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DEVELOPING STUDENTS' COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE THROUGH TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOL EFL CLASSROOMS

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Abstract

The continuing shift from knowledge-oriented foreign language instruction towards the practical use of language has made communicative competence one of the central concerns of contemporary English language education. Yet the ability to reproduce grammatical rules, complete vocabulary exercises, or recognize correct linguistic forms does not automatically enable a learner to participate successfully in spontaneous communication. This discrepancy is particularly significant in secondary school English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, where limited lesson time, mixed levels of proficiency, examination requirements, large classes, and learners' reluctance to speak may restrict opportunities for purposeful interaction. The present study examines Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) as a methodological framework for developing students' communicative competence under these conditions. Rather than treating a task as an additional speaking exercise attached to a conventional lesson, the study approaches it as an organizing unit through which linguistic knowledge is activated in the process of solving a problem, exchanging information, reaching an agreement, making a decision, or producing another meaningful outcome. The research is based on a qualitative analytical methodology combining theoretical analysis, comparative interpretation of contemporary approaches to communicative language education, pedagogical modelling, and systematic examination of the relationship between task



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characteristics and major dimensions of communicative competence. Particular attention is paid to the balance between meaning-focused interaction and attention to linguistic form, the sequencing of pre-task, task-performance, and post-task work, learner participation, interactional support, and the pedagogical role of the teacher. The analysis indicates that the educational value of TBLT does not derive from the mere presence of pair or group work. Its effectiveness depends on whether learners have a genuine communicative purpose, an information or reasoning gap, sufficient but not excessive linguistic support, responsibility for an observable outcome, and opportunities to reflect on and improve their language after task performance. On this basis, the article proposes a pedagogical model in which communicative, linguistic, strategic, sociolinguistic, and discourse-related abilities develop as interconnected aspects of language use. The findings have methodological significance for secondary school EFL teachers seeking to move beyond mechanical language practice without abandoning systematic work on vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and accuracy.

Keywords: Task-Based Language Teaching, communicative competence, EFL, secondary education, communicative task, interaction, language teaching methodology, learner engagement, focus on form, English language teaching.

Introduction

The question of what it means to “know” a foreign language has changed considerably in language pedagogy. For a long period, success in school-based foreign language learning was commonly associated with knowledge of grammatical structures, the ability to translate sentences, mastery of prescribed vocabulary, and accuracy in written exercises. Such knowledge remains



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important, but classroom experience repeatedly reveals its limitations: a learner may understand a grammatical rule and still hesitate when required to ask for clarification, maintain a conversation, explain an opinion, negotiate meaning, respond to an unexpected question, or reorganize an utterance after being misunderstood. The difference between possessing knowledge about language and being able to use language appropriately is therefore not merely terminological; it determines the organization of the entire instructional process. Contemporary understandings of communicative competence regard successful language use as a multidimensional capacity in which grammatical resources interact with discourse organization, sociolinguistic appropriateness, strategic behaviour, comprehension, mediation, and the ability to achieve purposes through communication. The action-oriented perspective associated with contemporary European language education likewise places considerable emphasis on the learner as a social agent who uses linguistic resources to perform meaningful actions rather than simply demonstrating isolated knowledge of forms. This understanding has direct relevance to secondary school EFL education because the school classroom often constitutes the learner's principal, and sometimes almost exclusive, environment for using English. If most of that environment is occupied by teacher explanation, reproduction of model sentences, translation, decontextualized grammar exercises, or responses whose content is already known to all participants, students may receive considerable linguistic input while remaining relatively inexperienced as communicators. The resulting difficulty is familiar to teachers: students who perform adequately in controlled activities can become uncertain when the communicative situation changes even slightly. This does not mean that explicit instruction is unnecessary or that grammar should be removed from the curriculum. The methodological problem is more subtle. Linguistic knowledge must be connected with occasions



