responses were used to support the researcher's identification of the themes and whether interviewees had similar or differing opinions. Removing any identifying information that they may have included in their responses, such as their name, protected the participant's anonymity.

In summary, the data analysis steps for the interview transcripts also correspond to the three concurrent flows of activity for qualitative data analysis illustrated in Miles and Huberman (1994): data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. This is depicted in Figure 3.1 (p. 135), adapted from Miles and Huberman (1994). The data reduction process refers to the process of choosing, focusing, simplifying, building and transforming data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher also utilised several different display techniques, including quotations, narrative text, and tabulations of the differences and similarities of the data determined during the data analysis process (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Narrative text from each participant was tabulated and grouped according to any similarities. Important quotations were extracted to help derive the themes. By employing data reduction and data display processes concurrently, the researcher was then able to focus on simplifying the transcripts to be relevant to the study concept. The final stages of the data analysis process were connected by arranging and organising the concepts and findings discovered from the data reduction and data display processes. Themes and the relevant data structures were drawn and displayed, and lastly, contradictory and identical data were clarified in order to produce the final themes.
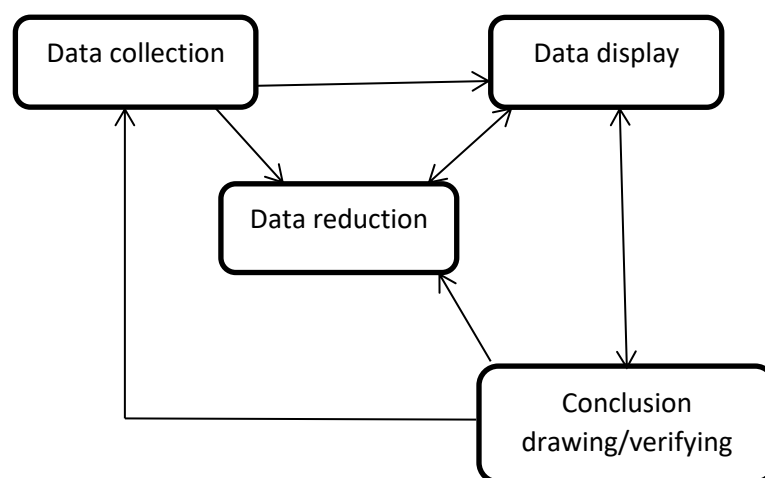
Figure 3.1: Component of data analysis: interactive model in Miles & Huberman

(1994, p. 12)

3.9 Validity and reliability of the study

The main criteria to establish the trustworthiness of the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study was to ensure the data was reliable and demonstrated internal and external validity (Creswell, 2012). The internal validity of the quantitative study was enhanced by employing a consistent study setting (section 3.4.1) and recruiting a relatively homogenous sample of participants using non-probability convenience sampling (section 3.4.2). The validity of the qualitative findings was also enhanced by selecting every 10th member of the EPCD1 and EPCD2 groups to participate in semi-structured interview on their perceptions of ER and its effects on speaking accuracies (section 3.4.2). The external validity of the study was thereby enhanced by an appropriate participant sample size that was representative of male Saudi EFL university students.

The internal consistency of the findings was further enhanced by having discreet interventions groups and a control group, as well as measuring and controlling for pre-intervention scores on the IELTS and perceptions towards learning English (sections 3.4.3 and 3.5.2). The validity of the quantitative study was augmented by a pilot study of the research materials to check their relevance to the research questions (section 3.5.1). Variables were also accounted for which may have affected the generalisability of the results (section 3.4.4).

Consistent data collection methods were utilised to further enhance internal validity (section 3.6). Moreover, the objectivity of the study was enhanced by using validated measures of language speaking accuracies (IELTS scale) and perceptions towards learning English that had been previously reported in the literature to have adequate evidence of their reliability and validity (section 3.6.1).

The validity and reliability of the data from the qualitative interview study of the effect of ER on speaking accuracies was also enhanced through triangulation and by employing member checking and peer examination (section 3.6.3).

The validity and reliability of the quantitative study analysis was enhanced by the use of an exploratory factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha, the KMO-MSA, and anti-image correlation matrix, Bartlett's test of sphericity and factor loadings for the survey items (section 3.7.2). Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the study variables

and skewness, kurtosis, and the z-scores of skewness and kurtosis to assess normality (section 3.7.3).

3.10 Ethical considerations

The study was undertaken by the researcher as part of the doctoral research programme at Newcastle University, UK. However, the actual research work was conducted in the researcher's native country, Saudi Arabia. The regulations guiding academic research in both countries required ethical clearance to be obtained before the start of the experiment. The researcher followed due procedures of Newcastle University and obtained the required ethical clearance for the doctoral research. The necessary permissions from the Government of Saudi Arabia and the university under study were also obtained after all appropriate persons were briefed on the essential details of the study and the cooperation of academic staff was obtained. All the formats used for various clearances are appended (Appendices A, B, C and D).

The informed consent of the student participants of the study was obtained in a written format. A sample is given in Appendix E. This occurred after students were briefed about the essential details of the study. They were informed of the confidential nature of the study, and how their privacy would be protected by not revealing their true identities in any manner, and by keeping all records of the study under safe custody with adequate protection. The participants were also informed of their right to withdraw from participation at any stage without explaining the reason. Permission was also obtained from the interview participants to record the interview proceedings. All other ethical principles were followed while the study was in progress.

3.11 Information management

Hardcopies of the data collected in this study will remain in a secure location (a locked filing cabinet) for 60 months, while digital data will be kept on the author's password-protected computer with hard drive encryption. In this study, relevant procedures have been followed for the purpose of ensuring data security. These included installing the latest versions of antivirus applications, keeping the operating system up to date, limiting access to only the researcher or authorised persons, and avoiding connection with potentially dangerous external media and devices.

3.12 Chapter summary

This chapter set out the methodology of the study, including the design of the research and how participants were sampled. It showed how lexical resource and grammatical accuracy scores and perceptions towards ER or ER + OR for the three groups under study – CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2 – were measured using IELTS speaking tests and a survey, with follow-up interviews. The chapter showed that the data collection and analysis methods used were both valid and reliable. Details of data analysis presented in relation to the five research questions showed how statistical tests were used to measure variables relating to lexical resources, grammatical accuracy and perceptions towards ER or ER + OR. The results obtained using the procedures described in this chapter are presented in the Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the analysis of the results of the quantitative and qualitative data are presented to answer the five research questions of this study, those being:

1. Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?
2. Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?
3. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?
4. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?
5. What are Saudi university EFL students' perceptions/attitudes towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracy through improving vocabulary and grammar?

The IELTS speaking test results for lexical resources and grammatical accuracy were used to answer research questions 1–4, and the survey data on the perceptions of Saudi university students towards ER activities and interviews were used to answer research question 5.

The chapter will first present the results of the quantitative analysis, including summaries of the IELTS speaking test results and the survey responses on perceptions towards ER activities, followed by the results relating to the validity and reliability of the survey on perceptions towards ER activities, and finally the results of the normality tests of the study variables. Following the descriptive statistics of the IELTS speaking test results and the survey responses on perceptions towards ER activities, the quantitative analysis results will be presented using χ^2 tests of independence, ANOVAs, ANCOVAs, paired t-tests, and two-sample t-tests for research questions 1–5. Qualitative results obtained through thematic analysis are then used to triangulate the quantitative findings for the research questions. Finally, a summary of the chapter is provided, including points for discussion.

4.2. Quantitative analysis

A total of 93 participants were included in the study for the quantitative data collection (IELTS speaking tests and surveys for perceptions towards ER). All 93 participants had taken the IELTS speaking tests and answered all items in the surveys. Hence, there were no missing values in the quantitative data. The mean age for the participants was 20.20 years (SD = 0.90, range 19–22; Table 4.1 below).

Table 4.1: Age of the participants, overall and by group

	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Overall	93	20.20	0.90	19	22
CG	33	20.27	0.94	19	22
EPCD1 (ER only)	30	20.13	0.78	19	22
EPCD2 (ER + OR)	30	20.20	1.00	19	22

4.2.1 Summary of the International English Language Testing System speaking test results

The pre- and post-test IELTS speaking test results for participants from the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2) are presented in Table 4.2 (p. 141), which shows scores of lexical resource and grammatical accuracy pre- and post-intervention for each student in each group. The results can be used to determine increase, decrease or no change in test scores after the intervention. For example, student 1 in the EPCD2 group increased his lexical resource test score from 4 to 5 after the intervention.

Table 4.3 (p. 142) summarises the pre- and post-test results for participants from the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2). Before the intervention started, for both lexical resource and grammatical accuracy, the majority of participants, regardless of treatment groups, scored between 3.5 and 4.0 (lexical resource: CG 78.8%, EPCD1 76.7%, EPCD2 76.7%; grammatical accuracy: CG 72.7%, EPCD1 76.7%, EPCD2 76.7%). In other words, before the intervention, the majority of participants in all three groups scored between 3.5 and 4.0 for both IELTS tests – lexical resource and grammatical accuracy – indicating the knowledge levels for both were similar for participants across all three groups.

Table 4.2: Results of the International English Language Testing System speaking tests

	CG (N = 33)				EPCD1 (N = 30)				EPCD2 (N = 30)			
	Lexical resource		Grammatical accuracy		Lexical resource		Grammatical accuracy		Lexical resource		Grammatical accuracy	
Student	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
1	3.5	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	3.5	4.0
2	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	3.0	3.5	4.5	4.5
3	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	3.5	4.5	4.0	4.5
4	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0
5	4.5	5.0	4.5	5.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	5.5	4.5	5.5
6	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.5	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.5
7	4.5	4.5	5.0	4.5	3.5	4.0	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
8	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
9	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	3.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	5.0	5.5	5.0	5.5
10	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.5	4.0
11	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.5	4.0	4.5	3.5	3.5	4.0	4.0
12	4.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.5
13	4.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.5	4.5	4.5
14	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.0	5.5	4.0	5.0	4.0	4.5
15	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	4.5	4.5	3.5	3.5
16	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.5	3.5	4.0
17	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	5.0	4.0	4.5
18	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.0	5.0	3.5	4.0
19	4.0	4.5	4.5	5.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.0	3.5	4.5	4.0	5.0
20	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.0
21	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5
22	4.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.5
23	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	4.0	5.0	4.5	5.5
24	4.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.0	4.0	3.5	3.5
25	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.5
26	5.0	4.5	4.5	5.0	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.5	5.0
27	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.5
28	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.5	5.5	4.0	4.5
29	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.5
30	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.5	4.5
31	3.0	3.0	3.5	3.5								
32	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0								
33	4.0	3.5	4.5	4.0								

Note. Test scores ranged from 0 (unintelligible) to 9 (fluent), with higher scores indicating better test results.

Table 4.3: Summary of the International English Language Testing System speaking test results

	IELTS Score	Pre-test			Post-test		
		CG	EPCD1	EPCD2	CG	EPCD1	EPCD2
Lexical	3.0	3 (9.1)	3 (10.0)	3 (10.0)	5 (15.2)	0	1 (3.3)
	3.5	7 (21.2)	14 (46.7)	11 (36.7)	11 (33.3)	15 (50.0)	5 (16.7)
	4.0	19 (57.6)	9 (30.0)	12 (40.0)	13 (39.4)	11 (36.7)	8 (26.7)
	4.5	3 (9.1)	4 (13.3)	3 (10.0)	3 (9.1)	3 (10.0)	8 (26.7)
	5.0	1 (3.0)	0	1 (3.3)	1 (3.0)	1 (3.3)	5 (16.7)
	5.5	0	0	0	0	0	3 (10.0)
Grammar	3.0	2 (6.1)	3 (10.0)	1 (3.3)	3 (9.1)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)
	3.5	10 (30.3)	12 (40.0)	9 (30.0)	13 (39.4)	12 (40.0)	6 (20.0)
	4.0	14 (42.4)	11 (36.7)	14 (46.7)	12 (36.4)	11 (36.7)	8 (26.7)
	4.5	6 (18.2)	3 (10.0)	5 (16.7)	1 (3.0)	5 (16.7)	10 (33.3)
	5.0	1 (3.0)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	4 (12.1)	0	2 (6.7)
	5.5	0	0	0	0	1 (3.3)	3 (10.0)

Note. Test scores ranged from 0 (unintelligible) to 9 (fluent), with higher scores indicating better test results. Numbers in parentheses are percentages of participants with various IELTS test scores within each group (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2), pre- and post-test.

At post-test the majority of participants in the CG and EPCD1 groups scored between 3.5 and 4.0 for both lexical resource and grammatical accuracy (lexical resource: CG 72.7%, EPCD1 86.7%; grammatical accuracy: CG 75.8%, EPCD1 76.7%). This was similar to the pre-test scores for these two groups. For lexical resource, less than 15% of participants in both groups scored 4.5 or 5.0 (CG 12.1%, EPCD113.3%), with 5.0 being the highest score. For grammatical accuracy, 15.1% of the CG participants scored 4.5 or 5.0, with 5.0 being the highest score; 20.0% of EPCD1 participants scored between 4.5 and 5.5, with 5.5 being the highest score.

However, for the EPCD2 group, the post-test lexical resource scores were spread evenly between 3.5 and 5.0 (16.7–26.7%), with 10.0% of participants scoring 5.5 (the highest). Compared to CG and EPCD1, less EPCD2 participants (43.4%) scored between 3.5 and 4.0, but a much higher proportion of EPCD2 participants (53.4%) scored between 4.5 and 5.5. Similarly, for the EPCD2 group, the post-test grammatical accuracy scores were spread evenly between 3.5 and 4.5 (20.0–33.3%), with 10.0% of participants scoring 5.5 (the highest). Compared to CG and EPCD1,

fewer EPCD2 participants (46.7%) scored between 3.5 and 4.0, but a much higher proportion of EPCD2 participants (50.0%) scored between 4.5 and 5.5.

Table 4.4 (p.144) summarises the frequency distribution of increases, decreases or no change in participants' IELTS test scores from pre- to post-test. For lexical resource, there was a statistically significant association between the change in score from pre- to post-test and group ($\chi^2(4) = 33.462$, $p < 0.001$). A much higher proportion of participants in EPCD2 (73.3%) increased their lexical resource test scores from pre- to post-test, compared to the other two groups (CG 9.1%, EPCD1 30.0%). This finding is similar to that observed in the summary of the IELTS speaking lexical resource test results (Table 4.3, p.142), where participants in all three groups had lexical resource similar scores at pre-test as the majority, regardless of group, scored between 3.5 and 4.0. However, at post-test, a much higher proportion of EPCD2 participants scored 4.5 to 5.5 than participants in the other two groups, CG and EPCD1. Hence it may be reasonable to conclude that the vocabulary level of EPCD2 participants improved significantly more than for CG and EPCD1 participants.

For grammatical accuracy, there was a statistically significant association between the change in scores from pre- to post-test and group ($\chi^2(4) = 14.092$, $p = 0.002$). A much higher proportion of EPCD2 participants (60.0%) increased their test scores for grammatical accuracy from pre- to post-test, compared with the other two groups (CG 21.2%, EPCD1 36.7%). This finding is also similar to that observed in the summary of the IELTS speaking test results for grammatical accuracy (Table 4.3), where participants in all three groups had similar pre-test grammatical accuracy scores as, again, the majority, regardless of group, scored between 3.5 and 4.0. Again, at post-test, a much higher proportion of the EPCD2 participants scored 4.5 to 5.5 than participants in the other two groups. It is reasonable to therefore conclude that grammatical accuracy for EPCD2 participants improved significantly more than for CG and EPCD1 participants.

The improved vocabulary and the grammatical accuracy for EPCD2 participants, more than for CD and EPCD1 participants, may be due to the increased capacity for EPCD2 participants to apply themselves to the intervention, and hence benefit more. These results also suggested that EPCD2 was a more effective intervention than CG or EPCD1 in improving vocabulary and grammatical accuracy for these students.

Table 4.4: Number of participants (%) for change of scores from pre- to post-test (decreased, no change, increased) for the three groups

Group	Lexical resource			Grammatical accuracy		
	Change in score from pre- to post-test			Change in score from pre- to post-test		
	Decreased	No change	Increased	Decreased	No change	Increased
CG	11 (33.3)	19 (57.6)	3 (9.1)	12 (36.4)	14 (42.4)	7 (21.2)
EPCD1 (ER only)	3 (10.0)	18 (60.0)	9 (30.0)	4 (13.3)	15 (50.0)	12 (36.7)
EPCD2 (ER + OR)	1 (3.3)	7 (23.3)	22 (73.3)	3 (10.0)	9 (30.0)	18 (60.0)
χ^2 test	$\chi^2(4) = 33.462, p < 0.001$			$\chi^2(4) = 14.092, p = 0.002$		

Note: As the sample size is small, p-values of the χ^2 tests were obtained using the Monte Carlo method (Mehta & Patel, 2011).

4.2.2 Summary of the survey responses for perceptions of Saudi university students towards extensive reading activities

The survey was undertaken to determine how participants perceived the importance of vocabulary and grammar for speaking accuracies, their own preferences and use of vocabulary and grammar in speaking, and how extensive reading or extensive reading plus oral reporting (ER + OR) was helpful in this regard. An overview of responses from the 93 participants show common trends in the survey responses; Table 4.5 for CG (p. 146), 4.6 (for EPCD1, p. 150) and 4.7 (for EPCD2, p. 155) present descriptive analyses of the findings from the survey data on perceptions towards ER according to the three treatment groups. In each table, the findings of pre- and post-test surveys are compiled and reported for each group, and are presented below.

4.2.2.1 The control group (CG)

The survey responses for the 23 items answered by the 33 students in CG are presented in Table 4.5 (p.146) for both the pre- and post-test, plus a summary of post-test results is provided in Appendix N. Overall, for both pre- and post-intervention, CG participants had similar perceptions regarding importance of speaking English, difficulty speaking English, importance of grammar and vocabulary, and reading in English. CG participants had more positive perceptions regarding the English-speaking course and English textbook pre-intervention than post-intervention. Conversely, CG participants had more positive perceptions regarding reading in English post-intervention than pre-intervention.

For both pre- and post-intervention, CG participants had similar perceptions regarding importance of speaking English (q1), difficulty speaking English (q2), importance of grammar and vocabulary (q3–6), and reading in English (q16, 17, 21–23). More than half of the CG participants (% answered "agree" or "strongly agree" = % TS in Table 4.5) agreed that speaking English was an important skill (q1, 51.5% pre vs. 54.5% post) and speaking English was difficult for them (q2, 54.5% pre vs. 63.3% post). Also, more than half of the participants believed that vocabulary (q5, 66.3% pre vs. 60.6% post) and grammar (q6, 54.5% pre vs. 69.7% post) were important factors in speaking English, and lack of either one would make speaking English difficult (q3, 60.6% pre vs. 60.6% post; q4, 66.7% pre vs. 78.8% post). Furthermore, about half of the CG participants enjoyed reading English books (q16, 54.5% pre vs. 48.4% post) and discussed with others the books they read in English for pleasure (q21, 48.5% pre vs. 48.5% post). Many CG participants admitted that reading in English as an important skill for developing proficiency in language skills (q17, 63.6% pre vs. 66.7% post), they avoided reading texts when they contain difficult words (q23, 87.9% pre vs. 78.7% post) and did not read English materials for pleasure (q22, 30.4% pre vs. 21.2% post).

However, CG participants had more positive perceptions regarding the English-speaking course and English textbook before versus after the intervention (q8–15). More than half of the CG participants at pre-intervention but less than half of the CG participants at post-intervention agreed that the English-speaking course would help them improve their skills of grammar (q8, 66.7% pre vs. 45.5% post) and vocabulary (q9, 69.7% pre vs. 45.5% post), and the appropriate use of vocabulary (q10, 72.8% pre vs. 48.5% post). Also, more than half of the CG participants (% answered "agree" or "strongly agree" = % TS in Table 4.5, p. 146) at pre-intervention but less than half at post intervention agreed that the English textbook would help improve their English-speaking skills (q11, 72.7% pre vs. 48.5% post), their skills of grammar (q12, 72.7% pre vs. 42.4% post) and vocabulary (q13, 75.8% pre vs. 30.3% post), and the appropriate use of vocabulary (q14, 81.9% pre vs. 42.4% post). Finally, more than half of the CG participants at pre-intervention but less than half at post-intervention agreed that they would enjoy the English-speaking course this semester (q15, 63.7% pre vs. 42.4% post).

Table 4.5: Summary (frequency and percentage) of the pre-test and post-test survey responses for perceptions towards extensive reading for the control group

Item	Description	Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
		SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the University level.	3 (9.1)	13 (39.4)	7 (21.2)	10 (30.3)	51.5	3 (9.1)	12 (36.4)	10 (30.3)	8 (24.2)	54.5
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	7 (21.2)	8 (24.2)	8 (24.2)	10 (30.3)	54.5	3 (9.1)	9 (27.3)	10 (30.3)	11 (33.3)	63.3
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	4 (12.1)	9 (27.3)	9 (27.3)	11 (33.3)	60.6	3 (9.1)	10 (30.3)	6 (18.2)	14 (42.4)	60.6
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	2 (6.1)	9 (27.3)	9 (27.3)	13 (39.4)	66.7	0	7 (21.2)	16 (48.5)	10 (30.3)	78.8
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	4 (12.1)	7 (21.2)	10 (30.3)	12 (36.3)	66.3	7 (21.2)	6 (18.2)	14 (42.4)	6 (18.2)	60.6
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	6 (18.2)	9 (27.3)	10 (30.3)	8 (24.2)	54.5	3 (9.1)	7 (21.2)	13 (39.4)	10 (30.3)	69.7
7	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	5 (15.2)	8 (24.2)	11 (33.3)	9 (27.3)	60.6	5 (15.2)	10 (30.3)	8 (24.2)	10 (30.3)	54.5
8	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	4 (12.1)	7 (21.2)	13 (39.4)	9 (27.3)	66.7	4 (12.1)	14 (42.4)	10 (30.3)	5 (15.2)	45.5
9	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	4 (12.1)	6 (18.2)	10 (30.3)	13 (39.4)	69.7	3 (9.1)	15 (45.5)	9 (27.3)	6 (18.2)	45.5
10	The English-Speaking Course will help me (helped) use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	3 (9.1)	4 (12.1)	13 (39.4)	13 (39.4)	72.8	5 (15.2)	12 (36.4)	9 (27.3)	7 (21.2)	48.5
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me develop my English-speaking skills, in general, this semester.	2 (6.1)	7 (21.2)	16 (48.5)	8 (24.2)	72.7	6 (18.2)	11 (33.3)	11 (33.3)	5 (15.2)	48.5

Item	Description	Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
		SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me develop my grammar in English-speaking this semester.	1 (3.0)	8 (24.2)	14 (42.4)	10 (30.3)	72.7	6 (18.2)	13 (39.4)	4 (12.1)	10 (30.3)	42.4
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me use new vocabulary items in English-speaking this semester.	2 (6.1)	6 (18.2)	16 (48.5)	9 (27.3)	75.8	9 (27.3)	14 (42.4)	7 (21.2)	3 (9.1)	30.3
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me (helped) use vocabulary appropriately in English-speaking this semester.	0 (0.0)	6 (18.2)	12 (36.4)	15 (45.5)	81.9	5 (15.2)	14 (42.4)	10 (30.3)	4 (12.1)	42.4
15	I will enjoy (enjoyed) the English-Speaking Course this semester.	4 (12.1)	8 (24.2)	9 (27.3)	12 (36.4)	63.7	7 (21.2)	12 (36.4)	10 (30.3)	4 (12.1)	42.4
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	6 (18.2)	9 (27.3)	10 (30.3)	8 (24.2)	54.5	6 (18.2)	11 (33.3)	8 (24.2)	8 (24.2)	48.4
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	4 (12.1)	8 (24.2)	10(30.3)	11 (33.3)	63.6	5 (15.2)	6 (18.2)	13 (39.4)	9 (27.3)	66.7
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	10 (30.3)	13 (39.4)	5 (15.2)	5 (15.2)	30.4	8 (24.2)	8 (24.2)	7 (21.2)	10 (30.3)	51.5
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	7 (21.2)	16 (48.5)	8 (24.2)	2 (6.1)	30.3	5 (15.2)	10(30.3)	14 (42.4)	4 (12.1)	54.5
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	11 (33.3)	10 (30.3)	6 (18.2)	6 (18.2)	36.4	7 (21.2)	8 (24.2)	9 (27.3)	9 (27.3)	54.6
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	7 (21.2)	10 (30.3)	9 (27.3)	7 (21.2)	48.5	8 (24.2)	9 (27.3)	10 (30.3)	6 (18.2)	48.5
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	7 (21.2)	16 (48.5)	5 (15.2)	5 (15.2)	30.4	10 (30.3)	16 (48.5)	4 (12.1)	3 (9.1)	21.2
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	1 (3.0)	3 (9.1)	9 (27.3)	20 (60.6)	87.9	0 (0.0)	7 (21.2)	18 (54.5)	8 (24.2)	78.7

Note. SD = Strongly disagree, D = Disagree, A = Agree, and SA = Strongly agree. % TA = percentage of total agreed (computed by summing % of A and % of SA). Items 7–15 were in future tense for pre-test survey and in past tense for post-test survey.

Conversely, CG participants had more positive perceptions regarding reading in English post-intervention than pre-intervention (q18–20). More than half of the CG participants (% answered "agree" or "strongly agree" = % TS in Table 4.5) at pre-intervention but less than half of the CG participants at post-intervention agreed that reading in English helped them understand spoken English (q18, 30.4% pre vs. 51.5% post) and participate in English conversations (q19, 30.3% pre vs. 54.5% post), and they were interested in being able to read English texts of their own choice (q20, 36.4% pre vs. 54.6% post).

There was no intervention in the case of CG. Hence, theoretically, the pre- and post-test results should essentially be the same. However, some differences between pre- and post-test data were noted. CG participants had more positive perceptions regarding the English-speaking course and English textbook pre-intervention than post-intervention (q8–15), however, CG participants had more positive perceptions regarding reading in English post-intervention than pre-intervention (q18–20). This may indicate that students enjoyed reading in English; however, the current English-speaking course itself and the materials adopted need to be improved to increase students' interest of learning.

4.2.2.2 EPCD1 – The first experimental group – ER-only group (EPCD1)

EPCD1 attended the same Level 4 Speaking and Listening EFL course as students in CG. In addition, they participated in nine weeks of a structured ER programme. Table 4.6 (p. 150) presents the frequency counts and percentages of the responses to the 34 items used to assess this group, of which 23 items were the same as CG and 11 ER-specific items to evaluate the effect of the intervention. A summary of post-test results is also provided in Appendix O. Overall, for both pre- and post-intervention, EPCD1 participants had similar perceptions regarding importance of speaking English, difficulty speaking English, importance of grammar and vocabulary, the English-speaking course, and impact and attitude of reading in English. EPCD1 participants had much more positive perceptions regarding English textbooks and the English-speaking course pre-intervention than post-intervention. EPCD1 participants had much positive perceptions regarding reading in English post-intervention, compared to pre-intervention. Furthermore, EPCD1 participants had relatively positive

perceptions about reading Oxford Graded readers and had an overall good experience with ER.

For both pre- and post-intervention, EPCD1 participants had similar perceptions regarding importance of speaking English (q1), difficulty speaking English (q2), importance of grammar and vocabulary (q3, q5–6), the English-speaking course (q7–10), impact and attitude of reading in English (q17, q21 and q23). More than half of the EPCD1 participants (% answered "agree" or "strongly agree" = % TS in Table 4.6) agreed that speaking English was an important skill (q1, 56.7% pre vs. 80.0% post) and speaking English was difficult for them (q2, 66.7% pre vs. 66.6% post). Also, more than half of the participants believed that vocabulary (q5, 56.6% pre vs. 80.0% post) and grammar (q6, 60.0% pre vs. 60.0% post) were important factors in speaking English, and lack of grammar knowledge would make speaking English difficult (q3, 60.0% pre vs. 60.0% post). Also, more than half of the EPCD1 participants had positive perceptions regarding the English-speaking course as they believed that the course could help develop their overall English speaking skills (q7, 66.7% pre vs. 53.3% post), the use of grammar (q8, 66.7% pre vs. 50.0% post), the use of vocabulary (q9, 63.4% pre vs. 50.0% post), and use vocabulary appropriately (q10, 63.4% pre vs. 53.4% post) when speaking English. Over 60% of the EPCD1 participants also indicated that reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills (q17, 70.0% pre vs. 60.0% post). However, only about one-third of the EPCD1 participants said that they discussed with others the books they read in English for pleasure (q21, 33.3% pre vs. 33.4% post) and a large amount suggested that they avoided reading texts that contain difficult words (q23, 93.4% pre vs. 93.3% post).

EPCD1 participants had much more positive perceptions regarding English textbooks (q11–14) and the English-speaking course (q15) pre-intervention than post-intervention. A large proportion of EPCD1 participants pre-intervention and less than half of EPCD1 participants post-intervention had suggested that English textbooks would help develop their English speaking skills (q11, 80.0% pre vs. 40.0% post), grammar (q12, 83.4% pre vs. 36.7% post), use of new vocabulary (q13, 80.0% pre vs. 46.6% post), and use of appropriate vocabulary (q14, 76.7% pre vs. 33.3% post) when speaking in English. Notably, 80.0% of EPCD1 participants pre-intervention said they enjoyed the English-speaking course, but the proportion dropped to only 26.7% post-intervention.

Table 4.6. Summary (frequency and percentage) of the pre-test and post-test survey responses for perceptions towards extensive reading for EPCD1

Item	Description	Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
		SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the University level.	3 (10.0)	10 (33.3)	9 (30.0)	8 (26.7)	56.7	2 (6.7)	4 (13.3)	14 (46.7)	10 (33.3)	80.0
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	11 (36.7)	9 (30.0)	66.7	2 (6.7)	8 (26.7)	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	66.6
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	5 (16.7)	7 (23.3)	7 (23.3)	11 (36.7)	60.0	4 (13.3)	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	6 (20.0)	60.0
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	4 (13.3)	4 (13.3)	14 (46.7)	8 (26.7)	73.4	8 (26.7)	10 (33.3)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	40.0
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3 (10.0)	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	10 (33.3)	56.6	0 (0.0)	6 (20.0)	12 (40.0)	12 (40.0)	80.0
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	4 (13.3)	8 (26.7)	9 (30.0)	9 (30.0)	60.0	3 (10.0)	9 (30.0)	8 (26.7)	10 (33.3)	60.0
7	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	11 (36.7)	9 (30.0)	66.7	7 (23.3)	7 (23.3)	10 (33.3)	6 (20.0)	53.3
8	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	4 (13.3)	6 (20.0)	12 (40.0)	8 (26.7)	66.7	7 (23.3)	8 (26.7)	8 (26.7)	7 (23.3)	50.0
9	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	5 (16.7)	6 (20.0)	8 (26.7)	11 (36.7)	63.4	6 (20.0)	9 (30.0)	8 (26.7)	7 (23.3)	50.0
10	The English-Speaking Course will help me (helped) use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	1 (3.3)	10 (33.3)	11 (36.7)	8 (26.7)	63.4	7 (23.3)	7 (23.3)	8 (26.7)	8 (26.7)	53.4
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me develop my English-speaking skills, in general, this semester.	2 (6.7)	4 (13.3)	14 (46.7)	10 (33.3)	80.0	8 (26.7)	10 (33.3)	6 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	40.0

		Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
Item	Description	SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me develop my grammar in English-speaking this semester.	2 (6.7)	3 (10.0)	8 (26.7)	17 (56.7)	83.4	7 (23.3)	12 (40.0)	9 (30.0)	2 (6.7)	36.7
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me use new vocabulary items in English-speaking this semester.	1 (3.3)	5 (16.7)	15 (50.0)	9 (30.0)	80.0	6 (20.0)	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	4 (13.3)	46.6
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me (helped) use vocabulary appropriately in English-speaking this semester.	2 (6.7)	5 (16.7)	15 (50.0)	8 (26.7)	76.7	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	4 (13.3)	6 (20.0)	33.3
15	I will enjoy (enjoyed) the English-Speaking Course this semester.	3 (10.0)	3 (10.0)	14 (46.7)	10 (33.3)	80.0	8 (26.7)	14 (46.7)	6 (20.0)	2 (6.7)	26.7
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	9 (30.0)	11 (36.7)	7 (23.3)	3 (10.0)	33.3	4 (13.3)	6 (20.0)	11 (36.7)	9 (30.0)	66.7
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	2 (6.7)	7 (23.3)	12 (40.0)	9 (30.0)	70.0	6 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	8 (26.7)	10 (33.3)	60.0
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	6 (20.0)	12 (40.0)	6 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	40.0	1 (3.3)	3 (10.0)	14 (46.7)	12 (40.0)	86.7
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	4 (13.3)	12 (40.0)	7 (23.3)	7 (23.3)	46.6	1 (3.3)	9 (30.0)	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	66.6
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	7 (23.3)	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	3 (10.0)	43.3	0 (0.0)	6 (20.0)	14 (46.7)	10 (33.3)	80.0
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	6 (20.0)	4 (13.3)	33.3	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	33.4
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	11 (36.7)	14 (46.7)	5 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	16.7	7 (23.3)	7 (23.3)	9 (30.0)	7 (23.3)	53.3
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	14 (46.7)	14 (46.7)	93.4	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	16 (53.3)	12 (40.0)	93.3

Item	Description	Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
		SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
24	I read all of the materials assigned for the ER during this semester.						2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	9 (30.0)	17 (56.7)	86.7
25	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have developed my English in general.						1 (3.3)	4 (13.3)	9 (30.0)	16 (53.3)	83.3
26	Reading Oxford Graded Readers made me want to do this experience again.						5 (16.7)	7 (23.3)	10 (33.3)	8 (26.7)	60.0
27	I enjoyed reading Oxford Graded Readers this semester.						2 (6.7)	4 (13.3)	14 (46.7)	10 (33.3)	80.0
28	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me develop my spoken English in general.						5 (16.7)	8 (26.7)	9 (30.0)	8 (26.7)	56.7
29	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English.						4 (13.3)	8 (26.7)	11 (36.7)	7 (23.3)	60.0
30	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.						6 (20.0)	8 (26.7)	8 (26.7)	8 (26.7)	53.4
31	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me develop my grammar in spoken English.						3 10.0()	8 (26.7)	9 (30.0)	10 (33.3)	63.3
32	I recommend ER as a way of developing speaking skills in general.						6 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	10 (33.3)	8 (26.7)	60.0
33	I recommend ER as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.						2 (6.7)	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	8 (26.7)	66.7
34	I recommend ER as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.						6 (20.0)	10 (33.3)	8 (26.7)	6 (20.0)	46.7

Note. SD = Strongly disagree, D = Disagree, A = Agree, and SA = Strongly agree. % TA = percentage of total agreed (computed by summing % of A and % of SA). Items 24–34 were pertaining to extensive reading and only for post-test survey for the EPCD1. Items 7–15 were in future tense for pre-test survey and in past tense for post-test survey.

Conversely, EPCD1 participants had much positive perceptions regarding reading in English post-intervention, compared to pre-intervention (q16, q18–20, and q22). Less than half of EPCD1 participants pre-intervention and more than half of EPCD1 participants post-intervention suggested that reading in English helped them understand spoken English (q18, 40.0% pre vs. 86.7% post) and participate in English conversations (q19, 46.6% pre vs. 66.6% post), and they were interested in being able to read English texts of their own choice (q20, 43.3% pre vs. 80.0% post). Less than 20% of EPCD1 participants said they read English materials for pleasure pre-intervention, but the proportion increased to over 50% post-intervention (q22, 16.7% pre vs. 53.3% post).

Regarding the experience with the Oxford Graded readers, overall, EPCD1 participants had relatively positive perceptions about reading Oxford Graded readers (q25–31), with % answered "agree" or "strongly agree" (% TS in Table 4.6) ranging from 53.4% to 86.7%, regarding whether they perceived if reading Oxford Graded Readers helped develop their English in general (q25), made them want to do this experience again (q26), helped them develop my spoken English in general (q28), have helped them use new vocabulary items in spoken English (q29), helped them use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English (q30), helped develop grammar in spoken English (q31), and if they enjoyed reading Oxford Graded Readers this semester (q27).

EPCD1 participants also had an overall good experience with ER (q24, q32 and q33). Almost all EPCD1 participants (86.7%) read all of the materials assigned for the ER (q24). More than half of EPCD1 participants would recommend ER for developing speaking skills (q32, 60.0%) and vocabulary (q33, 66.7%). However, it should be noted that less than half of EPCD1 participants would recommend ER for developing grammar (q34, 46.7%).

