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DEVELOPING THE SPEAKING SKILL IN ANATOLIAN LYCEES PREP CLASSES WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON FLUENCY

M.A. THESIS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

English is important as an international language. British trade followed by colonial and imperial expansion, spread English round the world. Since then the military and economic dominance of the United States of America has confirmed English as the international language of the present historical period. As a result, English serves many people as a bridge into the worlds of higher education, science, politics, international trade, tourism or any other venture which interests them.

People usually learn English because for some reason, in some way, they want to be able to communicate in English. When it is not so as with school children or students following compulsory courses there is still some kind of communicative goal motivating them.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

This study aims to develop oral skills in prep classes of Anatolian lycees. It has been observed that learners have problems while interacting with others in and outside the classroom. The purpose of this study is to find out underlying problems and bring about possible solutions to these problems so as to improve and develop the skill of speaking among Beginner - Elementary prep students at Anatolian lycees.

1.2 Problem

The aim of teaching English as a foreign language should be to enable learners to communicate in that language. One of the basic problems in foreign language teaching is lack of helping learners improve and develop their speaking skill to be able to use the language fluently and appropriately. The oral skill seems to be very difficult to teach since productive skills require more practice.

Preparing learners to be able to use the language is a problem in foreign language teaching. In Turkey it is a problem for Anatolian lycees prep class students, what to say and how to express their ideas, feelings and thoughts in English. The form of spoken language is affected by the time limitations and the associated problems of planning, memory and of production under pressure. Another problem is that since learners have got the fear of making mistakes they are not confident while interacting with others.

1.3 Scope of the Study

The subject group consists of prep classes of Anatolian lycees. Intermediate and advanced students will be out of the study.

1.4 Assumptions

Although the Anatolian Lycee prep classes in Ankara will be taken as the source of the study, the results will be generalised with the assumption that the same suggestions can be applied to these schools all over Turkey.



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Language, Communication and The Skill of Speaking

2.1 Nature of Language and Communication

Although language is a medium of communication and both terms are very closely related they are not the same phenomenon. Konig et. al. (1993: 3) tries to distinguish the two phenomenon in that "all observable behaviour is communicative". He puts forth that "conclusions about the people can be drawn from the way they behave ... on their facial expressions. Nonverbal behaviour accompanying language such as gesture, tone of voice etc. are highly communicative in a speech event." Thus, it is obvious that according to Konig et. al. communication is more comprehensive including paralinguistic features.

Littlewood (1992: 9) clarifies the distinction between language and communication in that "language does not only enable us to communicate with other people it has also mental functions and affects how we understand and reflect on the world around us. Our experience of language in social settings leads us to categorise the world in similar ways to people around us and to manipulate these categories in our thinking."

On the other hand, Konig and Littlewood's views overlap in that language is not the only means of communication. For example, "... in an everyday conversation, non-verbal signals such as posture and eye contact

play an important part in regulating turn-taking between speakers" (Littlewood 1992: 8).

In a communication process, people either use the spoken or the written form of the language. This can be true in the use of the native language, as well as the second or foreign language. When people learn a foreign language, they usually want to make use of that language to communicate with people who speak the same language. They can find themselves in the need of understanding them, talking to them, reading what they have written and writing to them.

Over a decade ago, Harmer put forth (1983: 42) that: "Whenever communication takes places, of course, there is a speaker (and/or writer) and a listener (and/or reader). This is the case even where a novelist writes a manuscript, for here the writer assumes that the reader will be performing a communicative act when reading the book."

In conversation and, for example, in the exchange of letters, the speaker or writer quickly becomes a listener or reader as the communication progresses.

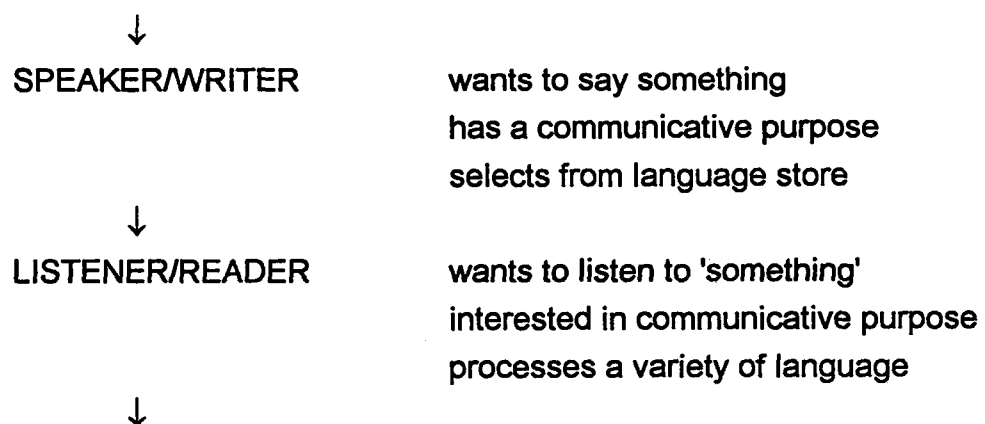


Figure 1. Harmer's view of nature of communication

Almost a decade later, Littlewood (1992: 11) brought a new dimension to the nature of communication after studying non-verbal communication. From the point of view of FL learners, he mentions three important aspects of communication.

- 1- FL will be a new signal-system that they must learn to process;
- 2- They will need to learn a new code for connecting the signals with the range of meanings that has been established by convention;
- 3- They will have to develop the ability to process the language on particular occasions, where their background knowledge (e.g. of the situation and the world) will enable them to narrow down the range of possible meanings and perceive the specific meaning appropriate to the situation.

2.1.1 Nature of Oral Communication

In Scott's view (1981: 48), oral communication is an activity involving two (or more) people in which the participants are both hearers and speakers having to react to what they hear and make their contributions at high speed. He puts forth that some generalisations may be made when a participant does speak;

Firstly, each participant has an intention or set of intentions or goals that he wants to achieve in the interaction. Secondly, each participant has to be able to interpret what is said to him/her, which s/he has at her/his store in a way that considers what has just been said and which reflects his own intentions at this point in the interaction.

Byrne (1989: 7) points out that in the nature of oral communication, both speaker and listener have a positive function to perform. Scott's second generalisation overlaps with Byrne since Byrne reads as;

"... the speaker has to encode the message he wishes to convey in appropriate language, while listener (no less actively) has to decode (or interpret) the message (through the listener's interpretation will not necessarily correspond to the speaker's intended meaning). The message itself, in normal speech, usually contains more information than the listener actually need in order to understand, so that he is not obliged to follow with maximum attention. At the same time, the listener is helped by prosodic features, such as stress and intonation, which are part of the meaning of the spoken utterance, as well as by facial and bodily movements such as gestures."

We should also note that in contrast to the written language, where sentences are usually carefully structured and linked together, speech is often characterised by incomplete and sometimes ungrammatical utterances, and by frequent false starts and repetitions.

Thus, here it is inevitable that we should attempt to discuss and clarify the skill of speaking.

2.2 The Skill of Speaking

Candlin and Widdowson (1988: 7) point out that speaking is a skill which deserves attention as much as literary skills, in both first and second languages. They clarify the importance of the speaking skill as;

"Our learners often need to be able to speak with confidence in order to carry out many of their most basic transactions. It is the skill by which they are most frequently judged, and through which they may make or lose friends. It is the vehicle for excellence of social solidarity, of social ranking, of professional advancement and of business. It is also a medium through which much language is learnt, and which for many is particularly conducive for learning."

Thus, this view stated above makes us draw a distinction between knowledge and skill.

2.2.1 Knowledge vs. Skill

There is a difference between knowledge about the language and skill in using it. This distinction is important in teaching the skill of speaking.

Bygate points out (1988: 3) that we do not only know how to make sentences by using the correct grammar and vocabulary in the abstract, we also need to produce sentences and adapt them to circumstances. Therefore, this means making decisions rapidly (quickly) and adjusting our conversation as we encounter unexpected problems.

If we think about how we use our first language, then it is obvious that we spend most of our time using sentences, and very little of our time reviewing our knowledge or trying to compose perfect sentences. We would find it most difficult to describe and explain all the decisions we take when we speak. So knowledge is only a part of the affair: we also need skill. In other words, as König et. al. (1993: 4) point out a speaker has to know how to use the grammar of a language to send meaningful messages in real life situations. S/he must know what language variety to use in which situation, how to change the style according to whom s/he is addressing, when to speak or remain silent, when and what kind of gestures are used with what speech.

Bygate draws the fundamental distinction between knowledge and skill in that "while both can be understood and memorised, only a skill can be imitated and practised." By analogy, it is possible to know the rules of football but not be much good at playing; it is possible to know the rules of a language (i.e. its grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) and not be much good at speaking. In other words, the development of a skill requires **practice**.

At this point, we should attempt to focus on oral skills divided into motor-perceptive and interactive skills in order to clarify the process of speaking, and skills it involves.

2.2.2 The Process of Speaking and Oral Skills

The oral skill is considered as the most difficult skill to teach. Productive skills seem more difficult to master than receptive skills, listening and reading since the former (i.e. speaking and writing) involves the

encoding of information, while the latter involves only the decoding of information. Decoding is an analytical process by which the whole is broken into parts. Encoding, on the other hand, requires synthesis, i.e. putting the parts together to make the whole. By analogy, to take a radio apart is easier than putting it back together, the same way that decoding is easier than encoding.

Oral skills can be classified into motor-perceptive (MP) skills and Interaction skills. Bygate states that (1988: 5) MP skills involve perceiving, recalling and articulating, in the correct order, sounds and structures of the language. By analogy, developing MP skills is like learning how to drive on an empty road far from normal traffic. In other words, it is a context free kind of skill. The typical exercises of Audio Lingual Method such as model dialogues, pattern practice, and oral drill tables, work on the development of MP skills, i.e. they never take the learner to the traffic. (i.e. real-life communication.)

Bygate states that in addition to MP skills, there are other skills to be developed, which, as Wilkins puts forth, are those of "controlling one's own language production and having to make one's choices." Such skills are for interaction. So they are called Interaction skills. These are the skills of using knowledge and basic MP skills to achieve communication. Therefore, interaction skills involve making decisions about communication, such as what to say and how to say it and whether to develop it, in accordance with one's intentions (goals), while maintaining the desired relations with others.

Thus, to summarise, forming the perfect tense correctly with "have" followed by the past participle of the lexical verb belongs to MP skills and

having the ability to introduce yourself to someone you have never met is part of Interaction skills.

2.2.2.1 Two Factors that Affect Speech: Processing Conditions vs. Mutual Interaction (Reciprocity) Conditions

The main features of speaking which can be traced to 'processing conditions' involve the time factor. Bygate claims (1988: 11) that the words are being spoken as they are being decided and as they are being understood. The fact that they are being spoken as they are being decided affects the speaker's ability to plan and organise the message, and to control the language being used. Therefore, processing conditions refer to the way in which speech is affected by the same limitations, and the related problems of planning, memory, and of production which is under pressure.

Another factor that affects oral production is the Mutual Interaction (Reciprocity) Condition. This condition refers to the relation between the speaker and listener in the process of speech. As Bygate states (1988: 8), to give an example in reciprocal exchange, a speaker will often have to adjust his/her vocabulary and message to take the listener into account. The speaker also has to participate actively in the interlocutor's message, asking questions, reacting and so on. This is something which requires an ability to be flexible in communication, and a learner may need to be prepared for it.

2.2.3 Production Skills: Facilitation and Compensation

Time pressure tends to affect the language used in at least two ways. Firstly, speakers use devices in order to facilitate production, and secondly, they often compensate (i.e. get rid of quite easily) for the difficulties.

There are four main features of spoken language which arise from the need to facilitate production:

a) Simplified structure:

It is easier for speakers to improvise if they use less complex syntax. Bygate claims that (1988: 15) simplification can be found mainly in the tendency to tack new sentences on to previous ones by the use of 'coordinating conjunctions' like 'and', 'or', 'but', or no conjunction at all.

b) Ellipsis:

Because of time pressure, people take short cuts to avoid unnecessary effort in producing individual utterances. This leads speakers to abbreviate the message and produce 'incomplete' sentences or clauses, omitting unnecessary elements where possible. This is known as Ellipsis. Examples include: '-who?', '-on Saturday.', '-the tittle one.'

c) Formulaic Expressions:

It is easier for the speakers if they use fixed conventional phrases in their speech. For example;

- I don't believe a word of it.
- Who does he think he is?
- I thought you'd never ask.
- It's nice to meet you.

d) Time Creating Devices:

It is inevitable that they will use devices to gain time to speak. These devices include the use of fillers, pauses, and hesitations. One frequent kind of filler is the use of phrases like, "-well", "-erm", "-you know", and so on.