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that require learners to retrieve, adapt, combine, and negotiate that knowledge for a communicative reason. Task-Based Language Teaching offers one possible response to this problem because it shifts the immediate centre of classroom activity from practising a predetermined structure to achieving an outcome through language. In the development of TBLT, the concept of a task has acquired several interpretations, yet major accounts share an important distinction between an activity whose primary purpose is manipulation of language and an activity in which learners use language as a resource for accomplishing something beyond the production of a particular grammatical form. Contemporary scholarship traces TBLT to communicative language teaching and second-language acquisition research and treats questions of task definition, classification, sequencing, focus on form, assessment, and implementation as interconnected rather than isolated methodological issues. A classroom task may involve comparing alternatives, reconstructing information, planning an event, identifying differences, resolving a practical problem, interviewing classmates, reaching consensus, interpreting a short text for a particular purpose, or preparing an oral product for an audience. What makes these activities pedagogically significant is not their superficial attractiveness but the relationship between communicative need and linguistic choice. When one learner possesses information another learner needs, when group members must defend competing options, or when students need to explain evidence before arriving at a common decision, language acquires an immediate functional value. Such conditions can encourage learners to listen more attentively, formulate meanings more precisely, notice gaps in their linguistic resources, request clarification, paraphrase unfamiliar expressions, and adjust their speech according to interlocutor response. At the same time, TBLT should not be romanticized as a method in which students simply talk freely while the teacher withdraws from instruction. Unstructured interaction may reproduce



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errors, permit stronger students to dominate, leave less confident learners silent, or encourage excessive reliance on the first language. The pedagogical quality of a task therefore depends upon its design, cognitive demands, linguistic accessibility, interaction pattern, timing, teacher mediation, and connection with pre-task and post-task work. Research-oriented accounts of TBLT specifically distinguish pre-task preparation, the main task phase, and post-task procedures and examine options such as planning, corrective feedback, focus on form, and task repetition. This distinction is especially important in school contexts, where the curriculum cannot be replaced by a sequence of unrelated communicative games. Tasks must serve curricular objectives while allowing students to experience language as purposeful action. A further issue concerns the difference between task-based and task-supported instruction. In a fully task-based syllabus, tasks can serve as major units for organizing content, whereas task-supported instruction may retain a more conventional syllabus while using carefully designed tasks to create meaningful opportunities for language use. For many secondary schools, the second possibility may provide a realistic transition because teachers must work with prescribed textbooks, assessment requirements, fixed timetables, and expected grammatical and lexical content. The present article consequently does not argue for the rejection of existing instructional structures. Instead, it investigates how task-based principles can reorganize the relationship between what learners know and what they can actually do with English. The research problem is formulated around a methodological contradiction: secondary school EFL instruction is expected to develop communicatively capable learners, yet classroom procedures may still provide insufficient conditions for sustained, purposeful, learner-generated interaction. The aim of the study is to identify pedagogical conditions under which task-based instruction can contribute to the systematic development of communicative



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competence in secondary school EFL classrooms and to construct a methodological model connecting task design, learner interaction, attention to form, and reflective post-task work. The scientific significance of the study lies in treating communicative competence not as an isolated speaking skill but as an integrated outcome emerging from repeated cycles of purposeful language use, feedback, linguistic noticing, adjustment, and renewed performance. This approach allows task-based pedagogy to be considered not as an alternative collection of classroom activities but as a mechanism for transforming linguistic material into communicative experience.

Materials and Methods

The study employed a qualitative analytical and pedagogical-modelling design appropriate to its purpose of identifying the methodological mechanisms through which task-based instruction can support communicative competence rather than claiming an experimentally measured effect for a population that was not subjected to a controlled intervention. The methodological procedure combined conceptual analysis of communicative competence, examination of established TBLT principles, comparative analysis of traditional form-dominated exercises and meaning-oriented tasks, functional classification of classroom interaction, and pedagogical modelling of a task cycle suitable for secondary school EFL settings. The theoretical foundation was informed by scholarship that interprets TBLT from cognitive-interactionist, psycholinguistic, sociocultural, psychological, and educational perspectives; this breadth is important because task performance cannot be reduced to a single mechanism such as vocabulary practice or speaking time. Contemporary TBLT scholarship explicitly considers interaction, noticing, corrective feedback, task complexity, working memory, motivation, anxiety, engagement, collaborative dialogue, and sociocultural