After the ER intervention, more students in EPCD1 enjoyed reading English books, but only to increase their vocabulary, rather than for improving their grammatical accuracy. However, the same students did not agree that the Level 4 Speaking and Listening EFL course or textbooks helped them in their vocabulary or grammar in any way. Further, they indicated that they did not enjoy the course. These experiences may be the reason the participants suggested they would not recommend ER as a way to develop grammar in speaking skills. However, despite these problems,

the participants did not believe a lack of vocabulary made speaking in English difficult. Differences between the pre- and post-tests showed that 73.4% of participants agreed that a lack of vocabulary makes speaking in English difficult; post-test, this agreement decreased to 40%. Thus, it was neither the course nor the textbook but ER itself that helped the participants to build their vocabulary and use it for speaking in English with fewer problems. Despite some of their negative perceptions towards their experiences, the participants in EPCD1 indicated they found reading the Oxford Graded Readers enjoyable and useful in developing English language skills in general, and wanted to continue ER. The Oxford Graded Readers evidently helped them to develop spoken English, grammatical accuracy and to use new vocabulary appropriately in speech. As a result, they recommended ER for developing speaking skills, grammar and vocabulary.

4.2.2.3 EPCD2 – The second experimental group – ER + OR group (EPCD2)

In the case of EPCD2, the intervention consisted of structured ER plus oral reports and in-class discussions. In addition to the 23 items used for CG and 11 items used for EPCD1, 16 more items related to oral reporting were included in post-test measurements (50 items total). Table 4.7 (p. 155) presents the frequency counts and percentages of the responses to the 50 items used for this group to evaluate the effect of the ER + OR intervention. A summary of post-test results is also provided in Appendix P. Overall, for both pre- and post-intervention, EPCD2 participants had similar perceptions regarding the importance of grammar and vocabulary, and two aspects about reading in English (reading in English as an important skill and avoiding reading difficult words). Compared to pre-intervention, EPCD2 participants believed speaking English was less difficult for them post-intervention, and had more positive perceptions regarding importance of speaking English, reading books in English, and reading in English post-intervention. However, compared to pre-intervention, EPCD2 participants had less positive perceptions regarding the English-speaking course and the English textbook post-intervention. Overall, EPCD2 participants had relatively positive perceptions about reading Oxford Graded readers, had an overall good experience with ER, highly praised their OR experience, and believed the ER + OR activities were highly effective for developing English speaking skills.

Table 4.7: Summary (frequency and percentage) of the pre-test and post-test survey responses for perceptions towards extensive reading for EPCD2

Item	Description	Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
		SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the University level.	2 (6.7)	11 (36.7)	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	56.6	0 (0.0)	1 (3.3)	14 (46.7)	15 (50.0)	96.7
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	4 (13.3)	6 (20.0)	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	66.7	5 (16.7)	12 (40.0)	7 (23.3)	6 (20.0)	43.3
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	7 (23.3)	5 (16.7)	9 (30.0)	9 (30.0)	60.0	6 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	14 (46.7)	4 (13.3)	60.0
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	4 (13.3)	7 (23.3)	9 (30.0)	10 (33.3)	63.3	0 (0.0)	5 (16.7)	17 (56.7)	8 (26.7)	83.4
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	6 (20.0)	4 (13.3)	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	66.7	1 (3.3)	3 (10.0)	10 (33.3)	16 (53.3)	86.6
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3 (10.0)	9 (30.0)	10 (33.3)	8 (26.7)	60.0	3 (10.0)	6 (20.0)	7 (23.3)	14 (46.7)	70.0
7	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	4 (13.3)	7 (23.3)	9 (30.0)	1 0 (33.3)	63.3	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	3 (10.0)	33.3
8	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	5 (16.7)	6 (20.0)	7 (23.3)	12 (40.0)	63.3	9 (30.0)	14 (46.7)	6 (20.0)	1 (3.3)	23.3
9	The English-Speaking Course will help (helped) me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	4 (13.3)	6 (20.0)	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	66.6	11 (36.7)	13 (43.3)	6 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	20.0
10	The English-Speaking Course will help me (helped) use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	0 (0.0)	8 (26.7)	13 (43.3)	9 (30.0)	73.3	12 (40.0)	10 (33.3)	6 (20.0)	2 (6.7)	26.7
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me develop my English-speaking skills, in general, this semester.	3 (10.0)	5 (16.7)	12 (40.0)	10 (33.3)	73.3	8 (26.7)	14 (46.7)	7 (23.3)	1 (3.3)	26.6

Item	Description	Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
		SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me develop my grammar in English-speaking this semester.	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	11 (36.7)	15 (50.0)	86.7	6 (20.0)	12 (40.0)	7 (23.3)	5 (16.7)	40.0
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help (helped) me use new vocabulary items in English-speaking this semester.	1 (3.3)	4 (13.3)	11 (36.7)	14 (46.7)	83.4	8 (26.7)	14 (46.7)	6 (20.0)	2 (6.7)	26.7
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me (helped) use vocabulary appropriately in English-speaking this semester.	1 (3.3)	7 (23.3)	11 (36.7)	11 (36.7)	73.4	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	33.4
15	I will enjoy (enjoyed) the English-Speaking Course this semester.	6 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	9 (30.0)	9 (30.0)	60.0	10 (33.3)	16 (53.3)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	13.4
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	10 (33.3)	6 (20.0)	8 (26.7)	6 (20.0)	46.7	4 (13.3)	5 (16.7)	10 (33.3)	11 (36.7)	70.0
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	6 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	7 (23.3)	11 (36.7)	60.0	3 (10.0)	4 (13.3)	9 (30.0)	14 (46.7)	76.7
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	8 (26.7)	10 (33.3)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	40.0	4 (13.3)	4 (13.3)	12 (40.0)	10 (33.3)	73.3
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	2 (6.7)	15 (50.0)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	43.4	1 (3.3)	7 (23.3)	11 (36.7)	11 (36.7)	73.4
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	9 (30.0)	9 (30.0)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	40.0	3 (10.0)	5 (16.7)	9 (30.0)	13 (43.3)	73.3
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	10 (33.3)	13 (43.3)	6 (20.0)	1 (3.3)	23.3	3 (10.0)	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	10 (33.3)	56.6
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	3 (10.0)	33.3	5 (16.7)	7 (23.3)	9 (30.0)	9 (30.0)	60.0
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	0 (0.0)	1 (3.3)	13 (43.3)	16 (53.3)	96.6	0 (0.0)	2 (6.7)	13 (43.3)	15 (50.0)	93.3

		Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
Item	Description	SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
24	I read all of the materials assigned for the ER during this semester.						0 (0.0)	1 (3.3)	8 (26.7)	21 (70.0)	96.7
25	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have developed my English in general.						1 (3.3)	3 (10.0)	11 (36.7)	15 (50.0)	86.7
26	Reading Oxford Graded Readers made me want to do this experience again.						2 (6.7)	6 (20.0)	9 (30.0)	13 (43.3)	73.3
27	I enjoyed reading Oxford Graded Readers this semester.						5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	66.7
28	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me develop my spoken English in general.						1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	17 (56.7)	10 (33.3)	90.0
29	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English.						2 (6.7)	4 (13.3)	16 (53.3)	8 (26.7)	80.0
30	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.						4 (13.3)	2 (6.7)	12 (40.0)	12 (40.0)	80.0
31	Reading Oxford Graded Readers have helped me develop my grammar in spoken English.						6 (20.0)	7 (23.3)	11 (36.7)	6 (20.0)	56.7
32	I recommend ER as a way of developing speaking skills in general.						2 (6.7)	0 (0.0)	16 (53.3)	12 (40.0)	93.3
33	I recommend ER as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.						1 (3.3)	5 (16.7)	14 (46.7)	10 (33.3)	80.0
34	I recommend ER as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.						3 (10.0)	10 (33.3)	9 (30.0)	8 (26.7)	56.7
35	I attended all of the oral report activity sessions this semester.						0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (26.7)	22 (73.3)	100.0
36	The oral report activities helped me develop my English in general						0 (0.0)	1 (3.3)	11 (36.7)	18 (60.0)	96.7
37	The oral report activities made me want to take this experience again.						3 (10.0)	5 (16.7)	9 (30.0)	13 (43.3)	73.3

		Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
Item	Description	SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
38	I enjoyed oral report activities this semester.						1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	16 (53.3)	11 (36.7)	90.0
39	I enjoyed the dialogue activity this semester.						2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	13 (43.3)	13 (43.3)	86.6
40	I enjoyed the group discussion activity this semester						4 (13.3)	6 (20.0)	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	66.6
41	Reading Oxford Graded Readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my spoken English in general.						0 (0.0)	3 (10.0)	15 (50.0)	12 (40.0)	90.0
42	Reading Oxford Graded Readers along with oral report activities have helped to use new vocabulary items in spoken English.						3 (10.0)	3 (10.0)	11 (36.7)	13 (43.3)	80.0
43	Reading Oxford Graded Readers along with oral report activities have helped to use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.						1 (3.3)	4 (13.3)	16 (53.3)	9 (30.0)	83.3
44	Reading Oxford Graded Readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my grammar in spoken English.						4 (13.3)	4 (13.3)	14 (46.7)	8 (26.7)	73.4
45	ER alone is not enough to develop speaking in English.						6 (20.0)	7 (23.3)	9 (30.0)	8 (26.7)	56.7
46	ER alone is not enough to develop vocabulary in English-speaking.						5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	11 (36.7)	9 (30.0)	66.7
47	ER alone is not enough to develop grammar in English-speaking.						4 (13.3)	9 (30.0)	7 (23.3)	10 (33.3)	56.6
48	I recommend ER along with oral report activities as a way of speaking development in general.						2 (6.7)	3 (10.0)	12 (40.0)	13 (43.3)	83.3
49	I recommend ER along with oral report activities as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.						4 (13.3)	4 (13.3)	11 (36.7)	11 (36.7)	73.4

Item	Description	Response of pre-test survey					Response of post-test survey				
		SD	D	A	SA	% TS	SD	D	A	SA	% TS
50	I recommend ER along with oral report activities as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.						4 (13.3)	2 (6.7)	16 (53.3)	8 (26.7)	80.0

Note. SD = Strongly disagree, D = Disagree, A = Agree, and SA = Strongly agree. % TA = percentage of total agreed (computed by summing % of A and % of SA). Items 24–50 were only for post-test survey. Items 7–15 were in future tense for pre-test survey and in past tense for post-test survey. Items 24–34 were pertaining to extensive reading, items 35–50 were pertaining to oral reporting, and these items were only for post-test survey for EPCD2.

For both pre- and post-intervention, EPCD2 participants had similar perceptions regarding importance of grammar and vocabulary (q3–6), and two aspects about reading in English (q17 and q23). More than half of the EPCD2 participants (% answered "agree" or "strongly agree" = % TS in Table 4.7) agreed that vocabulary (q5, 66.7% pre vs. 86.6% post) and grammar (q6, 60.0% pre vs. 70.0% post) were important factors in speaking English, and lack of grammar knowledge (q3, 60.0% pre vs. 60.0% post) and vocabulary (q4, 63.3% pre vs. 83.4% post) would make speaking English difficult. Also, more than half of the EPCD1 participants believed that reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills (q17, 60.0% pre vs. 76.7% post). A large amount suggested that they avoided reading texts when they contain difficult words (q23, 96.6% pre vs. 93.3% post).

Compared to pre-intervention, EPCD2 participants believed speaking English was less difficult for them post-intervention (q2, 66.7% pre vs. 43.3% post). Furthermore, compared to pre-intervention, EPCD2 participants had more positive perceptions regarding the importance of speaking English (q1), reading books in English (q16), and reading in English (q18–22) post-intervention. For example, at pre-intervention, 56.6% of EPCD2 participants agreed speaking English is an important skill at the university level, while the proportion increased to 96.7% for post-intervention. Also, less than half of the EPCD2 participants pre-intervention and more than half of the EPCD2 participants post-intervention indicated that they enjoyed reading books in English (q16, 46.7% pre vs. 70.0% post), they were interested in being able to read English texts of their own choice (q20, 40.0% pre vs. 73.3% post), they discussed with others the books they read in English for pleasure (q21, 23.3% pre vs. 56.6% post), and they read English materials for pleasure (q16, 33.3% pre vs. 60.0% post). Finally, less than half of the EPCD2 participants pre-intervention and more than half of the EPCD2 participants post-intervention indicated that reading in English helped understand them spoken English (q18, 40.0% pre vs. 73.3% post) and participate in English conversations (q19, 43.4% pre vs. 73.4% post).

Compared to pre-intervention, EPCD2 participants had less positive perceptions regarding the English-speaking course (q7–10, q15) and the English textbook (q11–14). More than half of the EPCD2 participants pre-intervention and less than half of the EPCD2 participants post-intervention indicated that the English-speaking course helped them develop the overall speaking skills (q7, 63.3% pre vs.

33.3% post), develop the use of grammar (q8, 63.3% pre vs. 23.3% post), use new vocabulary (q9, 66.6% pre vs. 20.0% post), and use vocabulary appropriately (q10, 73.3% pre vs. 26.7% post), and they enjoyed the English-speaking course (q9, 60.0% pre vs. 13.4% post). Additionally, more than half of the EPCD2 participants pre-intervention and less than half of the EPCD2 participants post-intervention indicated that the English textbook helped them develop speaking skills (q11, 73.3% pre vs. 26.6% post), develop grammar (q12, 86.7% pre vs. 40.0% post), use new vocabulary (q13, 83.4% pre vs. 26.7% post), and use vocabulary appropriately (q14, 73.4% pre vs. 33.4% post).

Regarding the experience with the Oxford Graded readers, overall, EPCD2 participants had relatively positive perceptions about reading Oxford Graded readers (q25–31), with % answered "agree" or "strongly agree" (% TS in Table 4.7) ranging from 56.7% to 93.3%.

EPCD2 participants also had an overall good experience with ER (q24, q32–34). Almost all EPCD1 participants (96.7%) read all of the materials assigned for the ER (q24). More than half of EPCD1 participants would recommend ER for developing speaking skills (q32, 93.3%), vocabulary (q33, 80.0), and grammar (q34, 56.7%).

EPCD2 participants highly praised their OR experience (q35–40), with % answered "agree" or "strongly agree" (% TS in Table 4.7) ranging from 66.6% to 100.0%, regarding whether they attended all of the oral report activity sessions this semester (q35), the oral report activities helped them develop English in general (q36) and made them want to take this experience again (q37), and they enjoyed OR (q38), the dialogue activity (q39), and the group discussion activity (q40).

Finally, EPCD2 participants believed the ER + OR activities were highly effective for developing English speaking skills (q41–50). A large portion of EPCD2 participants indicated that ER + OR helped develop their spoken English (q41, 90.0%), use new vocabulary (q42, 80.0%), use vocabulary appropriately (q43, 83.3%), develop grammar (q44, 73.4%). They also believed that ER alone was not enough to develop speaking in English (q45, 56.7%), vocabulary (q46, 66.7%), and grammar (q12, 56.6%). EPCD2 participants highly recommended ER + OR as a way of speaking development (q48, 83.3%), developing vocabulary (q49, 73.4%), and developing grammar (q50, 80.0%).

4.2.2.4 Summary of findings of survey data

In this research, it was hypothesised that the outcomes of ER as an intervention would be further increased if oral reporting were added to the intervention. Notably, for items related to ER (q24–34), significantly higher percentages of participants from EPCD2 agreed compared to participants in EPCD1. In fact, all participants (100%) in EPCD2 agreed or strongly agreed with item 34, indicating that they would recommend ER to others as a way to improve speaking skills. More than 70% of this group indicated they would recommend ER with OR to others to improve vocabulary and grammar in spoken English, and 83% said they would recommend ER with OR as a way to improve English speaking skills in general. Important scope for analysis arising from the survey findings, to be discussed in the Discussion chapter, includes querying the extent to which the current teaching methods improved speaking skills.

In the case of CG, most participants indicated that they were not reading books unrelated to the coursework for pleasure in the pre-test. In the post-test, about 55% of participants indicated that they preferred to read books of their own choice. By this stage, the majority of participants in CG were still not reading for pleasure or discussing with others what they had read. This shows that students in CG read books only out of necessity for the course rather than for pleasure. The influence of interacting with others about the books they had read on improving their speaking skills was therefore a missed opportunity in the teaching context under study. Further, the usefulness of the course or the textbook for improving speaking skills via the improvement of vocabulary or grammar appears highly limited. This aspect of the research needs further investigation.

The responses from participants in EPCD1 show that in the post-test, students believed that vocabulary was a major barrier to speaking English. In the post-test, agreement and disagreement were even for responses on the usefulness of the course in improving vocabulary and grammatical accuracy. This was a substantial change from the pre-test responses, where 62–65% agreed with these statements. Thus, what was perceived as useful earlier was no longer perceived so after the ER intervention. A question arises as to whether the ER intervention made these participants perceive the effect of the course more negatively. If pre-test responses are viewed as expectations and post-test responses as actual experiences, the latter explanation may therefore be valid. As the ER intervention occurred through the use of graded

books and was independent of the textbook, this negative shift cannot be attributed to ER, with responses to items related to ER (24–34) all being more positive.

The responses of some participants in EPCD1 about ER were less positive, potentially indicating that some students were less sure or unable to pinpoint the exact outcomes of the intervention. While more than 60% of EPCD1 participants recommended ER to improve general speaking skills and vocabulary, only about 47% of them believed that ER could help to improve grammar. The latter response almost parallels the 53% who believed ER improved their grammar (item 31). Thus, in this group we can see there is less certainty about the role of ER in improving grammar.

In the case of EPCD2, item 16 on enjoyment of reading and item 22 on reading for pleasure are difficult to differentiate. Enjoyment and pleasure may be perceived to be the same, although the former is experienced from within while the latter has an outside source. It is interesting to consider how students might have differentiated between the two and what exactly the effect of ER is on either or both. For instance, does the difference between percentages of agreement/disagreement therefore indicate the extent to which the students differentiated the two terms, or was there a bias?

Item 16 was the only differentiating aspect between CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2 in the pre-test. The reasons why such differences should occur in the pre-test stage, when all students are equal in their learning status, is a matter to be explained.

4.2.3 Validity and reliability of the surveys for measuring the perceptions of Saudi university students towards extensive reading activities

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Cronbach's alpha analysis were applied to test the validity and reliability of the survey data. EFA is a statistical method used to uncover the underlying structure of a set of variables (Pett et al., 2003). EFA can be used to reduce data to a smaller set of summary variables and to explore the underlying theoretical structure of the phenomena (Pett et al., 2003). Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group (George and Mallery, 2003). Cronbach's alpha is considered to be a measure of scale reliability (George and Mallery, 2003). In this section, the analysis results of the validity (using EFA) and reliability (using Cronbach's alpha analysis) will be presented, using: the pre-test data (q1–23) from all three groups (combining the data);

the post-test data for ER (q24–34) from the ER-only group and the ER + OR group; and the post-test data for OR (q35–50) from the ER + OR group.

For the pre-test items (q1–23) and the first 23 post-test items (q1–23) of all three groups, the survey items were designed to measure: general attitude towards English speaking (q1–6); attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10, q15); attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14); and attitude towards reading in English (q16–23). For the post-test items q24–34 of the ER-only group (EPCD1) and the ER + OR group (EPCD2), the survey questions were designed to measure perceptions towards ER. For the post-test items q35–50 of the ER + OR group, the survey questions were designed to measure perceptions towards OR.

Six one-factor models of EFA using the principal axis method (Pett et al., 2003) as the estimation method of EFA were used in this study to determine the validity of the survey instrument. Table 4.8 (below) shows the results of KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO-MSA ranged from 0.471 to 0.560, which were approximately equal to or greater than the 0.50 minimum value required for adequate use of the common factor model (Kaiser, 1970; Kaiser & Rice, 1974; Yong & Pearce, 2013). The results of the Bartlett's test of sphericity rejected the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix was an identity matrix ($p = 0.001$) for dimension 6 (attitude towards OR), indicating that the factor model was appropriate. However, the results of Bartlett's test of sphericity were insignificant ($p > 0.05$) for the remaining 5 dimensions, indicating that the correlation matrix of the variables for each factor model may be an identity matrix.

Table 4.8: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test of sphericity

Dimension	KMO-MSA	Bartlett's test of sphericity		
		χ^2	df	p
1	0.471	8.786	15	0.888
2	0.560	9.913	10	0.448
3	0.472	2.140	6	0.906
4	0.487	37.930	28	0.100
5	0.503	68.607	55	0.103
6	0.544	174.660	120	0.001

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6 for pre-test); Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15 for pre-test); Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14 for pre-test); Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23 for pre-test); Dimension 5 = Attitude towards ER (q24–34 for post-test); Dimension 6 = Attitude towards OR (q35–50 for post-test). KMO-MSA, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.

Table 4.9 (below) shows the anti-image correlation matrix for each dimension, which displays the negatives of the partial correlation coefficients. Most of the off-diagonal elements were small (absolute values ranged from 0.024 to 0.157 for dimension 1, from 0.003 to 0.169 for dimension 2, from 0.021 to 0.090 for dimension 3, from 0.012 to 0.284 for dimension 4, from 0.007 to 0.331 for dimension 5, from 0.020 to 0.585 for dimension 6), suggesting the factor models were adequate (Pett et al., 2003). The diagonal elements on the anti-image correlation matrix were the individual KMO-MSA for each variable (where the KMO-MSA reported in Table 4.8 was the overall KMO). The individual KMO-MSA ranged from 0.438 to 0.528 for dimension 1, from 0.316 to 0.595 for dimension 2, from 0.468 to 0.473 for dimension 3, from 0.410 to 0.605 for dimension 4, from 0.337 to 0.657 for dimension 5, from 0.267 to 0.534 for dimension 6, supporting the inclusion of each variable in the factor analysis (Pett et al., 2003; Yong and Pearce, 2013).

Table 4.9: Anti-image matrices

Dimension		q1	q2	q3	q4	q5	q6		
1	q1	.516[a]	.024	-.098	-.043	-.064	-.052		
	q2		.485[a]	.058	.157	.126	.045		
	q3			.438[a]	.037	.150	-.068		
	q4				.453[a]	.056	.032		
	q5					.452[a]	-.090		
	q6						.528[a]		

		q7	q8	q9	q10	q15			
2	q7	.595[a]	-.063	-.112	-.024	.132			
	q8		.531[a]	.003	-.169	.048			
	q9			.566[a]	.020	.164			
	q10				.516[a]	.014			
	q15					.571[a]			

		q11	q12	q13	q14				
3	q11	.473[a]	.029	.063	.103				
	q12		.473[a]	.090	.021				
	q13			.468[a]	.039				
	q14				.473[a]				

		q16	q17	q18	q19	q20	q21	q22	q23
4	q16	.443[a]	.024	.014	-.164	-.052	-.131	-.160	-.132
	q17		.487[a]	-.020	-.018	-.284	.020	-.120	-.012
	q18			.605[a]	.149	.139	-.049	-.067	.094

Dimension	q1	q2	q3	q4	q5	q6
q19	.488[a]	-.124	.046	.197	.213	
q20		.517[a]	-.147	.096	-.138	
q21			.432[a]	-.072	.174	
q22				.502[a]	-.020	
q23					.410[a]	

5	q24	q25	q26	q27	q28	q29	q30	q31	q32	q33	q34
q24	.599[a]	.042	-.083	.027	-.259	.028	-.044	.023	.041	.080	-.165
q25		.337[a]	-.018	.029	.053	-.068	.093	.245	-.147	.131	.019
q26			.574[a]	.026	-.070	.136	-.331	.262	.046	.070	-.155
q27				.473[a]	.200	-.085	.104	.099	-.379	-.324	.026
q28					.363[a]	-.021	.150	.127	-.258	-.141	.082
q29						.583[a]	-.197	.006	-.093	.065	.013
q30							.407[a]	-.005	-.246	-.108	.049
q31								.560[a]	-.246	.211	.153
q32									.448[a]	.016	-.007
q33										.519[a]	-.188
q34											.657[a]

6	q35	q36	q37	q38	q39	q40	q41	q42	q43	q44	q45	q46	q47	q48	q49	q50
q35	.354[a]	.143	.245	.343	.423	.036	.304	-.189	.220	.184	-.250	.555	.457	-.328	-.366	.230
q36		.352[a]	-.153	-.263	-.361	-.103	-.434	.127	-.571	-.280	-.031	.537	.180	-.118	-.375	.202
q37			.402[a]	.350	.319	-.117	.163	-.354	.468	.212	.024	-.025	.337	-.271	.101	-.155
q38				.534[a]	.094	-.058	.275	-.553	.268	.373	.164	-.115	.427	-.090	.090	.154
q39					.259[a]	.084	.472	-.209	.486	.206	-.279	.139	.043	-.108	-.066	-.146
q40						.561[a]	.020	.292	.149	-.310	-.055	.036	-.377	.052	-.164	-.078
q41							.371[a]	-.121	.410	.506	-.466	.015	.006	-.172	.024	.167
q42								.488[a]	-.031	-.466	-.098	-.176	-.454	-.060	-.207	-.010
q43									.267[a]	.184	-.185	-.296	-.030	-.126	.052	-.186
q44										.299[a]	-.048	.009	.319	.105	.251	.042
q45											.445[a]	-.246	-.062	.396	.450	-.397
q46												.501[a]	.301	-.326	-.298	.414
q47													.326[a]	-.331	-.307	.273
q48														.353[a]	.331	-.585
q49															.423[a]	-.192
q50																.474[a]

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6 for pre-test); Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15 for pre-test); Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14 for pre-test); Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23 for pre-test); Dimension 5 = Attitude towards ER (q24–34 for post-test); Dimension 6 = Attitude towards OR (q35–50 for post-test). [a] indicates individual measure of sampling adequacy.

Communalities (Table 4.10, below) are the proportions of each variable's variance that can be explained by the common factors. In this case, there is only one factor for each EFA. Using the principal factor axis factoring estimation method, the initial values on the diagonal of the correlation matrix are determined by the squared multiple correlation of each variable against the other variables. For example, for dimension 1, if one had regressed the variables q2, q3, q4, q5, and q6 on q1, the squared multiple correlation coefficient would be 0.019. In any case, for each dimension, under the column extraction, the values presented indicate the proportion of each variable's variance that can be explained by the retained factors (in this case, only one factor). Variables with higher values (e.g., q2 in dimension 1) are better represented using the common factor model, while variables with lower values (e.g., q3 in dimension 1) are less well represented.

Table 4.10: Communalities

Dimension	Item	Initial	Extraction
1	q1	.019	.017
	q2	.045	.355
	q3	.036	.001
	q4	.029	.040
	q5	.048	.033
	q6	.020	.016
2	q7	.042	.138
	q8	.037	.027
	q9	.045	.125
	q10	.031	.010
	q15	.054	.202
3	q11	.015	.270
	q12	.009	0.00004102
	q13	.013	.006
	q14	.012	.033
4	q16	.079	.023
	q17	.094	.087
	q18	.072	.066
	q19	.140	.059
	q20	.164	.628
	q21	.068	.009
	q22	.097	.010

Dimension	Item	Initial	Extraction
	q23	.100	.010
5	q24	.133	.090
	q25	.091	.004
	q26	.254	.296
	q27	.277	0.00002586
	q28	.173	.042
	q29	.095	.016
	q30	.208	.022
	q31	.287	.389
	q32	.295	.013
	q33	.240	.085
	q34	.157	.221
6	q35	.700	.166
	q36	.694	.101
	q37	.557	.002
	q38	.725	.700
	q39	.564	.007
	q40	.406	.101
	q41	.673	.134
	q42	.672	.456
	q43	.633	.014
	q44	.569	.017
	q45	.633	.177
	q46	.764	.470
	q47	.665	.006
	q48	.613	0.00002458
	q49	.601	.001
	q50	.667	.148

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6 for pre-test); Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15 for pre-test); Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14 for pre-test); Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23 for pre-test); Dimension 5 = Attitude towards ER (q24–34 for post-test); Dimension 6 = Attitude towards OR (q35–50 for post-test).

Factor loadings (Table 4.11, p. 169) were used to determine the validity of the survey instruments and the importance of the variables considered for each dimension. Factor loadings represent how the variables are weighted for each factor (in this case, there is only one factor for each dimension); and the correlation between the variables and the factor. Comrey and Lee (1992) suggest that the general rules for loadings in excess of 0.71 are considered excellent; 0.63 loadings are very good; 0.55 good; 0.45

fair; and 0.32 poor. However, Comrey and Lee (1992) also suggest that the cut-off values for the factor loadings could be flexible based on researchers' research purposes and needs.

The absolute values of the factor loadings ranged from:

- 0.038 to 0.596 for dimension 1;
- 0.098 to 0.450 for dimension 2;
- 0.006 to 0.520 for dimension 3;
- 0.095 to 0.793 for dimension 4;
- 0.005 to 0.624 for dimension 5; and
- 0.005 to 0.836 for dimension 6.

Table 4.11: Factor loadings

Dimension	Item	Factor loading
1	q1	.130
	q2	-.596
	q3	.038
	q4	.200
	q5	.183
	q6	.125
2	q7	.372
	q8	.164
	q9	.354
	q10	.098
	q15	-.450
3	q11	.520
	q12	-.006
	q13	-.077
	q14	-.181
4	q16	.151
	q17	.296
	q18	-.257
	q19	.243
	q20	.793
	q21	.095
	q22	-.098
	q23	.101
5	q24	.299

Dimension	Item	Factor loading
	q25	.064
	q26	.544
	q27	.005
	q28	.204
	q29	-.126
	q30	.148
	q31	-.624
	q32	-.115
	q33	.292
	q34	.470
6	q35	-.408
	q36	-.317
	q37	.041
	q38	.836
	q39	.083
	q40	-.317
	q41	-.366
	q42	.675
	q43	-.116
	q44	.131
	q45	-.421
	q46	.685
	q47	-.075
	q48	.005
	q49	.026
	q50	-.385

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6 for pre-test); Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15 for pre-test); Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14 for pre-test); Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23 for pre-test); Dimension 5 = Attitude towards ER (q24–34 for post-test); Dimension 6 = Attitude towards OR (q35–50 for post-test).

Over half of the factor loadings were below 0.3. The researcher decided to retain all items despite of the low factor loadings for the following reasons:

- The survey items developed for this study were based on previously validated survey instruments such as Almashy (2013), Al-Hammad (2009) and Tamrackitkun (2010) to maximise the possibility of maintaining coherence, validity, and reliability, thereby being a valid and appropriate tool for the collection of attitudinal data on ER.

- According to the pilot study, the survey items had suitable content validity (see section 3.9).

- The sample size for the EFAs was small (N = 93 for dimensions 1–4, N = 60 for dimension 5, and N = 30 for dimension 6). EFA is generally regarded as a technique for large sample sizes (de Winter et al., 2009). For small sample size (e.g., N = 50), to have good recovery of population factor structure, a moderate to high level of communality (over 0.7 in average) is required (MacCallum et al., 1999). Given the small sample size in this study, the validation results should therefore be viewed as preliminary and with caution.

Retaining all survey items for the six dimensions and the factor loadings (i.e., correlation of the items with the factors) meant they could be used to determine the importance of the survey items for each dimension of interest, with higher factor loadings indicating higher contribution of the survey items to each specific factor.

Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed to determine the reliability of the constructs. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following rules of thumb for Cronbach's alpha: alpha > .9 Excellent, > .8 Good, > .7 Acceptable, > .6 Questionable, > .5 Poor, and < .5 Unacceptable. By convention, an alpha of 0.65–0.80 is often considered adequate for a scale used in human dimensions research (Vaske, 2008). The alpha values ranged from 0.744 to 0.897 (Table 4.12, p.172), indicating adequate reliability of the constructs for this study. Thus, the researcher continued the analysis with the data collected for all six dimensions. However, it should be noted that since this is a novel study for investigating the impact of ER activities on the development of EFL learners' speaking accuracies, further investigation of the validity and reliability of the survey instruments should be conducted using larger sample sizes in future research.

Table 4.12: Cronbach's alpha

Dimension	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
1	6	0.802
2	5	0.744
3	4	0.748
4	8	0.832
5	11	0.897
6	16	0.885

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6 for pre-test); Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15 for pre-test); Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14 for pre-test); Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23 for pre-test); Dimension 5 = Attitude towards ER (q24–34 for post-test); Dimension 6 = Attitude towards OR (q35–50 for post-test).

4.2.4 Descriptive statistics and normality of the study variables

The study variables of this study included the IELTS speaking test results for lexical resource and grammatical accuracy for pre- and post-test, and the six dimensions of perceptions towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracy, including:

- General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6, both pre- and post-test),
- Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15, both pre- and post-test),
- Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14, both pre- and post-test),
- Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23, both pre- and post-test),
- Attitude towards ER (q24–34, post-test only), and
- Attitude towards OR (q35–50, post-test only).

Table 4.13 (p. 173) presents the descriptive statistics of the study variables. Regarding IELTS test results, overall, the mean post-test test scores (M = 3.97 for lexical resource and M = 4.00 for grammatical accuracy) were slightly higher than the mean pre-test scores (M = 3.81 for lexical resource and M = 3.88 for grammatical accuracy).

For the four attitude dimensions (Dimensions 1–4) that were measured in both pre- and post-tests, overall,

- The mean response score was slightly higher for the post-test than the pre-test for Dimension 1 (general attitude towards speaking in English; M = 2.70

for pre-test vs. M = 2.80 for post-test) and Dimension 4 (attitude towards reading in English; M = 2.48 pre vs M = 2.97 post), indicating that, overall, participants may have had more positive perceptions towards speaking and reading in English post-test than pre-test.

- The mean response score was slightly lower for post-test than for pre-test for Dimension 2 (attitude towards the English-speaking course; M = 2.88 pre vs. M = 2.31 post) and Dimension 3 (attitude towards the English textbook; M = 3.10 pre vs. M = 2.28 post), indicating that overall, participants may have had less positive perceptions towards the English-speaking course and English textbook post-test than pre-test.

Table 4.13: Descriptive statistics of the study variables

		Pre/post	Mean	SD	Min	Max
IELTS	Lexical resource (N = 93)	Pre	3.81	0.44	3.00	5.00
		Post	3.97	0.58	3.00	5.50
	Grammatical accuracy (N = 93)	Pre	3.88	0.45	3.00	5.00
		Post	4.00	0.59	3.00	5.50
perceptions	Dimension 1 (N = 93)	Pre	2.70	0.46	1.67	3.83
		Post	2.80	0.37	2.00	3.67
	Dimension 2 (N = 93)	Pre	2.88	0.45	1.40	3.80
		Post	2.31	0.52	1.00	3.40
	Dimension 3 (N = 93)	Pre	3.10	0.39	2.00	4.00
		Post	2.28	0.51	1.50	3.75
	Dimension 4 (N = 93)	Pre	2.48	0.37	1.75	3.75
		Post	2.80	0.45	1.75	3.75
	Dimension 5 (N = 60)	Post	2.97	0.33	2.18	3.45
	Dimension 6 (N = 30)	Post	3.09	0.23	2.63	3.50

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English; Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course; Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook; Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English; Dimension 5 = Attitude towards ER; Dimension 6 = Attitude towards OR.

For the 2 attitude dimensions (Dimensions 5–6) that were only measured in the post-test, the mean response score was 2.97 and 3.09 for Dimension 5 (attitude towards ER) and 6 (attitude towards OR), indicating that overall, participants had moderately high positive perceptions towards ER and OR.

Table 4.14 (p. 174) presents the results of the normality assessment for the study variables. Skewness (a measure of symmetry) and kurtosis (a measure of

whether the data are heavy-tailed or light-tailed relative to a normal distribution) are measures used to compare data distribution to the normal distribution (Moore et al., 2009). Skewness measures the tendency of deviations to be larger in one direction than the other. A negative skew (e.g., pre- and post-test dimension 2, pre-test dimension 3, post-test dimension 4, dimension 5, and dimension 6) indicates the tail on the left side of the probability density function is longer than the right side and the bulk of values lie to the right of the mean (skewed to the left) (Moore et al., 2009). A positive skew (e.g., all IELTS test scores, pre- and post-test dimension 1, post-test dimension 3, and pre-test dimension 4) indicates the tail on the right side is longer than the left side and the bulk of values lies to the left of the mean (skewed to the right) (Moore et al., 2009).