On the other hand, **compensation** features include self-correction; false starts; repetition; and rephrasing. However, both Facilitation and Compensation devices are used to gain time and reduce memory load. Moreover, as Bygate puts forth (1988: 21), all of these features may in fact help learners to speak, and to learn to speak. In addition, they may also help learners to sound normal in their use of a foreign language.

If native speakers speak in incomplete sentences, why should we expect language learners not to do so? !!! For example;

i) (City bus driver and a Boy)

- Boy: City, please
- B. driver: 70, please
- Boy: Thanks

ii) (Theresa and Laurence in teachers' room)

- Theresa: Got a light?
- Laurence: Yeah. Catch!
- Theresa: Thanks. (and gives it back)

Compare the previous extracts with the following:

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| - A: What's your name? | B: My name is John. |
| - A: Where do you live? | B: I live in Norwich. |
| - A: What's your address? | B: My address is 19 the Green. |

(Bygate 1988: 17)

Do such answers need to be in full sentences? !!!

2.2.4 Negotiation Skills: Meaning and Interaction

Negotiation skills refer to the skills of solving all sorts of communication problems which can be expected to occur in spoken exchanges. They consist of skills which are used to enable speakers to make themselves clearly understood whatever the interaction is, and to deal with communication problems that may occur.

- E.g.
- the ability to check on specific meanings;
 - to alter wording;
 - to correct mistaken interpretations;
 - to find words for ideas for which the speaker does not already have some generally accepted phrase.

By negotiating meaning Bygate (1988: 27) refers to the skill of communicating ideas clearly. This includes the way communicators signal understanding during an exchange. Knowledge of various ways of getting

things repeated, or clarified, or indeed how to repeat and clarify themselves, is likely to be highly useful to learners.

On the other hand, Littlewood (1992: 26) exemplifies negotiation of meaning (which he calls ***exchanging meaning***) as;

"Frank, Bill and John are sitting at the table in a restaurant where they have met to discuss the arrangements for their club's annual party. There is a pause. Before anybody speaks, there is already a considerable degree of overlap between the mental worlds of Frank, Bill and John."

This simply means that they have common elements that make up their *shared world* before the interaction begins.

"After a pause, John addresses Bill:

- I like that jacket you've got on, Bill." (Littlewood, 1992: 27).

Here, John's words focus all three participants on one particular aspect of this shared world. They also introduce into this world a number of new features, which correspond to the three kinds of meaning:

1. At the ***literal*** level of meaning, the words simply focus all three participants onto one particular aspect of the *shared situation* (**Bill's jacket**) and express the idea that John likes it.

2. At the ***functional*** level of meaning, *John* is making a communicative move to which the others will respond differently according to how they interpret it. For example, *Frank* may simply focus on the new information about John liking the jacket and indicate agreement or disagreement. Or he may think that John is being sarcastic (especially if he thinks the jacket is old) and tell him to be quiet. Bill himself may take it as a straight forward compliment and respond by thanking John. Or he may feel

embarrassed, because he realises that John knows he has borrowed it from a friend, and so on.

3. At the **social** level of meaning, the words may simply serve to indicate John's friendly interest in *Bill's welfare*. However, if they are interpreted as sarcastic, they might introduce tension or hostility. Or if John and Bill are not already well acquainted, John's use of Bill's first name could be taken "as an attempt to make the relationship less formal"; and so on. (Littlewood 1992: 28).

In this way, new elements of various kinds are introduced into the shared world, through the combined effect of John's words and the others' interpretations of them. These interpretations lead to responses which, in their turn, introduce new elements into the shared world. And so the process continues: the conversation is constructed through collaborative activity, as the speakers introduce new meaning into the shared world, respond to them, clarify them, reject or expand on them, until the interaction comes to a close.

On the other hand, management of interaction refers to agreeing who is going to speak next (i.e. who talks when), what s/he is going to talk about and how a conversation is begun and ended. (Bygate 1988: 27; Littlewood 1992: 38).

Bygate emphasises the importance of management of interaction in that since in real-life communication there is no chairperson to decide the order in which people will speak or what can be spoken about (ironically, to protect the speaking rights of foreign speakers), they have to do this (i.e. learn conversational rules and structure) themselves.

Dörnyei and Thurell point out that conversational rules and structure refers to how conversation is organised, and what prevents it from

continually breaking down into a chaos of interruptions and simultaneous talk (ELT Journal, Vol. 48, No. 1, Jan. 1994: 25-44).

Thus, management of interaction involves **Openings** (e.g. How are you?, Excuse me, do you know ...?; That's a nice little dog ...; At last some sunshine!; The traffic in this city is simply incredible ...; Great party, isn't it?), **Turn taking, Interrupting, Topic-shift** (e.g. Oh, by the way ..., That reminds me of ..., As I was saying ..., or Yes, well, anyway ...), **Adjacency pairs** which in many situations provide a degree of organisation. These are simple exchanges in which the first utterance creates expectations for a particular kind of second utterance. Together the two utterances form a complete unit. For example;

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| a) greeting + greeting: | A: Good morning, Joan.
B: Morning, Margaret. |
| b) question + answer: | A: What's the time, please?
B: About 8.30, I think |
| c) offer + response: | A: Want a biscuit?
B: No, thanks, they're too sweet for me |

and finally **Closings**.

2.3 Learner Strategies of Communication

Although we may have an understanding of certain important aspects of oral communication, as teachers we must also be concerned to find out how oral skills are learnt. In what follows we shall look at how learners communicate when they have not mastered the language. This means discussing learners' strategies of oral communication.

Studies of learners' communication strategies have examined the ways learners deal with communication problems. (Faerch and Kasper 1983: 25) contains several articles which discuss this. Communication strategies identified include the following:

A. Achievement strategies:

1. Guessing strategies
2. Paraphrase strategies
3. Co-operative strategies

B. Reduction strategies:

1. Avoidance strategies.

First, the difference between achievement strategies and reduction strategies should be put forward. Both these types of strategy aim to compensate for a problem of expression. The learner anticipates a difficulty in expressing what she intended - indeed the difficulty may have been explicitly signalled by the interlocutor, who has not understood the speaker's first attempt, what does the speaker do?

If she uses an *achievement strategy*, she will attempt to compensate for her language gap by improvising a substitute. This involves attempting to find a way of conveying her message, often by guess-work, intuition, 'feel', an expression she thinks she remembers, or various kinds of analogy.

One example of an achievement strategy is as follows:

L : I came down from twenty degrees - er I don't know how you say two it was *twenty degrees hot* you know.

NS : mm

L : and I came up er in Scotland to twenty *degrees freezing* so I got very sick just before Christmas.

(from Haastруп and Phillipson 1983: 149)

The learner uses the two expressions indicated by italics instead of *plus twenty / minus twenty*, or *twenty above/below zero*. The point is that the learner has thought up expressions which serve his purpose quite well, even though they are not the normal native-speaker choice. He has got out of his vocabulary difficulty by improvising an alternative.

In using achievement strategies, then, speakers do not lose or alter any of their message. However, they may not be able to use an achievement strategy; instead they may have to adopt a *reduction strategy*. For instance, they may manage only a partial solution and so fail to communicate all of their intended message. Or else, they may find no solution at all. In either case, the result is that they reduce their message so as either to bring it within the scope of their knowledge or else to abandon that message and go on to something they can manage. Both of these solutions have been called *reduction strategies*.

Reduction strategies must presumably be very widespread, since the business of speaking without a full repertoire of foreign-language expressions must often result in loss of message content, particularly in the early stages. During communication this can take many forms. One such is the following:

L: I have to look after a machine if something is er doesn't work I have to well it's not difficult because there's only three buttons you know all automatical (Haastrup and Phillipson 1983: 150).

In this extract the speaker is supposed to be describing his job in a laundry. However, when he gets down to saying what he has to do with the machine, he abandons his attempt, changes direction and talks about the controls. By keeping his talk within the bounds of what he is able to say, the speaker manages to maintain production and fluency.

2.4 Classroom Organisation and Oral Skills

Practice in interaction skills requires the participants to negotiate meaning and manage the interaction jointly. This by definition implies certain kinds of activities. There is a connection between the degree of freedom to negotiate and the number of people involved.

In William Golding's novel *Lord of the Flies*, when the marooned children try to hold plenary meetings on the beach, they discover that they have to have a rule to make sure that everybody does not talk at once. The rule is that no one is allowed to speak unless he or she is holding a symbolic shell. How is this issue usually decided when the teacher is speaking with the whole class? How can this affect the interaction skills that learners learn?

There are various ways of grouping learners in the classroom. Studying the differences between what they call 'teacher-fronted' interaction and 'small-group' interaction in foreign-language classes, (Long and Porter 1985: 72) report that small-group interaction allows more talk for each of the

students, and a greater variety of talk. Learners spend more time negotiating and checking on meanings in small groups, and they do not appear to correct each other more or less than the teacher does in teacher-fronted situations. In addition, they find that mistakes are no more frequent in small-group work than in teacher-fronted interaction. In the studies that are reported, the activities used were the same in both the teacher-fronted and small-group situations. As Brumfit (1984: 77) states:

Small groups provide greater intensity of involvement, so that the quality of language practice is increased, and the opportunities for feedback and monitoring also, given adequate guidance and preparation by the teacher. The setting is more natural than that of the full class, for the size of the group resembles that of normal conversational groupings. Because of this, the stress which accompanies 'public' performance in the classroom should be reduced. Experience also suggests that placing students in small groups assists individualisation, for each group, being limited by its own capacities, determines, its own appropriate level of working more precisely than a class working in lock-step with its larger numbers.

2.5 Non-communicative vs. Communicative Activities

Of course not all classroom activities are either 'communicative' or 'non-communicative'. There is a large amount of techniques that fall somewhere between our two extremes.

NON-COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITY		COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITY
no communicative desire	—————	a desire to communicate
no communicative purpose	—————	a communicative purpose
form not content	—————	content not form
one language item	—————	variety of language
teacher intervention	—————	no teacher intervention
materials control	—————	no materials control

(J. Harmer 1983: 55)

Accuracy work in class could be said to figure mainly at the NC end of the continuum, when how we say things is more important than what we say, and move towards the middle

NC ... / C

Fluency work could be said to start at the middle and move towards the C end, when we concentrate on the message or meaning (What) more than on how it is expressed.

NC / ... C

Accuracy-focussed activities can take place at any stage of a learner's learning and learners often do express the need for correction because they do have a need for 'saying it right'. Equally fluency can start very early on and we have all encountered learners with very poor grammar who are excellent communicators.

The introduction of new language is often an activity that falls at the 'non-communicative' end of the continuum. Often, here, the teacher will work with controlled techniques, asking students to repeat and perform in drills. At the same time he will insist on accuracy, correcting where students make

mistakes. Although these introduction stages (often called presentation) should be kept short, and the drilling abandoned as soon as possible, they are nevertheless important in helping the student to assimilate facts about the new language and in enabling him to produce the new language for the first time.

Practice activities are those which fall somewhere between the two extremes of the continuum. While, for example, students performing them may have a communicative purpose, and while they may be working in pairs, there may also be a lack of language variety, and the materials may determine what the students do or say. During practice stages the teacher may intervene very slightly to help guide and to point out inaccuracy. Practice activities, then, often have features of both non-communicative and communicative activities.

Communicative activities are those which exhibit the characteristics at the communicative end of the continuum. Students are somehow involved in activities that give them both the desire to communicate and a purpose which involves them in a varied use of language. Such activities are vital in a language classroom since here the students can do their best to use the language as individuals, arriving at a degree of language autonomy.

If students do have a purpose of this kind then their attention should be centred on the content of what is being said or written and not the language form that is being used. The students, however, will have to deal with a variety of language (either receptively or productively) rather than just one grammatical construction, for example. While the students are engaged in the communicative activity the teacher should not intervene. By 'intervene' it is meant that telling students that they are making mistakes, insisting on

accuracy and asking for repetition, etc. This would undermine the communicative purpose of the activity. The teacher may of course be involved in the activity as a participant, and will also be watching and listening very carefully in order to be able to conduct feedback.

To these five characteristics of genuinely communicative activities we can add a sixth; no materials control. Often students work with materials which force the use of certain language, or at least restrict the students' choice of what to say and how to say it. But by restricting the students' options the materials are denying the language variety characteristics which we have said is important characteristics which we have said is important for genuine communication.

The six characteristics for communicative activities can be seen as forming one end of a continuum of classroom activity in language teaching, and they can be matched by opposite points at the other end of the continuum.

Thus, for non-communicative activities there will be no desire to communicate on the part of the students and they will have no communicative purpose. In other words, where students are involved in a drill or in repetition, they will be motivated not by a desire to research a communicative objective, but by the need to reach the objective of accuracy. The emphasis is on the form of the language, not on its content. Often only one language item will be the focus of attention and the teacher will often intervene to correct mistakes, nominate students, and generally ensure accuracy. And of course the materials will be specially designed to focus on a restricted amount of language. A lot of language presentation techniques have these characteristics (J. Harmer 1983: 45).