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mediation as relevant dimensions of task-based learning. In the present analysis, a pedagogical activity was treated as a communicative task when four functional conditions were substantially present: meaning had priority in completing the activity; learners encountered a communicative, informational, reasoning, or opinion-based need that could not be satisfied solely by reproducing a model; participants used their available linguistic resources with some degree of choice; and completion led to an identifiable non-linguistic or communicative outcome such as a decision, plan, solution, comparison, ranking, reconstruction, recommendation, or agreed interpretation. These criteria were used to distinguish a task from exercises in which students already know both the content and expected linguistic form. The analytical model then connected task characteristics with five interdependent domains of communicative development: linguistic resources, understood as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and phraseological repertoire; discourse competence, understood as the capacity to construct connected and coherent stretches of language; interactional and strategic competence, including turn-taking, clarification, repair, paraphrase, confirmation, and compensation for missing language; sociolinguistic appropriateness, including sensitivity to interlocutor, situation, politeness, and register; and functional achievement, meaning the learner's capacity to accomplish the communicative purpose. For methodological modelling, the instructional cycle was organized into pre-task orientation, initial task performance, language-focused reflection, and improved performance or transfer. This four-part formulation intentionally extends a simple before-during-after sequence by separating reflection on language from subsequent reuse, because noticing an error or useful expression does not necessarily result in more controlled production unless learners receive another opportunity to employ the revised resource. During pre-task work, the teacher's function is not to pre-teach



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every sentence that students may need; doing so would remove the need for genuine formulation. Instead, the teacher activates relevant background knowledge, clarifies the outcome, demonstrates the nature of the task, introduces essential lexical support where communicative breakdown would otherwise be unavoidable, and establishes participation expectations. The initial performance stage transfers greater responsibility to learners. Pair and small-group configurations are particularly useful because they increase the number of students who can speak simultaneously, although grouping itself is not considered evidence of communication: learners must have a reason to attend to one another. Information-gap, reasoning-gap, opinion-gap, problem-solving, decision-making, ranking, jigsaw, survey, planning, and collaborative reconstruction formats were therefore examined in relation to the kind of interaction they naturally elicit. The language-focused reflection stage involves selective attention to problems that became visible during performance. Rather than interrupting every utterance, the teacher records recurrent or high-value difficulties and subsequently guides learners to compare alternatives, reformulate unclear expressions, notice useful collocations, improve grammatical accuracy, and consider pronunciation where intelligibility is affected. This reflects the TBLT principle that attention to form can occur within a primarily meaning-oriented lesson rather than being excluded from it. The final stage consists of task repetition, modified repetition, reporting, or transfer to a related task. Repetition here is not mechanical memorization: students perform the same communicative operation with improved linguistic control or apply recently noticed language to a new but structurally comparable situation. Task difficulty was analysed through several variables, including familiarity of topic, number of elements to process, abstractness, amount of information, availability of planning time, degree of reasoning required, interlocutor support, time pressure, and expected output. This



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aspect is essential for mixed-ability secondary classrooms because the same nominal task can create very different cognitive and linguistic burdens for different learners. Contemporary work on task-based syllabus design likewise emphasizes task complexity, interactional potential, learner differences, needs analysis, and sequencing rather than assuming that all communicative tasks are equally demanding. Differentiation within the proposed model was therefore achieved by varying support rather than automatically assigning entirely different curricular goals: less proficient learners might receive a small lexical bank, visual prompts, planning frames, or additional preparation time, while more proficient learners could be given fewer prompts, additional constraints, a more complex audience, or a requirement to justify and challenge viewpoints. Assessment criteria were similarly aligned with the multidimensional character of communication. Instead of evaluating only grammatical error counts, the model considers task completion, comprehensibility, relevance, interactional contribution, fluency appropriate to level, range of linguistic resources, accuracy where it affects communication, and ability to respond to interlocutors. No invented learner scores, percentages, sample sizes, or experimental gains are reported. The “results” of the study consequently refer to findings generated through conceptual comparison and pedagogical modelling, not to fabricated empirical measurements. This methodological limitation is deliberate: it preserves the distinction between a theoretically grounded model that can guide classroom implementation and empirical claims that would require an actual participant sample, ethical procedures, pre- and post-assessment instruments, classroom observation, and statistical analysis.