Table 4.14: Results of the normality assessment

		Pre/post	Skewness	Kurtosis	$Z_{skewness}$	$Z_{kurtosis}$
IELTS	Lexical resource	Pre	0.178	0.082	0.712	0.166
		Post	0.684	0.227	2.736	0.459
	Grammatical accuracy	Pre	0.244	-0.034	0.976	-0.069
		Post	0.720	0.258	2.880	0.521
perceptions	Dimension 1 (N = 93)	Pre	0.348	-0.087	1.392	-0.176
		Post	0.001	-0.246	0.004	-0.497
	Dimension 2 (N = 93)	Pre	-0.337	0.289	-1.348	0.584
		Post	-0.351	-0.035	-1.404	-0.071
	Dimension 3 (N = 93)	Pre	-0.392	0.045	-1.568	0.091
		Post	0.547	0.104	2.188	0.210
	Dimension 4 (N = 93)	Pre	0.319	0.426	1.276	0.861
		Post	-0.051	-0.121	-0.204	-0.244
	Dimension 5 (N = 60)	Post	-0.322	-0.720	-1.042	-1.146
	Dimension 6 (N = 30)	Post	-0.500	-0.274	-1.171	-0.329

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English; Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course; Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook; Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English; Dimension 5 = Attitude towards ER; Dimension 6 = Attitude towards OR. Standard error (SE) was 0.250 for skewness and 0.495 for kurtosis of the first 4 attitude dimensions and the IELTS test scores; SE of skewness was 0.309 for dimension 5 and 0.427 for dimension 6; SE of kurtosis was 0.608 for dimension 5 and 0.833 for dimension 6. $Z_{skewness}$ = skewness/$SE_{skewness}$, $Z_{kurtosis}$= kurtosis/$SE_{kurtosis}$.

The sample kurtosis measures the peakedness of distribution and heaviness of its tail (relative to a normal distribution). A high kurtosis distribution (i.e., positive kurtosis – such as pre- and post-test lexical resource scores, post-test grammatical accuracy scores, pre-test dimension 2, pre- and post-test dimension 3, and pre-test

dimension 4) – has a sharper peak and fatter tails, while a low kurtosis distribution (i.e., negative kurtosis such as pre-test grammatical accuracy scores, pre- and post-test dimension 1, post-test dimension 2, post-test dimension 4, dimension 5, and dimension 6) has a more rounded peak and thinner tails (Moore et al., 2009).

The absolute values of the Z scores of skewness of IELTS test scores and the six attitude dimensions ranged from 0.004 to 2.880. The absolute values of the Z scores of kurtosis of the IELTS test scores and the 6 attitude dimensions ranged from 0.069 to 1.146. These results (less than the cut-off value 3.29) indicated that the data of the study variables were normally distributed (Fidell & Tabachnick, 2003).

4.2.5 Analysis results for research questions 1–4

In this section, the analysis results for research questions 1–4 will be discussed. The research questions are:

1. Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?
2. Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?
3. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary in speaking English?
4. Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university students' use of grammar in speaking English?

In sum, research questions 1–4 intended to investigate whether extensive reading (the ER-only group; EPCD1) and extensive reading combined with oral reporting (the ER + OR group; EPCD2) improve Saudi university students' use of vocabulary and grammar in speaking English. To answer research questions 1–4, ANOVAs, ANCOVAs, and paired t-tests were performed to examine if there was a difference in the IELTS speaking test scores (lexical resource (vocabulary) vs. grammatical accuracy (grammar)) among and within the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2).

4.2.5.1 Analysis results of differences in pre-test IELTS scores among the three groups

Tables 4.15 and 4.16 (p. 176) present the results of the two one-way ANOVAs to compare the pre-test IELTS scores (lexical resource vs. grammatical accuracy) for the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2). The pre-test mean lexical resource score was 3.88 (SD = 0.43), 3.73 (SD = 0.43), and 3.80 (SD = 0.47) for CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2, respectively; the pre-test mean grammatical accuracy score was 3.91 (SD = 0.46), 3.78 (SD = 0.47), and 3.93 (SD = 0.43) for CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2, respectively. The results of the one-way ANOVAs indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in pre-test IELTS scores, in terms of lexical resource score ($F_{(2, 90)} = 0.167$, $p = 0.430$) and grammatical accuracy score ($F_{(2, 90)} = 0.958$, $p = 0.388$) for the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2).

Table 4.15: Descriptive statistics of the pre-test IELTS scores (lexical resource vs. grammatical accuracy) for the three groups (CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2)

	Group	N	Mean	SD
Lexical resource	CG	33	3.88	0.43
	EPCD1	30	3.73	0.43
	EPCD2	30	3.80	0.47
Grammatical accuracy	CG	33	3.91	0.46
	EPCD1	30	3.78	0.47
	EPCD2	30	3.93	0.43

Note: N = sample size; SD = standard deviation.

Table 4.16: Results of ANOVA analysis comparing the pre-test IELTS scores for the three groups (CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Lexical resource	Between Groups	0.334	2	0.167	0.851	0.430
	Within Groups	17.682	90	0.196		
	Total	18.016	92			
Grammatical accuracy	Between Groups	0.392	2	0.196	0.958	0.388
	Within Groups	18.436	90	0.205		
	Total	18.828	92			

Note: Levene's test suggested there was equality of error variances for lexical resource ($F_{(2, 90)} = 0.457$, $p = 0.635$) and grammatical accuracy ($F_{(2, 90)} = 381$, $p = 0.684$). df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value.

4.2.5.2 Analysis results of differences in post-test IELTS scores among the three groups

Tables 4.17, 4.18, and 4.19 (p. 177–178) present the findings of the one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test lexical resource scores of the groups with pre-test lexical resource scores as confounding variables. The interaction effect of group and pre-test lexical resource scores was not significant ($F_{(2, 87)} = 1.809$, $p = 0.170$; Table 4.17), indicating the effect of group did not depend on pre-test lexical resource scores. The main effect of group was not statistically significant ($F_{(2, 87)} = 1.035$, $p = 0.360$; Table 4.17). However, upon examination of the results of pairwise comparisons (Table 4.19), it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in post-test lexical resource scores between EPCD2 and CG ($p < 0.001$; Table 4.19) and between EPCD2 and EPCD1 ($p < 0.001$; Table 4.17). In particular, the estimated marginal mean of post-test lexical resource scores for EPCD2 (M = 4.340, SE = 0.063; Table 4.18) was statistically significantly higher than the estimated marginal mean of post-test lexical resource score for CG (M = 3.694, SE = 0.061; Table 4.18) and EPCD1 (M = 3.883, SE = 0.064; Table 4.18).

Table 4.17: Results of ANCOVA analysis comparing post-test lexical resource scores of the three groups with pre-test lexical resource scores as confounding variables

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	0.481	1	0.481	3.975	0.049	0.044
Group	0.250	2	0.125	1.035	0.360	0.023
Pre-test lexical resource score	13.553	1	13.553	112.071	< 0.001	0.563
Group * pre-test lexical resource score	0.438	2	0.219	1.809	0.170	0.040
Error	10.521	87	0.121			
Total	1495.000	93				

Note: $R^2 = 0.660$ (adjusted $R^2 = 0.640$). Levene's test suggested there was equality of error variances ($F_{(2, 90)} = 2.322$, $p = 0.104$). df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value; Partial Eta Squared = effect size.

Table 4.18: Estimated marginal means post-test lexical resource scores of the three groups

| Group | Mean | SE | 95% Confidence Interval | |
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	3.694	0.061	3.572	3.816
EPCD1	3.883	0.064	3.755	4.011
EPCD2	4.340	0.063	4.214	4.466

Note: The estimated marginal means were evaluated at pre-test lexical resource score = 3.806. SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

Table 4.19: Results of pairwise comparisons (DV = post-test lexical resource score)

| Group (I) | Group (J) | Mean Difference (I-J) | SE | p | 95% CI for Difference | |
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	EPCD1	-0.189	0.089	0.109	-0.406	0.028
CG	EPCD2	-0.646	0.088	< 0.001	-0.862	-0.431
EPCD1	EPCD2	-0.457	0.090	< 0.001	-0.678	-0.236

Note: SE = standard error; p = p-value; CI = Confidence interval. p-values were adjusted using the Bonferroni method for multiple comparisons.

Tables 4.20, 4.21, and 4.22 (p. 179) present the findings of the one-way ANCOVA to compare the post-test grammatical accuracy scores of the groups with pre-test grammatical accuracy scores as confounding variables. The interaction effect of group and pre-test grammatical accuracy scores was not significant ($F_{(2, 87)}$ = 1.138, $p = 0.325$; Table 4.20), indicating the effect of group did not depend on pre-test grammatical accuracy scores. The main effect of group was not statistically significant ($F_{(2, 87)}$ = 0.668, $p = 0.515$; Table 4.20). However, upon the examination of the results of pairwise comparisons (Table 4.22), it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in post-test grammatical accuracy scores between EPCD2 and CG ($p = 0.001$; Table 4.22). In particular, the estimated marginal mean of post-test grammatical accuracy score for EPCD2 (M = 4.186, SE = 0.072; Table 4.21) was statistically significantly higher than the estimated marginal mean of post-test grammatical accuracy scores for CG (M = 3.821, SE = 0.069; Table 4.21).

Table 4.20: Results of ANCOVA analysis comparing post-test grammatical accuracy score of the three groups with pre-test grammatical accuracy score as confounding variable

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	0.238	1	0.238	1.539	0.218	0.017
Group	0.206	2	0.103	0.668	0.515	0.015
Pre-test grammatical accuracy score	15.311	1	15.311	99.139	< 0.001	0.533
Group * pre-test grammatical accuracy score	0.352	2	0.176	1.138	0.325	0.026
Error	13.437	87	0.154			
Total	1515.750	93				

Note: R^2 = 0.577 (adjusted R^2 = 0.552). Levene's test suggested there was equality of error variances ($F_{(2, 90)}$ = 1.149, p = 0.322). df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value; Partial Eta Squared = effect size.

Table 4.21: Estimated marginal means post-test grammatical accuracy score of the three groups

Group	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	3.821	0.069	3.685	3.958
EPCD1	3.975	0.073	3.829	4.120
EPCD2	4.186	0.072	4.042	4.330

Note: The estimated marginal means were evaluated at pre-test grammatical accuracy score = 3.806. SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

Table 4.22: Results of pairwise comparisons (DV = post-test grammatical accuracy score)

Group (I)	Group (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	p	95% CI for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	EPCD1	-0.153	0.100	0.390	-0.398	0.092
CG	EPCD2	-0.365	0.100	0.001	-0.608	-0.121
EPCD1	EPCD2	-0.211	0.103	0.129	-0.463	0.040

Note: SE = standard error; p = p-value; CI = Confidence interval. p-values were adjusted using the Bonferroni method for multiple comparisons.

4.2.5.3 Analysis results of differences between pre-test and post-test IELTS scores within each group

Table 4.23 (p. 180) presents the results of paired-t tests of the pre- and post-test lexical resource and grammatical accuracy scores for each group. For CG, the pre-test lexical resource score (M = 3.88, SD = 0.44) was statistically significantly

higher than the post-test lexical resource score (M = 3.76, SD = 0.49) (t(32) = 2.268, p = 0.030). There was no statistically significant difference between the pre-test grammatical accuracy score and the post-test grammatical accuracy score (t(32) = 0.849, p = 0.402).

For EPCD1, there was no statistically significant difference between the pre-test lexical resource score and the post-test lexical resource score (t(29) = -1.795, p = 0.083).There was no statistically significant difference between the pre-test grammatical accuracy score and the post-test grammatical accuracy score (t(29) = -1.882, p = 0.070).

For EPCD2, the post-test lexical resource score (M = 4.33, SD = 0.66) was statistically significantly higher than the pre-test lexical resource score (M = 3.80, SD = 0.47) (t(29) = -6.728, p < 0.001). The post-test grammatical accuracy score (M = 4.25, SD = 0.64) was statistically significantly higher than the pre-test grammatical accuracy score (M = 3.93, SD = 0.43) (t(29) = -4.080, p < 0.001).

Table 4.23: Results of paired-t tests of pre- and post-test lexical resource/grammatical accuracy scores for each group

	Group	Pre-test (Mean (SD))	Post-test (Mean (SD))	t	df	p
Lexical resource	CG	3.88 (0.44)	3.76 (0.49)	2.268	32	0.030
	EPCD1	3.73 (0.43)	3.78 (0.47)	-1.795	29	0.083
	EPCD2	3.80 (0.47)	4.33 (0.66)	-6.728	29	< 0.001
Grammatical accuracy	CG	3.91 (0.46)	3.84 (0.55)	0.849	32	0.402
	EPCD1	3.78 (0.47)	3.90 (0.50)	-1.882	29	0.070
	EPCD2	3.93 (0.43)	4.25 (0.64)	-4.080	29	< 0.001

Note: SD = standard deviation; t = t-statistic; df = degrees of freedom; p = p-value.

4.2.6 Analysis results for research question 5

Research question 5 asked: What are Saudi university EFL students' perceptions/attitudes towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracy through improving vocabulary and grammar? The six dimensions of perceptions towards ER, with/without OR activities, were analysed using ANOVAs, ANCOVAs, 2-sample t-tests, and paired t-tests to answer this question.

4.2.6.1 Analysis results of differences in pre-test perceptions among the three groups

Tables 4.24 and 4.25 (p. 181–182) present the results of the four one-way ANOVAs to compare the pre-test perceptions (the first four dimensions) for the three groups. For CG, the pre-test mean scores for perceptions ranged from 2.52 (attitude towards reading in English) to 3.04 (attitude towards the English textbook). For EPCD1, the pre-test mean scores for perceptions ranged from 2.46 (attitude towards reading in English) to 3.11 (attitude towards the English textbook), and for EPCD2, from 2.46 (attitude towards reading in English) to 3.15 (attitude towards English textbook). The results of the one-way ANOVAs indicated there was no statistically significant difference in pre-test perceptions in terms of general attitude towards speaking English ($F_{(2, 90)} = 0.240$, $p = 0.787$), attitude towards the English-speaking course ($F_{(2, 90)} = 0.061$, $p = 0.941$), attitude towards the English textbook ($F_{(2, 90)} = 0.657$, $p = 0.521$), and attitude towards reading in English ($F_{(2, 90)} = 0.259$, $p = 0.773$) for the three groups.

Table 4.24: Descriptive statistics of the pre-test perceptions (the first 4 dimensions) for the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2)

Dimension of attitude	Group	N	Mean	SD
General attitude towards speaking English	CG	33	2.74	0.46
	EPCD1	30	2.69	0.44
	EPCD2	30	2.66	0.51
Attitude towards the English-speaking course	CG	33	2.90	0.47
	EPCD1	30	2.87	0.44
	EPCD2	30	2.86	0.44
Attitude towards the English textbook	CG	33	3.04	0.38
	EPCD1	30	3.11	0.38
	EPCD2	30	3.15	0.43
Attitude towards reading in English	CG	33	2.52	0.43
	EPCD1	30	2.46	0.31
	EPCD2	30	2.46	0.36

Note: N = 33 for CG, 30 = EPCD1, and 30 = EPCD2. SD = standard deviation.

Table 4.25: Results of ANOVA analysis comparing the pre-test perceptions (the first 4 dimensions) of the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Dimension 1	Between Groups	.106	2	.053	.240	.787
	Within Groups	19.780	90	.220		
	Total	19.886	92			
Dimension 2	Between Groups	.025	2	.012	.061	.941
	Within Groups	18.368	90	.204		
	Total	18.393	92			
Dimension 3	Between Groups	.203	2	.102	.657	.521
	Within Groups	13.926	90	.155		
	Total	14.129	92			
Dimension 4	Between Groups	.073	2	.037	.259	.773
	Within Groups	12.738	90	.142		

Note: df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value. Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English, Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course, Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook, and Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English.

4.2.6.2 Analysis results of differences in post-test perceptions among the three groups

Tables 4.26, 4.27, and 4.28 (p. 183) present the findings of the one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test general perceptions towards speaking English for the three groups with the pre-test general attitude towards English speaking as the confounding variable. The interaction effect of group and pre-test general attitude towards speaking English was not significant ($F(2, 87) = 1.410$, $p = 0.250$; Table 4.26), indicating the effect of group did not depend on pre-test general perceptions towards English speaking. The main effect of group was not statistically significant ($F(2, 87) = 2.772$, $p = 0.068$; Table 4.26). However, upon examination of the results of pairwise comparisons (Table 4.28), it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in post-test general perceptions towards speaking English between EPCD2 and CG ($p = 0.006$; Table 4.28) and between EPCD2 and EPCD1 ($p = 0.002$; Table 4.28). In particular, the estimated marginal mean of post-test general perceptions towards speaking English for EPCD2 ($M = 3.002$, $SE = 0.063$; Table 4.27) was statistically significantly higher than the estimated marginal mean of post-test general attitude towards English speaking for CG ($M = 2.721$, $SE = 0.060$; Table 4.27) and EPCD1 ($M = 2.684$, $SE = 0.063$; Table 4.27). In other words, after the intervention,

EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly more positive general perceptions towards speaking English than CG and EPCD1 participants.

Table 4.26: Results of ANCOVA analysis comparing post-test general attitude towards speaking English of the three groups with pre-test general attitude towards speaking English as the confounding variable

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	22.067	1	22.067	184.969	< 0.001	0.680
Group	0.661	2	0.331	2.772	0.068	0.060
Pre-test attitude	0.033	1	0.033	0.275	0.602	0.003
Group * pre-test attitude	0.336	2	0.168	1.410	0.250	0.031
Error	10.379	87	0.119			
Total	743.333	93				

Note: R^2 = 0.184 (adjusted R^2 = 0.137). Levene's test suggested there was equality of error variances ($F_{(2, 90)}$ = 1.612, p = 0.205). df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value; Partial Eta Squared = effect size.

Table 4.27: Estimated marginal means of post-test general attitude towards speaking English of the three groups

Group	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	2.721	0.060	2.601	2.841
EPCD1	2.684	0.063	2.558	2.809
EPCD2	3.002	0.063	2.876	3.128

Note: The estimated marginal means were evaluated at pre-test score of general attitude towards English speaking = 2.697. SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

Table 4.28: Results of pairwise comparisons (DV = post-test general attitude towards English speaking)

Group (I)	Group (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	p	95% CI for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	EPCD1	0.037	0.087	1.000	-0.176	0.250
CG	EPCD2	-0.281	0.087	0.006	-0.495	-0.068
EPCD1	EPCD2	-0.318	0.089	0.002	-0.537	-0.100

Note: SE = standard error; p = p-value; CI = Confidence interval. p-values were adjusted using the Bonferroni method for multiple comparisons.

Tables 4.29, 4.30, and 4.31 (pp. 184–185) present the findings of the one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course for the groups with the pre-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course as confounding variables. The interaction effect of group and pre-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course was not significant ($F(2, 87) = 0.119$, $p = 0.888$; Table 4.29), indicating the effect of group did not depend on pre-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course. The main effect of group was not statistically significant ($F(2, 87) = 0.307$, $p = 0.737$; Table 4.29). However, upon examination of the results of pairwise comparisons (Table 4.31), it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in post-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course between EPCD2 and CG ($p < 0.001$; Table 4.31) and between EPCD2 and EPCD1 ($p < 0.001$; Table 4.31). In particular, the estimated marginal mean of post-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course for EPCD2 (M = 1.941, SE = 0.084; Table 4.30) was statistically significantly lower than the estimated marginal mean of post-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course for CG (M = 2.518, SE = 0.080; Table 4.30) and EPCD1 (M = 2.433, SE = 0.084; Table 4.30). In other words, after the intervention, EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly less positive perceptions towards the English-speaking course than CG and EPCD1 participants. Therefore, after the intervention, EPCD2 participants felt that the English-speaking course was statistically significantly less useful than CG and EPCD1 participants.

Table 4.29: Results of ANCOVA analysis for comparing post-test perceptions towards the English-speaking course of the three groups with pre-test attitude towards English-speaking course as confounding variable

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	9.337	1	9.337	44.127	< 0.001	0.337
Group	0.130	2	0.065	0.307	0.737	0.007
Pre-test attitude	0.097	1	0.097	0.457	0.501	0.005
Group * pre-test attitude	0.050	2	0.025	0.119	0.888	0.003
Error	18.409	87	0.212			
Total	518.880	93				

Note: $R^2 = 0.252$ (adjusted $R^2 = 0.209$). Levene's test suggested there was equality of error variances ($F(2, 90) = 1.265$, $p = 0.287$). df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value; Partial Eta Squared = effect size.

Table 4.30: Estimated marginal means of post-test attitude towards English-speaking course of the three groups

Group	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	2.518	0.080	2.359	2.677
EPCD1	2.433	0.084	2.267	2.600
EPCD2	1.941	0.084	1.774	2.108

Note: The estimated marginal means were evaluated at pre-test score of attitude towards English-speaking course = 2.697. SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

Table 4.31: Results of pairwise comparisons (DV = post-test attitude towards English-speaking course)

Group (I)	Group (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	p	95% CI for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	EPCD1	0.085	0.116	1.000	-0.199	0.368
CG	EPCD2	0.577	0.116	< 0.001	0.294	0.861
EPCD1	EPCD2	0.493	0.119	< 0.001	0.202	0.783

Note: SE = standard error; p = p-value; CI = Confidence interval. p-values were adjusted using the Bonferroni method for multiple comparisons.

Tables 4.32, 4.33, and 4.34 (p. 186) present the findings of the one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test perceptions towards the English textbook of the groups with the pre-test attitude towards English textbook as the confounding variable. The interaction effect of group and pre-test perceptions towards the English textbook was not significant ($F_{(2, 87)} = 0.496$, $p = 0.610$; Table 4.32), indicating the effect of group did not depend on pre-test perceptions towards the English textbook. The main effect of group was not statistically significant ($F_{(2, 87)} = 0.391$, $p = 0.678$; Table 4.32). The results of pairwise comparisons also suggested that there was no statistically significant difference in post-test perceptions towards the English textbook among the three groups (Table 4.34). The estimated means of post-test perceptions towards English textbook of the three groups were very similar (Table 4.33).

Table 4.32: Results of ANCOVA analysis comparing post-test attitude towards the English textbook of the three groups with pre-test attitude towards the English textbook as the confounding variable

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	6.557	1	6.557	24.713	< 0.001	0.221
Group	0.207	2	0.104	0.391	0.678	0.009
Pre-test attitude	0.024	1	0.024	0.091	0.764	0.001
Group * pre-test attitude	0.263	2	0.132	0.496	0.610	0.011
Error	23.084	87	0.265			
Total	508.438	93				

Note: $R^2 = 0.039$ (adjusted $R^2 = 0.016$). Levene's test suggested there was equality of error variances $(F(2, 90) = 1.669, p = 0.194)$. df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value; Partial Eta Squared = effect size.

Table 4.33: Estimated marginal means of post-test perceptions towards the English textbook of the three groups

Group	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	2.392	0.091	2.212	2.573
EPCD1	2.285	0.094	2.098	2.472
EPCD2	2.174	0.095	1.986	2.363

Note: The estimated marginal means were evaluated at pre-test score of attitude towards the English textbook = 3.097. SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

Table 4.34: Results of pairwise comparisons (DV = post-test attitude towards the English textbook)

Group (I)	Group (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	p	95% CI for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	EPCD1	0.107	0.131	1.000	-0.212	0.427
CG	EPCD2	0.218	0.131	0.301	-0.102	0.538
EPCD1	EPCD2	0.111	0.134	1.000	-0.215	0.437

Note: SE = standard error; p = p-value; CI = Confidence interval. p-values were adjusted using the Bonferroni method for multiple comparisons.

Tables 4.35, 4.36, and 4.37 (pp. 187–188) present the findings of the one-way ANCOVA to compare post-test perceptions towards reading in English of the groups with pre-test attitude towards reading in English as the confounding variable. The interaction effect of group and pre-test attitude towards reading in English was not significant $(F(2, 87) = 0.141, p = 0.868$; Table 4.35), indicating the effect of group did

not depend on the pre-test attitude towards reading in English. The main effect of group was not statistically significant ($F(2, 87) = 0.017$, $p = 0.983$; Table 4.35). However, upon the examination of the results of pairwise comparisons (Table 4.37), it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in post-test perceptions towards reading in English between EPCD1 and CG ($p = 0.012$; Table 4.37) and between EPCD2 and CG ($p < 0.001$; Table 4.37). In particular, the estimated marginal mean of post-test perceptions towards reading in English for CG ($M = 2.557$, $SE = 0.073$; Table 4.36) was statistically significantly lower than the estimated marginal mean of post-test perceptions towards reading in English for EPCD1 ($M = 2.866$, $SE = 0.076$; Table 4.36) and EPCD2 ($M = 3.018$, $SE = 0.076$; Table 4.36). In other words, after the intervention, both EPCD2 and EPCD1 participants had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards reading in English than CG participants.

Table 4.35: Results of ANCOVA analysis comparing post-test perceptions towards reading in English of the three groups with pre-test perceptions towards reading in English as confounding variables

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	10.418	1	10.418	60.388	< 0.001	0.410
Group	0.006	2	0.003	0.017	0.983	< 0.001
Pre-test attitude	0.374	1	0.374	2.166	0.145	0.024
Group * pre-test attitude	0.049	2	0.024	0.141	0.868	0.003
Error	15.009	87	0.173			
Total	749.844	93				

Note: $R^2 = 0.200$ (adjusted $R^2 = 0.154$). Levene's test suggested there was equality of error variances ($F(2, 90) = 2.091$, $p = 0.129$). df = degrees of freedom; F = F-statistic; p = p-value; Partial Eta Squared = effect size.

Table 4.36: Estimated marginal means of post-test perceptions towards reading in English of the three groups

Group	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	2.557	0.073	2.413	2.701
EPCD1	2.866	0.076	2.715	3.017
EPCD2	3.018	0.076	2.867	3.169

Note: The estimated marginal means were evaluated at pre-test score of attitude towards reading in English = 2.697. SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

Table 4.37: Results of pairwise comparisons (DV = post-test attitude towards reading in English)

Group (I)	Group (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	p	95% CI for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	EPCD1	-0.309	0.105	0.012	-0.566	-0.053
CG	EPCD2	-0.461	0.105	< 0.001	-0.718	-0.205
EPCD1	EPCD2	-0.152	0.107	0.486	-0.414	0.111

Note: SE = standard error; p = p-value; CI = Confidence interval. p-values were adjusted using the Bonferroni method for multiple comparisons.

Table 4.38 (below) shows the descriptive statistics of the post-test scores of perceptions towards ER (for EPCD1 and EPCD2) and OR (for EPCD2 only). The mean score for perceptions towards ER was 2.85 for EPCD1 and 3.08 for EPCD2, indicating that participants in both groups had moderately high positive perceptions towards ER. The results of the two-sample t-test suggested that EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards ER than EPCD1 participants ($t(58) = -3.023$, $p = 0.004$; Table 4.39, below). The mean score for perceptions towards OR was 3.09 (Table 4.38), indicating EPCD2 participants had a moderately high positive attitude towards OR.

Table 4.38: Descriptive statistics of post-test perceptions towards ER (for EPCD1 and EPCD2) and OR (for EPCD2 only)

	Group	Mean	SD
Attitude towards ER	EPCD1	2.85	0.33
	EPCD2	3.08	0.28
Attitude towards ER + OR	EPCD2	3.09	0.23

Note: N = 30 for EPCD1 and EPCD2. SD = standard error.

Table 4.39: Results of two-sample t-test for determining the differences in perceptions towards ER between EPCD1 and EPCD2

t	df	p	Mean Difference	SE Difference	95% CI of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
-3.023	58	0.004	-.23939	.07919	-.39791	-.08088

Note: t = t-statistic, df = degrees of freedom, p = p-value, SE = standard error, CI = confidence interval, lower = lower bound, upper = upper bound.

4.2.6.3 Analysis results of differences between pre-test and post-test scores of the first four attitude dimensions for each group

Table 4.40 (below) presents the results of paired-t tests of pre- and post-test scores of the first four attitude dimensions for each group. For CG, there was no statistically significant difference between pre- and post-test general perceptions towards speaking English (t(32) = 0.148, p = 0.883) and perceptions towards reading in English (t(32) = -0.399, p = 0.693). Participants in CG had statistically significantly less positive perceptions towards the English-speaking course (M = 2.90, SD = 0.47 for pre-test; M = 2.52, SD = 0.41 post-test; t(32) = 3.761, p = 0.001) and the English textbook (M = 3.04, SD = 0.36 pre-test; M = 2.39, SD = 0.44 post-test; t(32) = 7.250, p < 0.001) in the post-test than in the pre-test.

Table 4.40: Results of paired-t tests of pre- and post-test lexical resource/grammatical accuracy scores for each group

Dimension	Group	Pre-test (Mean (SD))	Post-test (Mean (SD))	t	df	p
1	CG	2.73 (0.46)	2.72 (0.39)	0.148	32	0.883
	EPCD1	2.69 (0.44)	2.68 (0.28)	0.122	29	0.904
	EPCD2	2.66 (0.51)	3.01 (0.35)	-2.761	29	< 0.001
2	CG	2.90 (0.47)	2.52 (0.41)	3.761	32	0.001
	EPCD1	2.87 (0.44)	2.43 (0.42)	3.932	29	< 0.001
	EPCD2	2.86 (0.44)	1.94 (0.53)	7.547	29	< 0.001
3	CG	3.04 (0.38)	2.39 (0.44)	7.250	32	< 0.001
	EPCD1	3.11 (0.38)	2.28 (0.57)	6.386	29	< 0.001
	EPCD2	3.15 (0.43)	2.18 (0.51)	8.040	29	< 0.001
4	CG	2.52 (0.43)	2.56 (0.46)	-0.399	32	0.693
	EPCD1	2.46 (0.31)	2.86 (0.34)	-5.253	29	< 0.001
	EPCD2	2.46 (0.36)	3.01 (0.43)	-6.010	29	< 0.001

Note: Dimension 1 = General attitude towards speaking English, Dimension 2 = Attitude towards the English-speaking course, Dimension 3 = Attitude towards the English textbook, and Dimension 4 = Attitude towards reading in English. SD = standard deviation; t = t-statistic; df = degrees of freedom; p = p-value.

For EPCD1, there was no statistically significant difference between the pre- and post-test general perceptions towards English speaking (t(29) = 0.122, p = 0.904). Participants in EPCD1 had statistically significantly less positive perceptions towards the English-speaking course (M = 2.87, SD = 0.44 pre-test; M = 2.43, SD = 0.42 post-test; t(29) = 3.932, p < 0.001) and the English textbook (M = 3.11, SD = 0.38 pre-test; M = 2.28, SD = 0.57 post-test; t(29) = 6.386, p < 0.001) in the post-test than in the pre-

test. However, participants in EPCD1 had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards reading in English in the post-test than in the pre-test (M = 2.46, SD = 0.31 for pre-test; M = 2.86, SD = 0.34 for post-test; t(29) = -5.253, p < 0.001).

For EPCD2, participants had statistically significantly less positive perceptions towards the English-speaking course (M = 2.86, SD = 0.44 pre-test; M = 1.94, SD = 0.53 post-test; t(29) = 7.547, p < 0.001) and the English textbook (M = 3.15, SD = 0.43 pre-test; M = 2.18, SD = 0.51 post-test; t(29) = 8.080, p < 0.001) in the post-test than in the pre-test. However, participants in EPCD2 had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards speaking English (M = 2.66, SD = 0.51 pre-test; M = 3.01, SD = 0.35 post-test; t(29) = --2.761, p < 0.001) and reading in English (M = 2.46, SD = 0.36 for -test; M = 3.01, SD = 0.43 post-test; t(29) = -6.010, p < 0.001) in the post-test than in the pre-test.

4.3 Qualitative analysis

Interviews were conducted with two groups comprising students from EPCD1 and EPCD2 respectively to examine the results of the interventions and students' perceptions towards them. There was no need to conduct interviews with students in the control group as they were not exposed to any intervention. Three students were randomly selected (every tenth student) from both EPCD1 and EPCD2, meaning there were three students in each group, and six students interviewed in total. All six students (Naif, Mohammed, and Abdul-Aziz for EPCD1 vs. Waleed, Ali, and Yahya for EPCD2) were male and aged 19 to 22 years old. The interviews with both groups were conducted on Thursday 22nd December 2016 and the total duration with each group of three students was 30 minutes. The interview questions can be found in Appendix Q. The interviews were semi-structured in nature, meaning the basic questions were the same and follow-up questions were asked, depending upon the answers provided by the participants. As previously explained, the purpose of the interviews was to gain insights into the students' perceptions towards the ER activities used in the interventions, with or without oral reporting, and their impact on their development of speaking skills. Thus, the interview questions were designed to elicit responses that would allow the researcher to interrogate those ideas, find answers to the research questions, and test the hypotheses. The entire interview proceedings were recorded

and transcribed verbatim for analytical use. Interview transcripts are provided in Appendix R.

The main findings that emerged in the interviews are presented in the following section. Four themes emerged from the interpretive analysis of the interview data collected via the interviews: students' self-perceptions of their English speaking skills; reasons students believed they had poor English speaking skills; the effects of the two interventions; and suggestions on how to improve the interventions.

4.3.1 Theme 1: Self-perception of English speaking skills

According to Naif:

Speaking [English] is the most difficult skill when compared to the other language skills – reading, listening, and writing.

Five of the six students interviewed viewed their English speaking skills as "*poor*" and "*unsatisfactory*", while the other student regarded his English speaking skills as "*satisfactory, but they aren't as good as they should be*" (Figure 4.1, below).
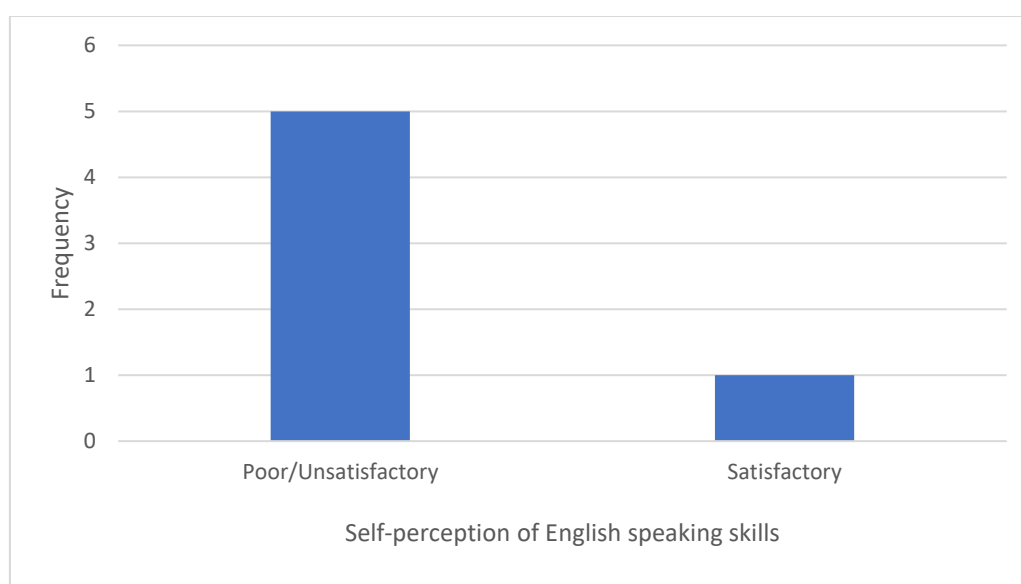
Figure 4.1: Self-perception of English speaking skills

Generally speaking, students interviewed were "*comfortable*" and "*satisfied*" reading, listening and writing in English. However, when it came to speaking, Ali said he "*can't speak very well*", and Waleed noted his speed of speaking was "*not fast enough*". Students also deemed speaking in English to be "*difficult*", with Yahya noting that "*to speak for a long time without making mistakes, hesitating, or having to interrupt [himself]*" was very hard.