2.6 Major Language Teaching Trends and Teaching of Speaking

The ability to speak coherently and intelligibly on a focused topic is generally recognised as a necessary goal for students. As Murphey points out (1991: 53) "many of them aspire to professional careers in English dominant communities, the coming decade will see increasing pressure placed upon ESL high school, college and university graduates to possess excellent skills in both speech and writing."

Thus, it is true that teachers of oral communication turn to widely accepted L₂ teaching methods and materials and need to make principled decisions as they review the literature, historical and current, on the following; **Grammar Translation** (no attention is given to speaking or listening activities at all); **Total Physical Response** (students rarely speak but are challenged to physically demonstrate listening comprehension); **Audio Lingual Method** (students repeat and orally manipulate language forms); **The Direct Method and Situational Language Teaching** (teachers do most of the talking while students engage in many controlled, context-explicit speaking activities); **The Comprehension Approach** (emphasises listening comprehension, and later reading, while leaving room for guided speaking activities); **The Silent Way** (teachers rarely speak, while student speaking is focused upon grammatically sequenced language forms); **Suggestopedia** (very controlled speaking activities, which are based upon lengthy written scripts and dramatic teacher performances); **Community Language Learning** (many peer-to-peer interactions that contribute to a community spirit among students, whereas the spoken incorporated into the syllabus are generated by students themselves); **Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)** (many peer-to-peer, guided, and free speaking

activities which are organised around notional, functional and/or linguistic considerations).

Linghtbown and Spada state (1993: 70) that communicative instruction environments involve learners whose goal is learning the language itself, but the style of instruction places the emphasis on interaction, conversation, and language use, rather than learning about the language. The topics discussed are of general interest to the learner. The language which teachers use for teaching is not selected on the basis of teaching a specific feature of the language, but not on teaching learners to use the language in a variety of contexts. Students' success in these courses is often measured in terms of their ability to get *things done* in the second language, rather than on their accuracy in using certain grammatical features.

At this point, it is inevitable that we should attempt to discuss the characteristics of **Communicative Language Teaching** classrooms;

- There is a limited amount of error correction and meaning is emphasised over form;
- Input is simplified and made comprehensible by the use of contextual cues, props, and gestures rather than through structural grading;
- Learners usually have only limited time for learning. Sometimes, however, subject-matter courses taught through the second language can add time for language learning;
- Contact with proficient or native speakers of the language is usually limited. As with traditional instruction, it is often only the teacher who is proficient speaker. In communicative classes, learners have considerable

exposure to the second language speech of other learners. This naturally contains errors which would not be heard in an environment where one's interlocutors are native speakers.

- A variety of discourse types are introduced through stories, role-playing, the use of real-life materials such as newspaper and television broadcasts, and field trips;

- There is little pressure to perform at high levels of accuracy, and there is often a greater emphasis on comprehension than on production in the early stages of learning;

- Modified input is a defining feature of these approaches to instruction. The teacher in these classes makes every effort to speak to students in a level of language they can understand. In addition, other students speak a simplified language.

2.7 Recent Trends in Teaching of Speaking

Rivers and Temperly (1978: 4) over a decade ago provide a framework which represents the processes involved in learning to communicate and which distinguishes between skill -using and skill- getting.

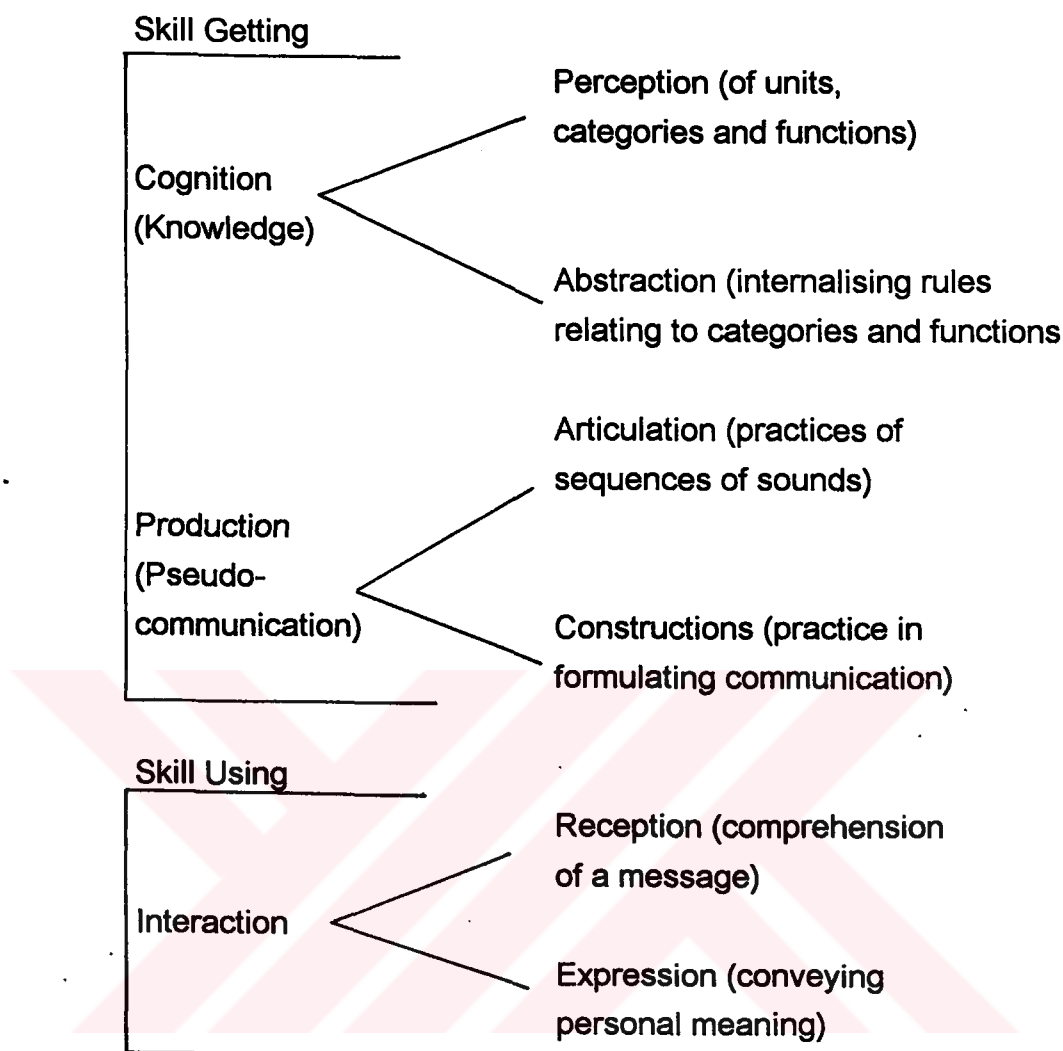


Figure 2. Skill-using / Skill-getting

Bygate points out (1987: 55) that "skill-getting and skill-using do not represent successive stages in language learning: even beginners have skills they can use to communicate at least something." Moreover, there is a gap to be bridged between the two processes: activities must be designed to help learners to make the transition. For this, Rivers and Temperley suggest using *pseudo-communication skill-getting activities*, which would lead naturally into spontaneous communication. An example of pseudo-communication is the use of dialogue techniques in which samples of language are presented as if in a kind of conversation. It is often

accompanied by realia, visual aids or sequences of actions by the teacher or students.

Over a decade later, Littlewood (1992: 43-4) clarifies skill - getting and skill - using stages when he attempts to describe the characteristics of novices (i.e. less skilled performer) which we will call Beginner - Elementary level learners.

In his framework, he claims that novices have less knowledge about what plans to select for achieving different objectives. Secondly, they do not possess a large repertoire of ready made plans which can be put into operation automatically.

Thus, this leads them to apply more conscious attention to creating and performing plans at lower levels which means they may have to denote much more conscious effort than native speakers do in constructing sentences, selecting vocabulary items, inflecting words or producing difficult sounds. Moreover, since their *attentive capacity* is limited, when they pay a lot of attention to the accuracy of the language production process, they will have less attention to devote to *higher-level domains* such as the formulation of ideas or the monitoring of their partner's responses.

- What to do?

Littlewood suggests three possible solutions which the first two and the third overlap with Rivers and Temperley's *skill-getting* stage and *skill-using* stage, respectively.

Firstly, learners have to become aware of the key features of the target performance, so that they can create mental plans which are necessary for producing it themselves.

Secondly, they have to practise converting these plans into actual behaviour, so that in due course the lower-level plans can operate automatically, in response to higher-level decisions. It involves producing grammatical structures, pronouncing new sounds, selecting vocabulary items, expressing specified communicative functions or using devices for managing conversation, i.e. conversation gambits. Thus, the suggestions above are what Rivers and Temperley call **skill-getting** stage.

Finally, they must learn to start from a higher-level plan (e.g. an idea or a reaction) and select lower-level plans which are appropriate for carrying it out. For example, language must become capable of producing particular items of vocabulary, not only as part of a controlled activity in which their focus is on the items in question, but also in response to a particular communicative intention which arises, unpredicted, during interaction. This suggestion is the same with Rivers and Temperley's **skill-using** stage.

On the other hand, there are several roles on the part of teachers that should be taken into account.

Littlewood puts forth (1992: 47) that, in the first place, the teacher has to divide the total skill into manageable components (**part-skills**) and order them in such a way that the learners will be able to master them in sequence. In language teaching, these operations of **selection** and **sequencing** are usually regarded as belonging to the field of **syllabus design**. However, it is obvious that they also have an important influence on how we try to teach in class.

Secondly, the teacher has to provide the learners with a model of the performance they are expected to produce in a particular part-skill and

make them aware of the essential features of this performance, so that they can produce it themselves. This is also known as *presentation phase*.

Thirdly, the teacher has to organise controlled activities in which the learners practise performing part-skills (i.e. converting lower-level cognitive plans into actual behaviour). This is the *phase of controlled practice* in Hubbard et. al.'s terms or *skill-getting* in Rivers' terms.

It should be noted here that in stages (3) and (4), learners should receive some kind of feedback (either during or after the practice) so that they know how close their performance comes to the target they are aiming to achieve. Whereas in stage (3), the feedback is often likely to focus on formal features of the performance such as its accuracy; in stage (4) there is more likelihood that the feedback will focus on the extent to which the learners have succeeded in communicating their intended meanings. Both kinds of feedback are possible at every stage but the dominant trend is currently towards greater focus on meanings rather than on form.

2.8 Activities for Oral Practice

2.8.1 Information-gap Activities

An essential criterion when designing and choosing activities or tasks for oral interaction is the information or opinion gap.

Information-gap activities include instructions, (giving directions), descriptions, comparisons, and narrations. Each activity consists of complementary worksheets A and B (two-way tasks in each case) students work in pairs, one with each part. The material consists of fictitious graphics and/or charts or tables to be completed. The information to be transmitted is

present in pictorial or note form on the speaker's page, and is communicated either when asked for by one's partner, or because the speaker deduces that if he - the speaker - has the information, his partner does not.

We must give students a good reason to speak and listen otherwise the interaction becomes boring and meaningless and not true to life.

e.g. Eray : These are pens, aren't they?

Gürhan : Yes, they are. But what are those?

Eray : Those? Oh, they're pencils.

In this dialogue both Eray and Gürhan can see the pens and pencils and presumably both have enough knowledge of the world to know what they are. Except for exceptional cases where the pens and pencils might be of such a fantastic design that they were unrecognisable as such, such an exchange would be highly unlikely in real life (unless the pens and pencils in question were hidden, wrapped up in paper or packaged in a box and therefore not immediately identifiable). No information gap exists and there is no communicative purpose. The dialogue, while practising demonstratives, does not reflect use of the language outside the classroom. This can be demotivating and frustrating for students.

2.8.2 Communication Games

Some of the communication games are described in terms of the actions which the participants have to perform in order to complete the tasks. For example:

Describe and Draw

Describe and Arrange

Find the Difference

Ask the Right Question

In 'Describe and Draw' activities, one student describes a picture, and the other(s) draw it. In 'Describe and Arrange', one student describes a structure made of rods, match sticks or simple objects and the other(s) reconstruct it without seeing the original. This can take the form of a sequence of instruction. For 'Find the Difference', two students, each have a picture, one slightly different from the other. Without seeing each other's pictures, they must wrinkle out the differences. 'Ask the Right Question' is an activity in which a student takes a card on which a word is printed. He or she has to elicit just that word from the others by asking as few questions as possible.