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Results

The analysis produced a pedagogical model in which the development of communicative competence is understood as a cyclical movement from communicative need to linguistic mobilization, interactional adjustment, reflective noticing, and improved reuse. The first result concerns the nature of classroom participation. Merely increasing the quantity of student speech is insufficient; what matters is whether speech carries information that another participant needs or contributes to an outcome that cannot be achieved without listening and responding. A question-answer sequence such as “Do you like travelling?” may provide brief oral practice, but if every student independently answers the teacher, the interactional demand remains low. The same thematic content becomes methodologically richer when pairs possess different travel information and must jointly design an itinerary under time, budget, or preference constraints. Students then have to ask follow-up questions, reject unsuitable options, explain reasons, clarify details, and reach agreement. The language is no longer produced because the textbook requests a sentence; it is produced because the group needs it to continue the activity. The second result is that communicative competence develops more coherently when tasks create simultaneous pressure on several language capacities. A decision-making task, for example, may require vocabulary retrieval, modal expressions, comparison, discourse markers, turn management, disagreement strategies, clarification, and summarizing. These resources are not taught as unrelated fragments but converge around a communicative purpose. This convergence helps explain why a task can serve as a bridge between linguistic knowledge and functional use. The third result concerns the role of difficulty. Tasks that are too easy may generate little linguistic development because learners can complete them with minimal language; tasks that are excessively demanding can produce silence, first-



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language dependence, formulaic survival strategies, or unequal participation. Effective task design therefore requires a productive level of challenge. Topic familiarity, visual support, planning time, group size, amount of information, reasoning demands, and required output can all be manipulated without lowering the intellectual dignity of the activity. This is particularly useful in heterogeneous classes: differentiation need not mean that weaker students receive simplistic work while stronger students receive meaningful work. Instead, all learners can pursue the same communicative outcome with different levels of scaffolding. The fourth result relates to the teacher's role. TBLT does not reduce teacher involvement; it changes its timing and purpose. Before a task, the teacher establishes conditions for successful engagement. During performance, excessive correction can damage fluency and interaction, but attentive observation supplies evidence for later instruction. After performance, the teacher becomes a language analyst who selects recurrent problems and useful emerging forms for focused treatment. In this respect, task-based work can create a stronger basis for explicit language instruction because the forms examined after the task have already been experienced as communicatively necessary. A learner who struggled to express disagreement politely, compare two options, or clarify a misunderstanding has a concrete reason to attend to the relevant expression when it is subsequently discussed. The fifth result is that post-task work is indispensable when the instructional objective includes accuracy and complexity as well as participation. Without post-task reflection, students may successfully complete an activity while continuing to rely on restricted vocabulary or inaccurate forms. A short reconstruction of problematic utterances, comparison of alternative formulations, attention to recurring grammatical difficulties, and repetition of the communicative task can connect fluency with greater control. The methodological literature on TBLT specifically recognizes task repetition as an



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important post-task option and treats corrective feedback and focus on form as compatible with task-based pedagogy. The sixth result concerns learner engagement. An educational perspective on TBLT emphasizes experience, doing, engagement, affect, and learner perceptions, suggesting that the value of tasks is partly related to learners' personal investment in what they are doing. In the school context this implies that "communicative" does not necessarily mean entertaining. A task may be serious, academically demanding, or connected with curricular knowledge and still be highly communicative if learners perceive a purpose and possess meaningful responsibility for the outcome. Conversely, a colourful game may produce little communicative development when it merely disguises mechanical repetition. The seventh result is the identification of an implementation principle that may be described as "controlled methodological openness." Learners require freedom to choose language because genuine communication cannot be completely scripted, yet the teacher retains control over task objective, resources, time, grouping, cognitive demand, support, observation, feedback, and progression. This balance prevents two common extremes: the highly controlled lesson in which learners rarely make communicative decisions, and the loosely organized speaking lesson in which interaction occurs but systematic language development is uncertain. The eighth result concerns assessment. When instruction is organized around communicative performance but assessment rewards only isolated grammatical accuracy, students receive contradictory messages about what counts as successful language learning. The proposed model therefore aligns assessment with task performance. A learner who completes the task, makes ideas comprehensible, reacts appropriately to partners, repairs misunderstandings, and uses a growing range of language demonstrates development even if minor errors remain. Accuracy remains relevant, especially when errors obstruct meaning or concern



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forms previously studied, but it is considered alongside functional achievement and interaction rather than as the sole indicator. Finally, the analysis shows that TBLT is particularly valuable not because it eliminates conventional language work but because it can establish a productive relationship between explicit knowledge and communicative action. Vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, reading, listening, writing, and speaking need not exist as separate instructional territories. A well-designed task can draw several of them together: learners may read different short sources, discuss their information, negotiate a position, prepare a written summary, and orally report a decision. Such integration more closely reflects the way language functions beyond the classroom and creates repeated occasions for learners to transform receptive knowledge into productive and interactive competence.