4.3.2 Theme 2: Reasons for poor English speaking skills

The students who were interviewed highlighted several reasons for their poor English speaking skills (Figure 4.2, below), including:

- lack of vocabulary (N = 5),
- poor grammar (N = 4),
- wrong pronunciation (N = 4),
- lack of confidence (N = 2), and
- pressure for an instant response (N = 1).
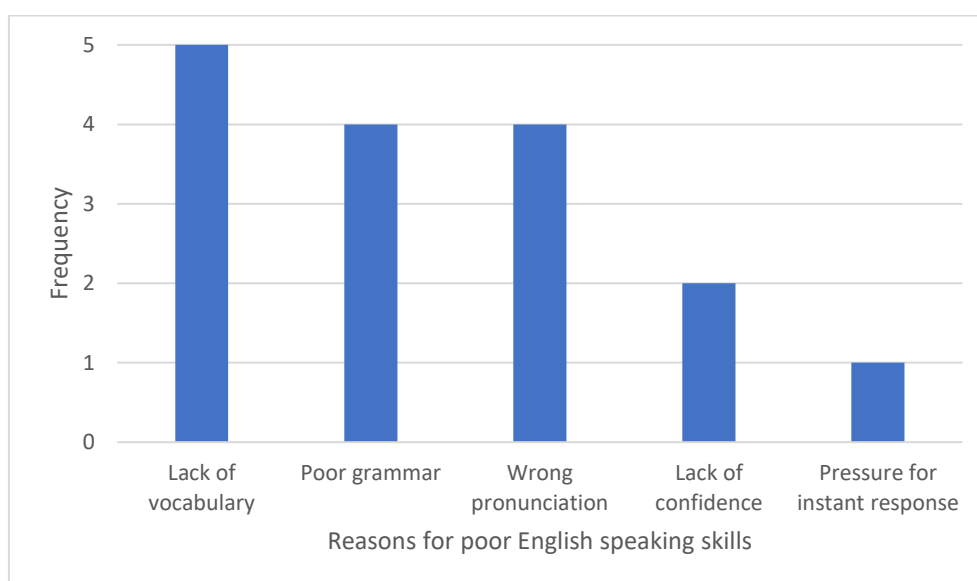
Figure 4.2: Reasons for poor English-speaking skills

Lack of vocabulary, poor grammar, and wrong pronunciation of words were identified by the students as the three major issues related to poor English-speaking skills. As Naif stated:

I find that when I'm speaking, I have many difficulties when trying to remember the words I need to use. In addition to this, I find it difficult to speak accurately in terms of grammar, and this is mainly because I'm not great at using appropriate grammatical structures when speaking. … The last problem is probably my pronunciation.

Students believed that speaking English was difficult due to their "*limited vocabulary*" (Abdul-Aziz, Naif, Waleed). Each explained that they consistently found themselves struggling to speak when they were "*not able to remember the [appropriate] words*" (Mohammed) or weren't able "*to express their ideas correctly*"

(Waleed) to others in English. In addition, the interviewed students also stressed that it was hard for them to use appropriate grammar and to pronounce words correctly while speaking. As such, they *"made mistakes while talking in English"* (Naif).

These three major issues (lack of vocabulary, poor grammar, and wrong pronunciation of words) appeared to cause the students to lose confidence when speaking English. As Abdul-Aziz stated:

Because I lack confidence, I tend only to speak when I need to, and this isn't very helpful for improving [speaking] skill.

Finally, Ali stated that he was comfortable reading, writing, and listening, "*perhaps … because I have more time to reflect on what I'm doing*". However, he also noted that when he was in conversation with another person in English, they *"tend to wait for you to respond"*. For Ali, this pressure was therefore a unique and central reason for his poor English speaking skills.

4.3.3 Theme 3: Effects of the interventions

All interviewed students were first-time participants in the ER and ER + OR interventions and had never heard of either ER or OR before, and had different opinions regarding the effects of the intervention (EPCD1 using ER only and EPCD2 using ER + OR). For the ER only intervention (EPCD1), all three students indicated that the intervention had helped them to increase their vocabulary and achieve better grammar (Figure 4.3, p. 193). However, they were not sure about whether the ER-only intervention had helped them improve their English speaking skills. On the other hand, students who had experienced the ER + OR intervention (EPCD2) believed there were more benefits (Figure 4.4, p. 193), including

- increased vocabulary (N = 3),
- better grammar (N = 3),
- increased confidence (N = 2), and
- improved speed of speaking (N = 1).
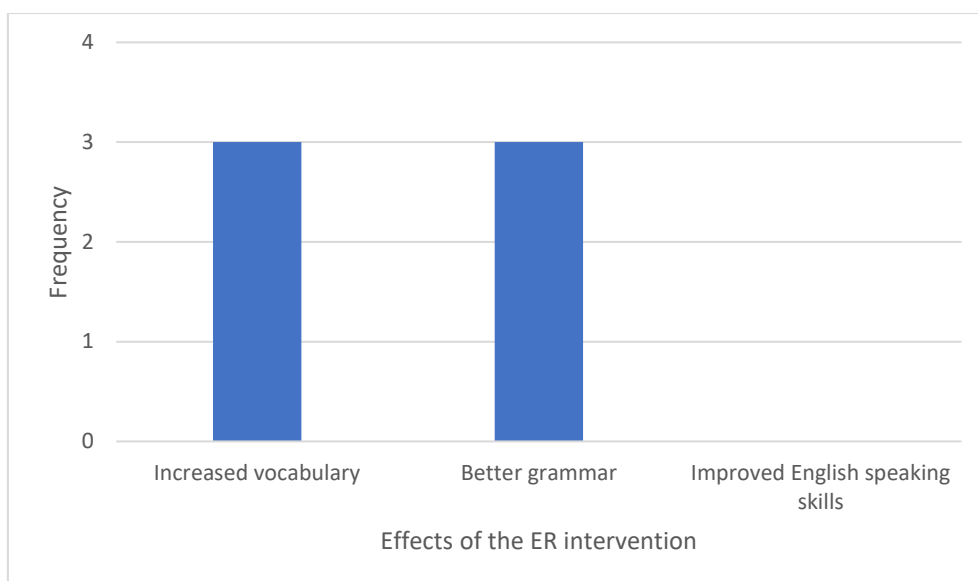
Figure 4.3: Effects of the ER intervention (EPCD1)
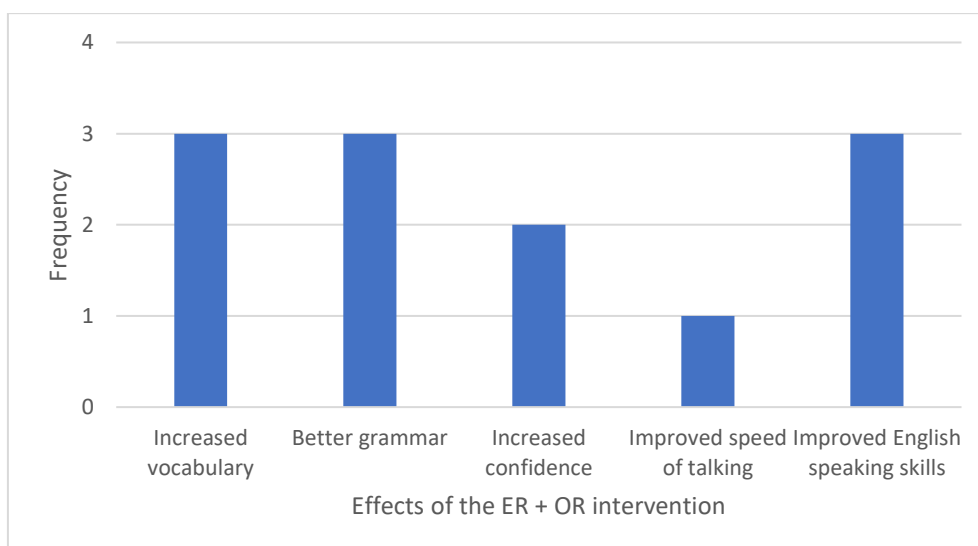
Figure 4.4: Effects of the ER + OR intervention (EPCD2)

Most importantly, all three students of the EPCD2 group indicated that the ER + OR intervention improved their English speaking skills (Figure 4.4).

Both interventions (ER only vs. ER + OR) were considered beneficial for improving students' vocabulary and grammar. For example, Mohammed from EPCD1 (ER only) stated:

> *The [ER] intervention brought me into contact with a broad selection of new words. Because of this, my vocabulary is much bigger.*

Abdul-Aziz of EPCD1 further stated:

Reading a lot or "extensive reading" can expose you to a huge amount of words and grammatical structures.

However, all three students from EPCD1 who experienced only the ER intervention said that they were not sure whether their English speaking skills were impacted positively by the intervention. As Abdul-Aziz said:

The intervention focused on reading and not speaking, so apart from learning a few new words I could potentially use when speaking to people in English, I don't think my fluency, pronunciation, or confidence has improved at all.

Naif, also in EPCD1, noted that he wasn't sure if there was any relation between ER and English speaking skills as he "*never tried to use any of the grammatical constructions in actual speech*" and was therefore still "*not certain about how to pronounce many of the words*". Reflecting similarly on connections between grammar, vocabulary and speaking, Mohammed concluded that:

[ER] is a good way to improve your reading, your knowledge of vocabulary, and your knowledge of grammar, but it doesn't seem like the best way to improve speaking ability.

Students in EPCD2 who experienced the ER + OR intervention noted that, in addition to increased vocabulary and improved grammar due to ER, OR activities were "*useful*" (Ali) and "*very interesting*" (Yahya), had improved their confidence "*a lot*" (Ali, Waleed), and helped them "*speak faster*" (Yahya). Most importantly, all three students in the ER + OR intervention believed the intervention indeed improve their English speaking skills. As Waleed said:

I consider myself a good English speaker now … I can now speak in English using a variety of tenses with relatively few mistakes.

This may be because that the intervention provided "*the opportunity to speak in English*" (Ali) and students were "*encouraged to speak in spite of any mistakes*" in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation (Yahya). For the ER + OR group, although students considered ER to be "*crucial*" (Ali) and *"important"* (Waleed, Yahya), it was generally believed that "*reading without the oral report would not be useful at all*" (Waleed). The following statement from Yahya best described the usefulness of the ER + OR intervention:

Reading was valuable, but actually having to speak in the oral report activities was invaluable. It's difficult to gain confidence in speaking a language when you're only reading it. Furthermore, speaking and making any mistakes is the best way to train speaking.

Despite the students highlighting the usefulness of both interventions, it should be noted that neither were considered overly beneficial for pronunciation. For example, as Ali from EPCD2 noted:

I think the extensive reading and oral report activities were useful because we saw all sorts of new words after reading so much and preparing for our reports. But it wasn't that useful for hearing the language and learning how to pronounce the new words I learned.

4.3.4 Theme 4: Suggestions for improving the interventions

Despite their perceptions of their usefulness, the students who were interviewed had suggestions as to how to improve the interventions to enhance their English speaking skills. For the ER intervention, all three students from EPCD1 agreed that the actual practice of speaking was the best way to improve English speaking skills. In other words, as Naif noted:

If [the intervention] involved some form of speaking, … I think that would make it more interactive and more useful.

The implementation methods suggested by the students included:

- *"read out loud"* (Mohammed)
- *"read aloud in front of the English teacher"* (Abdul-Aziz)
- *"to get us talking about what we'd read – ideally when supervised by someone who knows the English language thoroughly, like a native speaker"* (Mohammed).

The ER + OR intervention was highly praised by the students. As Yahya stated:

From the experience, I certainly think that the extensive reading and the oral report activities are the best way to enhance vocabulary, especially in speaking. Also, I think that the best thing about this intervention was the way it really encouraged us to use English when we speak inside the class.

The only suggestion for the ER + OR intervention was to extend the intervention as "*the time [for the intervention] was short*" (Waleed). Ali also said:

> *With more semesters to do this intervention, any of these improvements we just*
> *mentioned would only be amplified.*

All interviewed students in EPCD2 suggested that the ideal length for the intervention should be at least two semesters.

4.3.5 Triangulation of the quanlitative and quantitative results

The qualitative findings regarding the contexts for ER only (EPCD1) and ER + OR (EPCD2) were compared to the quantitative findings. The qualitative interview results revealed that in general, students indicated that while they were comfortable reading, listening and writing in English, they felt speaking English was difficult (Theme 1). These findings parallel the quantitative findings from the surveys (summarised in Table 4.41, below). Nearly 70% of EPCD1 (66.7%) and EPCD2 (70.0%) participants indicated that they enjoyed reading books in English (q16), and a significant proportion of participants (66.6% EPCD1, 43.3% EPCD2) indicated speaking English was difficult for them (q2). This finding was further confirmed by the students' pre-test general perceptions towards speaking English, where participants had only moderately positive perceptions towards speaking in English (Table 4.24, p. 181).

Table 4.41: Proportion agreeing for selected post-test survey items for EPCD1 and EPCD2

Item	Description	EPCD1	EPCD2
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	66.6	43.3
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	66.7	70.0

Note: Proportion agreeing was computed by summing the Proportion agreeing and % of strong agreement.

In the interview, students pointed out that lack of vocabulary, poor grammar, and wrong pronunciation of words were the three major reasons for poor English-speaking skills (Theme 2). The findings largely agreed with the quantitative findings of the surveys in the post-test for both EPCD1 and EPCD2 (summarised in Table 4.42, p. 198). In the quantitative results, around two-thirds of participants indicated that lack of grammar knowledge (q3; 60.0% EPCD1, 70.0% EPCD2) and vocabulary (q4; 40.0% EPCD1, 83.4% EPCD2) made speaking English difficult.

Table 4.42: Proportion agreeing for selected post-test survey items for EPCD1 and EPCD2

Item	Description	EPCD1	EPCD2
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	60.0	70.0
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	40.0	83.4
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	80.0	86.6
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	60.0	70.0

Note: Proportion agreeing was computed by summing the Proportion agreeing and % of strong agreement.

These findings further suggested that vocabulary and grammar are crucial factors for developing speaking accuracies in English, with nearly 90% of participants (80.0% EPCD1, 86.6% for EPCD2) indicating in the survey results that vocabulary was one of the most important factors in speaking English, and nearly 70% of participants (60.0% EPCD1, 70.0% EPCD2) indicating in the survey results that grammar was one of the most important factors in speaking English.

The interview results suggested that both interventions (ER only vs. ER + OR) were considered beneficial in improving students' vocabulary and grammar (Theme 3). These qualitative findings regarding students' ability of vocabulary and grammar were partially supported by the quantitative findings from the IELTS test scores. Based on results of paired-t tests of pre- and post-test lexical resource/grammatical accuracy scores for each group (Table 4.24, p. 181), the post-test IELTS lexical resource scores and grammatical accuracy scores were both statistically significantly higher than the pre-test scores for EPCD2 participants, which suggested that ER + OR intervention seemed to improve students' vocabulary and grammar. However, for EPCD1 participants, there was no statistically significant difference in IELTS lexical resource scores and grammatical accuracy scores before vs. after the intervention, suggesting that the ER-only intervention did not improve students' vocabulary and grammar.

Nonetheless, although the impacts of the intervention for EPCD1 on improving students' vocabulary and grammar were not reflected in the quantitative findings of the IELTS scores, the quantitative descriptive findings from the surveys (summarised in Table 4.43, p. 199) did reflect that both interventions (EPCD1 and EPCD2) may be useful in terms improving students' ability on vocabulary and grammar and hence lead to better English speaking skills. After the intervention, a smaller proportion of EPCD2 participants (43.3%) felt speaking English was difficult, compared to EPCD1

participants (60.0%). Over 70% of the participants from both interventions (86.7% vs. 73.3%) agreed that reading in English helped them to understand spoken English. A higher percentage of EPCD2 participants (73.4%) than EPCD1 participants (66.6%) believed that reading English helped them participate in English, while a substantially higher percentage of EPCD2 participants (93.3%) than EPCD1 participants (60.0%) recommended the intervention as a way of developing speaking skills in general. Both EPCD1 and EPCD2 participants recommended the interventions for developing vocabulary and grammar for speaking English.

Table 4.43: Proportions agreeing for selected post-test survey items for EPCD1 and EPCD2

Item	Description	EPCD1	EPCD2
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	60.0	43.3
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	86.7	73.3
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	66.6	73.4
32	I recommend ER as a way of developing speaking skills in general.	60.0	93.3
33	I recommend ER as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.	66.7	80.0
34	I recommend ER as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.	46.7	56.7

Note: Proportion agreeing was computed by summing the Proportion agreeing and % of strong agreement.

Furthermore, the qualitative findings on perceptions of the ER only (EPCD1) and ER + OR (EPCD2) interventions also aligned with the quantitative findings regarding the six attitude dimensions towards ER with/without OR activities (see section 4.2.6). Based on the quantitative findings regarding the attitude dimensions towards ER with/without OR activities, EPCD2 participants showed statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards English speaking after the ER + OR intervention (Table 4.40, p. 189); however, for EPCD1, there was no statistically significant difference between the pre- and post-test general perceptions towards English speaking. Also, after the intervention, EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly more positive general perceptions towards speaking English than EPCD1 participants (Tables 4.26–4.28, p. 183). These quantitative findings supported the qualitative findings from the interviewed results that the EPCD1 students seemed to suggest that ER only intervention did not really contribute positively in terms of improving their English speaking skills, while EPCD2 students considered ER + OR intervention highly useful for improving English speaking skills.

It should also be noted that both EPCD1 and EPCD2 participants had shown statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards reading in English after the intervention, but less positive perceptions towards the English-speaking course and English textbook (Table 4.38, p. 188). These quantitative findings aligned with the interview results where students pointed out that ER only may not have be enough to improve their English speaking skills. Nonetheless, the usefulness of ER and OR, as noted by the interview participants, confirmed the moderately high positive perceptions towards ER and OR observed for the two intervention groups (EPCD1 and EPCD2) in the quantitative analysis results, with EPCD2 participants having statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards ER than the EPCD1 group (Tables 4.38–4.39, p. 188).

4.4 Summary of Chapter 4

The study utilised quantitative and qualitative date to answer the five research questions. Research questions 1 to 4 asked if extensive reading with/without oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improved Saudi university EFL students' use of vocabulary and grammar in speaking English. Research question 5 asked what Saudi university EFL students' perceptions were towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracy through improving vocabulary and grammar. In particular, the IELTS speaking test results for lexical resource and grammatical accuracy were used to answer research questions 1–4, and the survey data on the perceptions of Saudi university EFL students towards ER activities were used to answer research question 5. Next, the qualitative data were used to triangulate the quantitative analysis results.

The quantitative data collection (IELTS speaking tests and surveys for perceptions towards ER with/without OR activities) involved a total of 93 participants (33 for CG, 30 for EPCD1, and 30 for EPCD2). The IELTS speaking tests involved two measures: lexical resource and grammatical accuracy. The surveys for perceptions towards ER involved:

1) the pre- and post-test data (q1–23) for all three groups,
2) the post-test data for ER (q24–34) from the ER-only group and the ER + OR group, and
3) the post-test data for OR (q35–50) from the ER + OR group.

For the pre-test items (q1–23) and the first 23 post-test items (q1–23) of all three groups, the survey questions were designed to measure:

- General attitude towards speaking English (q1–6)
- Attitude towards the English-speaking course (q7–10 and q15)
- Attitude towards the English textbook (q11–14), and
- Attitude towards reading in English (q16–23).

For the post-test items q24–34 of the ER-only group (EPCD1) and the ER + OR group (EPCD2), the survey questions were designed to measure perceptions towards ER. For the post-test items q35–50 of the ER + OR group, the survey questions were designed to measure perceptions towards OR. The validity and reliability of the survey instrument was investigated via exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha analysis.

When summarising the IELTS test results based on the changes of scores from pre- to post-test (decreased, no change, increased), it was first noted that a much higher proportion of participants in EPCD2 had increased their test scores for lexical resource (73.3% EPCD2 vs. 9.1% CG and 30.0% EPCD1) and grammatical accuracy (60.0% EPCD2 vs. 21.2% CG and 36.7% EPCD1) from pre- to post-test, in comparison to the other two groups, CG and EPCD1.

Next, to answer research questions 1–4, ANOVAs, ANCOVAs, and paired t-tests were performed to examine if there was a difference in the IELTS speaking test scores (lexical resource (vocabulary) vs. grammatical accuracy (grammar)) among and within the three groups (CG, EPCD1, and EPCD2). Two ANOVAs were used to determine the differences in pre-test IELTS scores among the three groups and the results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in pre-test IELTS speaking tests, in terms of lexical resource score and grammatical accuracy score for the three groups (Tables 4.15 and 4.16, p. 176). Next, two ANCOVAs were performed to determine differences in post-test IELTS scores among the three groups after controlling for pre-test scores. It was found that EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly higher mean post-test lexical resource scores than both EPCD1 and CG participants (Tables 4.17–4.19, pp. 177–178). It was also found that EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly higher mean post-test grammatical accuracy scores than CG participants (Tables 4.20–4.22, p. 179).

Finally, six paired t-tests were conducted to determine differences between pre- and post-test IELTS scores within each group (Table 4.23, p. 180). Control group participants had statistically significantly higher mean lexical resource scores in the pre-test than in the post-test. However, no statistically significant difference was found between the pre- and post-test grammatical accuracy score for CG participants. For EPCD1 participants, there was no statistically significant difference in both test scores between pre- and post-test. On the contrary, EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly higher mean scores for both IELTS tests in post-test than in pre-test.

After the analysis for research questions 1–4, the six dimensions of perceptions towards ER with/without OR activities were analyzed using ANOVAs, ANCOVAs, 2-sample t-tests, and paired t-tests to answer research question 5. These included:

1. General attitude towards speaking English (pre- and post-test),
2. Attitude towards the English-speaking course (pre- and post-test),
3. Attitude towards the English textbook (pre- and post-test),
4. Attitude towards reading in English (pre- and post-test),
5. Attitude towards ER (post-test only), and
6. Attitude towards OR (post-test only).

Four ANOVAs were first performed to determine the differences in pre-test perceptions among the three groups and the results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in pre-test perceptions, in terms of general attitude towards speaking English, attitude towards the English-speaking course, attitude towards the English textbook, and attitude towards reading in English for the three groups (Tables 4.24 and 4.25, pp. 181–182).

Following the four ANOVAs, four ANCOVAs were performed to determine differences in post-test perceptions among the three groups after controlling for the pre-test perceptions for the first four attitude dimensions ((1) General attitude towards speaking English, (2) Attitude towards the English-speaking course, (3) Attitude towards the English textbook, and (4) Attitude towards reading in English)), and one 2-sample t-test was performed to determine if the fifth attitude dimension (Attitude towards ER) was different between EPCD1 and EPCD2. It was found that after the intervention, EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly more positive general perceptions towards speaking English than CG and EPCD1 participants (Tables 4.26–

4.28, pp. 183). EPCD2 participants also found the English-speaking course statistically significantly less useful than CG and EPCD1 participants (Tables 4.29–4.31, pp. 184–185). There was no statistically significant difference in post-test perceptions towards the English textbook among the three groups (Tables 4.32–4.34, p. 186). Furthermore, after the intervention, both EPCD1 and EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards reading in English than CG participants (Tables 4.35–4.37, pp. 187–188). Also, for the last two attitude dimensions only measured in post-test (i.e., attitude towards ER and attitude towards OR), the mean score for perceptions towards ER was 2.85 for EPCD1 and 3.08 for EPCD2, indicating that participants in both groups had moderately high positive perceptions towards ER. The results of the two-sample t-test suggested that EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards ER than EPCD1 participants (Table 4.39, p. 188). The mean score for attitude towards OR was 3.09 (Table 4.38, p. 188), indicating EPCD2 participants had a moderately high positive attitude towards OR.

Finally, 12 paired t-tests were conducted to determine differences between pre- and post-test perceptions for the first four attitude dimensions within each group (Table 4.40, p. 189). It was found that participants in all three had statistically significantly less positive perceptions towards the English-speaking course and English textbook in the post-test than the pre-test. However, both participants in EPCD1 and EPCD2 had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards reading in English in the post-test than the pre-test. Additionally, participants in EPCD2 had statistically significantly more positive perceptions towards speaking English in the post-test than the pre-test.

The quantitative study findings were triangulated using interviews data collected from six students from EPCD1 and EPCD2 (three students from each group). Four themes that emerged from the interpretive analysis of the interview data were discussed: students' self-perceptions of their English speaking skills; what the students viewed as the reasons for their poor English speaking skills; the effects of the two interventions; and students' suggestions on how to improve the interventions. In the next chapter, the results of the analysis will be discussed.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

Based on the results reported in Chapter 4, this chapter evaluates the effectiveness of ER with or without oral reporting in developing the speaking accuracies of Saudi university EFL students. In particular, the evaluation focuses on improvements to vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, students' perceptions towards speaking and reading in English, the English-speaking course and textbook, and students' perceptions of the intervention on their improvements in terms of speaking accuracies. It will also provide an evaluation of the proposed combined model of input-and-output and its potential application to classroom activities. Considering the challenges associated with active and engaged learning in Saudi classrooms (Alqahtani, 2015; Fareh, 2010; Hamouda, 2012; Jdetawy, 2011), and especially around EFL lessons focused on speaking (Alqahtani, 2015; Ansari, 2015; Tanveer, 2007), this chapter will provide important insights into how Saudi classrooms might be reoriented to focus more on activities which involve active student participation and use both ER and oral reporting to improve speaking accuracies. Relevant evidence from different sources are collated to support the interpretations of the findings, and indications of the extent to which the findings of this research similar or different to that in other studies reviewed in the literature will be made.

This chapter will do so by discussing the results of 1) IELTS test scores for lexical resource and grammatical accuracy, 2) survey responses, and 3) semi-structured interview responses. Firstly, the quantitative results will be discussed and used to answer research questions 1–4 through a review of the statistical findings. This will involve a discussion of the statistical analysis of improvements in vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, as an outcome of the ER and ER + OR interventions, and the implications of the findings with specific reference to similar or relevant studies in this area, as examined in Chapter 2 in the literature review. Next, the quantitative data on perceptions/attitudes from survey responses will be discussed in order to answer Research Question 5. The following section will then discuss the qualitative findings from the interview responses to draw parallels with the quantitative results, which will then be used to provide further insights into students' perceptions. Both the discussions of the quantitative and qualitative data related to Research Question 5 will

be conducted with reference to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. The implementation of the ER and ER + OR classroom interventions will be discussed based on the outcomes in terms of students' attitudes and perceptions of ER and ER + OR. Finally, the chapter will show how the results support the integration of Krashen's (1981; 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis in terms of a combined ER + OR model (input + output) that improves speaking accuracies by improving both vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, and enhancing students' experiences of learning through effective learning activities and pedagogical processes.

5.2 Research questions 1–4

Research questions 1–4 are discussed below, firstly by briefly summarising the answers to research questions that can be considered together because they have direct alignment between them; i.e., research questions 1 and 3 will be discussed simultaneously to demonstrate the effect of the two interventions on vocabulary, while research questions 2 and 4 will discussed together to demonstrate the effect of the interventions on grammatical accuracy. The hypotheses relative to each research question will also be discussed, to demonstrate whether they can be verified based on the results. Next, the implications of the answers to research questions 1–4 will be discussed with direct reference to other relevant studies analysed in the literature review in Chapter 2. It is essential to note that while a number of studies have made direct positive connections between ER and speaking skills (Akbar, 2014; Baker, 2007, 2008; Mart, 2012; Novita, 2016), including in the uptake of vocabulary and grammar (Akbar, 2014; Baker, 2008) and more accurate pronunciation (Novita, 2016), no research has as yet explored the influence of a combined ER + OR intervention on speaking accuracies. As such, the discussion in this chapter will provide new insights into the implementation of ER + OR as an EFL learning strategy.

5.2.1 Research questions 1 and 3: Impact of ER and ER with OR on vocabulary

Research questions 1 and 3 will be discussed simultaneously to demonstrate the effect of the two interventions on vocabulary. Research question 1 asks: Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university EFL students' use of vocabulary in speaking English? Research question 3 asks: Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input

and Output, improve Saudi university EFL students' use of vocabulary in speaking English? The respective hypotheses are Hypothesis 1: Extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of vocabulary in speaking English. Hypothesis 3: Extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of vocabulary in speaking English more than input via ER only. These questions and hypotheses therefore provide the basis for understanding the outcomes of the ER and ER + OR interventions for EPCD1 and EPCD2 respectively, following the argument that combining ER with OR has the most significant influence on speaking accuracies in terms of the development of vocabulary. The results of the IELTS pre- and post-test scores, including those of the one-way ANOVAs, one-way ANCOVAs and three paired t-tests conducted to determine pre- and post-test scores in vocabulary both between and within each group. The findings of the ANOVAs and ANCOVAs analysis showed no statistically significant difference between any of the three groups in terms of lexical resource (i.e., vocabulary) scores in the pre-tests. The paired t-tests showed that vocabulary performance was decreased for CG at post-test. EPCD1, remained statistically the same after the ER intervention, while EPCD2 significantly improved vocabulary at post-test, an increase was seen for ER + OR after the intervention. This arguably demonstrates an additive effect corresponding to the number of interventions used for each group. Thus, as the only group to experience any statistically significant improvement, EPCD2's improvements in vocabulary are indicative of the positive effect of combining ER with oral reporting in the ER + OR intervention.

The quantitative data analysis clearly demonstrates that students in EPCD2 experienced the highest improvement in vocabulary of the three groups, a notable result that indicates the additive effect of the interventions can predict improvements in vocabulary in relation to oral reporting. This also provides support for the argument that activities based on a combination of input + output are more likely to be effective at enhancing speaking accuracies through vocabulary improvements than an ER/input-only intervention. Ultimately, there appears to be a strong intrinsic connection between input and output in cases where ER and oral reporting are used to improve vocabulary and speaking accuracies. A clear indication of this connection also lies within the responses of students from EPCD2 in the survey, who reported that they

thought oral reporting had enhanced their speaking accuracies because it allowed them to practice (output) what they had read (input). This factor will be discussed in more detail below in section 5.3, with regards to research question 5 on students' attitudes and perceptions.

There is potentially a further correlation and differentiation between the type of output produced by students who experienced the ER intervention and those who had also experienced oral reporting in terms of vocabulary and speaking accuracies, but this was not framed in the research. Further studies that explore the effect of various types of output used in ER and ER + OR activities would therefore be warranted. In conclusion, only Hypothesis 3 is verified by the research, with the study clearly showing that the combined ER + OR intervention had the most significant effect on students' speaking accuracies in relation to improvements in vocabulary.

5.2.2 Research questions 2 and 4: Impact of ER and ER with OR on grammar

Research question 2 asks: Can extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, improve Saudi university EFL students' use of grammar in speaking English? Research question 4 asks: Can extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, improve Saudi university EFL students' use of grammar in speaking English? The respective hypotheses were Hypothesis 2: Extensive reading, as a form of Comprehensible Input, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of grammar in speaking English. Hypothesis 4: Extensive reading combined with oral reporting, as a form of Comprehensible Input and Output, will improve Saudi university EFL students' use of grammar in speaking English. As in the case of research questions 1 and 3, these questions and hypotheses can be viewed together as a means of understanding the differences between the outcomes of the two interventions and their influence on speaking accuracies and grammatical accuracy specifically. This section will similarly set out the results of the IELTS pre- and post-test scores, including those of the one-way ANOVAs, one-way ANCOVAs and three paired t-tests conducted to discuss the pre- and post-test scores for grammatical accuracy both between and within each group. The results of the ANOVAs and ANCOVAs showed that there was no statistically significant difference between any of the groups in terms of grammatical accuracy scores in the pre-tests, and paired t-tests showed that there was no statistically significant difference between these scores for either CG or EPCD1 after

the ER intervention. However, paralleling the differences in lexical resource/ vocabulary scores, grammatical accuracy scores significantly increased in the case of EPCD2 after the ER + OR intervention. This also demonstrates an additive effect corresponding to the number of interventions used in each group, and shows evidence of the positive effect of combining oral reporting with ER in the ER + OR intervention on grammatical accuracy. When combined with ER, oral reporting thereby had a greater effect than was observed when ER was the only intervention. Arguments similar to those given for vocabulary above could apply here also with regard to the additive effect of interventions and outcomes; however, the specific effect of oral reporting in increasing grammatical accuracy scores was lower than for lexical resource/vocabulary scores. Therefore, the primary effect of combining oral reporting with ER was an increase in vocabulary, while an improvement in grammatical accuracy was a secondary effect.

Overall, comparisons between CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2 and the variances in scores between groups experiencing ER and ER + OR interventions show that EPCD2 performed better at post-intervention tests, and therefore had enhanced their speaking accuracies to a higher level than CG and EPCD1. Thus, there was a significant benefit to combine ER and oral reporting. The results show that the addition of oral reporting improved these accuracies with a synergistic effect, combining the benefits of ER with those of oral reporting, allowing the students in EPCD2 to achieve the highest scores in speaking accuracies of the three groups based on lexical resource and grammatical accuracy scores. This suggests that the ER + OR intervention had a more profound impact on speaking accuracies than both the curriculum-based work (i.e., the textbook and usual classroom activities) and the ER intervention alone. As such, Hypothesis 4 is verified by the research, demonstrating that the combined ER + OR intervention had the most significant effect on students' speaking accuracies in relation to improvements in grammatical accuracy.

5.2.3 Implications of research questions 1–4

The answers to research questions 1–4 expand upon, challenge and/or support the work of other scholars who have discussed the effectiveness of ER, oral reporting or other related learning activities on speaking accuracies. The literature review in Chapter 2 examined numerous studies that showed EFL learners' acquisition of vocabulary improved as a result of ER activities and interventions (Horst, 2005; Pigada

& Schmitt, 2006; Al-Hammad, 2009; Renandya & Jacobs, 2002; Suk, 2017; Wang & Sachs, 2011). The findings of the present study partially confirm those of similar studies, for example, those of Horst (2005), though the two studies differ in aim and methodology. These results also echo those from Pigada & Schmitt (2006), Wang & Sachs (2011) and provide some statistical evidence to support the theoretical argument of Renandya & Jacobs (2002). Two studies also conducted in universities – Al-Hammad (2009) focused on female students in Saudi Arabia and Suk (2017) studied similar student levels in a Korean university – saw similar trends in their data. Other studies also revealed connections between ER and improved grammar (Alqadi & Alqadi, 2013; He & Yap, 2012; Lee et al., 2015; Song & Sardegna, 2014; Rodrigo, 2006). For example, the findings of the present study align with those of Alqadi & Alqadi (2013), who also focused on university students, as well as those of Lee et al. (2015), although that study combined ER with some translation activities. The findings of my study partially confirm those of Song & Sardegna (2014), who investigated whether enhanced ER contributed to significant gains on the incidental acquisition of English prepositions as one component of grammar knowledge, as well as those of Rodrigo (2006), who investigated the impact of listening and reading in enhancing grammar. Other studies specifically focused on improvements in speaking English in terms of vocabulary and grammar (Akbar, 2014; Baker, 2007, 2008; Mart, 2012; Novita, 2016). The findings of my study provide some statistical evidence to support the theoretical arguments of Akbar (2014), Baker (2007, 2008) and Mart (2012), though Baker's (2008) study examined oral fluency, not accuracy. Similarly, while my study might confirm the findings of Novita (2016), that study focused on accurate pronunciation.

The literature thereby demonstrates that ER has the potential to provide a highly effective means of developing English proficiency across the range of language skills. However, to date there exists no statistically valid research design using a quantitative data collection method to investigate the connections between ER and speaking accuracies with a specific focus on vocabulary and grammatical accuracy. As such, the results of this study have filled this gap in terms of providing a workable research design and examples that can be applied to other learning situations and contexts, not only due to the research design but also because they suggest that the effectiveness of ER on speaking accuracies may not be assumed in all learning

situations and contexts. The fact that there was no statistically significant difference between pre- and post-test lexical resource and grammatical accuracy scores for EPCD1 shows that the ER intervention alone was not a predictor of improvements to vocabulary, grammatical accuracy and speaking accuracies. While small-scale, the results of this study therefore represent a different outcome to the aforementioned research that shows such a connection (e.g., Akbar, 2014; Baker, 2007, 2008; Novita, 2016). Further, the results of the study align with and provide support for the work of other researchers who have investigated the ineffectiveness of ER. For example, the research supports the findings of Poorsoti and Asi's (2016) study, which found little to no change in grammatical accuracy as a result of ER (with a specific focus on writing skills), and work by Johansson (2014), which showed no direct relationship between ER and grammatical performance, measured using a number of accuracy tests. It also supports the findings of Yamashita's (2008) study, which showed that there was no statistically significant improvement in vocabulary after an ER intervention. As such, further investigations into the connections between ER and vocabulary, and ER and grammatical accuracy in the context of speaking accuracies are warranted in various classroom situations under various interventions, to determine whether there are certain conditions in which ER is more effective than others.