2.8.3 Simulations

A third important type of oral activity which can be used in the classroom is the simulation. The term is used here to denote an activity which involves decision-making, in which the participants may act as themselves or in social roles. It is not performed for an audience, and the participants work together within the constraints of the imaginary setting.

Simulations do not as a category provide any basis for predicting the kinds of language skills that learners will use: it depends what kind of simulation is being considered. For instance a simulated committee meeting is likely to produce one kind of interaction, a simulated interview another, and a simulated public meeting a third. Indeed a single simulation often consists of several different kinds of interaction, including the three just

mentioned. It is however, possible to make some predictions, once the nature of the simulation is known.

Simulations generally divide into three phases: firstly a stage for giving the participants necessary information; secondly the problem-solving discussions; and thirdly, follow-up work. Herbert and Sturtridge (1975: 5) illustrate this in their diagram, shown in the below figure.

Phase 1

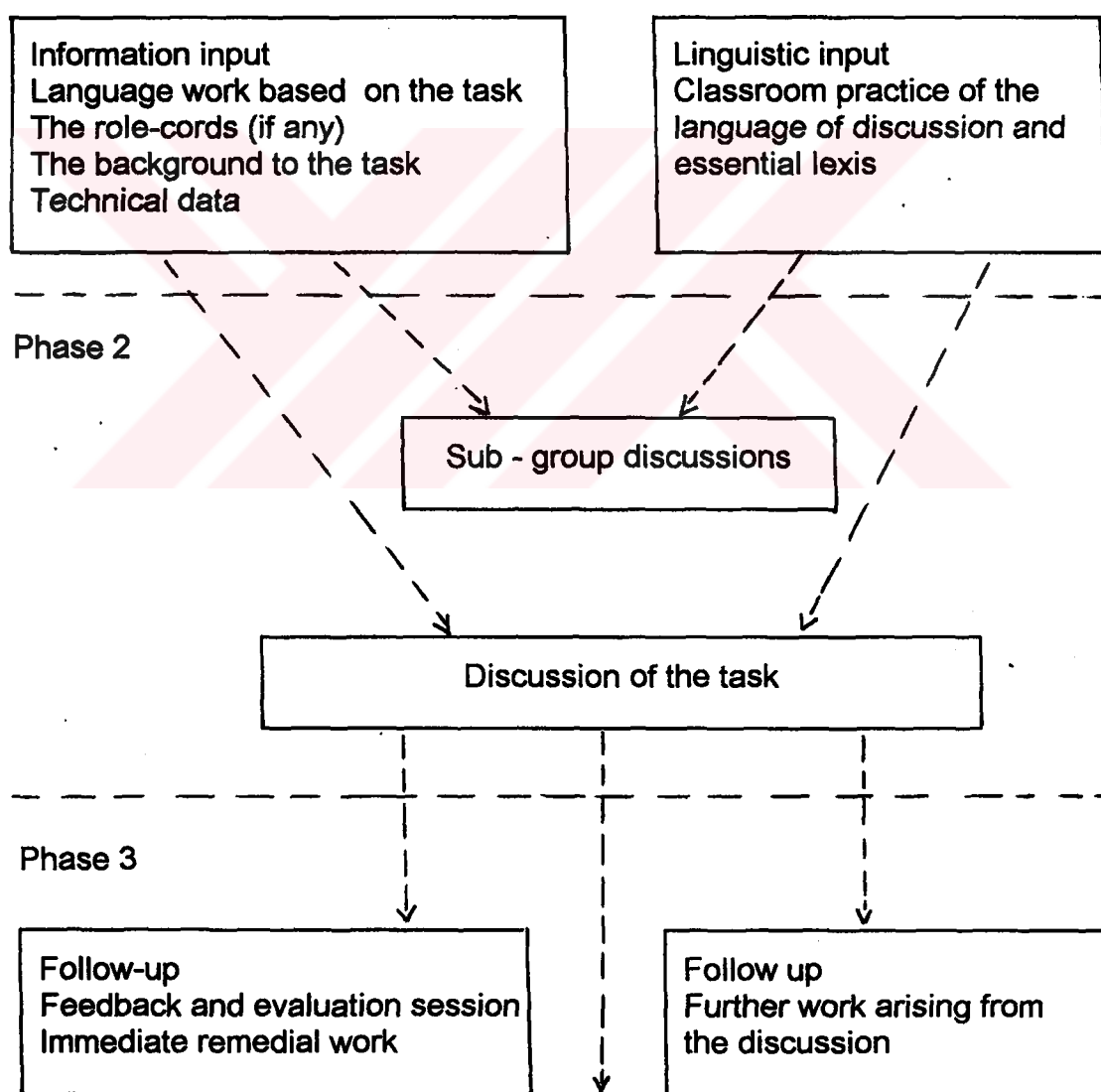


Figure 3. The structure of a simulation

2.9 Group Work and Language Learning

Like all learning activities, group work is more likely to go well if it is properly planned. Planning requires an understanding of the principle that lies behind successful group work.

2.9.1 The Principle of Group Work

Several factors work together to result in group work where everyone involved is interested, active and thoughtful. If these factors agree with each other, then group work is likely to be successful. If they are not in agreement, group work is likely to be unsuccessful. The five factors are (1) the learning goals of group work, (2) the task, (3) the way information is distributed, (4) the seating arrangement of the members of the group and (5) the social relationships between the members of the group.

2.9.2 The Goals of Group Work

Group work is most commonly used to get learners talking to each other. Much research on group work in language learning has studied spoken activity, partly because this is the most easily observed and recorded.

Group work can help learning in the following ways:

1. Negotiation of Input: Group work provides an opportunity for learners to get exposure to language that they can understand (negotiate comprehensible input) and which contains unknown items for them to learn. There has been considerable research on the possible sources of this input and the processes of negotiation (Long and Porter 1985: 27) with the

general recommendation that group work properly is one of the most valuable sources.

2. New Language Items: Group work gives learners exposure to a range of language items and language functions. This will often require preteaching of the needed language items. Group work provides more opportunities in teacher-led classes. Group work may also improve the quality of these opportunities in terms of individualisation, motivation, depth of processing, and affective climate.

3. Fluency: Group work allows learners to develop fluency in the use of language features that they have already learned (Davies 1982: 47). The arguments supporting group work for learning new items also apply to developing proficiency in the use of these items.

4. Communication Strategies: Group work gives learners the opportunity to learn communication strategies. These strategies include negotiation strategies to control input (seeking clarification, seeking confirmation, checking comprehension, repetition), strategies to keep a conversation going (Holmes and Brown 1976: 60, Nation 1980: 20), strategies to make up for a lack of language items or a lack of fluency in the use of such items, (Tarone 1980: 31) and strategies for managing long turns in speaking (Brown et. al. 1984: 15).

5. Content: Particularly where English is taught through the curriculum, a goal of group work may be the mastery of the content of the curriculum subject the learners are studying. For example a communicative task based on the water cycle may have as one of its goals the learning of the processes involved in the water cycle and the development of an awareness of how the water cycle affects our lives. In addition, the teacher

may expect the learners to achieve one or more of the language-learning goals listed above.

2.9.3 Types of Group Work

A useful way of classifying group-work activities is to look at the distribution of the information needed to do the activity. In many group-work activities learners have equal access to the same material or information and cooperate to do the task. In the following discussion this is called the cooperating arrangement. In the superior-interior arrangement one member of the group has information that all the others need. In the combining arrangement each learner has a different piece of information that all the others need. In the individual arrangement each learner has access to the same information but must perform or deal with a different part of it. These four different types of group work achieve different learning goals, are best suited to different kinds of seating arrangement, and draw on or encourage different kinds of social relationships. In order for group work must have its most suitable choice of other factors.

The table shows how the principle of group work applies.

	Combining	Cooperating	Superior-Inferior	Individual
Distribution of information	Each learner has unique essential information	All learners have equal access to the same information and to each other's view of it	One or more learners have information that the others do not have	All learners have the same information but use a different part
Seating Arrangement	Learners sit at an equal distance from each other, facing each other	Learners sit beside each other facing the information	The knowers face the seekers	The learners face each other
Social Relationship	Equality, mutual dependency	Equality	Inequality, the knowers are in a superior position	Equality, but with focus on individual performance
Most Suitable Learning Goals	Negotiation of input Mastering content fluency	New language items Fluency	New language items Mastering content	Fluency New language items
Most Suitable Tasks	Completion Ordering Providing directions Matching Classifying, distinguishing	Ranking, ordering, choosing Finding implications, causes, uses Solving problems Producing material	Data gathering Completion Providing directions	Solving problems Completion
A Typical example	A strip story	A ranking exercise	An interview	A chain story or role-play

Table 1. The factors involved in group work (Kral, T. 1994: 162).

The combining arrangement

The combining arrangement is the ideal arrangement for group work because it ensures interest and participation. It may be noticed that ways of making other group-work arrangements more effective often involve adding an element of combining. The essential feature of a combining is that each learner in a group has a piece of information that the others do not have, and each piece of information is needed to complete the task. Here is an example involving a group of three learners.

Each learner has a map of an island. However on one learner's map only some of the towns are named and only some of the roads are indicated. On the second learner's map some of the other towns are named, the

railway system is given, and the airport is shown. On the third learner's map the remaining roads and towns are shown, the central mountain is named, and the forest is indicated. Each learner's map is therefore incomplete, and each learner has information that the other two do not have. By combining this information each learner can make a complete map. They do this by keeping their map hidden from the others and by describing what is on their map for the others to draw on theirs.

The best seating arrangement of the members of the group during the activity supports the essential features of the arrangement. Each learner needs to have equal access to the others to get the essential information while preserving the uniqueness of their own information. This means that when working in pairs the learners should face each other, because that allows good communication while hiding their written or pictorial information. When working in a group, it is best if the learners sit in a circle, so that each learner is equal distance from any other learner. Equal access to each other is the most important element in the seating arrangement of combining-arrangement groups.

The most suitable tasks for combining arrangement group work include:

1. completion, e.g., completing a picture by exchanging information, completing a story by pooling ideas;
2. providing directions, e.g., describing a picture for someone to draw, telling someone how to make something;
3. matching, classifying, distinguishing, e.g., deciding if your partner's drawing is the same as yours, arranging pictures in the same order as your partner's unseen pictures;

4. ordering, e.g., putting the sentences or pictures of a story in order.

The cooperating arrangement

The cooperating arrangement is the most common kind of group work. Its essential feature is that all learners have equal access to the same information and have equal access to each other's view of it. This is because the purpose of a cooperating activity is for learners to share their understanding of the solutions to the task or of the material involved. Here is an example:

The learners are shown a picture and have several questions to answer about it, such as:

If you had to write a one-word title for this picture, what would it be?

What happened before the event in this picture?

What are the characters' feelings towards each other?

The learners discuss their answers to the questions.

The best seating arrangement for the members of the group is to sit in a horseshoe with the material in the open end of the horseshoe, or in a circle if there is no material to look at. Similarly, in a pair the learners should sit facing the same direction (→) with the material in front of them. As much as possible, all the learners in a group should be the same distance from the material and the same distance from each other. If the information is a text or a picture, then it is best not to give each learner a copy, because this would encourage individual rather than cooperative activity.

The most suitable tasks for cooperating arrangement group-work include:

1- ranking, ordering, choosing, e.g., choosing the best candidate for a job, ranking a list of items needed for survival or a list of actions open to you;

2- finding implications, causes or uses, e.g., brainstorming the uses of a paper clip on a desert island, interpreting a picture;

3. solving problems, e.g., answering Dear Abby letters, solving logical puzzles, simulations;

4. producing material, e.g., making a radio program, preparing for a debate or play.

The superior-inferior arrangement

The superior-inferior arrangement in group work is parallel to traditional class teaching. The essential feature of the arrangement is that one or more learners have all the information that the others in the group need. Here are two examples:

One learner has a complete text. The other learners have some important words from the text. By asking yes/no questions using those words as clues, the learners try to reconstruct the text.

One learner has a dictation text that she dictates to the others in the group. They write the dictation.

The best seating arrangement of the members of the group is with the person in the superior position facing the others. All the others should be

an equal distance from the person with the information. The combining arrangement may be viewed as a set of superior-inferior arrangements with every learner in the group having the chance to be in the superior position - that is having information that others need and do not have.

The most suitable tasks for superior-inferior group work include:

1. data gathering, e.g., interviews, questioning;
2. providing directions, e.g., telling how to get a place on the map, providing instructions about how to arrange parts to make a complete item;
3. completion.

The individual arrangement

The individual group-work arrangement each learner has the same information but perform individually with a part of that information.

Unlike the superior-inferior arrangement and combining arrangement, no learner has information that the others do not have. Unlike the cooperating arrangement, each learner makes an individual performance which is not necessarily helped by the others in the group. The major effects of the individual arrangement are to increase the time each learner can spend on a task, and to ensure that each learner participates.