Discussion

The findings suggest that the methodological importance of TBLT should be located neither in a simple opposition between “traditional” and “modern” teaching nor in the assumption that communication automatically produces acquisition. The more defensible interpretation is that tasks create conditions in which language knowledge is placed under functional pressure: learners must select from what they know, recognize what they do not know, respond to another person’s contribution, and adjust language to accomplish an outcome. This view is consistent with the broader theoretical foundations of TBLT, which have been developed through cognitive-interactionist, psycholinguistic, sociocultural, psychological, and educational perspectives rather than through a single theory of learning. From a cognitive-interactionist perspective, communicative tasks can create opportunities for negotiation of meaning, feedback, modified output, and noticing; from a sociocultural perspective, collaborative performance can be



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understood as a setting in which learners jointly construct meaning and support one another's participation; from an educational perspective, tasks foreground experience, agency, engagement, and purposeful action. These perspectives are not identical, and they should not be artificially collapsed into one explanation. Their practical convergence, however, is significant: language learning benefits when students are not only recipients of linguistic information but active participants in situations that require them to make meaning. The proposed model also addresses a persistent criticism of communicative approaches: the fear that emphasis on meaning leads to insufficient grammatical accuracy. Such a result is possible when communication is interpreted as unrestricted conversation without systematic feedback. It is not an inevitable property of TBLT. The distinction between focus on forms and focus on form is useful here. A lesson dominated by predetermined forms may ask learners to practise a linguistic item regardless of whether communication requires it; a meaning-oriented task with focus on form allows linguistic attention to arise in relation to communicative performance. This does not prohibit planned grammar instruction. Rather, it changes the pedagogical relationship between explanation and use. For secondary school learners, especially those who may have limited exposure to English outside school, a carefully calibrated combination is likely to be more realistic than an ideological commitment to either extreme. Learners need explicit support, but they also need opportunities to discover that knowing a rule does not guarantee immediate access to that rule during communication. The pedagogical cycle proposed in this study therefore makes the first task performance diagnostically important. It reveals not only what learners can do but where their resources fail under communicative pressure. Post-task work then has an evidential basis. If several students repeatedly avoid past forms while recounting events, cannot soften disagreement, misuse a high-frequency collocation, or fail to signal relationships



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between ideas, the teacher can respond to a need that has become visible through use. A subsequent performance provides an opportunity to convert awareness into improved production. This cyclical logic also has implications for learner psychology. Students who fear speaking often experience oral work as public testing: they believe every sentence is immediately evaluated for error. Pair and small-group tasks can redistribute attention from the correctness of each utterance to the achievement of a shared outcome. Yet group work is not inherently equitable. Stronger students may take control, quieter learners may accept peripheral roles, and friendship patterns may determine participation. For this reason, task design should incorporate participation structures such as information distribution, rotating roles, individual preparation before group discussion, required reporting, or responsibility for different pieces of evidence. These mechanisms make participation functionally necessary without forcing artificial equality of speaking time. Another issue is the use of learners' first language. In secondary EFL classrooms, absolute prohibition may be unrealistic and can sometimes interfere with complex reasoning, while unrestricted use may remove the need to communicate in English. A task-based approach permits a more functional principle: English should be the primary resource for completing the communicative operation, while carefully bounded first-language use may support planning or conceptual clarification where appropriate to learner level and instructional purpose. The long-term objective is not ritual compliance with an "English only" rule but increasing the range of functions students can successfully perform in English. Task sequencing is equally important. If students encounter tasks randomly, communicative practice may remain episodic. A developmental sequence should gradually alter cognitive, linguistic, and interactional demands. Learners might initially describe concrete information with visual support, later compare alternatives, subsequently justify choices, and



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eventually evaluate competing claims or synthesize information from several sources. TBLT scholarship has treated syllabus design as a complex issue involving needs, task complexity, interactional potential, individual differences, and pedagogical sequencing. In a school system with an established curriculum, such sequencing can operate within textbook units rather than replacing them. A unit on environmental issues, for instance, need not culminate in another set of vocabulary exercises; learners might use the vocabulary and grammatical resources from the unit to examine several proposals for improving their school environment, negotiate priorities, and present a reasoned action plan. A unit on travel could culminate in itinerary planning; a unit on health could involve interpreting age-appropriate informational materials and designing a school wellbeing poster; a unit on technology could require comparing tools for a defined educational purpose. In each case, the task transforms curricular content into a communicative problem. The CEFR's action-oriented conception of the learner as a social agent offers a useful broader context for this shift because it frames language proficiency around what learners can accomplish through language and extends attention beyond isolated linguistic knowledge. Nevertheless, contextual adaptation remains essential. TBLT developed through international scholarship cannot simply be transferred unchanged into every educational setting. Secondary schools differ in class size, timetable, assessment culture, teacher workload, available technology, student proficiency, and expectations of parents and administrators. Methodological feasibility therefore requires selective adaptation. A teacher working with a large class does not need elaborate projects in every lesson; a ten- or fifteen-minute information-gap or reasoning task can create meaningful interaction if it is carefully integrated with the lesson objective. Nor should every language point be discovered through tasks. Some forms can be explained economically and then incorporated into