Importantly, the results of the present study partially support the research that has shown that OR and other forms of output based on feedback and error correction can improve vocabulary acquisition and grammatical accuracy in speaking English. For instance, the research supports Alhaysony's (2016) findings that corrective feedback in speaking exercises can help to improve the speaking accuracies of EFL students, and Khatib et al.'s (2011) review of how literature can be used in the EFL classroom to advance speaking proficiency by encouraging students to describe the content of reading materials and connect it to their own experiences. There are clear parallels here between reading as input, speaking as output, and a focus on the latter as a method of practice, which naturally involves some level of error correction (Alhaysony, 2016). The results therefore also align with studies by other researchers who stress the importance of feedback and error correction to speaking accuracies, such as Philp and Iwashita (2013), whose work showed the significance of output-based activities to speaking accuracies, and Nabei (2012), who discovered that output activities were highly beneficial to improving speaking in EFL classrooms. The results

also support Johansson's (2014) argument that some form of output is required for ER to be successful in terms of grammatical accuracy, and Soleimani and Mahmoudabadi's (2014) study, which similarly showed that students who experienced an intervention based on both input and output outperformed those who experienced only an input-based intervention in terms of both vocabulary acquisition and grammatical accuracy.

The outcomes of the research also parallel those of Litz (2005), in that they demonstrate how oral activities can be used alongside textbook activities to benefit speaking accuracies; however, that study does not look at reading as an aspect of the textbook-related work. The outcomes also support the work of Otoshi and Heffernen (2008) by showing how class discussions and oral presentations can facilitate improved speaking accuracies. Finally, the results parallel Daif-Allah and Khan's (2016) research by showing how OR can generate open discussion and two-way communication to encourage learners to interact freely with each other, with positive effects on speaking accuracies. As such, the research shows further connections between oral activities as methods of practicing speaking using reading materials as input. This suggests that improving the speaking accuracies of students in the Saudi education system, whose English proficiencies may be compromised due to passive classroom activities, may depend on the integration of such input and output activities.

5.3 Research question 5: Perceptions/attitudes

Research question 5 asks: What are Saudi university EFL students' perceptions/attitudes towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracies through improving vocabulary and grammar? Hypothesis 5 reads: Saudi university EFL students will have positive perceptions/attitudes towards the use of extensive reading with or without oral reporting in developing their speaking accuracies through improving vocabulary and grammar. This question can be answered through a discussion of the survey responses that were aimed at exploring students' attitudes towards reading and speaking in English, the textbook and English-speaking course, and their perceptions on how or whether they believed the ER or ER + OR interventions improved their speaking accuracies, with a specific focus on improvements in vocabulary and grammatical accuracy. The following sections will specifically discuss differences

between CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2 in terms of their exposure (or lack of) to the two interventions and negative or positive attitudes in relation to self-confidence, enjoyment, pleasure and interest, aligning with some of the important factors Day and Bamford (2002) identify as crucial to SLA, as well as other studies that have also measured attitudes in terms of ER and associated activities (Al-Hammad, 2009; Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009; Aljumah, 2011; Alshamrani, 2004; Asraf & Ahmad, 2003; Brantmeier, 2005; Brusch, 1991; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2001; Leung, 2002; Powell, 2005; Ro, 2016; Salameh, 2017). A discussion of the interview responses from the qualitative phase of the research will also be conducted to provide further insights into the quantitative findings and their implications.

5.3.1 Survey responses

The survey responses provided insights into the participants' attitudes towards speaking in English, the English-speaking course in which they were enrolled, the English textbook used in the course, and reading in English, which in the case of EPCD1 and ECPD2, covered the ER and ER + OR interventions. It also showed evidence of students' perceptions of their improvements in speaking in English as a result of both interventions. The aim was to determine whether participants' attitudes changed as a result of the intervention, providing evidence for whether ER or ER + OR had the greatest effect on attitudes and perceptions. The following sections reiterate some of the most significant findings of the survey responses, and discuss their implications with reference to other similar studies on students' attitudes towards ER and OR.

5.3.1.1 Attitudes towards speaking in English and the importance of vocabulary and grammatical accuracy

Previous research has shown that students who undertook ER activities may develop more positive attitudes, especially in terms of vocabulary acquisition (Alshamrani, 2004; Powell, 2005), grammar (Powell, 2005) and reading comprehension (De Morgado, 2009; Gee, 1999). This study provides some evidence of positive attitudes towards these factors as a result of ER. The survey responses regarding attitudes towards speaking in English showed that in the pre-intervention phase, all students in CG, EPCD1 and EPCD2 believed vocabulary to be the most important factor for speaking, and believed that insufficient vocabulary makes

speaking difficult. This was consistent for EPCD1 post-intervention, while for EPCD2 there was a significant increase in mean scores, indicating greater positive attitudes towards the importance of vocabulary after the ER + OR intervention. In terms of grammatical and speaking accuracies, both the pre- and post-intervention results showed that participants believed accurate grammar to be less important than vocabulary in terms of speaking English. This was consistent in the post-intervention phase for EPCD1; however, once again, attitudes towards the importance of grammar to speaking English increased for EPCD2 after the intervention. Further, in the post-phase, EPCD2 participants had statistically significantly more positive general attitudes towards speaking English than CG and EPCD1 participants. These results provide evidence that the ER + OR intervention shifted attitudes more significantly towards the importance of vocabulary and grammatical accuracy to speaking in English, which likely correlated with perceptions of improvements in speaking. It also provides some support for the aforementioned studies of attitudes and ER (Al-Hammad, 2009; Alshamrani, 2004; De Morgado, 2009; Gee, 1999; Powell, 2005). For example, the findings of the present study confirm those of studies in similar Saudi Arabian settings (Al-Hammad, 2009; (Alshamrani, 2004), as well as findings from different contexts, such as De Morgado (2009), Gee (1999) and Powell (2005).

However, the outcomes of research questions 1–4, also show that ER alone may not be enough to substantially improve attitudes in terms of both vocabulary and grammar to any significant extent.

5.3.1.2 Attitudes towards reading in English

Studies have shown connections between ER and positive attitudes towards reading (Asraf & Ahmad, 2003; Brantmeier, 2005; Brusch, 1991; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2001; Mason & Krashen, 1997a; Powell, 2005; Ro & Cheng-ling, 2014; Salameh, 2017; Yamashita, 2004; Yamashita, 2013), including several in the Saudi context (Al-Hammad, 2009; Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009; Aljumah, 2011). Among the limited research into the relationship between positive attitudes towards reading and the development of vocabulary and grammar in speaking, a study by Rahmany et al. (2013) concluded that ER does not have a significant effect in this area. The findings of this study challenge such conclusion. This study shows a statistically significant difference between pre- and post-survey about students' attitudes towards reading in

English to improve speaking accuracies between the three groups. Students in CG showed no statistically significant difference between pre- and post-test general attitudes towards reading in English, while after the intervention, both EPCD2 and EPCD1 had statistically significantly more positive attitudes towards reading in English. Participants in EPCD1 had statistically significantly more positive attitudes towards reading in English in the post-test than in the pre-test, suggesting a change in attitudes after the ER intervention, while EPCD2 had significantly higher positive attitudes towards reading after the intervention than EPCD1. Here, further parallels can be drawn with the aforementioned findings on more positive attitudes towards vocabulary and grammatical accuracy and their importance to speaking in English by students in EPCD2, which are likely related to the outcomes of the ER + OR intervention. These could also be the result of the feedback and error correction elements associated with output-focused activities, which has been shown to have a positive impact on improving EFL students' speaking accuracies (Daif-Allah & Khan, 2016), therefore showing likely connections between those OR activities and students' more positive attitudes towards reading and ER specifically.

Based on the findings of researchers such as Abu-Ghararah (2014) and Brantmeier (2005), learners should be given a choice of reading material if they are to have more positive attitudes towards reading, which in turn may have beneficial outcomes for speaking. As such, the aforementioned issues might be overcome if learners were given greater variety and choice regarding ER. Whether giving students specific tasks and materials has a lesser effect than giving them freedom to select the activity and material was not evaluated in this research, but it is an interesting factor if we are to consider how compelling CI (Krashen, 2015) might influence students' attitudes. What can be gleaned from the research is that the OR component appeared to garner the learners' interest in the ER material in a way that did not occur when only ER was used. This follows the findings of a study by Baker (2007), which showed that OR enhanced students' attitudes towards ER because they were able to discuss what they had read in class to a supportive audience who had similarly engaged in both reading and OR. This outcome therefore fully supports an argument for the enhanced effectiveness of the ER + OR intervention in improving speaking accuracies in this research. A later study by Baker (2008) further found that oral fluency can be developed through classroom activities in which students attempt to use correct words

and grammar to negotiate meaning. According to Baker (2008), the resulting communication strategy will also correct mistakes in expressions and misunderstanding, thus avoiding breakdown of communication. Whether this happened in this research is unknown, but could be an interesting avenue for further investigation.

5.3.1.3 Attitudes towards the English-speaking course and textbook

A study by Xiao (2010) shows that EFL students may not always enjoy or engage with the content in their classroom textbooks, which has a negative impact on their SLA. In the pre-intervention phase, the majority of the students in all groups expected that the English-speaking course and the textbook would help them to improve their vocabulary, grammatical accuracy and speaking accuracies as a result. However, post-intervention, the majority of students in all three groups still showed negative attitudes to items related to the English-speaking course and the textbook. The survey responses from CG here are quite interesting, as CG had no intervention, yet students in that group still perceived the course and the textbook to be insufficient to improve either their vocabulary or grammatical accuracy. This might have been because they had learned that their classmates in EPCD1 and EPCD2 had been benefiting from their experiences reading books on interesting topics and giving oral reports. Further, students in CG indicated that they did not read books in English for pleasure and were not interested in reading texts of their own choice, likely showing that the curriculum text (i.e., the textbook) did not contain elements to encourage them to undertake such reading. It is evident from these responses that without such activities in the curriculum, current teaching methods at the university under study are unfavourable to students. The findings also might confirm Xiao's (2010) findings, who suggests that textbooks should be redesigned to include content of more interest to the learners, or otherwise to utilise other textual materials that may be of more interest to students. A study by Chou (2016) also found that students had negative attitudes towards e-books used as prescribed reading for ER, and similarly suggests that encouraging students to engage in those books requires showing them the value of the content and giving them the time to do the reading. A textbook aimed at incorporating both more interesting content and ER activities might be better implemented in cases where students have these negative attitudes, such as at the university under study.

5.3.1.4 Enjoyment, pleasure and interest in reading in English

According to Day and Bamford (2002), the great learning potential of ER lies in its focus on reading a wide range of books as a routine habit about any subject that may interest the learner to augment classroom activities. Further, research by a number of scholars has shown that enjoyment and reading for pleasure has great potential to enhance language competencies, including speaking, if reading activities are oriented around students' interests (Beglar et al., 2012; Brantmeier, 2005; McQuillan, 1994; Powell, 2005), are well organised (Brusch, 1991) and at the right level (Powell, 2005). Indeed, as Leung (2002) suggests, effectively incorporating ER into the curriculum can help students 'develop a passion for reading', giving them 'more control and confidence in their own learning' (p. 79). This also shares parallels with Day and Bamford's (2002) argument that the effective design and implementation of ER activities can encourage reading by providing the reader with a wide range of easy and interesting reading materials, and the choice of what to read, with pleasure being a core feature of the ER experience. One important implication that reflects this idea relates to participants' attitudes towards survey items about reading in English in terms of enjoyment, pleasure and interest, both in terms of their attitudes towards reading in general and ER specifically. Based on the survey responses pre-intervention, no group had high percentages of positive responses in relation to items relating to enjoyment of reading, the usefulness of reading English in understanding spoken English, to conversing freely, reading books of one's own choice, participating in discussions with others about books, and reading books unrelated to coursework for pleasure. However, post-intervention, EPCD2 showed more positive attitudes in these areas when ER was combined with OR.

This might challenge the existing literature, such as that by Khatib et al. (2011), which showed that learners who read books outside of the classroom (in a form of unstructured ER) developed language competencies as a result of relating the events described in the books with their own experiences. Further, the findings of the present study might partially challenge Krashen's (2015) reviewed model of compelling CI, which he theorises encourages language learning by providing students with interesting, accessible and relevant reading materials, encouraging interest and active participation. In this study, reading materials intended as potential compelling CI were not sufficient to foster that sort of engagement, as evidenced by no statistically

significant difference between attitudes towards ER for either EPCD1 or EPCD2 after the intervention. This suggests that Krashen's (2015) reviewed model is not fully applicable here, and stresses why an input-based intervention alone is insufficient to improving speaking accuracies, which will be discussed in greater detail below in section 5.4.

One reason participants may have had negative attitudes and resistance towards reading could be because they were disinterested in the content of the textbook (as discussed above), which was the primary reading text in the course, more so than the ER materials due to the shorter nature of the intervention when compared to the complete teaching semester. As previously discussed, studies have shown that positive attitudes towards ER may have their foundation in students' interest in and choice of reading materials (Beglar et al., 2012; Brantmeier, 2005; Brusch, 1991; Leung, 2002; McQuillan, 1994; Powell, 2005), while Xiao's (2010) and Chou's (2016) studies show that disinterest in textbooks and e-books as prescribed reading may lead to negative attitudes towards reading. Salameh's (2017) Saudi-based study aligns with the latter two studies, and shows that while learners may have negative attitudes towards reading in class before an ER intervention, they may prefer and enjoy reading in their own time – outside of the classroom. In this study, participants in EPCD1 had statistically significantly less positive attitudes towards reading than EPCD2, who showed statistically significantly more positive attitudes towards reading after the intervention. This suggests that reading the ER texts outside class had little impact on those attitudes. Conversely, the more positive attitudes of EPCD2 post-intervention points to the significance of OR as a companion to ER, and suggests that the feedback and error correction aspect of spoken in-class dialogue changed the participants' attitudes. This reflects aspects of Daif-Allah and Khan's (2016) work by similarly showing that corrective feedback, clarification, repetition, elicitation and recasting in oral communication activities led to more positive attitudes towards language learning. This also aligns with Litz's (2005) study, which found that when given the opportunity to practice speaking about interesting reading activities, learners showed more positive attitudes towards reading. Together, these findings support Bamford and Day's (2003) argument that including oral activities in the classroom to augment ER activities may encourage both learners' enjoyment of reading and enhance their accuracy in both reading and speaking.

5.3.1.5 Perceptions of overall improvements in speaking accuracies due to the interventions

In the pre-test, the majority of students in EPCD1 and ECPD2 believed that reading would help them to develop their speaking accuracies. These results can be considered in the context of the purpose of the study, which was explained to the students in the first two weeks of starting the work; thus, students were aware that ER is often used in teaching contexts to improve speaking accuracies, and all likely believed that they would experience such an improvement. In the post-phase, students in both EPCD1 and EPCD2 perceived that ER had helped them to improve their speaking skills, in both the acquisition and use of vocabulary, and, to a lesser extent, grammatical accuracy.

The study then explored whether students' perceptions of ER in terms of improving speaking accuracies were different based on either the ER or ER + OR intervention. It was evident that students' perceptions of the usefulness of ER remained more or less constant between the pre- and post-phases for both EPCD1 and EPCD2, but that EPCD2 did report slightly more positive attitudes to ER after the intervention. However, this increase was not sufficient enough to have any statistical significance. In the case of EPCD1, while the findings showed that ER interventions partly addressed issues that could have stemmed from these factors, in the absence of a platform to practice speaking skills using the vocabulary and grammar learned through ER, the improvement in speaking accuracies was only perceived as satisfactory by students. Overall, the ER intervention alone therefore did not result in more positive attitudes towards ER for either EPCD1 or EPCD2 or perceptions of their improvements. However, the responses showed that for students in EPCD2, while ER alone was not enough to improve their speaking skills, that when combined with OR, this aim was achieved. A more substantial and significant benefit was therefore only obtained when OR as an intervention provided a speaking platform for the students in EPCD2, showing the greater potential of the combined intervention to both improve speaking accuracies and students' attitudes towards and perceptions of the factors contributing to those improvements. This is arguably why students in EPCD2 recommended the combined intervention for developing vocabulary and, to a lesser extent, grammatical accuracy, once again showing evidence for the greater effectiveness of the ER + OR intervention. These findings provide further support for

the work of authors such as Alhaysony (2016), Otoshi and Heffernan (2008) and Mahmoudabadi and Soleimani (2014), who argue for the inclusion of a monitoring and feedback element to reap the full benefits of ER using OR or presentations.

Another notable difference between the groups that further demonstrates the most significant effects of the interventions in terms of perceived improvements relates to perceived difficulties speaking in English. There was a statistically significant difference between the numbers of students who perceived their difficulties in speaking English as having decreased after the intervention, with EPCD2 showing higher rates of improvement than EPCD1. This was likely due to their experiences of the additive effect of improvements in speaking through ER + OR, and the practice they gained in speaking during the OR activities. It is important to highlight that they did not find that their grammatical accuracy improved to any great extent during that process, but that the improvement was primarily vocabulary-based, which also aligns with the type of improvements experienced by EPCD1. The trends emerging from these responses show that both EPCD1 and EPCD2 found the interventions beneficial, but that the attitudes and perceptions of EPCD2 were more positive in regards to overall improvements in speaking in English.

5.3.2 Semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interviews with students selected from EPCD1 and EPCD2 were conducted post-intervention to determine whether the results of the quantitative analysis were accurate representations of the students' experiences of the interventions, and to provide further insights into the results. The thematic analysis of the interviews uncovered four themes: 1) self-perception of English speaking skills, 2) reasons for poor English speaking skills, 3) effects of the interventions, and 4) suggestions for improving the interventions. One clear outcome relating to these themes was that of self-confidence, which will be explored in some detail in this section. The interview themes will be discussed in respect to the two primary answers to the five research questions, those being: 1) that students in EPCD2 who experienced the ER + OR intervention outperformed EPCD1 in terms of improvements in both vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, leading to improved speaking accuracies, and 2) that students in EPCD2 who experienced the ER + OR intervention had more positive attitudes towards the intervention (including both ER and OR) than those in EPCD1. The results of the thematic analysis of the semi-structured interviews

showed that five of the six students interviewed believed they had poor or unsatisfactory English speaking accuracies. The main barriers to speaking accuracies identified by the students were: lack of vocabulary (N = 5); poor grammar (N = 4); incorrect pronunciation (N = 4); lack of confidence (N = 2); and pressure for an instant response (N = 1). Of the five reasons, two are clearly connected to the central focus of this thesis – vocabulary and grammatical accuracy – while self-confidence, as mentioned above, is also a core theme related to the students' attitudes to ER and ER + OR, as indicated in the survey responses.

The students were also asked about what they perceived to be the effects of the interventions, and had no prior experience of either ER or OR. Students in EPCD1 believed that the ER intervention helped them to improve both their vocabulary and grammar, but were not sure if it helped with their speaking accuracies. The results showed that this was likely due to the lack of speaking practice associated with the ER only intervention, with students in EPCD1 noting that they did not apply the vocabulary or grammar learned in the ER activities in 'actual speech'. On the other hand, students from EPCD2 described a range of benefits from the ER + OR intervention, those being increased vocabulary, better grammar, increased confidence and improved speed of speaking. They also believed that the intervention improved their speaking accuracies, and that the speaking practice they had in the OR component helped with their pronunciation while also preparing them to use the learned vocabulary and grammar in collaborative dialogue. These results show not just that the ER + OR intervention was more successful in terms of improving speaking accuracies, but clearly pointed to how the intervention corresponded to the students' primary areas of weakness. Vocabulary and grammatical accuracy are focused on in this thesis due to their measurability and their role in developing speaking accuracies, and these results provide further confirmation of the importance of both of these factors. They also show that learning activities focused on both vocabulary and grammar may be the most suitable when aiming to improve speaking accuracies, pointing to the usefulness of ER + OR as a strategic learning approach. The combination of CI through ER and the CO of spoken dialogue based on the newly learned vocabulary and grammar therefore has great potential for application in pedagogical processes, and will likely be highly beneficial if implemented more in Saudi classrooms where students generally receive

few opportunities for collaborative and communicative dialogue (Alqahtani, 2015; Ansari, 2015; Tanveer, 2007).

Interestingly, interviews with students in EPCD1 showed that they were less certain about whether their speaking skills had improved than they were about improvements in their vocabulary and grammatical accuracy. This could represent a lack of self-confidence in speaking English, showing that perceptions of speaking accuracies do not necessarily correlate with perceived improvements in vocabulary/grammar. Further, students in EPCD1 did not believe that the ER intervention increased their self-confidence, and explained that this was because there was no platform to practice speaking in class using the vocabulary and grammatical knowledge acquired through the ER activities. In turn, this appeared to be the reason they believed their speaking accuracies had not improved. In comparison, students in EPCD2 reported that the OR component of the intervention helped them to improve their speaking accuracies through trial and error and corrections. Importantly, the responses of students from EPCD2 showed that they developed higher self-confidence as a result of the intervention.

Day and Bamford (2002) suggest that improved confidence may be an outcome of undertaking ER activities; however, this study showed that ER alone did not necessarily improve self-confidence. Rather, it was evident that the successful application of ER + OR meant participants in EPCD2 developed higher self-confidence, aligning with the work of Solis and Thomas (2013), which showed that student shyness could be overcome by encouraging free discussions and dialogue through OR, and research by Zhang (2001), which showed that EFL classrooms that include learner-based activities help to overcome learner anxiety and encourage self-confidence. These outcomes also parallel a study by Kalanzadeh et al. (2013), in which students who involved themselves in spoken activities, including the oral production of stories in the classroom, developed greater self-confidence. That study also showed a significant correlation between self-esteem or a lack of confidence and verbal performance (Kalanzadeh et al., 2013), which appears to support other similar research such as that by Ansari (2015), Aclan and Aziz (2016), Boonkit (2010), Daif-Allah & Khan (2016) and Tanveer (2007), as well as the findings of this thesis in this area. Tanveer's (2007) research showed that a lack of self-confidence in speaking is often the result of anxiety about one's speaking abilities, and cognition difficulties can

further contribute to anxiety if that cognition is affected by language limitations. As Tanveer (2007) also notes, this is a particular issue in Saudi classrooms. As such, this may be the reason why ECPD2 were more confident than EPCD1 – because they had practice in speaking and therefore may have had more chance to overcome any anxiety. Another reason why self-confidence may have been higher for students in EPCD2 could be connected to the fact that, as Khatib et al. (2011) found in their study of students' experiences of reading non-curricular material, ER can help a reader to relate the events described in the books to one's own experiences, and to develop an ability to express those experiences aloud by discussing them with others. It therefore makes sense, to follow Fallah (2014), that in the absence of self-confidence, speaking proficiency will be low, because it provides a major barrier to open expression.

The interviews provided confirmation of the quantitative data in terms of IELTS scores and attitudes. As discussed above, there was a statistically significant difference between the number of students in EPCD2 who found speaking difficult after the intervention compared to EPCD1, with the former finding greater improvements, aligning with the interview responses. Further, the interview responses also aligned with the survey measures on attitudes towards English speaking, which improved more significantly for EPCD2 than EPCD1 in the surveys, also providing additional confirmation of the quantitative data. Overall, therefore, the main difference between the results for EPCD1 and EPCD2 relates to the fact that the speaking accuracies of EPCD2 were higher than EPCD1 due to the OR aspect of the intervention, and appeared to have a direct effect on self-confidence, more positive attitudes towards reading and speaking, and perceptions of improvements in speaking due to increased vocabulary and grammatical accuracy.

The final theme on suggestions also provides important insights into how interventions involving ER and OR could best be designed. The interview responses showed that students from EPCD1 believed that speaking practice in the intervention would have been a better way for them to improve their speaking skills than ER alone. This included reading content aloud as well as discussing that content with other students. For students in EPCD2, the speaking component of the ER + OR intervention was deemed the most beneficial aspect of the intervention due to opportunities to practice speaking, with one student suggesting that the only improvement would have been a longer duration (i.e., two semesters). As such, these

responses provide further evidence of the effectiveness of the oral component of the intervention, and the importance of including a speaking platform and opportunities for practice, feedback and error correction in the classroom in conjunction with ER activities. Hypothesis 5 is therefore partially verified, showing that the intervention with the most significant impact on EFL students' attitudes towards and perceptions of the use of ER activities occurred in combination with OR, which students perceived as improving their speaking accuracies through gains in vocabulary and grammatical accuracy and a platform to practice speaking. The hypothesis is less verified in terms of the students' attitudes towards and perceptions of the use of ER activities without OR, with students in EPCD1 showing the same amount of enjoyment, pleasure or interest in reading after the intervention as before, and lower self-confidence than EPCD2 after the intervention.

5.4 Verification of combined theoretical model integrating Krashen's input hypothesis and Swain's output hypothesis

As discussed in Chapter 2, there is dispute as to the extent of the applicability of Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis in both vocabulary acquisition and grammatical accuracy due to its lack of focus on output, which Swain (1985) argues is essential as it ultimately takes the form of language production, and is therefore necessary for learners to be able to develop language proficiency. As discussed in the previous chapters, this is the reason that the combined input + output model was proposed and applied in this study. This study thereby argues that Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis can be combined as a theoretical framework in order to understand whether ER can be successfully integrated with OR to provide a learning intervention to improve vocabulary use and grammar accuracy in speaking, with ER as compelling comprehensible input, and OR as a form of comprehensible output. The results show that ER as compelling CI can lead to improvements in vocabulary more than that in grammatical accuracy, when the content of the ER materials is converted into output in the language production via OR activities. We can surmise from Swain's (1985) output hypothesis that the students in EPCD2 "noticed" the gap between what they were able to express verbally, and what they could not, during the process of undertaking the OR activities. Unlike students in CG and EPCD1, students in EPCD2 were able to practise the vocabulary and grammatical knowledge they had acquired through the input of ER by testing it in

communicative dialogue with one another. This evidently had benefits for the development of their speaking accuracies, and shows evidence for the practical outcomes of the combined theoretical model suggested in this thesis.

As discussed in the literature review, it is clear that Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis individually have merits and limitations, and integrating them suitably across different stages of language learning processes can provide better results than either alone due to their synergistic interactive effect. By combining the hypotheses and ER + OR activities, intrinsic connections between input and output become evident, showing that tasks involving input and collaborative dialogue based on that input can lead to the realisation of the i+1 stage of Krashen's (1981, 1982) model, whereby 'i' refers to the learner's interlanguage – that being the in-between point of learning a language where there are linguistic cross-overs – and '+1' relates to the next stage of language acquisition. The CO of the OR studied in this thesis evidently involved trial and error based on input used to inform the collaborative dialogue, showing how repeated hypothesis testing and error correction occurred, as per Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. In this case, the final correct spoken statement is the successful output, and provides a metalinguistic function. Thus, the cycle of ER as input to speaking as output can be viewed as a progression caused by increases in vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, whereby low-level speaking accuracies evolve due to repeated trial and error in the interactive, communicative group task of OR and discussion. Arguably, if the input of vocabulary and grammar from additional ER activities continues, and such activities are repeated, an achievement of the desirable levels of speaking accuracies should be the outcome. This shows that there is a constant exchange of input and output, and each step in the language production process is cyclic, highlighting the potential synergistic interactive effect between Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, and scope for integration of the two hypotheses as a research framework to understand EFL learning.

Based on their characteristics, it is proposed that there is scope for integration of the two hypotheses into a combined model, as outlined in section 2.7 of Chapter 2. It is evident that when ER is used as CI (especially as compelling CI, based on the idea of enjoyment and interest) and supported with OR with repeated trial and error processes, that collaborative dialogue through classroom interactions can provide

important opportunities for students to develop speaking accuracies. The findings therefore expand upon existing research that has shown that ER can lead to speaking accuracies (e.g., Akbar, 2014; Baker, 2007; Baker, 2008; Mart, 2012; Novita, 2016) by demonstrating that in fact the combination of ER + OR (as experienced by EPCD2) potentially leads to greater improvements in speaking than ER alone (as experienced by EPCD1). Thus, OR as output may have a stronger influence on speaking accuracies than ER alone, providing an important point of departure for future studies in this area. However, it is also important to note that, in regards to speaking accuracies, it is unlikely that all students expressed themselves only using the correct grammatical structures throughout their OR activities, which shows that while an increase in grammatical accuracy was experienced by EPCD2, that further learning interventions would be required to ensure accuracies were eventually developed. This shows that the development of speaking accuracies is a constantly evolving process. It is also possible that improvements in vocabulary may be more likely to indicate improvements in accuracies than grammar alone, because conversations generally require the interlocutor to be comprehensible through the vocabulary they use, more so than their grammatical accuracy (McCarten, 2007). This was evident in the case of EPCD2, where the pre- and post-tests showed that ER + OR had a greater effect on vocabulary than grammar, which is likely the reason students in EPCD2 believed they had fewer problems speaking English after the combined intervention. As such, the speaking practice engendered through OR helped them to build self-confidence in group discussions because of improvements in their vocabulary and grammar based on trial and error processes. The relationship between the OR activities and both perceived and measured improved output shows how the combined model might be used to understand how speaking accuracies develop. Basing EFL programmes on the proposed combined input-to-output model could therefore help students to speak more accurately and more confidently, leading to students' perceptions of their improvements as well as measurable outcomes of those improvements.

From the above discussions, it follows that Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis can be integrated to improve the speaking accuracies of EFL learners. At this juncture, it is not possible to say whether the integration of the two hypotheses is possible in the case of acquisition of other learning skills, other languages or other students in Saudi Arabia. It is also not possible

to determine whether the possibility of implementing the combined model will be universally applicable to other classrooms in other countries. These limitations will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6. Nonetheless, despite these limitations, the proposed combined model is evidently useful when assessing the influence of ER and ER + OR interventions on speaking accuracies through a framework that recognises the usefulness and importance of both input and output to SLA. This shows that applying both of the two hypotheses in learning interventions can provide important insights into the connections between reading as input and speaking as output and their role in improving speaking accuracies. The study therefore expands upon important research in this area that shows how approaches that combine input and output enhance language production by encouraging students to practice speaking and by providing them with feedback and error correction, allowing them to "notice" gaps in their knowledge (Hua, 2015; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Izumi, 2002; Soleimani et al., 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Wen, 2013). Thus, the experiences of the participants in this study and the implications of the findings show that an integrated theoretical approach to understanding SLA counteracts any arguments against the effectiveness of either the input or output hypothesis by taking into account both sides of the language production process.

5.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has provided answers to the five research questions and insights into the implications of the findings. First, by examining the statistical analysis of the quantitative data in relation to research questions 1–4, the chapter has shown the differences in how the ER and ER + OR interventions influenced improvements in vocabulary, grammatical accuracy and speaking accuracies overall. It showed that the ER + OR intervention had a greater statistically significant effect on speaking accuracies than the ER intervention, with a more positive effect in relation to vocabulary compared with grammatical accuracy. Next, the chapter discussed the survey responses in regards to research question 5 on participants' attitudes towards speaking in English, reading in English and the course and textbook. The discussion then focused on the participants' perceptions of the importance of vocabulary and grammatical accuracy to speaking, the enjoyment, pleasure and interest they had in reading in English, and perceptions of their improvements in speaking accuracies. Aligning with the findings for research questions 1–4, these findings also showed that

positive attitudes and perceptions in all cases were significantly higher for EPCD2 than EPCD1 post-intervention, and that these related to the OR component of the ER + OR intervention. The findings show that OR provided a platform for students to practice speaking, with support in the form of feedback and error correction that allowed them to "notice" the gap in their knowledge and correct themselves during discussions about the books that they had read as part of the ER component. The responses from the semi-structured interviews provided further support for the greater benefits of the ER + OR component. Overall, the findings showed that the participants in EPCD2 were highly positive about the ER + OR intervention, that they would recommend it to other students, and that their primary suggestion for improvement was to extend the duration of the intervention. This provides good evidence for both the efficacy of the intervention, the students' enjoyment of it, and the self-confidence they developed as a result.

The chapter concluded by verifying the proposed combined model that demonstrates how Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis can be integrated. The model can thereby be effectively applied to studies of classroom activities and interventions in order to understand how speaking accuracies – as the outcome of both input and output – can be improved by combining comprehensible input and output in the form of feedback, error correction and the practice of vocabulary and grammar gained in ER in speaking activities such as OR. The final chapter of this thesis will present overall conclusions derived from the thesis as well as recommendations for educational institutions and the Saudi government, as well as discussing some of the limitations of the work and potential areas for future research.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1. Introduction

This chapter sets out the conclusions of the research and recommendations for educational institutions and the Saudi government based on the findings of this research. It also sets out limitations of the study and recommendations for future research. Chapter 5 answered the research questions and outlined the validation of the different hypotheses. These conclusions were derived from the study results, and both quantitative and qualitative analyses showed that Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis could be sequentially integrated into a combined model to support a theoretical explanation for the findings of this research. Below are the main conclusions that have taken into consideration based on those findings.

6.2 Thesis summary

This thesis argues that a combination of extensive reading and oral reporting activities (ER + OR) was the most effective approach for improving EFL students vocabulary and grammatical accuracy in speaking of the three learning contexts. The control group experienced no significant improvements in either vocabulary or grammatical accuracy as a result of participating in the curriculum-based textbook activities. Nor significant improvements in either vocabulary or grammatical accuracy were found by the students from EPCD1 who engaged in ER activities alone. Overall, the findings provide strong support for the overall hypothesis that ER and oral activities such as OR can contribute to substantial improvements in the English speaking accuracies of Saudi EFL university students.

The results of the survey indicated that the attitudes of the students in the two experimental groups towards the use of ER activities in developing speaking skills were mainly positive. This could be deduced from the attitude scores, all of which indicated a higher level of agreement. Furthermore, the results showed that the attitude scores for EPCD2 were the highest, and changed positively between pre- and post-phases. There were no significant or positive changes between these two stages for either CG or EPCD1, indicating that a combination of ER and OR activities was the

most effective intervention to improve students' attitudes, and that ER activities alone did not appear to have an impact on attitudinal changes.

Findings of the interviews further confirm the value of combining ER and oral report and benefits of the latter to developing students' speaking skills. Deficient vocabulary, poor grammar, and a general lack of self-confidence are common themes emerging from the qualitative analysis of students' perceptions of whether ER with or without OR improved their English speaking accuracies. The students from both experimental groups reported benefits from their respective interventions, however, EPCD1 remarked on the lack of platform available for practising their speaking skills. The students from EPCD2 highly valued the OR activities on providing them with a platform to apply what they had learnt by practicing their new skills, which appears to also have given them greater self-confidence. It was therefore concluded that students responded positively to both the interventions, with a greater preference for the intervention involving a combination of ER and OR.

The research also showed that the product of a combination of input and output activities can be recognised as a function of both Krashen's (1981; 1982) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis operating synergistically. The possibility of integrating the two hypotheses was demonstrated by the quantitative and qualitative results and their interpretation in this study, primarily conducted in Chapter 5, and based on the analysis in the literature review in Chapter 2. Accordingly, it was seen that ER as input improves speaking accuracies by providing students with the opportunity to learn vocabulary and grammar. This supports Krashen's (1981, 1982) input hypothesis; however, as shown, ER was not sufficient to significantly improve vocabulary and grammatical accuracy in such a way as to improve speaking accuracies. Rather, students needed to be provided with a platform to practice speaking and improve vocabulary and grammatical accuracy through trial and error as they progressed with their studies in English. This process of trial and error and continuous improvement through the noticing effect supports Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, which in this study worked in conjunction with the input hypothesis, whereby input became the source from which the students' output was produced and developed. This therefore shows that the output produced by the students, in terms of speaking accuracies, was the product of repeated input from OR activities. While showing the limitations of both theories, the study has therefore demonstrated that the

combination of both input and output activities provides better results than either used in isolation, and that the combination of the input and output hypotheses is a more effective way of understanding the SLA process than either hypothesis individually. As a result, the research has verified the effectiveness of the proposed combined model for input + output.

The findings also show that factors such as interaction, attitude, self-confidence and enjoyment play important roles in SLA, and are variables that depend on the type and form of input and output activities used as teaching and learning approaches in the EFL classroom. In theorising why the ER + OR intervention was the most effective, it is arguable that, in combination, the facets of ER that were enjoyable (reading as its own reward; reading interesting and relevant material), and the interactive elements associated with the OR activities were part of the reason students' speaking accuracies improved. This points to the need to utilise what the proposed combined model offers, and implement activities into EFL classrooms that are successful because they recognise the interconnectedness of input and output, the value of reading for pleasure and the usefulness of interactive speaking tasks. This would help overcome the sorts of issues seen in EFL classrooms at Saudi universities, replacing more traditional one-way, textbook-based learning methods with those better tailored to the students' learning needs.