The learners in the group need to have equal access to the material and be in sight of each other. Sitting in a circle is usually the most convenient.

The most suitable tasks for the individual arrangement in group work include:

1. solving problems, e.g., roleplay activities where each individual must perform in a certain way;
2. repetition, e.g., a chain story where learners retell the story to each other and see the changes that occur in retelling;
3. completion, e.g., each learner has to add a part to complete a story.

2.9.4 Problems with Group Work and Possible Solutions

Most of the activities we do are potentially problematic. Particularly if they are of the "less controlled" variety. However, most problems can be solved or pre-empted, and the alternative of never doing "freer" activities will result in less effective learning for our students.

- Progress in learning is difficult to measure:

We cannot of course measure their 'progress' as we can when teaching in lockstep but we can tell how well they are doing from the way they do the activities and the language they use.

- Group work takes a lot of time:

It is true that a teacher can spend anywhere from half to a whole lesson on a good group activity. But some only take ten to fifteen minutes and think of all that language practice! S/he does not need to do group work every lesson but once a week is great for students to get a chance to use what they have learnt. All group work should have a time limit planned into his/her lesson plan and students told how long they have.

- The teacher has no control:

This may be desirable from time to time. Students should be made to feel responsible for their own learning instead of the teacher bearing all the burden all the time. Sometimes students may even get more involved and be more motivated when they feel it's up to them to produce a result in pairs or groups.

- Students feel that the teacher is not really teaching them:

The teacher could explain beforehand to students why they feel group work is helpful for the students. Once they realise why - they will usually co-operate and enjoy it too!

- Students may not be doing what we want them to do:

Students may sometimes start to use Turkish to express an idea especially if they get excited. But this is natural if they want to communicate. If the teacher has given them a clearly-designed task at the right level and they have to present the 'results' at the end, they will usually do what they have been asked. Anyway, we cannot learn for them. Some responsibility / autonomy must be placed on their shoulders.

2.10 Pairwork

The most obvious kind of pairwork is 'open pairs' where the students talk to one another across the class under your control. However, this does not allow more than two people to be talking in the class, so for large classes other kinds of pairwork are needed. One kind of pairwork is "fixed pairs". This is when the students work with the same partner in order to complete a task of some kind set out by the teacher. It is particularly suitable

in classrooms where the furniture (benches) is fixed to the ground and can be used with any number from two to two thousand students in a room. Even though the pairs are fixed, a student still has the variety of working potentially with eight different people on different occasions depending on which pairing arrangement the teacher decides on. Another kind of pairwork is "flexible pairs". For this the students keep changing partners. This will involve some of them moving around in the classroom. However if just the student on the end of a row moves to the other end, that will mean that everyone in the row will now have a different partner.

2.10.1 Advantages of Pairwork

If we consider that classes in Turkey contain between forty to eighty students in a class and a class normally lasts forty five minutes the mathematics is quite simple! Forty five students may get 1 minute talking time, and eighty students would get well under half a minute talking time. And all this is assuming that the teacher remains silent throughout! So how can students get the valuable oral practice they need to develop fluency and accuracy, and how do we get to hear them all for assessment purposes?

On the other hand, if we divide our students into pairs for just five minutes, each student will get more talking time during those five minutes than during the rest of the lesson. From the learners' point of view, then, some pairwork in the course of the lesson is absolutely essential. Moreover, the learners can face and talk directly to one another, so it is much closer to the way we use language outside the classroom; they get a chance to work independently: this is good for motivation and good preparation for group work, when they will have to take a lot of responsibility for what they do; also

pairwork provides some variety during the lesson. Two or three short pairwork activities are a good way of breaking up the lesson.

2.11 Oral Mistakes and Correction

Bartrom and Walton (1991: 32) point out that distinction between accuracy and fluency gives us the decision of a teacher's priorities when reacting to a student's oral mistakes.

According to Bartram and Walton **accuracy work** is defined as "part of the lesson where students are encouraged to make their utterances as near to a native - speaker's as possible - which is usually taken as necessitating more intense correction." Whereas **fluency** is defined as "part of the lesson where students work on their capacity to communicate within the language, generally a period free of correction."

Language should not be viewed as two folded, two sided since there are accuracy and fluency. It is true that teachers see accuracy as "something you work on when you are freshest so we have *accuracy work* at the **start** of the lesson, and *fluency work* at the **end**; we have *grammar exercises* in the **morning** and *conversation classes* in the **afternoon**. *Songs* and *games* are labelled fluency and pushed to **Friday afternoon**" (Bartrom and Walton 1991: 33).

As Edge (1990: 18) points out the most important decision regarding correction has to be made over and over again; to correct or not to correct. She looks correction from the point of view of teaching-stating that "it is not the teacher's job to correct all the non-standard English that learners

produce. It is the teacher's job to help the learners improve their English, and sometimes this is best done by not correcting."

Thus, we should not correct our students when the attention is paid on what they want to say. If we pay too much attention to correctness, we do not seem to be speaking a language at all. This implies that if fluency is encouraged, students will be able to and willing to express themselves. Because students need to experience of being listened to people with things to say (Edge 1990: 20).

On the other hand, since we can not always ignore our students' correctness in their use of English, the teacher's task, then, is to help students progress through fluency towards accuracy that they will need in order to get the education and the jobs they want. This means that "correction is a way of reminding students of the forms of standard English. It should not be a kind of + criticism or punishment" (Edge 1990: 20).

One solution to the problem of balance between accuracy and fluency is proposed by Edge (1990 : 20). She puts forth that it can be very useful to ask students how they feel about being corrected since it is a part of the everyday experience that they share. This discussion will encourage students to think about their own performance and their own feelings and preferences. Also, teachers are likely to discover something about how the students think they learn and vice versa.

Bartram and Walton's experience (1991: 33) shows us that when they asked students to design the **syllabus** for the following week, they chose songs on *Monday* morning. The lesson was a great success.

2.11.1 Correction and Fluency in Spoken English

If students spend all their time doing careful practice of separate pieces of language, they will not learn to use the language in real situations. Students need the experience of uninterrupted, meaningful communication if they are to learn to use the language. If students are to say anything meaningful, they need to feel that people are listening to *what* they are saying, not to *how* they are saying it. Moreover, making mistakes in language use is not only normal, but necessary to language learning. For some of the time, then, it is important that students are not corrected, but simply encouraged.

After going through an exercise with the whole class, teachers will often want to increase the amount of practice for learners by getting them to do an exercise in pairs. In the following exercise, for instance, pairs of students take turns to make an offer, promise or decision, while the partner makes an appropriate response, such as, 'Thanks' or 'OK'. So, in a class of forty, there would be twenty pairs doing the exercise at the same time, while the teacher walks round and listens:

Make offers, promises or decisions

Examples: A friend hasn't any money. Offer to lend him some

I'll lend you some money.

A friend asks you to lock the door. Promise not to forget.

I won't forget

1. You are going to the theatre with a friend offer to book the tickets.
2. You are ordering meal in a restaurant. Decide to have roast beef.

3. The phone is ringing. Offer to answer it.
4. You are saying goodbye to a friend. Promise to write to him.
5. A tourist is looking for the post office. Offer to show him the way.
6. It is difficult to park in the city. Decide not to take the car.
7. You've got toothache. Decide to go to the dentist tomorrow.
8. You are meeting a friend at the station. Promise not to be late.

(Edge, 1990: 38)

What happens if someone makes a mistake? Teachers cannot even hear most of the students, and if they stop to correct someone they'll certainly miss lots more mistakes. This is a difficult stage for many teachers, but we have to leave the students alone so that they can get on with some learning.

This is a good place to start giving the students a little freedom, because the examples with the exercise mean that all the students should know exactly what they have to do.

The teacher walks round the class quickly to make sure that all the students are working properly. She only stops if she finds that some students do not know what to do, or are doing the wrong things. If this is true of lots of pairs, the best idea is to stop the whole class and ask one pair to show everyone again what they are to do.

When the teacher hears mistakes, she makes a note of them. This is important information for the teacher. If she hears a mistake repeatedly, she can wait until the pairs have finished the exercise and then ask someone to do the question in which she heard the mistake.

In example 7, imagine the teacher has heard some students say:

I go to the dentist tomorrow.

When the pairs have finished, she says,

Teacher : Right, can someone do number 7 for us again? Yes,
Hans and Jacques.

Hans : I'll go to the dentist tomorrow.

Jacques : Good idea.

(pause)

Teacher : Good. Could another pair do that one again? Peter
and Werner?

Peter : I go to the dentist tomorrow.

Teacher : (questioning expression) Er ... (pause) Not quite. Yes,
Josef?

Josef : I'll go ...

Teacher : Yes, can you hear that "ll" in there, Peter?

Peter : Ach, so, I *will* go.

Teacher : Mmm, I - will, I'll.

(As she says this, the teacher holds up two fingers. She points to one finger for "I" and the other finger for "will". Then she squeezes the two together for "I'll.")

Teacher : So, Peter?

Peter : I'll go to the dentist tomorrow.

Werner : Bad luck!

Teacher : Very good. Fine.

(Edge 1990: 39-40)

If the teacher hears lots of mistakes in important points she has been trying to teach, she need not think too much about correction. She must realise that the class has not understood what she has presented and she needs to think of different ways of presenting the same points again. Teachers can get this important information only if they give learners the chance to make mistakes.



CHAPTER III

RESEARCH AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the data collected through two questionnaires.

3.1 Subjects

The subjects to whom the questionnaires were administered were 107 students enrolled in English courses at three Anatolian Lycees; namely Cağrıbey Anatolian Lycee, Mamak Anatolian Lycee, and Mamak Ali Naili Erdem Anatolian Lycee as well as ten teachers of those students. The following factors were taken into consideration in the selection of these subjects:

a) In order to secure a reliable result, the teachers in the questionnaire were the teachers of the students who also completed the student questionnaire.

b) The prep-level was specially focused on since it is assumed to be the level where the teaching of the skill of speaking is the most difficult and since the researcher believes that the students have problems in building up communications in and out of the class.

3.2 Data Collection

In May 1997, the researcher administered the questionnaires to the teachers of English and students learning English at Anatolian Lycees.

It should be noted here that this study was done among beginner-elementary level learners (ages between 11 and 13) of orta (Junior High) prep. classes at Anatolian Lycees in Ankara. Moreover, this study attempted to elicit opinions of students and classroom teachers in Ankara through questionnaires and observations.

It was especially aimed to provide possible solutions to teachers of English rather than to learners. Because it is believed that there has to be initial and urgent change in teachers' teaching styles which influences learner' attitude and motivation in learning English.

It should be noted here that questionnaires for students and teachers of English which are designed and adapted for the present study are valid and reliable. Therefore, the validity and reliability of the questionnaires were approved by some field experts. It is also assumed that the answers reflect the real and sincere opinions of the participants.

3.3 Data Analysis

In this study, data was analysed mostly by using percentage and frequency distribution in computer environment for both questionnaires. Also, since questionnaires for both teachers and learners of English included items requiring people's attitudes, scales were prepared for analysis. These graphs helped the researcher to analyse and evaluate the items comparatively.

Below the items in the questionnaires will be analysed and interpreted first one by one, and then a general evaluation of the results will be made.

3.3.1 Evaluation of the Data Collected from Teachers of English

This part of the study presents the analysis of the data collected from teachers of English. (For the complete items of the questionnaire see Appendix 1).

Item 1. School

The questionnaire prepared for teachers of English were given to ten teachers, all of whom have been teaching Prep classes at two Anatolian Lycees (five teachers from Çağrıbey Anatolian Lycee and five teachers from Ali Naili Erdem Anatolian Lycee).

Item 2. Coursebook

It should be noted here that seven of the teachers are using Open Doors for the main course and Double Take for developing skills, by Oxford University Press, and three of them are using Wow for the main course and Double Take for skills development also by Oxford University Press. It is believed that the teaching materials are relatively new and contain modern teaching aspects, such as, learning training and skills development. e.g. Double Take 1 and 2 are for students who are beginning English at secondary school and aims to teach students ways in which they can listen, speak, read and write more effectively and fluently in English and also to give systematic practice in using these skills.

Books	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Open Doors and Double Take	7	70.0
Wow and Double Take	3	30.0
Total	10	100.0

Table 2. Course books that teachers use

Item 3. Faculty / College and Year Graduated

Considering the faculties the teachers have graduated from, two of them are METU graduates, departments of Sociology and Biology, three of them are Hacettepe University graduates; two teachers from Department of Arts; one teacher from Department of ELT, two teachers are graduates of Selçuk University, Department of ELT and finally three of them are Gazi University, Department of ELT. graduates 50 % of the teachers have graduated after 1990 and % 50 of them before 1990.