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meaningful use. The key methodological question is not whether a lesson is “purely task-based,” but whether learners regularly experience a transition from learning language as an object to using language as a resource for thought, interaction, and action. This distinction is especially relevant to communicative competence because competence develops through accumulated experience of making linguistic choices under varying conditions. The pedagogical implication is that teachers should evaluate tasks by evidence of communicative necessity rather than by appearance. A task is methodologically strong when learners need one another’s contributions, when there is more than one possible linguistic route to the outcome, when the outcome is clear, when cognitive demand is appropriate, and when performance generates material for subsequent learning. Such criteria also protect task-based teaching from becoming a fashionable label applied to ordinary exercises. The present study is limited by its analytical rather than experimental design. It does not claim measured gains among a specific group of students. Its contribution lies in establishing a theoretically grounded model and specifying pedagogical conditions that can subsequently be tested empirically. Future classroom research could implement the model over a defined period and examine changes in fluency, interactional competence, lexical diversity, grammatical accuracy, learner participation, speaking anxiety, and task achievement through pre/post performance measures, observation protocols, recordings, learner reflections, and teacher journals. Such research would be especially valuable in local secondary-school contexts because it could determine which task types and scaffolding strategies are most effective under actual curricular and classroom constraints.



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Conclusion

The development of communicative competence in secondary school EFL education requires more than the accumulation of grammatical knowledge and lexical material. Students need structured opportunities to transform that knowledge into purposeful language use, to experience communicative difficulty, to negotiate meaning, to make linguistic choices, to receive relevant feedback, and to attempt improved performance. Task-Based Language Teaching provides a coherent methodological framework for creating these opportunities when tasks are designed as meaningful communicative actions rather than decorative speaking activities. The analysis conducted in this study shows that the pedagogical potential of TBLT rests on several interconnected conditions: the presence of a genuine communicative purpose, an identifiable outcome, an appropriate information or reasoning gap, manageable cognitive and linguistic demands, active learner responsibility, purposeful interaction, selective teacher scaffolding, post-task attention to form, and opportunities for repetition or transfer. Under these conditions, linguistic, discourse, strategic, sociolinguistic, and interactional dimensions of competence can be developed in relation to one another rather than as isolated curricular elements. The study further demonstrates that task-based pedagogy need not be understood as a rejection of explicit grammar teaching, textbooks, curricular standards, or teacher guidance. Its more important contribution is the reorganization of these resources around communicative action. The teacher remains central as a designer of conditions for learning, an observer of performance, a provider of timely linguistic support, and an analyst of difficulties that emerge from real language use. For secondary school practice, a task-supported transition may therefore be particularly productive: existing curricular material can be retained while selected stages of instruction are redesigned so that students must use English to solve problems,



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exchange necessary information, justify decisions, construct shared meanings, and produce outcomes for an audience. Such an approach also offers a more authentic basis for assessment because successful language use can be evaluated through comprehensibility, task achievement, interaction, strategic behaviour, fluency, range, and accuracy rather than through error counting alone. At the same time, the effectiveness of TBLT should not be assumed merely because students work in pairs or groups. Communicative competence develops when interaction contains genuine cognitive and interpersonal work and when that experience is connected with deliberate reflection on language. The principal methodological conclusion is therefore that a productive EFL classroom should create a recurring movement between knowledge and use: students prepare linguistic resources, employ them for a meaningful purpose, encounter the limits of those resources, analyse relevant forms and strategies, and return to communication with greater control. Repeated across topics and levels of difficulty, this cycle can gradually reduce the gap between “knowing English” as a school subject and being able to use English as a means of communication. The proposed model provides a theoretical and methodological basis for organizing that process in secondary education and establishes directions for subsequent empirical investigation in real school settings.

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