Overall, the research has verified the hypotheses associated with the five research questions, showing that the combination of ER – as a form of Comprehensible Input – and OR – as a form of Comprehensible Output – successfully improved students' speaking accuracies. Further, the research conclusively shows that students had overall positive attitudes and perceptions of the ER + OR intervention and its influence on their speaking accuracies.

6.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are targeted at educational institutions and faculties where EFL is part of the curriculum, and the Saudi government, for policy directions.

6.3.1 For educational institutions

These recommendations are primarily aimed at educational institutions located in Saudi Arabia but could also be adopted by institutions in other countries. A careful

review assessing the efficiency of current curricular practices aiming to enhance the acquisition of English speaking skills needs to be undertaken to identify any aspects that may hinder students' abilities to achieve the required level of skill. There are several suitable interventions that could be used to rectify the problems students experience in existing EFL programmes. Various combinations of interventions providing different forms of input and producing different forms of output using OR and other oral activities, interactive group tasks and speaking practice sessions could be implemented. A range of these could be tested to determine which are the most beneficial, based on this study's findings, which have proven that ER + OR activities are an ideal companion to existing curricular content, or could even be used to replace less effective reading activities, such as the primary use of a textbook. Similar trials using ER + OR or other similar input + output activities could be conducted across different Saudi classrooms for a limited period, and afterwards re-evaluated and adjusted if necessary.

As used in this study to measure the students' lexical resource and grammatical accuracy scores, IELTS testing criteria could be used to determine the most beneficial interventions. Once trial activities are confirmed to be effective, they will be ready for large-scale, long-term adoption across universities, and would also be potentially applicable to schools, which would need to undergo a similar trial period. During implementation, the continuous, long-term evaluation of the method's effectiveness must continue, which will enable educational institutions and educators themselves to assess ongoing improvements in their students' English speaking skills. As Swain and Johnson (1996) note, such a process is crucial to the effective implementation of new L2 teaching strategies and practices. Mid-course errors may be highlighted, which will need to be addressed immediately once detected to ensure that such activities and programmes continue to benefit students. Methods to motivate and prepare students to make an extra effort to use the recommended books for structured ER outside of the classroom environment need to be established. It should become routine practice when they study an English course, just as they might read interesting books in Arabic during their leisure time. The development of a new curriculum focused on these factors would be the ultimate outcome of this process. This would also require educational institutions to engage with government bodies in Saudi Arabia to ensure that effective policy is implemented to support those activities and programmes.

6.3.2 For the government of Saudi Arabia

It is crucial that Saudi Arabia's citizens gain English language skills in order to become an intrinsic part of a rapidly globalising world. Enacting policies to achieve this will help to improve EFL teaching and learning approaches in Saudi universities. The Ministry of Education would benefit by forming collaborations with other qualified international government education agencies and English language institutions, and funding research that would fully explore the possibilities of integrating ER and OR activities into Saudi educational institutions.

Standards and guidelines for structured ER with a list of recommended books appropriate to different abilities – such as graded readers – would need to be developed with the assistance of experts and respected educational organisations. The availability of the recommended books needs to be ensured by encouraging imports and supplying book dealers through a centralised agency. Free online resources for students will also be highly beneficial, and can be privatised if preferred.

The government will need to provide Saudi English teachers with additional training to plan and implement class-level interventions with structured ER and opportunities for students to practice their speaking skills through OR. This would equip them with the skills to provide students with an excellent alternative to the form of one-way pedagogy that is typical in Saudi classrooms, creating new approaches to teaching that would inspire students to communicate in English. Once policies and funds for such training are in place, this task can be handed over to the institutions themselves. Above all, teachers need to feel confident when applying what they have learned during their training.

6.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research

There were a number of methodological limitations to this study that impact on the generalisability of the findings, and which present avenues for future research by researchers in the field of SLA. Firstly, the study was restricted to male students, and as such, it is not known whether the findings are applicable to all universities and to both genders. Undertaking research involving both genders in Saudi Arabia is difficult due to the traditional gender separation that typically means that male researchers cannot work with female students, and vice versa (Al-Bakr et al., 2017). As such, it would be pertinent to conduct similar studies with female university students of their

perceptions and experience of ER and OR and any gender differences. Second, the study was based on a single university, and the results may therefore not be generalisable across different institutions and faculties. Future research could also be replicated simultaneously across multiple locations to show differences between universities.

Further, the group under study was fairly homogenous in terms of age and ethnicity, and future research involving students with different demographics could be warranted. It should therefore be noted that any inferences made about the effectiveness of the ER + OR intervention on learners from different backgrounds should be treated with caution. Another limitation relates to the duration of the ER and ER + OR interventions, which were held across one semester. One recommendation might be to replicate the same study in the future, but increase the intervention duration to at least two semesters, and possibly an entire year. It is possible that different findings would arise from such a study, including potentially greater improvements in English speaking accuracies based on vocabulary and grammar. Future research could also focus on other aspects of speaking accuracies, such as other IELTS speaking criteria of pronunciation, fluency and coherence.

Another limitation relates to the sample sizes used in this study, with each of the intervention groups being between 30 and 33 students, and the focus groups involving only six students. While these were relatively small, they were adequate for the interventions. However, other studies using larger sample sizes could be beneficial in future research, as this would provide better confirmation of the findings of this thesis. Further, a larger sample size for the focus group could provide potentially deeper insights into the perceived outcomes of ER + OR interventions, such as greater self-confidence.

A further limitation relates to the potential for response bias in the surveys. There was no stipulation that forbade participants in the three groups from interacting with one another, especially outside of class hours. Being cognisant of the progress of participants in other groups might have influenced post-phase responses in this study. Implementing the trial in three different institutions may solve this bias, and should be considered for future studies.

The survey responses were restricted to the measurement of attitudes and perceptions only, presenting another limitation. In future research, other cognitive factors, such as motivation to read, may induce at least some of the participants of a control group to adopt ER in the absence of an intervention, especially if they can see the advantages from their interaction with classmates in other groups. Further, the impact of ER with or without OR, or the impact of only OR on the development of other language skills or components would be worth investigating comprehensively in future research. For example, the impact of ER with or without OR on the development of EFL speaking fluency and pronunciation could be a useful future research topic.

The study did not probe deeply into the quantitative increases in vocabulary or grammatical accuracy achieved by undertaking ER during the intervention period against the targets fixed by the graded readers. For example, some graded readers have target vocabularies, but whether the experimental groups met these targets was not established. These measurements could have substantiated the arguments presented in the discussions of the findings, rather than making potential assumptions. Future research needs to address this limitation.

Other studies involving different EFL curricular materials and ER texts would also provide deeper insights into the use of ER, and similar interventions using both ER and OR could provide further insights into the usefulness of the ER + OR intervention from different approaches. Individual researchers may have their own ideas as to how best develop such interventions in ways that differ from this study, and this research could provide a useful point of comparison. This might involve the use of different materials such as e-books or other online texts, all of which could be used to evaluate potential differences between the findings of this study and those that take a different approach.

The study is also limited in its focus on answering the specific research question about students' attitudes/perceptions towards the interventions, and did not examine the attitudes of the instructors. This could also be an area for future research, and would determine the acceptance of ER + OR as a pedagogical approach, which ultimately will influence its uptake in universities.

Finally, the possibility of integrating of Krashen's (1981, 1982) and Swain's (1985) hypotheses to understand the effect of ER and ER + OR in EFL learning was

derived from the findings, but should be further investigated and tested in the different settings and conditions described above. Research on whether the integration of the two hypotheses is possible in different intervention contexts is required in future studies, and would present a strong body of research in this area that could provide new theories on SLA based on both the input and output hypotheses.

6.5 Conclusion

This research has comprehensively shown that the speaking accuracies of EFL students at a university in Saudi Arabia improve when certain activities are implemented in the classroom – those being a combination of ER and oral reporting. From the results, it is evident that, when used together, ER and oral reporting have great potential to foster speaking skills by providing learners with meaningful input, which encourages them to produce output that, through trial and error, leads them towards improved speaking accuracies. By focusing on vocabulary and grammatical accuracy as two key components of speaking accuracies, the study has shown that EFL students who learn in classrooms where reading, communication and interaction are encouraged will find that they become more competent, self-confident English speakers. This will open them up to the possibilities provided when one learns a foreign language, especially in the case of English – the language of international communication. Students who become proficient in English can go on to undertake further studies, attend international educational institutions, and find employment in English-speaking countries. They will contribute to Saudi Arabia's place on the global stage, and reap the benefits and possibilities that EFL acquisition offers. With further research and the implementation of EFL programmes that focus on a combination of ER and oral reporting, the English speaking accuracies of Saudi learners can only improve. Establishing these programmes will be essential for overcoming the current issues associated with teaching and learning in Saudi universities, offering profound, positive implications for the future of the Saudi educational system.

Self-reflection

The actual point at which it can truly be said that a person has been born is not when they first depart from their mother's body and enter the world, but rather the point at which they begin their project. In my case, I was born when I began my PhD at Newcastle University, an experience that has been both stimulating and satisfying, on an individual level and in terms of my studies. It has been one of the most noteworthy and challenging periods of my life, a time in which I have been immensely supported by my family in working towards the goal of finishing my PhD study on time.

My PhD journey began in September 2014, my first academic year, and what would be one of the most demanding years of my educational life. It is worth mentioning the role that the HASS Faculty Training Program has played in improving my research skills in all areas. In this programme, I have attended most of the programme modules, such as those focusing on qualitative and quantitative methods, the nature of explanation and enquiry and managing a PhD module. In addition, I have attended seminars presented in the School of Education, Communication and Language Sciences, as well as some workshops provided by the HASS Post Graduate Training Skills Enhancement programme.

My research skills developed most markedly during my PhD studies. Even though the most obvious personal improvement took place in the area of research skills, my sense of ease in using the English language, particularly in relation to analytical writing, has also advanced considerably. This development can be attributed predominantly to a comprehensive reading schedule and the frequency with which I have been writing in English as well.

One of the most significant challenges during my PhD study has been the issue of good time management. In my first year, for example, I had to pass the first-year modules, as well as developing my research proposal as well. I therefore had plenty to do in a limited amount of time, and it is fair to say that there were some challenging times over the course of the year. I have faced many challenges and problems, but I have tried my best to manage these appropriately, and, ultimately, everything turned out fine. This invaluable academic year has had a strong influence on my personality in general. My self-confidence and self-esteem have been dramatically enhanced. During the year, I was driven to continue by my ambitions, and to motivate myself

during the final stages of studying, I repeatedly told myself that in the end I would be holding a PhD certificate. The most beneficial aspect of that first year was more than just gaining a pass with distinction; it was the idea that first-year modules, along with my reading, had greatly increased my knowledge of scientific research, and in my area of inquiry.

During my second and third years, the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (HASS) Research Training Programme provided an invaluable experience, with the induction programme for second and third year post-graduates being a personal highlight. I have maximised my participation in some modules such as *Research in the Wider Context,* including taking advantage of the sessions entitled *Publishing and Disseminating Academic Work for Social Sciences* and *The Societal Impact in HASS,* both of which I found to be very beneficial. I also found the course entitled *Using NVivo to Analyse Text Based Data*, from the *NVivo 10 Training Opportunities* module to be extremely helpful in my studies. Additionally, I attended some useful conferences in the UK.

My research strategy greatly improved in the second year, as evidenced by the transformation my research proposal has undergone between the first draft stage and the latest version, through a process of radical revision and continual enhancement.

At the beginning of the third year, I travelled back to my home country to carry out the experiment and collect the data for my PhD research project. Despite being a challenging experience over the three-month period, it was very interesting and enjoyable. I faced difficulties in convincing the participants to contribute properly in the experiment. However, in the end, everything went smoothly, and the experiment was a success. In other words, I found the process interesting and the results valuable.

One of the most challenging aspects of the third year was moving to a new house. I recall the moment I received an email from the homeowner asking me to move out of the house within one month. It had a very negative influence on my daily routine. I encountered many complications and impediments as a result, but by working through them with careful management and thorough organisation, positive progress was ultimately made.

The year-long writing up period was another exciting and challenging stage. However, because I already had a well written proposal and clear reports of my results,

the writing up phase became easier to some extent. In addition, the systematic review of the literature I have completed has helped me to write the discussion chapter with a lot of confidence.

I have learned that a PhD is not simply a well written piece of scientific research; rather, it is a process of building new, positive habits and creating inspiration. For me, finishing my PhD means one project has been completed, and it is time for another to begin. It is the starting point in contributing further to scientific research and engaging in this work on a deeper level.

Since I am approaching the end of this stage, I am very excited about returning to teaching and conducting post-doctoral research at my university in Saudi Arabia. In addition, one of my future aims is to launch the Extensive Reading Initiative in Saudi Arabia. This project would enhance learning and teaching English as a foreign language in the country. Furthermore, it is compatible with the objectives and goals of Saudi vision 2030.

I would like to conclude by thanking my tutor Dr. Lin for her unflinching help, assistance and thoughtful suggestions during my PhD study. Being able to witness her amazing scientific prowess at first hand, as well as her incredible personal characteristics, has been an opportunity for which I am truly grateful and humbled.

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Appendix A: Ethical Approval

Subject:	Ethics Form Completed for Project: An Investigation into the Impact of Extensive Reading Activities on t
From:	Policy & Information Team, Newcastle University (noreply@limeservice.com)
To:	aamashy@yahoo.com;
Date:	Thursday, May 12, 2016 1:02 AM

Ref: 6686/2016

Thank you for submitting the ethical approval form for the project 'An Investigation into the Impact of Extensive Reading Activities on the Development of EFL Speaking Skills: A Quasi-Experimental Study of Saudi University Students' (Lead Investigator:Abduh Almashy). Expected to run from 25/07/2016 to 24/10/2016.

Based on your answers the University Ethics Committee grants its approval for your project to progress. Please be aware that if you make any significant changes to your project then you should complete this form again as further review may be required. If you have any queries please contact res.policy@ncl.ac.uk

Best wishes

Policy & Information Team, Newcastle University Research Office

res.policy@ncl.ac.uk

Appendix B: University Certification for Conducting the Experimental Study

To Whom It May Concern

This is to certify that Mr. Abduh Almashy has conducted the experimental study and the data collection for his research project from 29/09/2016 to 19/12/2016.

Dr. Ahmad Alsharif

Department of English,

Appendix C: Authorisation Letter to Conduct the Study
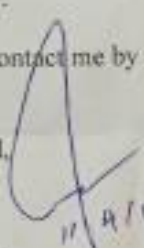
To Whom it May Concern

This letter confirms that Mr. Abduh Almashy is authorized to conduct the research project entitled "An Investigation into the Impact of Extensive Reading Activities upon the Development of EFL Speaking Accuracy Skills: A Quasi Experimental Study of Saudi University Students". The study will be conducted at our department during the summer semester of the current academic year 2015/16, and the first semester of the next academic year 2016/17.

Please do feel free to contact me by e-mail, should you need any further information.

Respectfully submitted,

Dr. Ahmad Alsharif

dr.aalsharif@hotmail.com

Head of The English Department

Appendix D: Newcastle University Data Collection Letter

Newcastle University

King George VI Building
Schools of Education, Communication
and Language Sciences
Newcastle University
Newcastle NE1 7RU

21th June, 2016

To who it may concern

Abduh Almashy

I am writing to confirm that **Abduh Almashy** is registered as a full time PhD student at the School of Education, Communication and Language Sciences at Newcastle University, UK. He has successfully passed this year's panel, and he is planning to travel to Saudi Arabia to collect data for his research project from 20/9/2016 to 9/1/2017. The ethical approval of his project has been granted from the university on 12/5/2016 and Abduh has also got the authorization letter to conduct his research project at the English department _ University College Alqunfutha _ Umm Al-Qura University.

May I take this opportunity to thank you for all the support you have given him for his research.

Best regards

Dr Mei Lin
Supervisor
Director for the programme of MA in Applied Linguistics and TESOL

Email: mei.lin@ncl.ac.uk

School of Education,
Communication &
Language Sciences

Appendix E: Participant Consent Form

Participant Consent Form

An Investigation into the Impact of Extensive Reading Activities on the Development of EFL Speaking Skills: A Quasi-Experimental Study of Saudi University Students

Researcher: Abduh Almashy
Supervisor: Dr Mei Lin
Institution: Newcastle University

Email: aamasjhy@yahoo.com
Phone: 00966503746451

Part 1: Information Sheet

Introduction

Dear Speaking and Listening Level 4 students,

My name is Abduh Almashy and I am in the process of completing a doctoral research programme at Newcastle University, UK. My research examines how different activities impact the development of English language speaking skills. I am writing to invite you to consider participating in a research project studying the effectiveness of an extensive reading programme, an approach to foreign language learning, on EFL skills. This form outlines the purpose and nature of this study so that you can decide whether or not you would like to participate. You are free to choose to participate or not and non-participation will have no consequences. If you do decide to participate, please sign the attached form and return it to me. If you have any questions, please contact me using the contact details provided above.

Purpose of the Study

English as a Foreign Language teaching is an important part of education in Saudi Arabia. This study investigates whether reading one simplified text and presenting an oral book report every week for 10 weeks is beneficial for Saudi university students' English speaking skills.

Type of Research Intervention

Participation in this research will involve reading one simplified English language book per week, and attending one class per week in addition to normal Speaking and Listening Level 4 classes. This additional class will last for three hours during which time that week's text will be discussed.

Participant Selection

You and the members of your class have been selected for this study as you will be completing the Speaking and Listening Level 4 course this semester. You will be one of 30 students participating in this study.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Non-participation in the study will have no effect on your participation in the Speaking and Listening Level 4 course, which will continue as normal, or any other aspect of your university education. If you do decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time for any reason, and you can request that any data gathered on you is destroyed.

Procedure:

You will engage in an extensive reading activity once a week for 10 weeks, running concurrent with the Speaking and Listening Level 4 course.

The class will last for three hours.

A total of 30 students will take part in the extensive reading activity.

Each week, students will select a book to read from the Oxford Bookworms library. Students will read the book independently during the week, either at home or in the library.

After reading the book, students will present a three-minute individual book report to the group during the weekly class.

Students will then be divided into pairs and will discuss the book for four minutes.

Next, the full group of 30 students will hold a group discussion lasting 20 minutes.

A pre-intervention IELTS speaking test will be administered in the week before the start of the activity.

A post-intervention IELTS speaking test will be administered at the end of the activity.

You will be asked to fill out a short questionnaire about your attitude towards the activity, which will take five minutes.

You will be asked to participate in a one-on-one oral interview about your experiences in the activity, which will take approximately 30 minutes.

Your speaking tests and interview will be recorded.

All activities will take place on the university campus.

Length of the Study

The study will last for 10 weeks. Each class will last for three hours. You will also be asked to read one book each week in your own time.

Confidentiality

All of the information collected in this study will be recorded anonymously and will not be linked to you in any way. Identifying information in recordings or transcripts will be removed. All data will be used only for research purposes and only for this study. All recordings and information will be kept on a password-protected computer accessible only to the researcher. All data will be destroyed on completion of the study.

Sharing the Results

The results of this study will be presented in a PhD thesis and, potentially, through publication in an academic journal. If you would like to read the final results or be informed of the findings, please let me know and this can be arranged.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

You have the right to refuse to participate in this study. If you do decide to participate, you have the right to withdraw at any time without consequences. You have the right to access your interview transcripts after the interview, and to make any amendments that you feel necessary if you feel you have been misunderstood or misrepresented.

Who to Contact

If you have any questions or concerns now or at any time throughout the study process, please contact me at: aamashy@yahoo.com

This research is approved by Newcastle University and is overseen by Dr Mei Lin who can be contacted at: mei.lin@ncl.ac.uk

If you agree to participate in this study, please fill out the consent form on the following page and return it to me in person or via email.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Abduh Almashy

Consent form

Statement by the participant

I have read and understood the information provided above or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily consent to participate in this study entitled 'An Investigation into the Impact of Extensive Reading Activities on the Development of EFL Speaking Skills: A Quasi=Experimental Study of Saudi University Students'.

Yes ❏   No ❏

Print Name of Participant:_____

Signature of Participant: _____

Date: _____   Day/month/year

Statement by the researcher/person obtaining consent

I have verbally explained the research to the potential participant and allowed them adequate time to read the Information Sheet.

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and consent has thus been given voluntarily.

A copy of this Information Sheet has been provided to the participant.

Print Name of Researcher: Abduh Almashy

Signature of Researcher: _____

Date: _____   Day/month/year

The Extensive Reading Foundation's
Guide to Extensive Reading

Extensive Reading Foundation

www.erfoundation.org

What is Extensive Reading?

When students read extensively, they read very easy, enjoyable books to build their reading speed and reading fluency. The aim of Extensive Reading is to help the student become better at the skill of reading rather than reading to study the language itself. When students are reading extensively they READ:

Read quickly and

Enjoyably with

Adequate comprehension so they

Don't need a dictionary

In order to read quickly and fluently (at least 150-200 words per minute or a little lower for beginning students), the reading must be easy. If there is too much unknown language on the page, it creates problems which slow the natural movement of the eye and affect comprehension and turn the fluent reading into a form of 'study reading'.

Extensive Reading is sometimes known as Graded Reading or Sustained Silent Reading.

Why do Extensive Reading?

There are many reasons why Extensive Reading is good for language development. Extensive Reading:

1. allows students to meet the language in its natural context and see how it works in extended discourse beyond the language met in textbooks
2. builds vocabulary. When students read a lot, they meet thousands of words and lexical (word) patterns time and time again which helps them master them and predict what vocabulary and grammar may come next.
3. helps students to build reading speed and reading fluency which allows them to process the language more automatically leaving space in memory for other things
4. builds confidence, motivation, enjoyment and a love of reading which makes students more effective language users. It also helps lower any anxieties about language learning the students may have.
5. allows students to read or listen to a lot of English at or about their own ability level so they can develop good reading and listening habits
6. helps students get a sense of how grammatical patterns work in context. Textbooks and other study materials introduce language patterns but typically they don't appear often enough in a variety of contexts to facilitate a deep understanding of how the patterns work.

The Extensive Reading Foundation

The Extensive Reading Foundation (ERF) is a not-for-profit, charitable organization whose purpose is to support and promote Extensive Reading (ER). One ERF initiative is the annual Language Learner Literature Award for the best new graded readers in English. Another is maintaining a bibliography of research on Extensive Reading. The Foundation is also interested in helping educational institutions set up Extensive Reading programs through grants that fund the purchase of books and other reading material. The ERF also provides many other services that promote good practice in Extensive Reading. This Guide to Extensive Reading is free and is available for download from our website (www.erfoundation.org).

1

Extensive Reading and Intensive Reading

There is a difference between 'learning to read' and 'reading to learn'. Both of these are valid forms of reading but they have different aims. When students 'read to learn' (Intensive Reading) they are reading a text to learn something about the language itself – maybe a new word, some grammar and so on. We could call it 'study reading'. This is the typical reading many students do in their textbooks. The passages are short and often have a lot of language the students don't know. There are typically pre- and post-reading activities and comprehension questions as well. The aim of this reading is to help teach the language or a reading skill such as guessing the topic of an article from its title, or to give examples of say, the past tense which the students will then study intensively.

When students 'learn to read' (Extensive Reading), they are practicing the skill of reading by reading for information – reading a story book for example with the aim of enjoying the reading without consciously knowing they are learning. The aim is to build reading fluency - not necessarily to learn new things (although they may learn some), and to deepen their knowledge of already met language items and to get a better sense of how these fit together communicatively. This allows them to process language faster and improves comprehension and enjoyment. Students can also 'learn to read' by building their set of reading skills and strategies and by doing speed reading activities designed to improve comprehension speed and overall fluency.

These two forms of reading are complementary. Intensive Reading introduces new language items to the students, while Extensive Reading helps the students practice and get a deeper knowledge of them. The former can be compared with doing driving lessons at a school, the latter with actually driving on the road. Both are necessary. Extensive Reading is usually done with graded readers.

What are Graded Readers?

Graded Readers (also called 'Readers') are books (both fiction and non-fiction) written especially for language learners to build their reading speed and fluency and to give them chances to practice 'real' reading for pleasure. They are called 'graded' readers because they are written according to a pedagogical syllabus which has increasing grades, or levels, of difficulty. They are graded through tight control of the plot, vocabulary, and grammar and judicious use of images. Native books have many words which appear only one or two times whereas publishers control the vocabulary in graded readers to get rid of low frequency words and to make useful words appear more frequently to help learning. Graded Readers are not to be confused with books written for school year 'grades'.

A series of graded readers may have say, 6-8 difficulty levels from 'Starter' to 'Advanced' with dozens of books at each level each of approximately equal difficulty. The Starter level books have a very limited vocabulary of highly frequent words and phrases and the simplest grammar. They complement and recycle much of the language students would meet in their 'Starter' level textbook. Elementary level books have slightly more difficult vocabulary and grammar, a more complex plot and fewer illustrations, and matches the language taught in elementary level textbooks. The Intermediate level books are more difficult - and so on up to the Advanced levels. In this way, graded readers help students to 'step-up' their learning by building on previously learnt knowledge and skills.

There are currently thousands of these books available from dozens of publishers worldwide. A comprehensive list of graded reader series is available on the Extensive Reading Foundation website (www.erfoundation.org).

What are the benefits of using graded readers?

Graded readers:

- allow students to meet lots of comprehensible language
- allow students to 'step-up' their reading ability gradually level by level
- provide motivating interesting reading materials
- are a bridge to the eventual reading of native-level reading materials

Kinds of Extensive Reading

Most Extensive Reading courses have students choose their own book at or about their own fluent reading level. This means all students are reading something different, and in their own 'comfort zone'. We might call this individualized reading, or self-selected reading and this is sometimes called Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) or Drop Everything and Read (DEAR). Students select their books from the library (often with guidance from the teacher to ensure they are reading at the right level and at an appropriate speed) and either read it in a silent reading time in class, or take it home to read.

Some courses have students read the same book either together in class or as homework, often chapter by chapter over several lessons. In this type of Extensive Reading, typically the teacher prepares the students for the reading with pre-reading activities such as predicting the content or maybe teaching a few key words. The reading is often followed by comprehension questions, discussion and maybe some language work or other activities.

The reading can be considered 'extensive' only when the students are reading quickly, with high levels of comprehension and without needing a dictionary. If the reading is too slow it probably means the students need to use their dictionaries often, and so this type of reading isn't considered 'extensive'.

Reading at the right level

In order for students to benefit from their Extensive Reading, they should be reading at an appropriate difficulty level and at a good speed (150-200 words per minute or a little lower for beginning students) with a major aim of practicing the skill of reading itself.

Reading Pain	Intensive reading	Extensive reading	Speed reading practice
(too hard, poor comprehension, high effort, de-motivating)	(Instructional level, can learn new word and grammar)	(fast, fluent, adequate comprehension, enjoyable)	(very fast, fluent, high comprehension, natural reading, enjoyable)

Low   90%   98%   100%
% of known vocabulary

Slow ⟶ High
Reading speed

Low ⟶ High
Comprehension

Research indicates that if the students know about 98% of the words on a page, then they can read it quickly and with high levels of comprehension. Below 90% (one unknown word in 10) the reading becomes frustrating and slow requiring a lot of dictionary use and comprehension suffers badly. The reading is at an 'instructional' level when the students know between 90% and 98% of the words on a page. At this difficulty level, they will know enough of the surrounding language that they will have adequate comprehension but will still need to look up many words if they wish to understand the text better. If the students know 98% or more of the words, then they are in the extensive reading 'sweet spot' and can read quickly enough because there isn't so much unknown language slowing them down and so they can read enjoyably. If the students know everything, or almost everything, on the page, they can then read it very quickly and can use it to build reading speed and their natural reading ability.

Teachers should match the difficulty of the text with the aim of the reading. Students should read at the Instructional level if they wish to learn new things, or in the reading 'sweet spot' when the aim is to build

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reading speed and fluency. Whether a given text is 'instructional' or in the 'sweet spot' depends on the ability of the students themselves. Not all students in a class will read at the same level and so a given text might be very frustrating to a low ability student, but very easy for a high ability student.

Using 'authentic' books

'Authentic' reading materials (those written for native speakers of English) are usually not the best materials with which to teach foreign language learners to read. These are written for English-speaking children or teens who already know thousands of words and most of the grammar of English before they start to read. English language students don't have this knowledge and usually find authentic books very difficult. Until the students can read these native-level materials without too much trouble, students should use graded readers.

Selecting the right book

Selecting appropriate reading materials can help build reading confidence, reading ability and build a life-long love of reading in English. Conversely, selecting inappropriate materials can lead to a vicious circle of poor reading.

"The vicious circle of the weak reader"

doesn't understand

reads slowly

doesn't read much

doesn't enjoy reading

"The virtuous circle of the good reader"

understands better

reads faster

reads more

enjoys reading
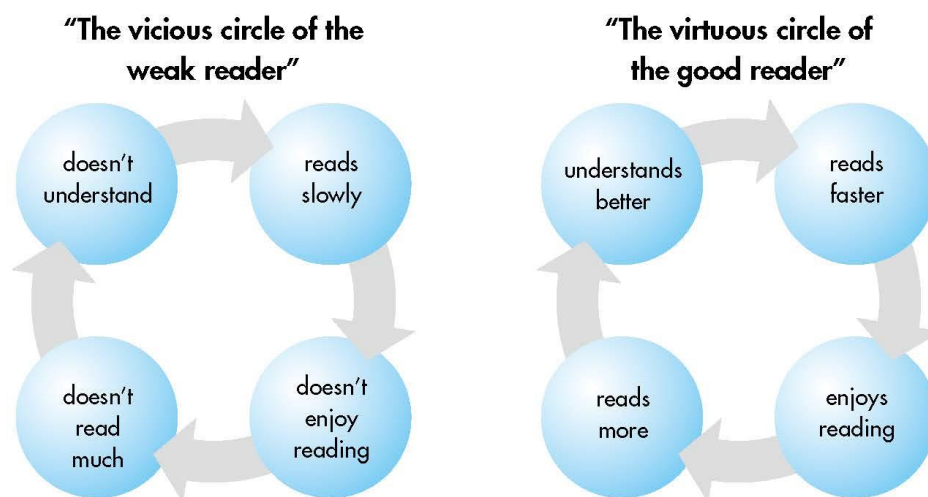
It's therefore essential that students choose something in their 'comfort zone'-one in which they can read smoothly, quickly, enjoyably and with very high levels of comprehension. Because only the students know what they can and can't cope with, selecting the right book is the student's decision. Teachers must be flexible about allowing students to read at their own ability level, where they feel most comfortable. The teacher's role here is to provide guidance about the most suitable titles. It is therefore important teachers have read many of the books in their library.

Teachers should be careful to watch that students do not choose their books too quickly. The students should:

- read some of the book itself, not only look at the title, cover and illustrations
- choose something interesting to read. If the book becomes boring or too difficult, they should put it down and read something else
- find something they can read at about 150-200 words per minute
- choose something they can read without a dictionary
- be able to understand almost everything in the book

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Planning and setting up an Extensive Reading program

Implementing an Extensive Reading program takes time and commitment. It's not hard to do, but it needs to be done carefully. Extensive Reading programs should have clear objectives and a vision and be structured to demonstrate the commitment of the school and teachers to the program so that students know the reading is important. A good Extensive Reading program should be able to survive lost materials, insufficient resources, and a general lessening in enthusiasm after the highs of the 'big start'.

To be successful, an Extensive Reading program should ideally:

- involve everyone – students, teachers, and maybe even parents
- be part of the teaching timetable and be seen as an essential part of the curriculum
- involve students in its set up and management
- have funding for new reading materials
- have a variety of interesting materials at appropriate levels
- have systems for cataloging, labeling, checking out, recording and returning reading materials
- have clear language learning objectives
- have ways to assess the reading

STEP 1 : Planning your library – 'Think Big, Start Small'

'Think big, start small' means imagining what the Extensive Reading program might look like in five years time. The program needs to be designed so it can grow each year. You will have to answer these (and more) questions:

- How much do students need to read, and how often?
- Should class time be allocated to this? If so, how much and when?
- How many books do we need to cover different levels of abilities and interests?
- Should we integrate Extensive Reading into an existing class, or have a special Extensive Reading class?
- Where should we keep the books? How should we manage the library?
- When, and how often, do students change their books?
- How do we assess the students?
- How do we find money for this?
- Who is responsible for running this program?

Teachers can maximize the amount of reading time by asking students to read both out of class and in class. Some teachers set aside a whole class, or part of a class as a silent reading time so they can monitor the students' reading. If class time is not available, students can read at home, or wherever they like. However, a little class time is needed to allow students to change their books and for the teacher to monitor the reading. Teachers should set a certain time every day/or week when the library is open for students to change their books. It is usually a good idea to start extensive reading in class making sure that learners do it and learn how to do it properly and eventually it can be done as homework.

How much should they read? How many books do I need?
Schools typically ask students to read about one book a week or more. The following equation may help you to decide how many books you need.

$$\text{number of ER classes} \times \text{number of students per class} \times \text{number of books per student} = \text{The number of books needed}$$

For example, a school with four Extensive Reading classes each with 30 students, who each need 3 books to select from, needs 360 books. You might also need class sets of some titles for class reading, so for this school with 120 students, 400-500 books is a good number to cover lost and damaged books. The bulk of your library should be at about the level of your average student with slightly fewer books below and above this level so all students are catered for. If not much money is available, you may need to start with fewer books, in which case

one book per student is acceptable. It's often wise to spend only 80% of your budget initially and spend the rest to adjust your library once you know what materials are most needed.

STEP 2 : Setting up the library – 'Be Practical and Realistic'

Students need to know how to use the Extensive Reading library, how to check out and return a graded reader using a clear and simple system everyone can understand.

Choosing the books
A wide selection of interesting books is needed to satisfy the needs of different students. Every year, the Extensive Reading Foundation gives its Language Learner Literature Awards to the best graded readers published in that year. These are listed on the website (www.erfoundation.org).

Your library should include:

- both fiction and non-fiction age-appropriate graded readers
- a wide range of topics and genres, including romance, detective, drama, thrillers etc.
- a wide range of books at different levels of difficulty, that suit the level of your school's population
- books that will interest students 5-15 years from now
- some class sets of popular readers, for class reading

There are several options about where to keep the books.

The library	The school library is the best place because they have book borrowing systems already set up. However, not all libraries have the space or staff for a huge increase in book borrowing.
A bookcase	Many teachers keep the books in a bookcase in the classroom, or the teacher's room or even better, a special room only for extensive reading and listening.
Cart	A cart with books on it is easy to move from room to room.
Book boxes / bags	If several classes share the same books, you may wish to split your books into separate boxes or bags to carry to class and every few weeks exchange boxes to ensure variety.

If you have a class set of books all with the same title, keep them separate from the main library or in the teacher's room so that the students don't read them before you use them in class.

Cataloging the books
The publishers of graded readers use different leveling systems for each series of graded readers so you will need to make your own leveling system. Your program will need a level system of about 6-8 levels from easy to difficult. The Extensive Reading Foundation Graded Reading Scale on page 16 shows how some different series from various publishers complement each other.

One simple way to identify books by their levels is to color code each book by putting colored tape or labels on part of the spine. For example, Level 1 books could be marked yellow, Level 2 books marked blue, and so on. Alternatively, you could label the books using a numbering system - level 1, 2, 3 and so on. This allows students to quickly find books at their level and for you to put them in the right place in your library easily. It's not always necessary to make borrowing cards for each book. A simple unique number written inside the front cover of each book will be enough to identify that book. For example, a book numbered G-025 tells you it's a green level book number 25 (or 3-067 tells you it's at level 3, book number 67).

Organizing a book borrowing system
There are several ways to do this - from a very open system, to a very carefully controlled one. An example of a very open system is to allow students to borrow books from a public place whenever they like, and return them after they have finished with them. However, honesty systems tend to lead to a lot of 'lost' books. A more controlled system, and the one that is most widely used, is to have students borrow and return books only at the same time each week. Here are two simple ways to do this.

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In Example 1 below, the teacher prepares a single piece of paper for the whole class. Each student records the code for the books they borrow each week against their name and date. When books are returned, the teacher crosses it out to show the book was returned. The advantage of this system is that teachers can see not only which book each student is reading, but the level, too. In the example below, if today is June 7th, we know Ko, Hui-Chia has returned all her books; Miguel still has book Y-072 from May 23rd; and Antonio was absent last week.