Item 4. Teaching Experience

In search for finding how long the teachers have been teaching English, the researcher has received that 60 % of the teachers have been teaching 5 years and below and 40 % of them have been teaching 10 years and above.

Item 5. Seminar, Workshop or an In-service Teaching Programme That Have Recently Been Attended.

In reply to the question whether or not they have had seminar experience or recent background knowledge about teaching and learning oral communication skills, figures have revealed that 60 % of them followed recent trends through seminars or workshops.

Answers	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Yes	6	60.0
No	4	40.0
Total	10	100.0

Table 3. Recent Seminar / Workshop Experience

Item 6. Special Areas of Interest

The research has shown us that 60 % of the teachers favour teaching skills, 30 % of them prefer teaching grammar and only 10 % of them like to deal with teaching literature.

Items	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Teaching grammar	3	30.0
Teaching speaking	2	20.0
Teaching listening	-	-
Teaching literature	1	10.0
Teaching vocabulary	-	-
Teaching reading	2	20.0
Teaching writing	2	20.0
Other	-	-
Total	10	100.0

Table 4. Special Areas of Interest in TEFL

Item 7. Activities / Techniques Used in Conversation Classes

Items	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Games	7	70.0
Puzzles	-	-
Information gap activities	1	10.0
Problem-solving activities	-	-
Group-work	-	-
Pairwork	-	-
Question-Answer	2	20.0
Discussion	-	-
Total	10	100.0

Table 5. Types of Techniques Used

The majority of teachers - 70 % - in this research use games in conversation classes, 20 % of them use question, answer technique, while only 10 % of them use information gap activities. However, as it is stated in the review of literature, information gap is an essential criterion for designing and choosing activities for oral interaction and if there is no information gap, students will rarely need or want to use the foreign language.

Item 8. Significant Factors in the Failure of Learners in Achieving the Objectives of a Spoken Course

As stated in chapter 1, the skill of speaking is a productive skill, since it requires a synthesis, it may cause learner failure. The most important significant factors in the failure of learners to achieve objectives of a spoken course were ranked by teachers, as first, "failure to use the language out of class". Secondly, 20 % of the teachers have pointed out that learning strategies are inefficient. It is true that inefficient learning strategies cause learner failure, since in designing syllabuses of oral skills for conversation classes, learning how to learn is not generally considered.

Thirdly 10 % of the teachers opted for inappropriate objectives because there are not any specific, clear and useful objectives of the conversation classes.

It is strikingly important that most of the teachers agreed on that (item 9) since fluency is not actually tested in most Anatolian Lycees in Turkey accuracy gains much more importance.

It is also important that most of the teachers (90 %) strongly agreed on that (item 10) the primary units of a language are not merely its

grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning.

Item 11. Activities that a Conversation Class Must Involve

In search for finding the activities that a conversation class must involve, responses showed us that 30 % of the teachers think that a conversation class must involve situational role-plays, 30 % of them indicated that it must involve conversational routines, while 20 % of them opted for information gap activities and finally 20 % of the teachers have chosen fluency activities.

Items	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Fluency	2	20.0
Problem solving tasks	-	-
Situational role-plays	3	30.0
Conversational routines	3	30.0
Information-gap activities	2	20.0
Simulation	-	-
Improvisation	-	-
Drama	-	-
Total	10	100.0

Table 6. Activities that a Conversation Class Must Involve

In item 12 the teachers are asked to give a short definition for the term "fluency". It is observed that there is an inconsistency in some responses. 20 % of the teachers indicated that fluency is "expressing what a person thinks or believes in a comfortable way." 10 % agreed that is "to talk coherently." 20 % of them stated that fluency is to talk fluently." 30 % of the teachers agreed that it is "participation of the students", while 20 % of them indicated that it is "ability of talking in every situation."

Item 13. Oral Mistakes Correction Techniques

Items	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Delayed correction	7	70.0
Finger correction	1	10.0
Non-verbal sounds	1	10.0
Facial expression	-	-
Repeating in context	-	-
Automatic correction	-	-
Peer correction	1	10.0
Total	10	100.0

Table 7. Oral Mistakes Correction Techniques

As it can be seen from Table 7, 70 % of the teachers have pointed that they usually use 'delayed correction' technique, 10 % of them use 'finger correction', 10 % of them use 'non-verbal sounds' and finally 10 % of them use 'peer-correction' technique.

3.3.2 Evaluation of the Data Collected from Students of English

Items 1 to 6 will not be individually analysed here since they impart background information on the subjects; however a general account of the relevant data will be presented below.

Questionnaires prepared for students of English were distributed at three Anatolian Lycees; Çağrıbey Anatolian Lycee with 36 prep students, Mamak Anatolian Lycee with 35 students and Mamak Ali Naili Erdem Anatolian Lycee with 36 students, were 45 of the students were female and 62 were male. It should be noted here that responses from seven students were considered as invalid.

92 % of the students were in their first year, 5 % of them were in their second year, and 3 % of them were in their third year of learning English. 96 % of the students have never been to USA, Australia or England. before where 4 % of them have been. 38 % of the students have never tried to talk to a tourist before, while 62 % of them have at least tried.

Item 7 searches to find the skill which the students find the most difficult to learn in the first term of the school. 42 % of the students opted for listening from the tape as the most difficult skill, 28 % of them speaking, 12 % of the students opted for reading, and 18 % of them pointed out that writing is the most difficult to learn.

In item 8 the researcher asks to find who speaks most in the class. 49 % of the students stated that the teacher, 30 % of them answered that the students who are good at English, and 21 % of them pointed out that all the students in class speak English.

While 49 % of the students take 3-5 times part in conversation classes, 27 % of them pointed out that they take turns 6-10 times, and 22 % of them indicated that they take turn 1-3 times in a conversation class.

In search for finding what kind of activities and techniques teachers usually use in conversation classes, it can be seen in the table below that the researcher has received a variety of answers. 32 % of the students indicated that Question-Answer technique (Teacher-student centred), is used, 26 % of them opted for group work, 16 % of them stated that Question-Answer technique (student-student-centred), 13 % of the students opted for pairwork, 7 % of them have chosen discussion and finally 6 % of them indicated that their teachers usually use games or puzzles in conversation classes.

Items	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Question-answer (Teacher-student)	32	32.0
Question-answer (Student-student)	16	16.0
Games or puzzles	6	6.0
Discussions	7	7.0
Group work	26	26.0
Pairwork	13	13.0
Other	-	-
Total	100	100.0

Table 8. Activities Used in Conversation Classes

These figures show that teachers usually rely on question-answer technique between teacher and student which is a teacher centred activity. However they should keep in mind that group-work, like all learning activities, is more likely to go well if it is properly planned. Group work allows learners to develop fluency in the use of language features that they have already learned. The arguments supporting group work for learning new items also apply developing proficiency in the use of these items.

In item 11 students are asked to indicate which category they would like to be in at the end of the year. 60 % of the students indicated that they would like to be able to speak like a native speaker of English, 23 % of them wished to be able to talk with a tourist at a normal rate, 7 % of them wanted to find a pen-friend and write letters and 10 % of the students wanted to learn many English words and know a lot about tenses.

In item 12 the researcher is asking the way their teacher treat them when they make mistakes. 66 % of the students indicated that their teacher gives them a chance to correct themselves, 23 % stated that she/he immediately corrects their mistakes, while 9 % of them pointed out that she/he lets their friends to correct them. 2 % of the students stated that firstly their teachers give them a chance to correct themselves, then asks to friends and finally if nobody knows the correct answer she/he corrects them.

Items 13 to 24 includes the part about the difficulties that the students have in conversation classes and also about interpersonal and physical characteristics of the students.

In search for finding where the students have difficulties while speaking, it can be seen in the table below that 36 % of the students indicated that they cannot create ideas while speaking, 18 % of them stated

that they have difficulties in using conjunctions, 20 % of them have difficulties in finding the right word, 12 % of them stated that they cannot regulate the tenses 10 % of them have problems in coming to the result and 4 % of them stated that there are other problems.

Items	Number of Subjects	Percentage (%)
Finding the right word	20	20.0
Regulating the tenses	12	12.0
Using conjunctions	18	18.0
Creating ideas	36	36.0
Coming to the result	10	10.0
Other	4	4.0
Total	100	100.0

Table 9. Problems while speaking English

42 % of the students stated that they hesitate when they take turn in conversation classes. 17 % of the students indicated that they are not used to speak in class.

It is strikingly important that in item 16 70 % of the students stated that they are afraid of making mistakes. And also 79 % of them are afraid of having bad impression on their teachers because of making mistakes. 50 % of the students stated that they are shy as personality and quickly get excited. 3 % of them pointed out that they are not interested in the subject. 26 % of them indicated that they have limited word power, and bad

pronunciation. 48 % of them think that their friends will abuse them when they make mistakes. 3 % of them have physical defections.

Although 14 % of the students indicated that the topics are boring, 33 % of them stated that the topics are very good and 52 % of them found them interesting.

On the other hand 78 % of the students pointed out that their teachers can motivate them, while 22 % of them stated that sometimes they can and sometimes they cannot.



CHAPTER IV

A SUGGESTED LESSON PLAN FOR DEVELOPING FLUENCY IN SPEAKING WITH THE EMPHASIS ON MEANING AND PRACTISING WITHOUT CORRECTION

4.0 Introduction

In the light of analysis and interpretation of the data collected, a suggested lesson plan for developing the skill of speaking will be recommended in this chapter.

4.1 Designing and Choosing Tasks for Oral Interaction

Not all activities which are found ready-made in coursebooks are necessarily suitable for our learners as they are. They will need careful evaluation (by the teacher asking him/herself a few preliminary questions), adaptation to our particular circumstances and preparation of the learners is crucially important to learners; if we help them to succeed in an oral task today, they will want to do more of the same tomorrow. If it is too difficult or sometimes too easy, they will be put off and we will have difficulty getting them motivated to try again another time. Many potentially good activities fail to motivate our students, because their suitability and implementation have not been sufficiently thought through by the teacher.

Let us take a look at what questions a teacher might want initially to ask him/herself and how a task might be adapted and implemented.

1- What are the management risks involved? Are the students used to this type of activity? Will they know what to do? Are there likely to be discipline problems arising from long periods of unsupervised group work, students moving around the room etc.? Is the activity workable in its present form or does it require too much furniture moving etc.?

2. Is the task culturally acceptable? Does it conform to student expectations? Will they see it as an appropriate learning activity? Is any aspect of the task or the linguistic and non-linguistic data likely to be offensive?

3. Does the task pose an appropriate linguistic challenge?

Is the task too easy or too difficult? Will the students understand the instructions? Do they have the linguistic resources to complete the task?

4. Does the task pose an appropriate cognitive challenge? Is the task too trivial or too difficult? Does it ask for too much creativity?

5. Does the task require outside material such as dictionaries etc.? Is such material available? (Nolasco and Arthur, 1988: 27).

One of the most important aspects of oral interaction is that we speak because we want to pass on information or convey an opinion which we think the receiver might be interested in. As stated in Review of Literature, if the receiver is familiar with the information and is of the same opinion, there will be no information gap at all and he/she will probably switch off. For this reason, we, as teachers, should be aware of the characteristics of oral tasks that we are going to present in conversation classes.

In conclusion, if we want our students to participate in conversation classes, the tasks that have been chosen and designed should:

- involve thinking;
- have an 'end product'/result (presented to the teacher and the rest of the class at the end of the activity);
- be carefully timed with maximal opportunity for language practice;
- be simple, to ensure success and clarity of purpose/direction;
- be simple to prepare from the teacher's point of view;
- entail interaction between people and not be so structured that it can be completed by individuals;
- be interesting and within the students' frame of reference / not too exotic, not too familiar) but not so stimulating that debate gets overheated or out of control or that students fall back into L1!

4.2 A Suggested Speaking Lesson with Special Emphasis on Fluency

The text below has been taken from the book *Double Take. Listening and Speaking* by Joanne Collie, Oxford 1996, and has been adapted as a model lesson for developing speaking skills with the emphasis on fluency.

The units in this book are exploited in two lessons, A and B, and the two skills are treated in an integrated way. The first lesson may start with a listening text as a model or as a prompt for the speaking activities, or it may start with a speaking activity used to set the scene.

Topic: Food and Drink

- Speaking Skills:
- Naming and talking about food and drink,
 - Ordering food at a cafe (role-play)
 - Asking for, giving and displaying information from a class survey,
 - Negotiating choices, discussion
 - Information exchange: identifying differences
 - Pair work / group work

The new language (has got/hasn't got) has been taught before, new vocabulary items (healthy/junk food; recipes for drink) have been introduced through listening from the tape, which provides a context in the presentation stage.

LESSON A: Delightful Drinks

Exercise 1. Vocabulary work. Work in pairs and match the pictures with the names of the food items.

Exercise 2. Listen to a conversation between two people. They are getting ready for a class party

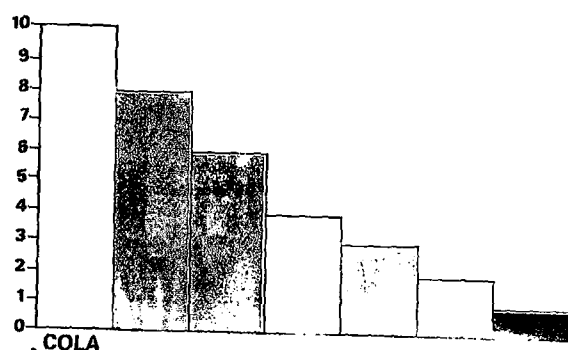
Exercise 3. Listen to the next part of the conversation and complete the list of ingredients.

Exercise 4: Listen to the next part of the conversation and complete the instructions.

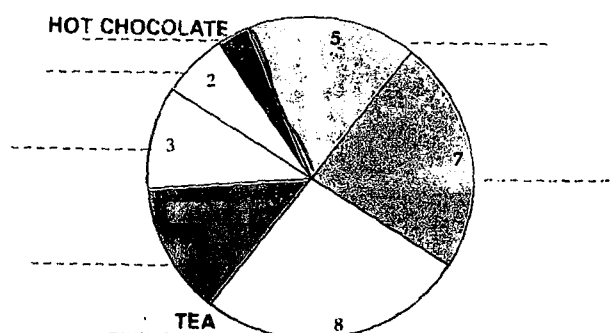
Exercise 5: Listen to the results of a class survey on favourite drinks.

Penny's results are a bar chart. Julia's results are a pie chart. Listen and complete the charts

This is a bar chart



This is a pie chart



Exercise 6. Speaking Activity

Aim : To practice asking for and displaying information; to share recipes.

Now you do a class survey. What are the favourite drinks in your class? Find out! Then choose either a bar chart or a pie chart and fill it in for your class.

The survey can be done in a number of ways. Students ask each other in turn. Everyone in the class takes down notes. Pairs then use the total results to create their own bar or pie charts.

Here are some alternative procedures:

Alternative procedure 1: In classes where students sit in three rows of double seats:

Now do the class survey by asking friends in your particular row. When you have got the figures, a spokesperson for the row gives them to the class. Then work in pairs or groups of four to create a chart, and display the results.

Alternative procedure 2:

Now work in groups of four. Each group, make a chart for your own results. Then display the charts.

The teacher can use a 'messenger dictation' technique: from each group, one student in turn gets up, looks at the information on the other three charts, and then returns to dictate it to the group. The first group to obtain all the information correctly and create a class chart is the winner.

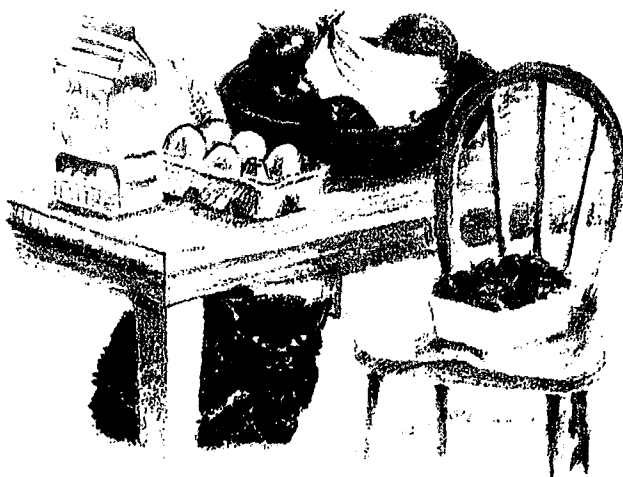
Exercise 7: Speaking Activity / Information Exchange

Aim : To practice descriptive adjectives and prepositions of place.

As usual for information exchange activities, students work with a partner, sitting in such a way that their page is not visible to their partner.

Now, work in pairs. Students A look at page 56, students B look at page 60, tell your partner about your picture. Find seven differences between your pictures. Don't show each other your page.

Student A's picture:

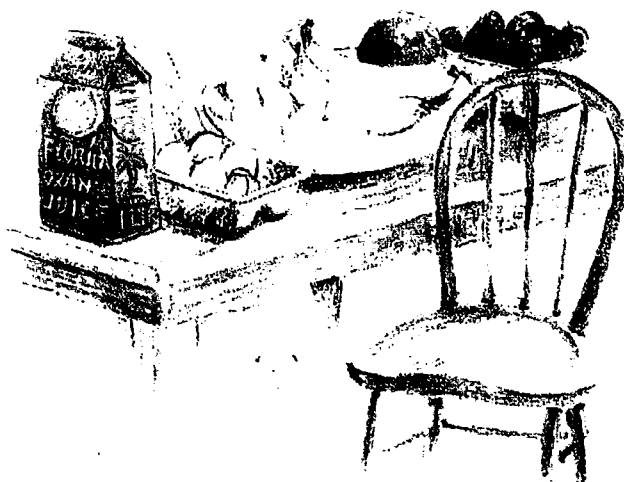


Student A: I've got a picture of a kitchen. It's got a table with a big blue bowl on it.

Student B: Oh! I've got a big white bowl on the table.

Student A: Good. One difference

Student B's picture:



During the activity, as students are working, the teacher's role should be to go around the pairs, help if necessary and note mistakes heard (words, grammar, pronunciation) for later correction.

LESSON B MUFFINS

Exercise 1: Listen to a radio advertisement. Complete the labels.

Exercise 2: Vocabulary work. Listen again. With a partner, choose the right answers.

Exercise 3: Listen to two people ordering muffins at the Canadian Muffin Company.

Exercise 4: Speaking Activity/Role Play: Ordering food.

Aim : To practise ordering food at a cafe.

Roleplay a conversation at the Canadian Muffin Company. Take turns to be A and B.

Student A, you are the waiter at the Canadian Muffin Company.
 Student B, you are a customer at the Canadian Muffin Company. Read the menu. Choose something to eat and something to drink.

Now, who wants to perform their role plays for the class.

As students are working in pairs, the teacher's role should be to circulate, help with the pronunciation and intonation patterns.

CANADIAN MUFFIN CO.

All our delicious Oat Bran Muffits are
 100 % vegetarian

We have a selection of 12 kinds of sweet
 and savoury Muffins including:

Bluberry	Pizza
Apricot Spice	Natural Oat Bran
Chunky Chocolate	Cheddar Cheese
Raspberry Banana	Spicy Corn&Cheese
Apple Walnut Raisin	Courgete&Mushroom

ALL MUFFINS £1.00

THE BEST CUP OF COFFEE IN TOWN

Coffee	60 p
Dark Rich Express	60 p
Cappuccino	90 p
Hot Chocolate	90 p
Steamed Almand Milk	90 p
Tea	60 p

ROCKMOUNTAIN FROZEN YOGHURT

£ 1.25 PER SERVING

VEGETARIAN SOUPS

£ 1.30 PER SERVING

Student A: Can I help you?

Student B: Er, yes I'll have a pizza
 with cheddar cheese and a
 chunky chocolate please.

Student A: And to drink?

Student B: Oh ... erm ... some tea
 please.

Student A: Anything else?

Student B: I don't know.

What's this spicy corn and
 cheese pizza?

Student A: It's very very good.

It's got cheese and corn

It's spicy.

Student B: That sounds good.

I'll have one.

Student A: Anything else

Student B: No, thanks

Student A: That's £ 4.50

Student B: There you are

Thanks.

Exercise 5: Speaking Activity: Negotiating Choices/Discussion:

Aim : To review the vocabulary of food; to practise negotiating choices with others; to practise giving and discussing personal opinions.

- Work with another student. Which of the food items in the box are junk food? Then make lists. Add at least one more food item to the Healthy Food and Junk food lists.

cola	eggs	cake	oranges
milk	potato	crisps	chips
chocolate	bars	fizzy	lemonade
pizza	hamburger	strawberries	
milkshake	apples	muffins	
biscuits			

Healthy food	Junk food
oranges	potato crisps

- Remember, junk food is food that is not good for you. You can use your dictionaries if you want.
- Now compare your lists with another pair.

- Discuss these questions, if you finish, which of the food items above do you like? Try to give a reason.

Example:

I like hamburgers because they're delicious.

- In groups of four, try to decide on one food that you all like, and prepare a sentence to say why. Then tell the class the food you choose and why. If you want, you can come and write your sentence on the board and ask the class to think of other possible reasons for eating or not eating that certain food, e.g.: If you eat this, you get fat ...

Topic: Living at home

- Speaking Skills:
- Expressing obligation and prohibition
 - Reporting opinions
 - Discussing advantages and disadvantages
 - Information exchange: describing location

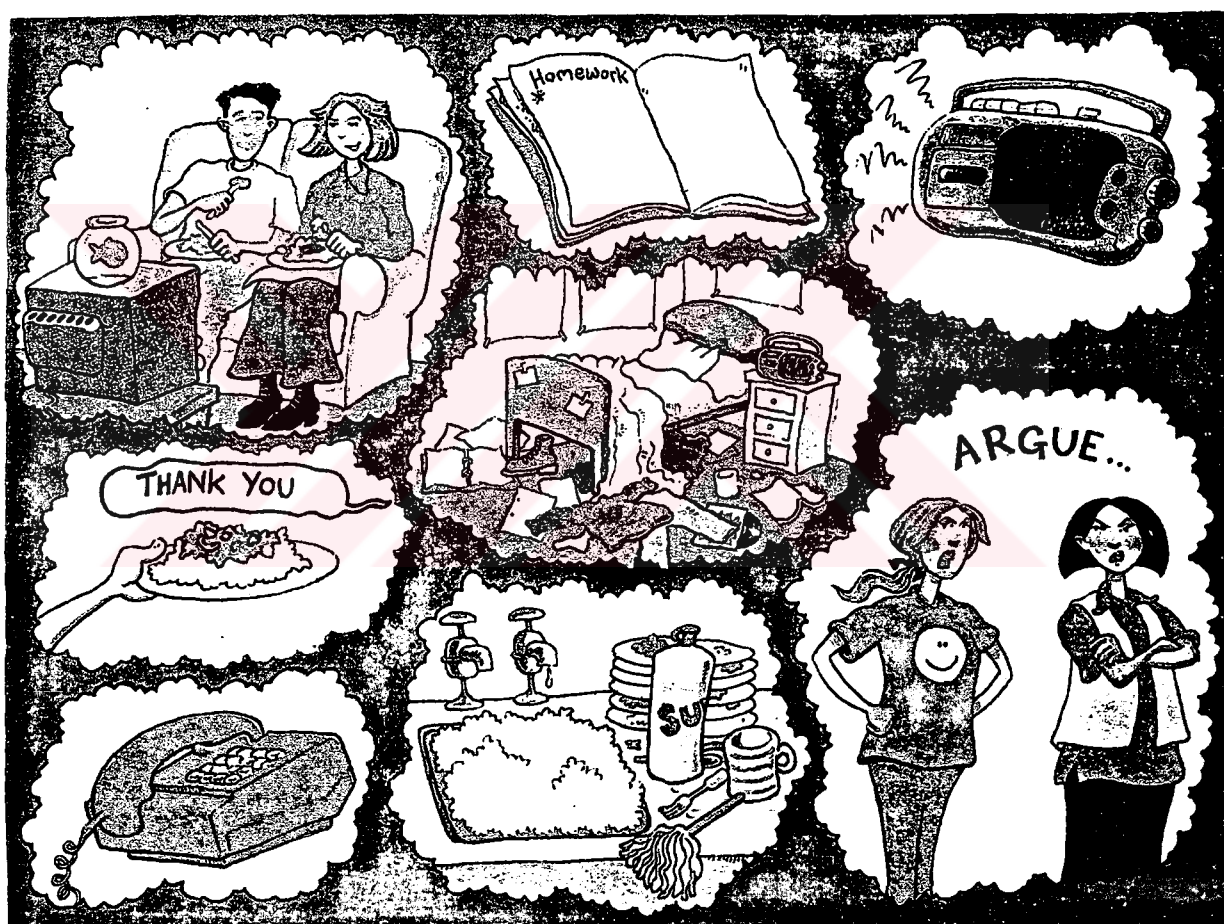
The new language (must / mustn't) has been taught before, new vocabulary items (duties of living at home / in a family, facilities in a town, advantages and disadvantages of living in a town) have been introduced through listening from the tape.

Activity 1. Group work: Expressing obligation and prohibition

Aim: To express obligation and prohibition

- Work in a group of four.

Take turns to say one thing that the students on the cassette must or mustn't do. Use these drawings to help you.