Name	May 23	May 30	June 7	June 14	....
Ko, Hui-Chia	Y-012	Y-167	G-024		
Maldini, Antonio	P-034	X	G-024		
Oliviera, Miguel	Y-072	Y-059	G-024		

Example 2 has a separate sheet for each student. This allows the student to keep a portfolio of their reading. We can also track the number of pages read and note that the student has moved up from the green level (G-145) to the blue level (B-023). A column has been added for students to write a short comment about the book.

Name: Fukumoto, Aya   **Student Number:** 12345 **Class:** _____

Title	Reader number	Date borrowed	Date returned	Number of pages read	Comment
Kung Fu Kid	G-084	April 13	April 20	16	Very enjoyable, but a little easy
I Spy	G-145	April 20	April 27	24	Exciting and fun
Anne of Green Gables	B-023	April 27			

STEP 3 : Introducing Extensive Reading – 'Step-by-Step'

Teachers should introduce the ER program well so that it starts well. Students are usually busy people who may have other classes, a full-time job, or a family (or all of these!) and may not have much time for this reading. Also many students have never read a whole book in English or don't like reading at all and so may be reluctant to read even if they know it is good for them. Below is a suggested scheme for introducing ER smoothly to students new to ER. There are two main steps - introducing ER with class readers, and then moving on to self-selected reading. These steps are designed to not overwhelm the students initially and gradually build to self-selected reading.

The first step – Whole Class Reading
This first stage models ER by asking students to do some reading as a class so they get used to the idea of reading a longer text. The teacher should start by choosing a very easy book – one that even the weakest student can read so then all students will be able to grasp the notion of ER. You will need multiple copies of the same book, at least one for every two students. The aim at this stage is to make the reading easy and focus on enjoyment and quick reading so you can later contrast it with the more difficult reading they are probably doing in their textbook.

Day 1.
1. Show the book to the students. Ask them to look at the book. You may want to point out any important features of the book and ask them to predict what the book may be about.
2. They read a few pages silently to a pre-set point e.g. the end of the first chapter. They close their books and give them to you. (Alternatively, they could listen to the story being read aloud from the audio recording).
3. Write some simple questions on the board (even in the students' first language) such as 'Who are the characters?' 'Where does the story take place?' 'What is happening?' 'What will happen next?' and so on.
4. Ask them to answer the questions with their partner, and then answer them as a class.

Day 2.
5. Remind students of the story from the previous class. They predict what will happen next.
6. Read a few more pages with them, and follow up with a few simple questions.

Day 3. 7. Continue this for a few classes until the book is finished.

8. Ask what they thought of the story and how this reading is different from the reading passages in their textbook.

9. Explain to them the aim of this type of reading is not to study language but for them to practice reading and build reading speed and the reason they can do this is that it's easy. You may need to tell them that even though they know most of the language in the book, they are still learning because they are practicing their reading and picking up their reading speed.

Repeat these steps with other books until the students get the idea of easy reading.

The second step – Self-selected Reading
When students are used to their easy reading as a class, it is time to introduce them to self-selected reading.

Stage 1 – Student orientation
This stage allows the teacher to explain to students why this type of reading is important. This is a good time to emphasize that the textbook and the Extensive Reading should work together, and to remind them that they need to read for fun so they can put the language they learn in their textbook into practice.

Stage 2 – Student's first book
Put a selection of the easiest books from your library on a table for students to look at, and let them look through them. Explain to the students that they can choose any book they want to read but it should be at their ability level. See page 4.

At this early stage, point out the features of your cataloging system:

- How the books are leveled (for example, using a color coding system, or numbers).
- The numbering system used to catalogue individual books.
- How students borrow and return their books.
- How students decide what level they should read.

Once students have decided their reading level and chosen a book, they read silently in a silent reading time for about 10-15 minutes while the teacher goes around the class quietly asking questions. 'How is the book?' 'Is the level OK?' 'Is it easy for you?' 'Is it enjoyable?' 'Do you understand it?' and so on. If it's not suitable, allow them to change their book.

Then ask students to check out the book. They can bring it to every class (you may find a few minutes at the end or beginning of a class which you can use as a silent reading time).

Stage 3 – Out of class reading
After students have read a few books in class, explain that they need to read out of class too. Initially, this can be for a very short period, for example 20 minutes a week. Slowly increase the amount of reading each week over the course or even a full year until they are reading one book a week.

When students finish their book the students should:

- discuss it with other students or do other follow-up activities (see pages 13-15)
- return it to the 'book drop box' and choose another one
- help the teacher to check in books and return them to where they are stored

Evaluating Extensive Reading

Teachers often feel they should check students' understanding of their reading directly through tests and quizzes or even just to assess whether the reading has been done. In Extensive Reading, as long as students are reading a book at their level, there is then no need to test their comprehension. This is because part of the decision about which book to read involved making sure they could understand most of the book before reading it. Extensive Reading is not about testing. It is about helping students to build their reading speed and fluency, and become more confident readers in English. These things are not always testable directly. However, many institutions insist on formal assessment of the reading and so this section presents some ideas for assessment.

Online test of graded readers

Teachers want to know the students have actually read their books. One way to do this is to give each of them a test but this is difficult to do when each student is reading a different book. On the Extensive Reading Foundation website there is a free online graded reader testing system which can do this. Teachers set up an account for their class and assign a login name and password. The student logs in and selects the book they have been reading, they take the test and are told if they pass or fail. The teacher is told how many and which books their students read and whether they passed the test or not and the students build up a "stamp collection" of book covers which enhances their motivation to read.

For more details go to www.erfoundation.org/assessment.html

Indirect assessment

1. Book reports, summaries, presentations and posters

Students can write or present oral book reports and summaries or make posters and presentations that summarize the content of the book. They could also comment on the characters in the book, the plot, or their reactions to it. Lower ability students might do sentence completion activities such as 'my favorite character was … because …', or 'I (didn't) like this book because …', or write their reactions in their first language.

2. Giving grades

You can grade the students by the number of pages or words they have read; how many reading levels they go up, the quality of their written or oral book summaries, their participation in follow-up ER activities, and so on.

3. Measuring reading speed

At the beginning of the course, ask them to read a book at their level for three minutes. Then count the number of words they read and divide that by three to get the number of words per minute. Repeat this in the middle and at the end of the course or even every week if you wish. They may wish to make a chart to record their progress.

4. Informal monitoring

A silent reading time each week gives the teacher a chance to watch students as they read silently.

- Do they look like they understand? Or look bored or disinterested?
- Do they smile when they read funny parts of the story, or look a little apprehensive in exciting moments?
- Are they sitting in a way to enjoy the book, or trying to hide that they are sleeping?
- Do they turn pages often? Do they seem to be reading slowly (say, by moving their finger along the page)?
- Do they have to re-read parts of their books? Do they use their dictionary a lot?

5. Informal oral comprehension checks while, or after, reading a book

These questions can help you know if the student has understood their reading, or finished it.

- Can they re-tell the story with little trouble? They may need to do this in their first language.
- Can they react to the story freely by saying what they liked or disliked?
- Find key lines from the story and test them on who said them, or places they visited.
- Ask 'What is it about?' 'Who are the main characters?' 'What's happening on this page?'
- Ask how it ended. Was it a sad or happy ending? Why? What genre is this book?
- Do they look at the book as they are answering your questions as if looking for something to say?

Questions and Answers about Extensive Reading

This page answers many of the most common questions teachers ask about Extensive Reading.

If the students just read, what does the teacher do?
Just because the teacher is not teaching does not mean learning has stopped. When the students are reading, the teacher can speak quietly with each student to check they are reading at the right level, are enjoying their books and have done their reading. You can read in a foreign language too to show that it's not only students doing it.

Why are they not doing their reading?
There are many possible reasons:

- Their books are too difficult, or not interesting for them.
- The students are busy and have too much homework from other classes.
- They don't like reading. Some students may prefer to listen silently to the audio recording instead.
- The reading is optional and the students have decided to opt out. The reading should be required.
- The teacher is not constantly checking that the reading is being done and so the students don't do it.
- The students need to be motivated to read more.

How much reading should they do?
Research suggests they should be reading a book a week or more at their ability level.

They are already busy enough. How can I do this if there's no time in my curriculum?
Teachers and schools can opt out of doing Extensive Reading, but opting out means the students won't:

- get enough practice in actually reading and improving their reading speed.
- meet enough language to deeply acquire the grammar and vocabulary they are meeting in their textbooks.
- get the satisfaction of being able to read fluently in a foreign language.

Therefore, schools should consider changing the curriculum to make ER an essential part of the curriculum.

How can I do ER if I have to teach them to pass tests?
A major reason many students often do poorly on a standardized test such as TOEFL or TOEIC is that they can't read fast enough to finish it. If they can read fluently, then they can read the test passages faster and will have better comprehension. Moreover, reading only short passages intensively from test preparation books doesn't provide enough practice to learn to read fluently, so they need to read longer extensive reading materials, too. Research shows that students who read extensively do better on tests than those who spend the same amount of time doing test preparation activities.

They won't stop reading things that are too difficult, what do I do?
This is not a problem if they have enough background knowledge and are enjoying the book. It only becomes a 'problem' when it becomes tiresome and demotivating. Try to encourage the student to stop reading something difficult and come back to it later once their ability has increased.

Should I require the students to read, or ask them to read voluntarily?
Ideally it's best to have the students read voluntarily but most often students will resist because they are busy even if they know it is good for them. If the extensive reading is optional, many students will opt out. Teachers should explain why, and how, this reading will help them and introduce ER as part of the course, not as an option.

When can they find time to read?
Most people have a little 'down' time each day for reading. If the reading is not done in class time, they should try to find a regular reading time each day, for example before going to sleep, or on the bus to school.

When can my students start using graded readers?
Before students start to read extensively on their own, they need to be familiar with the written alphabet, be able to recognize a hundred or so very common words and a small amount of very basic grammar. The easiest

series of graded readers start at very low levels so that ER can start early (see page 16). In English, the sound of a word doesn't always match its spelling, so a course in phonics will be very beneficial, or essential for some students.

Can students use a dictionary when they read?
When reading to build fluency and reading speed, students should be reading easy enjoyable books. If they are looking up words too often, then the book is probably too hard for them, and they should read something easier.

Should students read the books aloud?
Teachers should read aloud to the students sometimes because it can help the students match the spoken sound of a word with its spelling and helps them get a feel for sentence level pronunciation. Teachers who are not comfortable reading aloud can use the book's audio recording. Reading speed is faster than listening speed (speaking speed) and so while reading-while-listening may have some benefits, it should only occupy a small part of the program. However, many students dislike reading aloud in class because they are anxious about their pronunciation and fear embarrassment. Also, reading aloud and thinking at the same time is very difficult, so their reading is likely to be slow and flat, and ample practice is necessary to get good results.

Is it okay if I ask the students to translate the reading into their first language?
A central feature of Extensive Reading is to select materials that the students can read quickly and with high levels of comprehension. This allows the students to process language quickly and automatically in English. If students are asked to translate their reading, this forces the student to go back to their first language, which is counter-productive in developing automatic language processing. In Intensive Reading where the text is quite difficult, translation can be used from time to time to aid understanding.

Do they only have to read Graded Readers to build their fluency?
No. Students should read anything that they can read quickly and fluently. However, recent research shows that greater fluency gains come from reading graded readers than both graded readers and unsimplified texts. Reading speed courses are almost always successful and are a very useful accompaniment to an extensive reading course.

Books have gone 'missing'. What do I do?
It is normal for books, especially the most interesting ones, to go 'missing' so it's worthwhile having multiple copies. But because books are missing does not always mean the students are stealing them. It maybe they lost them or forgot to return them and they are too embarrassed to say so. Put a notice around the school saying that books can be returned to a 'drop box' outside the teacher's room at any time.

Should the parents be involved in the reading?
Asking students to take books home is an excellent way to show parents that the school cares about their child's learning. For younger students, it is very good if the student reads with (or to) his/her parents. Having a special time every day or week with a parent or older sibling (just before bed, after dinner, and so on) re-enforces the habit of reading. Some schools ask the parents to fill in a short form after reading to answer questions about whether the student understands the books. This also develops good communication between the school and home.

How do I keep students motivated with their reading?
Keeping high levels of motivation is a key to successful reading. Here are some ideas:

- Give each student a reading partner to share their reading experiences and troubles.
- Give prizes for the most books read, the best reports, the greatest gain in reading speed and so on.
- Ask the students to help select books for the library and get them to help manage the borrowing systems.
- Ask them for ideas about how to decorate the library and display the books.
- Ask students to vote on the top ten books in the library.

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Extensive Listening - Using Audio and Video

Extensive Listening is the sister to Extensive Reading. Students need to not only build their reading fluency, but also their listening fluency, too. They need to meet input through extensive listening to build up their automaticity in recognizing words aurally and to get a sense of how the language fits together. As not all students like to read, teachers should provide opportunities for extensive listening, too.

Almost all graded readers come with audio recordings, some of which can be downloaded for free from the publisher's website, or they can be purchased. Some series may have a video accompanying the graded reader, too. The recordings are usually a very high quality and so students can listen-while-reading to help them enjoy the book. The recordings also help them to recognize the sound patterns, intonation and pronunciation as well and it is a good model for them to follow.

Many schools put the book and the audio recording (on a CD) in a packet (or put a sleeve in the back of the books to hold the CD) and the student can either a) just read, b) just listen or c) listen-while-reading. For variation, they can read first, then listen, or listen first and then read.

Teachers and students should be aware that a student's fluent reading ability is unlikely to be the same as their fluent listening ability. Research suggests that for many students, their listening vocabulary size and access speed is much lower than their reading vocabulary (research suggests a half or a quarter of the size) and so they may need listen to books one or two levels lower than their reading ability. To help them find their own fluent listening ability, you could prepare a short section from the recordings of books at various difficulty levels and play them to the class. As they listen from the easiest to more difficult passages one by one, they note down where their comfortable listening level is.

Many modern CD players and personal music players, allow the speed of the recording to be slowed down if it is too fast for the learners. There is also free software available online for teachers to download and edit the recordings (when allowed by copyright) such as by slowing down the recording speed, or speeding it up (useful for helping to develop listening speed). This software can easily be found by doing an Internet search.

Here are some suggestions for making the most of the audio recordings from graded readers:

- Use the audio as a serial story, by playing a few pages each day/week.
- Some graded readers are plays which can be listened to and acted out by the students.
- After students have read the whole story, ask them to close their books and play the audio all the way through without stopping. This will help their listening fluency. To make listening easier, they can cover the text and just look at the photos and illustrations as they listen.
- For pronunciation practice, choose a section of the book with spoken dialog. Play the audio and pause after one sentence of the dialog and ask students to repeat it. Replay the sentence and have students repeat it again. Do this as a class rather than individually.
- Photocopy some pictures from the book and ask students to order them as they listen.
- Have students listen globally first (overall understanding), then re-listen for local (detailed) information.
- Have one student listen to the story, while another reads it. They compare their understanding.
- The teacher reads part of the text aloud while making mistakes, students read and listen for errors.

Ideas for Extensive Reading activities

First day of class

Find out the students' reading history. What do they read? How different / similar is reading in L1 and L2?

Ask students to bring in a sample of what they read in English, or their first language.

Discuss their beliefs about reading. *Is it best to read slowly and carefully or quickly? Do you have to understand everything? Is it ok to use a dictionary? Where's the best place to read? Who should decide what I read? etc.*

When choosing books / reading material

Point out the features of books, blurbs, glossaries, comprehension sections etc.

Put many titles on a desk and they discuss which covers are best and which look interesting to read.

Have a 'Book Hunt'. Make a quiz with questions they answer by finding the book. *Which book has 5 stories? Which book is a love story with Maria and Felix? Which book did David Andrews write?*

Copy several illustrations from books, ask the students which book they come from and why.

Predict the story from the title and cover, artwork. Predict when or where it takes place, the characters etc.

Look at the cover and blurb, then they make questions about the story before reading. They read it to find the answers to their own questions.

'My favorite book' discussions help others choose good books. The most popular books can be labeled with a star on the cover or 'best read' or 'class favorite' stickers.

Getting students involved

Ask students to categorize their books into genres and note this information inside the book cover.

Have students help select new titles from publisher's catalogues.

Ask students to go to local libraries and bring back recommendations.

Ask students to be 'library monitors' – helping check out, return and shelve books, make displays etc.

Ask them to donate books if they buy them. They write 'Donated by xxx, date' inside the cover.

They can help raise money for the library by holding a readathon or asking for donations, or by selling things at the school festival etc.

Students assess whether a book at the level they're reading is higher or lower than the average book at that level. The teacher re-assigns the book to the new level if it needs to be changed.

Ask them to make a class/school blog or webpage with book reviews and recommendations.

Put 'review cards' inside each book cover for students to rate the book with stars or smiley faces.

Students vote on the top ten books of the semester.

Get students to help you build a reading lounge somewhere in the school.

Ask them to make 'genre' displays. They could make a display of horror stories or romances, for example.

Hold a 'reading marathon' e.g. at a school festival. Students compete to read the most in a set time – e.g. 8 hours. Books at different lengths or difficulties could be labeled '3km' or '5km'. They have to read 42km (a marathon distance). This can be used to ask people to sponsor people to read at say $1 per book, or 1000 words and use the money to buy books.

Start a Book Club / Reading Corner at your school.

Building reading fluency

Re-read the same passage again but 10% faster.

Read against the clock. E.g. they try to read x number of words in say 3 minutes.

Race their partner to a certain part of the book (make sure they understand it)

Record their feelings of the book as they read and re-read the same story to see if their feelings are different.

When the whole class reads the same story together

If the book is a movie or a famous classic, show a trailer for the movie before reading it.

For famous stories, ask students what they already know about the book, author, plot etc. e.g. Romeo and Juliet, Jane Eyre, Shakespeare, The Jungle Book, Charles Dickens.

Have students read the same book with different tasks – one person looks for words and phrases, another makes character notes, another records the plot, another finds cultural points and so on. They compare.

10 questions. One student thinks of a character or place from the book, the other guesses what it is using yes/no questions only. *Are you old? Do you have a sister?* They have only 10 guesses.

After reading a chapter, the teacher makes some true/false questions. The team with the most correct answers wins.

They make a role-play of a section from the book taking on their character and tone. Use their own words or ones from the book. They can act it out in front of the class.

Students enact a scene relating the same emotion of the characters (for fun, emotional scenes can be done in a different tone – e.g. a romantic moment in an exciting tone, a sad moment in a happy one.)

Stop them at key moments and imagine what sounds the characters can hear, and what they may see and smell.

They discuss what would be good gifts, punishments, cars, food, clothes, homes etc. for the characters.

Play / read a short section of a chapter and stop. The students guess what's going to happen.

Pick out key sentences from the story. Who said it and why?

Discuss if the title, art work and cover suit the story once they've finished reading it.

Write an ordered summary of the story in one line sentences. Cut it up and students re-order it.

With non-fiction readers, research the places (people, countries, companies etc.) mentioned in the book.

After reading a book, they watch the movie (if available). They discuss the differences.

Photocopy the art or chapter titles from the book, they put them in order or use them to re-tell the story.

Give a list of adjectives describing characters from the book (daring, stubborn). They guess who it is.

Predict what happens after the end of the book, or they write a synopsis of a follow-up sequel.

Students pretend to be a character and are interviewed afterwards – especially good with crime stories.

They make a time-line of events – useful for stories with flashbacks.

Transfer information from the text to a map, chart or table (useful for non-fiction work).

Re-write / re-tell part (or all) of the story from a different character's perspective.

Analyze each key moment and they decide if they would have done the same thing in that situation.

Make a profile of the characters – their habits, hobbies, what they eat, their work, clothes etc.

Musical chairs. Students sit in a circle facing the middle. One person stands in the middle and asks question such as *If you know the main character's name, change chairs.* Students race to the empty chairs. The one left standing makes the next question. E.g. If you read book xyz, change chairs.

They retell the story as a chain. Student 1 says the first event in one sentence, the second does the next and so on.

Sharing

Ask students to re-tell their story in 4 minutes, then again to another person in 3 minutes and to a 3rd person in 2.

Have an interesting library with posters, displays, post book reviews on the walls.

Have them look at all the books in the library, tell them to make a reading list for the semester. Share it.

Have a wall chart showing which student has read how many pages.

They keep a 'reading log' of what they have read throughout the week/semester. Everything from textbooks, readers, road signs, posters, adverts etc. They discuss this with others.

Students say how their story relates to their life (or not).

Re-tell the story in their own words. Listeners think of 2 questions as they listen.

Compare how the same book (e.g. Jane Eyre) from different publishers is different or similar.

Make a questionnaire based on a class reader at the end of the course.

Writing

Write a different ending to the story or re-write part of it as a screenplay for a movie.

Re-tell the story as if it were a character's diary.

Make a short poem about the story, or from one character to another (good for romances)

Draw a map of the places in the story and follow the route describing what happened where.

Compare the characters in the book to themselves. Who is similar to them? Who is different?

Make a class quiz about 'who said what?' or other aspects of the story.

Write about an imaginary day with one of the characters.

Write a letter / email to one of the characters.

Write a character review explaining their strengths and weaknesses, habits, background etc.

Draw a picture of a scene or two and re-tell what they are about. They should not copy images from the book.

Draw write a summary of the story – one event per line. Cut them up and students listen and re-order them.

Write to the publisher / author telling them what you think of the book.

Extensive Reading Resources

Books and articles:

Day, R. and J. Bamford, 1998, Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom, Cambridge University Press.
Day, R. and J. Bamford, 2004, Extensive Reading Activities for Teaching Language, Cambridge University Press.
Waring, R. The inescapable case for Extensive Reading.
http://www.robwaring.org/papers/waring_Nova_2011.pdf

Websites:

The Extensive Reading Foundation:	www.erfoundation.org
The Extensive Reading Pages:	www.extensivereading.net
The Extensive Reading discussion List.	groups.yahoo.com/group/extensivereading/
ER Moodlereader:	www.moodlereader.org
The Japan ER Association:	www.seg.co.jp/era/
The Korean English Extensive Reading Association;	www.keera.or.kr
The Extensive Reading Bibliography:	www.erfoundation.org/erf/bibliography/
Rob Waring's ER website	www.robwaring.org/er/
SSS Reading Levels and Word Counts	www.seg.co.jp/sss/reading_level/A/index.shtml

The Extensive Reading Foundation's Guide to Extensive Reading

	Beginner				Elementary			Intermediate			Upper Intermediate			Advanced		
	Alphabet	Early	Mid	High	Early	Mid	High	Early	Mid	High	Early	Mid	High	Early	Mid	High
	1-50	51-100	101-200	201-300	301-400	401-600	601-800	801-1000	1001-1250	1251-1500	1501-1800	1801-2100	2101-2400	2401-3000	3001-3600	3601-4500+
Cambridge University Press																
Cambridge English Readers				Starters	1		2			3		4		5	6	
Discovery Readers				Starters	1		2	3	4			5				
Cambridge Storybooks	1	2		3	4											
Heinle, Cengage Learning																
Foundations Reading Library		1,2	3,4	5,6	7											
Footprint Reading Library						1		2		3	4	5	6	7,8		
Page Turners Reading Library			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
Macmillan																
English Explorers		1,2	3	4	5	6										
Macmillan Children's Readers		1	2	3			4				5,6					
Macmillan Readers				Starters		Beg			Elem	Pre-Int	Int.		Upp-Int			
Oxford University Press																
Bookworms and Factfiles				Starters	1		2	3		4	5			6		
Dominoes				Starters	1		2	3								
Classic Tales		Beg.1,2	Elem1	Elem2	Elem3											
Penguin																
Penguin Readers			Easy-starts	1		2			3		4		5	6		
Penguin Active Reading			Easy-starts	1		2			3		4					
Penguin Young Readers		1	2	3	4											

A more detailed table including series from other publishers can be found on the Extensive Reading Foundation website (www.erfoundation.org) ©The Extensive Reading Foundation 2011

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Appendix G: Level 4 Listening and Speaking Course Outline

Umm Al-Qura University
Alqunfutha University College
English Department
Second Semester
2015/2016

Course Outline

1. **Course Instructor:** Mr. Ali Aleassi

   - **Office hours:** Monday and Tuesdays 12:30-14:30 pm

2. **Course Title:** Listening and Speaking (4)

3. **Course Number:** Eng 124

4. **Course Level:** 4

5. **Prerequisite:** Listening and Speaking (3)

6. **Course Status:** Compulsory

7. **Credit Hours:** 3

8. **Hours of Instruction per Week:** 3

9. **Course Description:**

Listening: At this stage students are trained to understand discussions on concrete topics related to particular interests and special fields of competence. They are provided with opportunities to take notes while listening to sustained talks given at a normal rate by a speaker familiar with foreign learners.

Speaking: Students are trained to communicate on concrete topics related to social relations, current events and study matters.

10. **Course Aims and Objectives:**
    At the end of the course students will be able to:
    1. Understand spoken English at a variety of communicative situations, especially lectures.
    2. Speak about different topics in different communicative situations, and show an ability to produce spoken language that has an acceptable level of clarity.

11. **Teaching Methods:** Lectures and Practice

1

12. Course Main Subjects:

(A) <u>Listening skills</u>: Getting the main idea; identifying stressed words and reductions; guessing vocabulary from context; drawing inferences; filling out an application; following map directions; understanding recorded phone information ; balancing a checkbook; putting information in chronological order;

(B) <u>Conversation Features/speaking activities</u>: getting someone's attention; asking for directions; accepting and refusing invitations; discussing university courses; role-playing invitations; giving map-directions; opening and closing phone conversations; discussing housing and crime; role playing phone conversation; finding about community services; designing a dream house; requesting, giving and accepting advice; expressing ability and lack of ability; problem solving; interviewing people about work; interviewing about money; giving oral presentations regarding selected topics; apologizing and reconciling; pantomiming.

(C) <u>Note-Taking skills</u>: Using key-words; abbreviations, and symbols; indenting; outlining; taking notes on causes and effects

13.Methods Assessment: Occasional homework, group and individual projects in which students may need to lead a discussion or make short presentations, as well as written quizzes and exams:

- Attendance: **10 marks**
- Assignments: **10 marks**
- Listening Comprehension test mid-term: **20 marks**
- Presentation (Speaking): **20**
- Final Exam (Listening Comprehension Only): **40 marks**

14.Textbook:

Tanka, J. and Baker, L. (2007). *Interactions 2*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

15.Syllabus:

This course will cover chapters 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10.

Appendix H: IELTS Speaking Test Samples

IELTS Speaking Test Samples

The IELTS speaking test represents an accepted international standard. As such, it will be used, as described, as the basis of the speaking test for this study. Please see below four examples of IELTS speaking tests with instructions.

Example Test 1

Part 1

Time: 4-5 minutes

Now, in this first part of the test I'm going to ask you some questions about yourself.

Are you a student or do you work now?

Why did you choose this course/job?

Talk about your daily routine.

Is there anything about your course/job you would like to change?

I'd like to move on and ask you some questions about shopping.

Who does most of the shopping in your household?

What type of shopping do you like? (Why?)

Is shopping a popular activity in your country? (Why/why not?)

What type of shops do teenagers like best in your country?

Let's talk about films.

How often do you go to the cinema?

What type of films do you like best? (Why?)

What type of films don't you like? (Why not?)

Part 2

Time: 3-4 minutes

Now, I'm going to give you a topic and I'd like you to talk about it for 1-2 minutes.

Before you talk you'll have one minute to think about what you are going to say and you can make notes if you wish. Do you understand?

Ok, here's some paper and a pencil to make notes, and here is your topic. I'd like you to describe an important event in your life.

Describe an important event in your life.

You should say:

When happened
Whether this event affected other people

And explain why you feel it was important.

Follow up questions:

Do you still think about this event often?

Can the other people involved remember this event?

Part 3

Time: 4-5 minutes

We've been talking about an important event in your life, and I'd now like to ask you some questions related to this.

What days are important in your country?

Why it is important to have national celebrations?

How is the way your national celebrations are celebrated now different from the way they were celebrated in the past?

Do you think any new national celebrations will come into being in the future?

Are there any celebrations from other countries that you celebrate in your country?

What are the benefits of having events that many people around the world are celebrating on the same day?

Thank you. That's the end of the IELTS speaking test.

Example Test 2

Part 1

Please come in. Why don't you take a seat?

First, let me have a look at your passport. It is for security purposes.
Good. What's your full name?
And you are (nationality of the candidate).
Which part of your country do you come from?
Describe your home town to me.
When choosing a place to live, what do you consider most important?
What do you like or dislike about living in your town or city?
What changes would make your home town more appealing to people of your age?
Would you prefer to live in a traditional house or in a modern apartment?
Some people prefer to live in a small town. Others prefer to live in a big city. Which one do you prefer?
Some people are always in a hurry to go to places and get things done. Other people prefer to take their time and live life at a lower pace. What do you prefer? Do you work at the moment?
What are the best things about where you work?
What do you dislike most about your work?

Part 2

Discuss points about life in your country. You should mention:

What you like or dislike about it
What the biggest social problem of your country is
… and what you would regard as the most significant events in your country's recent history

Part 3

Do you think that people and situation have changed since you were born?
How and in what respects?
What are some of the main industries in your country?
How serious is unemployment in your country?
What do you consider as the main cause?
What role does religion have in everyday life in your country?
Compare the media now with how it was a generation ago.
What kind of effects do the media have on children and young people?

Can you tell me about your childhood?
Can you remember a toy you were given when you were a child?
Who gave it to you? And what was the occasion?
What did you do with the toy?
What do you think you can learn from your toy?
Do you think there is a difference between toys chosen by females and males?
This is the end of your interview. Thank you and good bye.

Example Test 3

Part 1

[This part of the test begins with the examiner introducing himself or herself and checking the candidate's identification. It then continues as an interview.]

Let's talk about your home town or village.

What kind of place is it?

What's the most interesting part of your town/village?

What kind of jobs do the people in your town/village do?

Would you say it's a good place to live? (Why?) Let's move on to talk about accommodation.

Tell me about the kind of accommodation you live in?

How long have you lived there?

What do you like about living there?

What sort of accommodation would you most like to live in?

Part 2

Describe something you own which is very important to you. You should say: where you got it from how long you have had it what you use it for and explain why it is important to you. You will have to talk about the topic for 1 to 2 minutes. You have one minute to think about what you're going to say. You can make some notes to help you if you wish.

Rounding off questions:

Is it valuable in terms of money?

Would it be easy to replace?

Part 3

Let's consider first of all how people's values have changed.

What kind of things give status to people in your country?

Have things changed since your parents' time?

Finally, let's talk about the role of advertising.

Do you think advertising influences what people buy?

Example Test 4

Part 1

Please come in and take a seat. I can see your name here. What would you like me to call you?
Well, can I see your passport, please? I need to look at it for security purposes.
Thank you.
Where do you come from? Tell me about your country.
What is your general opinion about your home town?

What are the things of interest in that place?
Do you live with your family?
What do your parents do?
Would you like to do the same job as your parents?
Do you have a large or small family?
Who does most of the shopping in your family?
Do you enjoy shopping?
Do you work at the moment?
Have you ever had any other jobs?
How will IELTS help you in the future?
What are your main interests?
What other indoor activities do you enjoy?
How would you describe your life style?
What is life like for you in your home town?
Are you married?
Are you happy with your marital life?

Part 2

Try to discuss points about marriage ceremony. You should include:

What happens at a typical wedding ceremony in your country?
How is it different from a typical wedding in Britain?
Do you have any memories of your / your friend's wedding ceremony?

Part 3

What roles do men / women typically play in families in your country?
How different is your life from the lives of your parents / grandparents?
How have these roles changed recently?
Entertainment is a very important part of our lives. Most people listen to the radio or watch television. How did people entertain themselves before these things came into existence?
Do you think radio and television have had a positive effect on the world?
Has television stopped family members from communicating with each other?
Is there too much violence on television these days?
Does violence on television or on video contribute to violence in society?
Thank you and good luck.

Appendix I: IELTS Speaking Band Descriptors

IELTS™

SPEAKING: Band Descriptors (public version)

Band	Fluency and coherence	Lexical resource	Grammatical range and accuracy	Pronunciation
9	• speaks fluently with only rare repetition or self-correction; any hesitation is content-related rather than to find words or grammar • speaks coherently with fully appropriate cohesive features • develops topics fully and appropriately	• uses vocabulary with full flexibility and precision in all topics • uses idiomatic language naturally and accurately	• uses a full range of structures naturally and appropriately • produces consistently accurate structures apart from 'slips' characteristic of native speaker speech	• uses a full range of pronunciation features with precision and subtlety • sustains flexible use of features throughout • is effortless to understand
8	• speaks fluently with only occasional repetition or self-correction; hesitation is usually content-related and only rarely to search for language • develops topics coherently and appropriately	• uses a wide vocabulary resource readily and flexibly to convey precise meaning • uses less common and idiomatic vocabulary skilfully, with occasional inaccuracies • uses paraphrase effectively as required	• uses a wide range of structures flexibly • produces a majority of error-free sentences with only very occasional inappropriacies or basic/non-systematic errors	• uses a wide range of pronunciation features • sustains flexible use of features, with only occasional lapses • is easy to understand throughout; L1 accent has minimal effect on intelligibility
7	• speaks at length without noticeable effort or loss of coherence • may demonstrate language-related hesitation at times, or some repetition and/or self-correction • uses a range of connectives and discourse markers with some flexibility	• uses vocabulary resource flexibly to discuss a variety of topics • uses some less common and idiomatic vocabulary and shows some awareness of style and collocation, with some inappropriate choices • uses paraphrase effectively	• uses a range of complex structures with some flexibility • frequently produces error-free sentences, though some grammatical mistakes persist	• shows all the positive features of Band 6 and some, but not all, of the positive features of Band 8
6	• is willing to speak at length, though may lose coherence at times due to occasional repetition, self-correction or hesitation • uses a range of connectives and discourse markers but not always appropriately	• has a wide enough vocabulary to discuss topics at length and make meaning clear in spite of inappropriacies • generally paraphrases successfully	• uses a mix of simple and complex structures, but with limited flexibility • may make frequent mistakes with complex structures though these rarely cause comprehension problems	• uses a range of pronunciation features with mixed control • shows some effective use of features but this is not sustained • can generally be understood throughout, though mispronunciation of individual words or sounds reduces clarity at times
5	• usually maintains flow of speech but uses repetition, self correction and/or slow speech to keep going • may over-use certain connectives and discourse markers • produces simple speech fluently, but more complex communication causes fluency problems	• manages to talk about familiar and unfamiliar topics but uses vocabulary with limited flexibility • attempts to use paraphrase but with mixed success	• produces basic sentence forms with reasonable accuracy • uses a limited range of more complex structures, but these usually contain errors and may cause some comprehension problems	• shows all the positive features of Band 4 and some, but not all, of the positive features of Band 6
4	• cannot respond without noticeable pauses and may speak slowly, with frequent repetition and self-correction • links basic sentences but with repetitious use of simple connectives and some breakdowns in coherence	• is able to talk about familiar topics but can only convey basic meaning on unfamiliar topics and makes frequent errors in word choice • rarely attempts paraphrase	• produces basic sentence forms and some correct simple sentences but subordinate structures are rare • errors are frequent and may lead to misunderstanding	• uses a limited range of pronunciation features • attempts to control features but lapses are frequent • mispronunciations are frequent and cause some difficulty for the listener
3	• speaks with long pauses • has limited ability to link simple sentences • gives only simple responses and is frequently unable to convey basic message	• uses simple vocabulary to convey personal information • has insufficient vocabulary for less familiar topics	• attempts basic sentence forms but with limited success, or relies on apparently memorised utterances • makes numerous errors except in memorised expressions	• shows some of the features of Band 2 and some, but not all, of the positive features of Band 4
2	• pauses lengthily before most words • little communication possible	• only produces isolated words or memorised utterances	• cannot produce basic sentence forms	• Speech is often unintelligble
1	• no communication possible • no rateable language			
0	• does not attend			

Appendix J: Brief Description of the Survey Statements

	Description of Survey Statements
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.
2	Speaking English is/was difficult for me.
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes/made speaking English difficult for me.
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes/made speaking English difficult for me.
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
7	The English-speaking course will help/helped me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.
8	The English-speaking course will help/helped me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.
9	The English-speaking course will help/helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.
10	The English-speaking course will help/ helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help/helped me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help/helped me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help/helped me use new vocabulary items in English speaking this semester.
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help/helped me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.
15	I will enjoy/enjoyed the English-speaking course this semester.
16	I will enjoy/enjoy reading books in English.
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.
18	Reading in English will help/helped me to understand spoken English.
19	Reading English will help/helped me to participate in English conversations.
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.
21	I will discuss/discussed with others the books I read in English for pleasure.
22	I will read/read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.
23	I will avoid/avoided reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.
24	I read all of the materials assigned for the extensive reading during this semester.
25	Reading oxford graded readers have developed my English in general.
26	Reading oxford graded readers made me want to do this experience again.
27	I enjoyed reading oxford graded readers this semester.
28	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my spoken English in general.
29	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English.

	Description of Survey Statements
30	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.
31	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my grammar in spoken English.
32	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing speaking skills in general.
33	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.
34	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.
35	I attended all of the oral report activity sessions this semester.
36	The oral report activities helped me develop my English in general.
37	The oral report activities made me want to take this experience again.
38	I enjoyed oral report activities this semester.
39	I enjoyed the dialogue activity this semester.
40	I enjoyed the group discussion activity this semester
41	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my spoken English in general.
42	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped to use new vocabulary items in spoken English.
43	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped to use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.
44	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my grammar in spoken English.
45	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop speaking in English.
46	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop vocabulary in English speaking.
47	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop grammar in English speaking.
48	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of speaking development in general.
49	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.
50	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.

Important Notes:

I have used different colors to identify the items as follows:

- Items in green (2,3,4,11,12,13,14) are adapted from Almashy (2013)

- Items in blue (5,6,16,23,32,33,34,48,49,50) are adapted from Al-Hammad (2009)

- Items in red (17,18,19,20,21,22,25,26) are adapted from Tamrackitkun (2010)

- I created items in black (1,7,8,9,10,15,24,27,28,29,30,31,35,36,37,38,39,40, 41,42,43,44,45,46,47)

The pre-intervention items (first 23 items only) are in future tense and the post-intervention items (all 50 items) are in past tense.

Please note that most of the of the other studies' items are modified and amended to suit the purpose of my study.

Appendix K: Post-survey Instrument for the Control Group

	Survey Statements for the Control Group
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge made speaking English difficult for me.
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary made speaking English difficult for me.
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
7	The English-speaking course helped me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.
8	The English-speaking course helped me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.
9	The English-speaking course helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.
10	The English-speaking course helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use new vocabulary items in English speaking this semester.
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.
15	I enjoyed the English-speaking course this semester.
16	I enjoy reading books in English.
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.
21	I discussed with others the books I read in English for pleasure.
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.
23	I avoided reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.

Appendix L: Post-survey Instrument for EPCD1

	Survey Statements for EPCD1 (extensive reading only)
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge made speaking English difficult for me.
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary made speaking English difficult for me.
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
7	The English-speaking course helped me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.
8	The English-speaking course helped me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.
9	The English-speaking course helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.
10	The English-speaking course helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use new vocabulary items in English speaking this semester.
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.
15	I enjoyed the English-speaking course this semester.
16	I enjoy reading books in English.
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.
24	I read all of the materials assigned for the extensive reading during this semester.
25	Reading oxford graded readers have developed my English in general.
26	Reading oxford graded readers made me want to do this experience again.
27	I enjoyed reading oxford graded readers this semester.
28	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my spoken English in general.
29	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English.
30	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.

Survey Statements for EPCD1 (extensive reading only)	
31	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my grammar in spoken English.
32	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing speaking skills in general.
33	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.
34	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.

Appendix M: Post-survey Instrument for EPCD2

	Survey Statements for EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.
7	The English-speaking course helped me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.
8	The English-speaking course helped me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.
9	The English-speaking course helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.
10	The English-speaking course helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use new vocabulary items in English speaking this semester.
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.
15	I enjoyed the English-speaking course this semester.
16	I enjoy reading books in English.
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.
24	I read all of the materials assigned for the extensive reading during this semester.
25	Reading oxford graded readers have developed my English in general.
26	Reading oxford graded readers made me want to do this experience again.
27	I enjoyed reading oxford graded readers this semester.
28	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my spoken English in general.
29	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English.
30	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.

	Survey Statements for EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)
31	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my grammar in spoken English.
32	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing speaking skills in general.
33	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.
34	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.
35	I attended all of the oral report activity sessions this semester.
36	The oral report activities helped me develop my English in general.
37	The oral report activities made me want to take this experience again.
38	I enjoyed oral report activities this semester.
39	I enjoyed the dialogue activity this semester.
40	I enjoyed the group discussion activity this semester.
41	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my spoken English in general.
42	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped to use new vocabulary items in spoken English.
43	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped to use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.
44	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my grammar in spoken English.
45	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop speaking in English.
46	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop vocabulary in English speaking.
47	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop grammar in English speaking.
48	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of speaking development in general.
49	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.
50	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.

Appendix N: Summary of the Control Group Survey Results

		Results of the post-survey of the control group				
	Statement	**1 Strongly Disagree**	**2 Disagree**	**3 Agree**	**4 Strongly Agree**	**Total**
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.	3	12	10	8	33
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	3	9	10	11	33
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	3	10	6	14	33
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	0	7	16	10	33
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	7	6	14	6	33
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3	7	13	10	33
7	The English-speaking course helped me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	5	10	8	10	33
8	The English-speaking course helped me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	4	14	10	5	33
9	The English-speaking course helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	3	15	9	6	33
10	The English-speaking course helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	5	12	9	7	33
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.	6	11	11	5	33
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.	6	13	4	10	33
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use new vocabulary items in	9	14	7	3	33

	Results of the post-survey of the control group					
	Statement	**1** **Strongly** **Disagree**	**2** **Disagree**	**3** **Agree**	**4** **Strongly** **Agree**	**Total**
	English speaking this semester.					
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.	5	14	10	4	33
15	I enjoyed the English-speaking course this semester.	7	12	10	4	33
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	6	11	8	8	33
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	5	6	13	9	33
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	8	8	7	10	33
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	5	10	14	4	33
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	7	8	9	9	33
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	8	9	10	6	33
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	9	17	4	3	33
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	0	7	18	8	33

	Results of the pre-survey of the control group					
	Statement	**1** **Strongly** **Disagree**	**2** **Disagree**	**3** **Agree**	**4** **Strongly** **Agree**	**Total**
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.	3	13	7	10	33
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	7	8	8	10	33
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	4	9	9	11	33

	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
	Results of the pre-survey of the control group					
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	2	9	9	13	33
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	4	7	10	12	33
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3	9	10	8	33
7	The English-speaking course will help me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	5	8	11	9	33
8	The English-speaking course will help me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	4	7	13	9	33
9	The English-speaking course will help me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	4	4	12	13	33
10	The English-speaking course will help me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	3	4	13	13	33
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.	2	7	16	8	33
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.	1	8	14	10	33
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me use new vocabulary items in English speaking this semester.	2	6	16	9	33
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.	0	6	12	15	33
15	I will enjoy the English-speaking course this semester.	5	8	8	12	33

		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
	Results of the pre-survey of the control group					
	Statement					
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	6	9	10	8	33
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	5	8	10	10	33
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	9	14	5	5	33
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	7	17	7	2	33
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	11	10	6	6	33
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	7	10	9	7	33
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	7	16	5	5	33
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	1	3	9	20	33

Appendix O: Summary of EPCD1 Survey Results

	Results of the post-survey of EPCD1 (extensive reading only)					
	Statement	**1 Strongly Disagree**	**2 Disagree**	**3 Agree**	**4 Strongly Agree**	**Total**
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.	2	4	14	10	30
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	2	8	10	10	30
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	4	8	12	6	30
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	8	10	8	4	30
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	0	6	12	12	30
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3	9	8	10	30
7	The English-speaking course helped me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	7	7	10	6	30
8	The English-speaking course helped me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	7	8	8	7	30
9	The English-speaking course helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	6	9	8	7	30
10	The English-speaking course helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	7	7	8	8	30
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.	8	10	6	6	30
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.	7	12	9	2	30
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use new vocabulary items in	6	10	10	4	30

	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
	English speaking this semester.					
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.	10	10	4	6	30
15	I enjoyed the English-speaking course this semester.	8	14	6	2	30
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	4	6	11	9	30
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	6	6	8	10	30
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	1	3	14	12	30
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	1	9	10	10	30
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	0	6	14	10	30
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	10	10	5	5	30
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	7	7	9	7	30
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	1	1	16	12	30
24	I read all of the materials assigned for the extensive reading during this semester.	2	2	9	17	30
25	Reading oxford graded readers have developed my English in general.	1	4	9	16	30
26	Reading oxford graded readers made me want to do this experience again.	6	7	10	7	30
27	I enjoyed reading oxford graded readers this semester.	2	4	14	10	30
28	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me	5	8	9	8	30

The table title: **Results of the post-survey of EPCD1 (extensive reading only)**

	Results of the post-survey of EPCD1 (extensive reading only)					
	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
	develop my spoken English in general.					
29	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English.	4	8	11	7	30
30	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.	6	8	8	8	30
31	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my grammar in spoken English.	3	8	9	10	30
32	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing speaking skills in general.	6	6	10	8	30
33	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.	2	8	12	8	30
34	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.	6	10	7	7	30

	Results of the pre-survey of EPCD1 (extensive reading only)					
	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.	3	10	9	8	30
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	5	5	11	9	30
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	5	7	7	11	30
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	4	4	14	8	30
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3	10	7	10	30

	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
Results of the pre-survey of EPCD1 (extensive reading only)						
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	4	8	9	9	30
7	The English-speaking course will help me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	5	5	11	9	30
8	The English-speaking course will help me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	4	6	12	8	30
9	The English-speaking course will help me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	5	6	8	11	30
10	The English-speaking course will help me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	1	10	11	8	30
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.	2	4	14	10	30
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.	2	3	8	17	30
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me use new vocabulary items in English speaking this semester.	1	5	15	9	30
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.	2	5	15	8	30
15	I will enjoy the English-speaking course this semester.	3	3	14	10	30
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	9	11	7	3	30
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	2	7	12	9	30

	Results of the pre-survey of EPCD1 (extensive reading only)					
	Statement	**1 Strongly Disagree**	**2 Disagree**	**3 Agree**	**4 Strongly Agree**	**Total**
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	6	12	6	6	30
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	4	12	7	7	30
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	7	10	10	3	30
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	8	12	6	4	30
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	11	14	5	0	30
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	1	1	14	14	30

Appendix P: Summary of EPCD2 Survey Results

	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
	Results of the post-survey of EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)					
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.	0	1	14	15	30
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	5	12	7	6	30
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	6	6	14	4	30
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	0	5	17	8	30
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	1	3	10	16	30
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3	6	7	14	30
7	The English-speaking course helped me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	10	10	7	3	30
8	The English-speaking course helped me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	9	14	6	1	30
9	The English-speaking course helped me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	11	13	6	0	30
10	The English-speaking course helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	12	10	6	2	30
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.	8	14	7	1	30
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.	6	12	7	5	30
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use new vocabulary items in	8	14	6	2	30

	Results of the post-survey of EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)					
	English speaking this semester.					
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) helped me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.	8	12	5	5	30
15	I enjoyed the English-speaking course this semester.	10	16	2	2	30
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	4	5	10	11	30
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	4	4	9	13	30
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	4	4	12	10	30
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	1	7	11	11	30
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	3	5	9	13	30
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	3	10	7	10	30
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	5	7	9	9	30
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	0	2	12	16	30
24	I read all of the materials assigned for the extensive reading during this semester.	0	1	8	21	30
25	Reading oxford graded readers have developed my English in general.	1	3	11	15	30
26	Reading oxford graded readers made me want to do this experience again.	2	6	9	13	30
27	I enjoyed reading oxford graded readers this semester.	5	5	8	12	30
28	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my spoken English in general.	1	2	17	10	30
29	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use	2	4	16	8	30

	Results of the post-survey of EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)					
	new vocabulary items in spoken English.					
30	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.	4	2	12	12	30
31	Reading oxford graded readers have helped me develop my grammar in spoken English.	6	7	11	6	30
32	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing speaking skills in general.	2	0	16	12	30
33	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.	1	5	14	10	30
34	I recommend extensive reading as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.	3	10	9	8	30
35	I attended all of the oral report activity sessions this semester.	0	0	8	22	30
36	The oral report activities helped me develop my English in general	0	1	12	17	30
37	The oral report activities made me want to take this experience again.	3	5	9	13	30
38	I enjoyed oral report activities this semester.	1	2	16	11	30
39	I enjoyed the dialogue activity this semester.	2	2	13	13	30
40	I enjoyed the group discussion activity this semester.	4	6	10	10	30
41	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my spoken English in general.	0	3	15	12	30
42	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped to use new vocabulary items in spoken English.	3	3	11	13	30
43	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped to use	1	4	16	9	30

	Results of the post-survey of EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)					
	vocabulary appropriately in spoken English.					
44	Reading oxford graded readers along with oral report activities have helped me to develop my grammar in spoken English.	4	4	14	8	30
45	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop speaking in English.	6	7	9	8	30
46	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop vocabulary in English speaking.	5	5	11	9	30
47	Extensive reading alone is not enough to develop grammar in English speaking.	4	9	7	10	30
48	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of speaking development in general.	2	3	12	13	30
49	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of developing vocabulary in speaking English.	4	4	11	11	30
50	I recommend extensive reading along with oral report activities as a way of developing grammar in speaking English.	4	2	16	8	30

	Results of the pre-survey of EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)					
	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree	Total
1	Speaking English is an important skill at the university level.	2	11	10	7	30
2	Speaking English is difficult for me.	4	6	8	12	30
3	Lack of adequate grammar knowledge makes speaking English difficult for me.	7	5	9	9	30
4	Lack of adequate vocabulary makes speaking English difficult for me.	4	7	9	10	30
5	Vocabulary is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	6	4	8	12	30

	Results of the pre-survey of EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)					
6	Grammar is one of the most important factors in speaking English.	3	9	10	8	30
7	The English-speaking course will help me develop my overall speaking skills this semester.	4	7	9	10	30
8	The English-speaking course will help me develop the use of grammar in my spoken English this semester.	5	6	7	12	30
9	The English-speaking course will help me use new vocabulary items in spoken English this semester.	4	6	10	10	30
10	The English-speaking course will help me use vocabulary appropriately in spoken English this semester.	0	8	13	9	30
11	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me develop my English speaking skills in general this semester.	3	5	12	10	30
12	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me develop my grammar in English speaking this semester.	2	2	11	15	30
13	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me use new vocabulary items in English speaking this semester.	1	4	11	14	30
14	The English textbook (Interactions 2) will help me use vocabulary appropriately in English speaking this semester.	1	7	11	11	30
15	I will enjoy the English-speaking course this semester.	6	6	9	9	30
16	I enjoy reading books in English.	10	6	8	6	30
17	Reading in English is an important skill for developing proficiency in other language skills.	6	6	7	11	30
18	Reading in English helps me to understand spoken English.	8	10	8	4	30

	Results of the pre-survey of EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities)					
19	Reading English helps me to participate in English conversations.	2	15	8	5	30
20	I am interested in being able to read English texts of my own choice.	9	9	8	4	30
21	I discuss with others the books I read in English for pleasure.	10	13	6	1	30
22	I read English materials for pleasure, i.e., not reading for my coursework.	10	10	7	3	30
23	I avoid reading texts when I feel that they contain difficult words.	0	1	13	16	30

Appendix Q: Interview Questions

The post - interview has been administered to EPCD1 and EPCD2 only as follows:

1) What do you think about your English speaking skills?
2) Before attending this program, had any of you heard the phrase "extensive reading"?
3) Have you noticed any differences in your English speaking skills before and after the intervention?
4) Do you think that "extensive reading" has developed your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?
5) Could you tell me what you think could be added to the intervention to improve your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?
6) During the intervention, how did you read the assigned material at home?
7) What do you think about "extensive reading"?
8) What do you think about extensive reading and the oral report activities?
9) How did you prepare for the oral report activities?
10) Do you think that "extensive reading activities" can develop your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?

Note: There are slight differences between the first and the second group interview questions.

Appendix R: Summary of the Interview Transcript
(EPCD1 and EPCD2)

Part One

The interviewer: Hi everyone.

It's a pleasure to welcome you all at this interview, and I'd like to thank you all again for agreeing to participate.

As you all know, you've attended a program called "Extensive Reading" this semester as an additional session to your ordinary course.

So, the purpose of this interview is to give me an opportunity to question you about your opinions regarding this program.

First, can I ask all of you to state your name and your age.

So, we'll start from my right-hand side …

Naif: I'm Naif, and I'm 19 years old.

Mohammed: I'm Mohammed, and I'm 22.

Abdul-Aziz: I'm Abdul-Aziz, and I'm 21.

Interviewer: Thank you all for that. Now, we'll move onto the interview questions. The first question I want to ask you is – What do you think about your English speaking skills?

Naif, could I ask you to go first?

Naif: That's fine. So, for me, speaking is the most difficult skill when compared to the other language skills – reading, listening, and writing. I find that when I'm speaking, I have many difficulties when trying to remember the words I need to use. In addition to this, I find it difficult to speak accurately in terms of grammar, and this is mainly because I'm not great at using appropriate grammatical structures when speaking. I also find that the speed of my speaking is not fast enough – it's actually quite slow; this is perhaps because I'm always trying to remember the right words and grammar. The last problem is probably my pronunciation; that's another thing I'm not very happy with.

Interviewer: Thanks, Naif.

Abdul-Aziz, could you tell me what you think about your English speaking skills?

Abdul-Aziz: Hmm, I'm generally unsatisfied with my English speaking skills. Similar to Naif, I think my other language skills are quite good, especially writing, but this isn't the case for speaking; when it comes to speaking, I generally can't speak very well.

Interviewer: Could you elaborate on that, Abdul-Aziz?

Abdul-Aziz: I'm not sure why specifically, but it may be due to shyness. Because I lack confidence, I tend only to speak when I need to, and this isn't very helpful for improving the skill. With reading, writing, and listening, shyness isn't nearly as much of an issue.

Interviewer: Thanks for that Abdul-Aziz. So, Mohammad, what do you think about your English speaking skills?

Mohammed: I think I face the same difficulties as my friend Naif. If I had to highlight one central problem, the main problem is probably the use of appropriate words when speaking; I think because of my limited vocabulary, speaking becomes difficult. I'm consistently finding myself interrupted by not being able to express my ideas, and I think that all relates to vocabulary.

Interviewer: Thanks, Mohammed, and thank you all for addressing the first question. Now we'll move onto the second question, and I'm going to ask you all again – Before attending this program, had any of you heard the phrase "extensive reading"?

Could I ask you to respond first, Mohammed?

Mohammed: For me, I had never heard the phrase before.

Interviewer: And what about you, Naif?

Naif: The same as Mohammed: I had never heard the phrase before this program.

Interviewer: Could you tell me if you had heard the phrase "extensive reading" before this program, Abdul-Aziz?

Abdul-Aziz: The same again, this program was the first time I encountered the term.

Interviewer: Ok, thank you all for that. Now, we'll move onto the third question, and I'd like you all to respond in as much detail as you can. Okay, so have you noticed any differences in your English speaking skills before and after the intervention?

Who wants to go first? Yes, Mohammed? And remember, please try to answer in as much detail as you can.

Mohammed: Well, I think my speaking has developed slightly, but I can't be sure.

Interviewer: Okay, could you be slightly more specific, Mohammed? First, in what way do you think your speaking skills have been impacted positively?

Mohammed: Impacted positively … I think the positive thing is that the intervention brought me into contact with a broad selection of new words. Because of this, my vocabulary is much bigger.

Interviewer: And you mentioned that you can't be sure. Could you please elaborate on that, Mohammed?

Mohammed: Well, I said I can't be sure because I didn't really have a good chance to confirm that my vocabulary has increased with the intervention. Over time, constantly looking up new words in the dictionary did help me to become familiar with new words, but I haven't actually tried using these while speaking. So, to be more specific, I can recognise many new words on the page, and I might be able to recognise them if I heard someone else saying them, but I'm not entirely sure how to pronounce them. The last thing I'd add is that I wouldn't be so confident using them, for fear of saying them incorrectly.

Interviewer: Thanks, Mohammed. Could you tell me if you've noticed any differences in your English speaking skills before and after the intervention, Naif?

Naif: For me, I'm not sure about this, mainly because I haven't noticed any differences. Like Mohammed, my ability to read in English has certainly improved, and I found that, by the end of the intervention, I was enjoying reading – particularly the graded readers – a lot more than at the beginning. But again, like Mohammed said, I'm not sure how well I would pronounce the new words, recognise them when they're being said out loud, or how confident I would be in using them in actual speech.

Interviewer: Thank you very much, Naif. Could you answer the same question Abdul-Aziz?

Abdul-Aziz: This is the first time I heard this. However, sometimes I read short stories when I'm free. So, it could be the same thing.

Interviewer: Could you clarify slightly, Abdul-Aziz? I'll ask again – have you noticed any differences in your English speaking skills before and after the intervention?

Abdul-Aziz: Ah … well, I think so, like Mohammed, but I couldn't be sure – for the same reasons. The intervention focused on reading and not speaking, so apart from learning a few new words I could potentially use when speaking to people in English, I don't think my fluency, pronunciation, or confidence has improved at all. There weren't really any chances to develop these important things.

Interviewer: Okay, thanks Abdul-Aziz, and thank you all again for your responses to that question. Now we'll move onto the fourth question – it's something some of you have already touched on in your answers to the previous question, but I'd like you all to answer this and perhaps respond in a little bit more detail. So, do you think that "extensive reading" has developed your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?

Abdul-Aziz: Yes, certainly.

Interviewer: Could I ask you to be more specific, Abdul-Aziz. Can you tell me how it has developed your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?

Abdul-Aziz: For people to speak well in English, a good range of vocabulary and grammar is indispensable. Consequently, reading a lot or "extensive reading" can expose you to a huge amount of words and grammatical structures, and this is something a person can incorporate into their speaking.

Interviewer: Thanks, Abdul-Aziz. Can I as you the same question, Mohammed?

Mohammed: I do agree with Abdul-Aziz. When we read more, we can attain new words and grammar. Ultimately, this has a positive impact on our speaking skills in general.

Interviewer: And do you also agree, Naif?

Naif: I don't agree with Mohamed and Abdul-Aziz, and I think I already touched on this in my answer to your third question. So, I don't think there is any relation between "extensive reading" and being able to speak well. Reading a lot has helped me improve my vocabulary and grammar when reading English, but I don't think it has improved in speaking – I've never tried to use any of the grammatical constructions in actual speech, and I'm not certain about how to pronounce many of the words I now recognize on a page and know the meaning of. So, I agree with you that when we read we come across new words and grammatical features, but this will improve only our grammar and vocabulary. Therefore, speaking may not improve.

Interviewer: Thanks, Naif. So, the fifth question relates to the answers you just gave me. Could you tell me what you think could be added to the intervention to improve your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?

Who would like to go first? Yes, Mohammed?

Mohammed: I think the definite way to improve English speaking skills, in terms of the words we know and the grammar we can use, is just to speak.

Interviewer: How do you think the intervention could do that, Mohammad?

Mohammed: Well, perhaps by requiring that we read aloud for a certain amount of time instead of just reading in our heads. We could also read in groups and read to our classmate for five or ten minutes each session, and see if they can understand us without looking at the text. I'm not sure.

Interviewer: Thanks, Mohammad. You have some ideas, Naif?

Naif: I'm not sure Mohammad's idea is that great, it could work though. For my own ideas … well, I think listening to an audio version as we read along with the texts we're assigned could be useful – mainly just so we know how to pronounce the words.

Interviewer: Thanks, Naif. What didn't you like about Mohammad's idea?

Naif: Well, just because speaking to yourself could reinforce some mistakes, and it doesn't build confidence, which is essential for speaking. Also, if you're speaking with a classmate, they can't correct you on any of your mistakes. But these activities are probably more useful than just reading.

Interviewer: Abdul-Aziz, do you have any ideas about what could be added to the intervention to improve your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?

Abdul-Aziz: I think the ideas already given are quite good. As for more ideas … if we had to read aloud in front of the English teacher, that could be useful. Or maybe we could respond to some questions the English teacher asks about what we've read – about what we liked or didn't like, or maybe to describe the story.

Interviewer: Thanks for all your suggestions. So, this is the second-to-last question: During the intervention, how did you read the assigned material at home?

Yes, Naif?

Naif: I just read through the texts carefully, usually quite slowly, looking up any unfamiliar words in the dictionary. Most of the time, I would have to read sentences or paragraphs twice to find the right meaning.

Interviewer: And what about you, Abdul-Aziz?

Abdul-Aziz: For me, it was pretty much identical to what Naif just described. One thing I did differently was to keep track of any words I had looked up in the dictionary by recording the words and their definitions in a notebook. Sometimes, I would test myself on the words later to make sure I had remembered their meanings.

Interviewer: Thanks, Naif. How did you read the assigned material at home, Mohammed?

Mohammed: Exactly the same as Naif – I didn't keep notes on the words I had looked up, like Mohammed, but I did occasionally write down some new grammatical constructions I encountered. This wasn't consistent though.

Interviewer: That's great. So, we'll move onto the last question, and I'd just like you to reflect on this intervention. What do you think about "extensive reading"?

You'd like to answer, Mohammad?

Mohammed: Well, just based on what we've all said and what I thought before this interview, I think it is a good way to improve your reading, your knowledge of vocabulary, and your knowledge of grammar, but it doesn't seem like the best way to improve speaking ability. I'm not sure if our earlier suggestions were that great, but if there was some way to get us talking about what we'd read – ideally when supervised by someone who knows the English language thoroughly, like a native speaker – that would really help, and I think the "extensive reading" could be a lot wider in its effects.

Interviewer: Abdul-Aziz?

Abdul-Aziz: Hmm … I'm not sure. I probably agree with Mohammed. Although reading is important, we all want to improve our speaking, so it's useful, but not as useful as it could be.

Interviewer: Any other thoughts, Abdul-Aziz?

Abdul-Aziz: Yes – I think it was quite fun, especially the graded readers (as Naif said earlier), but it could be more interactive. If it involved some form of speaking, again, I think that would make it more interactive and more useful.

Interviewer: And what are your thoughts about "extensive reading", Naif?

Naif: I think I can only repeat Abdul-Aziz's and Mohammed's answers. For me, yes, it was fun, certainly beneficial for my reading, but not as useful for my speaking.

Interviewer: Thank you – well, that brings us to the end of the interview. Once again, thank you all for your participation.

Part Two

Interviewees: Three students selected randomly (every tenth student) from EPCD2 (extensive reading + oral report activities).

Date: Thursday, 22nd of September 2016.

Duration: 30 minutes.

Interviewer: Hello to you all.

I'm pleased to welcome you at this interview, which will be used as part of my research project.

As you all know, you've attended a program called "Extensive Reading Plus Oral Report Activities" this semester as an additional session to your ordinary course.

So, the purpose of this interview is to give me an opportunity to question you about your opinions regarding this programme.

First of all, can I ask all of you to state your name and your age.

Ok, so we'll start from Waleed …

Waleed: I'm Waleed, and I'm 21 years old.

Ali: I'm Ali, and I'm 19.

Yahya: Yahya, 20.

Interviewer: Thanks Waleed, Ali, and Yahya, and welcome again.

Ok, so now we'll move onto the interview questions. First, I want to ask you – What do you think about your English speaking skills?

Could we start with you please, Waleed?

Waleed: So, generally speaking, I think my English speaking skills are satisfactory, but they aren't as good as they should be. In other words, I can speak, but I often find myself making mistakes. Moreover, I often find that I have an idea that I can't express in English correctly.

Interviewer: Could you tell me why that it?

Waleed: Hmm … I don't know why exactly. Sometimes it has something to do with my vocabulary – maybe it isn't extensive enough – and sometimes it stems from the fact that while I'm speaking, I may not remember the appropriate word.

Interviewer: Okay, thanks Waleed. Ali, could you respond to the same question?

Ali: For me, speaking itself is my weak point in English.

Interviewer: Could you clarify what do you mean by that, Ali?

Ali: So, when I'm reading, writing, or listening, I find that I'm comfortable and I'm generally satisfied with my level of skill. Perhaps that's because I have more time to reflect on what I'm doing, and the pressure isn't as high when someone is waiting for you to respond. When I need to speak in English, I always find that it's difficult for me to speak for a long time without making mistakes, hesitating, or having to interrupt myself.

Interviewer: Okay, thanks Ali. Yahya, could you tell me what you think about your English speaking skills?

Yahya: Sure – for me, my situation is pretty much the same as Ali's and Waleed's. I should add that my grammar while speaking is quite poor.

Interviewer: So that would just be grammar, fluency, and your knowledge of English vocabulary?

Yahya: Those are certainly problems, but I guess I would add that my pronunciation while speaking is not accurate.

Interviewer: Okay, thank you all for your responses to the first question. Now, let me move onto the second question:

Before attending this programme, had any of you ever heard the phrase "extensive reading"?

Could you respond first, Waleed?

Waleed: For me, this programme was the first time I encountered the phrase.

Interviewer: And had you ever heard the phrase "extensive reading" before this programme, Ali?

Ali: The same as Waleed – no.

Interviewer: What about you, Yahya?

Yahya: Again, the same. I had never heard the phrase before this programme.

Interviewer: Ok, thank you very much. Now, we'll move onto the third question, and I'd like to ask you to respond in detail. Okay, so have you noticed any differences in your English speaking skills before and after the intervention?

Who is ready to tell me? Remember, please answer in as much detail as you can. Yes, Ali?

Ali: Of course. I think my level of speaking after the intervention is better in many ways when compared to how it was before.

Interviewer: That's great to hear. Could you tell me in what ways you think it has been improved?

Ali: To be honest, the most noticeable thing for me is that my confidence has improved a lot. In addition, my vocabulary has grown considerably after encountering and acquiring so many new words in English. Nevertheless, I think there are still a number of difficulties, for example, the way I pronounce words.

Interviewer: So, you would say that your pronunciation has not improved?

Ali: I don't think it has, no.

Interviewer: Do you know why that might be?

Ali: Well, I think the extensive reading and oral report activities were useful because we saw all sorts of new words after reading so much and preparing for our reports. But it wasn't that useful for hearing the language and learning how to pronounce the new words I learned.

Interviewer: Thank you. Is there anything else you would like to add, Ali?

Ali: Hmm … no, nothing else. That's it.

Interviewer: Thanks very much, Ali. Ok, could I ask you the same question, Yahya.

Yahya: For me, I think my language has improved a great deal.

Interviewer: Great, Yahya. Could you tell me more about that?

Yahya: So, before the intervention, I felt extremely shy about speaking in English during class. Reflecting on that, I think the shyness came about because I was afraid of making mistakes while speaking. However, the great thing about the intervention is that it encouraged me to speak, regardless of any mistakes I might make. Because of this, although I think I made quite a few mistakes while speaking – particularly grammatical mistakes – I have learned loads of

new words, sentences, and grammatical structures. Moreover, I have learned how to use them and when.

Interviewer: Okay. You can add anything else you'd like, Yahya.

Yahya: Okay, let me think … So, for me, the oral report activities were the most valuable part of the intervention. Extensive reading was fine, but the oral report activity was really very interesting.

Interviewer: Could you tell me why that is?

Yahya: Well, it's mainly because of what I said before. Having the opportunity to speak in English and, moreover, being encouraged to speak in spite of any mistakes I might make, greatly improved my confidence. It also brought me into contact with so many words that I might not have seen otherwise.

Interviewer: Okay, what are your thoughts about the reading part?

Yahya: I think reading is crucial. However, reading without the oral report would not be useful at all … from my point of view, anyway.

Interviewer: Could you explain why you think that's the case?

Yahya: It's just based on how I feel I've learned from the experience: the reading was valuable, but actually having to speak in the oral report activities was invaluable. It's difficult to gain confidence in speaking a language when you're only reading it. Furthermore, speaking and making any mistakes is the best way to train speaking.

Interviewer: Thanks, Yahya, that's all great. Yes ... so, Waleed, what do you think? Have you noticed any differences in your English speaking skills before and after attending the English-speaking course?

Waleed: Of course, my speaking after the intervention is better than it was before.

Interviewer: Could you please elaborate?

Waleed: Sure – so, before this intervention, I spoke very, very slowly, yet now I speak faster than I ever have before.

Interviewer: Do you know why that might be, Waleed?

Waleed: Well, I think it's mainly because I prepared extensively before the oral report activities. Also, I think my grammar is now better than it was before, and this is especially the case for the tenses. In other words, the most noticeable difference for me is that I can now speak in English using a variety of tenses with relatively few mistakes.

Interviewer: Great, Waleed. Is there anything else you'd like to add?

Waleed: Yes, as I said, I consider myself a good English speaker now. That's it for me.

Interviewer: Good to hear that, thank you all. So, now we'll move onto the fourth question. Speaking in general terms, what do you think about extensive reading and the oral report activities? Could we start with Ali this time?

Ali: I think that both of these were good experiences for me. I really enjoyed the intervention, and it wasn't just good for speaking, but also for developing my ability in English in general. One thing I might add is that the time was short. I think that with more semesters to do this intervention, any of these improvements we just mentioned would only be amplified.

Interviewer: So, you would say that nine months are not enough, Ali?

Ali: Yes, I don't think that's long enough. More time would have been very helpful.

Interviewer: Do you think two semesters would be enough for the intervention?

Ali: Maybe. I would say at least two semesters.

Interviewer: Okay. Do you have anything else to add, Ali?

Ali: No, that's everything.

Interviewer: What do you think, Waleed? I'll repeat the question for you: what do you think about extensive reading and the oral report activities?

Waleed: I think I agree with Ali that the time for the intervention was too short. I think that reading more and doing more oral reports than we did this semester would be highly beneficial and interesting experience. That's all I can say.

Interviewer: Thanks, Waleed. Yahya, would you please respond to the same question?

Yahya: I think I agree with the others that more time would have been useful for the intervention, but I'd like to emphasise that what did happen was useful in itself. From the experience, I certainly think that the extensive reading and the oral report activities are the best way to enhance vocabulary, especially in speaking. Also, I think that the best thing about this intervention was the way it really encouraged us to use English when we speak inside the class. But yes, more time – as with anything, perhaps – would certainly have driven better improvements across the board.

Interviewer: Thank you all. So, can you all tell me – how did you prepare for the oral report activities?

Yes, Ali.

Ali: Hmm … so, at first, I read the book two or three times over. After that, I tried to understand the main ideas and the main topic. Sometimes, when I encountered a word I hadn't previously seen, I used the dictionary to understand its meaning. And in turn, I would write a summary of the book. Finally, I would try to memorise the summary.

Interviewer: Ok, Ali. How did you prepare for the oral report activities, Yahya?

Yahya: My approach was similar to Ali's. I would first read the book in detail and use the dictionary while going through it. When I finished, I would write a report about the things I'd been reading. Finally, I would discuss the written report with my classmate to prepare an oral report.

Interviewer: Thanks. And how about you, Waleed?

Waleed: Again, my approach was largely similar to Ali's. One difference is that I never memorised my summaries; instead, I tried to explain the main ideas in my own words. Also, I would find someone to have a dialogue with to prepare for the oral report in advance.

Interviewer: Okay. So, one final question: Do you think that "extensive reading activities" can develop your English speaking skills in terms of grammar and vocabulary?

Yahya: Definitely.

Ali: Yes.

Waleed: For sure.

Interviewer: Could you tell me how, Ali?

Ali: It's mainly because, when reading, I learned so many new words. In addition to this, I saw how the words were being used in sentences, and that helped a lot with the grammatical aspects – I could look and see how it's meant to be written, and then copy the structures. After that, the process of trying to imitate what I had read in the book when using the new words in oral report activities really solidified the knowledge. So, yes, I think these activities can develop grammar and vocabulary when speaking.

Interviewer: Thanks, Ali. Is this the same for you, Yahya?

Yahya: I agree with Ali. Also, when I was reading the texts, it's a great way to find and learn how grammatical structures are used correctly in the sentences. So, I tried to include these grammatical structures in my oral reports.

Interviewer: Waleed?

Waleed: I think Ali and Yahya's answers are relatively comprehensive, so I would just say I agree with everything they said. I can say one more thing which is " I really enjoy the oral report".

Interviewer: Well … that's the end of the interview. Thank you so much.