- In this exercise the pictures are designed to be a prompt, to lessen the memory load for the groups. The teacher's role is to circulate and help where needed.

Activity 2: Group work: Discussion

Aim: To express and discuss obligation and prohibition

- In a small group, discuss this question:

Are there things that you think parents must or mustn't do? Make a list, then compare it with other groups.

Parents must

Parents mustn't

Topic: Sports

Speaking Skills: Exchanging opinions

Role play: Speaking on the phone

The new language (present simple tense for routines) has been taught before, new vocabulary items (the equipment and techniques of scuba diving, dangerous sports) have been introduced before.

Activity 1: Pair work: Role play

Aim: To role play a telephone conversation.

- With your partner, role play a telephone conversation. Take turns to be A and B. Don't forget to use the phrases in the box.

Can I help you? What can I do for you?

I'm sorry to trouble you, but ...

I'm sorry to bother you, but ...

I think ...

I feel ...

Don't worry. Really?

Are you sure? Thank you.

Thank you very much indeed.

It's pleasure. Don't mention it.

Student A: You are a nine-year-old brother/sister. You are worried about swimming lessons for him/her. Telephone the school coach. Say why you think the lessons are not a good idea (too young? doesn't like it? or ...?) thank the coach.

Student B: You are a swimming coach. A teenager telephones you about swimming lessons for his/her nine-year-old brother/sister. Say why you think the lessons are a good idea (government rules? children learn fast? or ...?).
Reply when the caller thanks you.

Note: In this exercise, students have a lot of support from the conversation they heard, and from the boxed phrases.

Students role play the conversation. If they are confident, the teacher encourages them to add other details to the conversation. The teacher's role here, is to circulate and help where necessary.

After they finish doing the exercise, the teacher can ask one or two pairs, especially ones who have produced some variations, to perform their role play for the class.

Topic: Entertainment: Sounds and music.

Speaking Skills: - Creating a dialogue

- Retelling a narrative

- Expressing likes and dislikes

- Information exchange: describing and sequencing a picture story.

The new language (Present Continuous Tense) has been taught before, new vocabulary items (action verbs, pop music / pop stars, jobs) have been introduced through listening from the tape.

Activity 1: Pair work: Creating a dialogue.

Aim: To create and role play a dialogue.

- Work with your partner. Imagine that you are upstairs in the house. You hear some noises, but are not sure what is happening downstairs. Create a short dialogue about it.

A : What's that sound?

B : Don't worry. The dog's barking. That's all.

A : No, no! There's something else. Listen, What's that sound now?

B : I can't hear anything ... I think it's just the wind.

- Role play your dialogue for another pair.

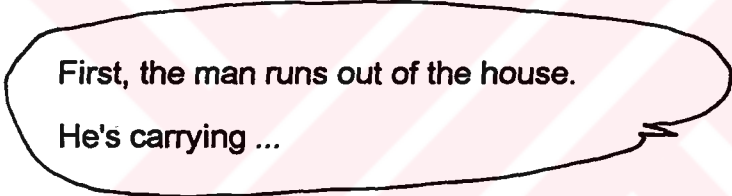
The teacher should check that students understand the situation in the example. They imagine that they are upstairs in the house when a burglar comes in.

The teacher's role should be to circulate, help and monitor as they are working. Pairs role play for each other, then one or two present their dialogue to the class.

Activity 2: Group work: Retelling a story.

Aim: To retell a narrative.

- In groups of four, take turns to say one sentence each about the end of the story that you heard from the tape. Start like this:



First, the man runs out of the house.
He's carrying ...

The teacher should organise groups, and tell them to use the beginning in the book, and then continue in turns. She should encourage them to use as many sentences as they can. She may also have a class competition to see which group can use the most.

Activity 3: Pair work: Discussion

Aim: To express likes and dislikes.

- What do you think? Is the life of a teenage pop star a good life? Would you like it yourself? Why? Or why not? Compare your ideas with your partner, then with other students in the class.

This is an opportunity for students to produce the language they have heard and express their own opinions. The teacher should encourage them to give reasons for their preferences. In smaller classes, the teacher might like to do this as a whole class activity. In larger classes the teacher can ask students to join other pairs, then ask for some feedback on their opinions.

Activity 4: Pair work: Information exchange

Aim: To describe and sequence a series of pictures, using the present continuous tense.

- Student A: Look at your pictures. Your partner has three different pictures. Describe to your partner what is happening in your pictures and put the six pictures in the right order.

Number them 1-6. Don't show each other your pictures.



- In picture A there is a street. A man is walking down the street and his hat's

- Student B: Look at your pictures. Your partner has three different pictures. Describe to your partner what is happening in your pictures and put the six pictures in the right order. Number them 1-6. Don't show each other your pictures.



- In picture D two men are lifting another man into an ambulance. There is a policeman with

The teacher's role in this activity should be to circulate and help pairs to describe their pictures and encourage them to use the present continuous tense: a man is walking down the street, the wind is blowing

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of the Study

This study was based on a research which aimed to develop students speaking English confidently and fluently, regardless of making mistakes, in and out of the class.

The data have been collected through two questionnaires administered at three Anatolian lycees in Ankara. Subjects of the research were 107 students as well as 10 teachers at these institutions.

Questionnaires, both of which were geared to the determination of the underlying problems of students' failure of speaking English fluently, the statistical analysis presented in chapter III, have revealed that there have not been any serious attempts to develop students' speaking ability although it is known by the teachers that students fail to use English in and out of the class because of various reasons, like inefficient learning strategies and inappropriate objectives.

As stated in the Review of Literature, with the existence of new materials on skills developing, attention has turned to ways in which learners can take more participation in conversation classes, with the help of techniques and activities used in class like, group work, pair work, role-play, games, discussions and information exchange activities.

In conclusion, the study has proved to some extent that students can speak fluently and confidently when the focus is not on correcting mistakes but on communicating meaningfully, regardless of making mistakes.

5.2 Implications and Recommendations for Further Research

When we go back to the problems that we have in conversation classes, we can list them as the students' fear of making mistakes, the learners' inadequate level of language and lexis, the low motivation of the learners, the topics and the teacher's management of the class/activity.

Edge (1990: 48) points out that

"the possibility of not correcting must always be at the front of the teacher's mind. In order to bring about fluency in language use, encouragement is more important than correction."

Mistakes are inevitable, but if there are too many, it is probably the result of insufficient practice or poor exploitation strategies. Students should not be punished for mistakes. Thus, correction techniques should be useful and supportive. Mistakes are likely to be made during practice and exploitation if teachers use the full range of question types and encourage students to respond naturally.

Edge (1993: 90) confirms that:

"teachers need to encourage students to communicate in the **shared knowledge** that this must include making mistakes if the language is to develop."

Therefore it is true that; fluency in speech can only come about through the opportunity to use the language while not having to worry unduly over the form in which the message is transmitted; in other words, it can only

come about when students feel sufficiently confident in, firstly, for exchanging information and, secondly, their teacher's wish to stand aside and allow them to find their own way.

If we should consider the stages while presenting an activity, in the presentation stage, the task should be explained to the students before they are given any materials, put into pairs/groups etc. It is essential that the students should be completely clear in their minds right from the start what the task is, and what limitations are imposed on how they do it, hence they should be told this by the teacher while their attention is fully hers.

During the activity, the teacher should try to stay away from groups/pairs unless they expressly call her to help them or unless there is obviously a serious communication problem/confusion regarding how to proceed. Very occasionally, with some groups, the teacher may function discreetly as:

clarifier

preventer of digressions

contributor to content.

A well-known proverb tells us that "PREVENTION IS BETTER THAN CURE". In controlled activities, the language and lexis will have been presented and practised very recently and may even be on the b/b or in the students' notebooks/handouts for the students to refer to during the activity. Any mistakes made are more likely to be slips' and will probably be minimal if the presentation and practise phases were well taught. In guided activities, language and lexis could be briefly brainstormed with the whole class before starting on the task. In freer activities, the language and lexis will probably

be fairly unpredictable and there may not be much a teacher can do beforehand. During the activity, it is not generally advisable for the teacher to correct mistakes overtly as this will interrupt the flow and 'naturalness' of the activity. Better to note down any mistakes and deal with them after the activity or in another lesson. However, if a learner specifically asks for help or obviously 'gets stuck' there is no reason why we should not respond.

A teacher should always prepare students for a discussion activity beforehand; *eliciting and/or providing the language necessary for the discussion on the B/B, handouts, ect.*

"OK. Today we're going to talk about football. Come on, then talk about football. Who's going to start? What's wrong with you? It's a subject. I'm sure you all know a lot about. Why aren't you saying anything? Come on - TALK!"

The teacher above has some problems in getting her students to talk about football. It is an inescapable fact that, while many young people enjoy discussing football in their own language, they do not see the point of doing it in a foreign language as well. Unless they see a good reason for doing it in the L₂ they will continue to do it outside the classroom in the L₁! While with some topics this could be true - the topic of football is more than often universally popular. However, it should be contextualised and focused (Which aspect of football are the students to discuss?). Teams, players, particular matches, trainers, behaviour of spectators, salaries, life style, training of footballers, famous international footballers, TV coverage of matches. This is the main problem area.

At the risk of stating the obvious, 'getting students to talk', is the major and one of the most difficult tasks confronting any teacher of

languages. But talk they must; because it is through cooperative talking that learners are enabled to simulate and thus prepare for the activity of out-of-class communication. Encouraging talking, therefore, is much more than a matter of creating a lively classroom atmosphere, desirable though that is. As opposed to mere speech, talk has learning, teaching and evaluating implications and, as a result, needs careful and well-motivated treatment.

If we want our students to practice structure meaningfully, and with the aim of providing them with the means of using English outside the classroom, we must supply them with a viable context for such practice. They should know:

- when and where to use the language learned,
- who they can say it to,
- why they are using it (to convey what message / mood etc.)

Suppose that a teacher wishes to introduce the present continuous tense and does this walking to the door, opening it, and saying, 'Look, I'm opening the door.' The teacher clearly demonstrated one meaning of the present continuous (e.g. an action taking place in the present) by opening the door. But he has misled about the communicative value (or use) of such language. English people do not go around telling other people what they are doing in this way: they are not continually commenting on their actions (unless they are giving a cookery demonstration or defusing a bomb, for example.) The teacher, in this example, is teaching the meaning of the present continuous, but not how it is used.

Context, purpose and desire are the minimal requirements for language learning and for helping students become fluent listeners and

speakers in the foreign language. If these are all present and clear in our coursebooks all well and good. If not, we must do something to remedy this in our presentation and practice particularly in oral interaction. That is to say, if there is no situation, we must create one albeit a simulated, quasi-real one. We must identify and isolate a function and teach it together with the structure used to fulfil it.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Dear Colleague,

I strongly believe that with this questionnaire (which will take only 15 min.) you will contribute to my M.A. thesis

Thank you for your kind interest.

Serpil KOCAKAYA
English Teacher

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. School:
2. Course book you use:
3. Faculty / College and Year Graduated:
4. How long have you been teaching English?:
5. Have you ever / recently attended a seminar / workshop or an in-service teaching programme including Teaching and Learning the skill of Speaking?
6. What is your special area of interest in TEFL?

Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary
Teaching Speaking	Teaching
Teaching Listening	Teaching
Teaching Literature	Other (Please specify)

7. What kind of activities / techniques do you usually use in conversation classes? (Please rank from 1 to 8 in order of preference).

Games

Group Work

Puzzles

Pair Work

Information gap activities

Question-Answer

Problem Solving activities

Discussion

8. Please rank the following from 1 to 5 in order of preference to indicate important factors in the failure of your students in achieving the objectives of a spoken course.

1. Failure to use the language out of the class.

2. Inefficient learning strategies.

3. Inappropriate objectives.

4. Inappropriate teaching activities.

5. Lack of Exposure to the language in the class.

9. Do you agree with the idea that since fluency is not actually tested in most Anatolian lycees and private schools in Turkey accuracy gains much more importance?

a) Yes

b) No

10. Do you believe to the idea that the primary units of a language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning.

a) Yes

b) No

11. Which activities do you think a conversation class must involve?

Fluency

Problem Solving Tasks

Situation Role-Plays

Conversational Routines

Information gap Activities

Simulation

Improvisation

Drama

12. Would you please give a short definition for the term 'fluency'.

13. Which way of correction do you usually use in order to correct your students oral mistakes in a conversation class?

- Delayed Correction

- Finger Correction

- Non-verbal Sounds

- Facial Expression

- Repeating in Context

- Automatic Correction

- Peer-Correction.

APPENDIX B

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu anket İngilizce konuşma becerinizi geliştirmeye katkıda bulunması amacıyla düzenlenmiştir. Anketi cevaplandırmak yaklaşık 15 dakikanızı alacaktır. İlginize teşekkür ederim.

Serpil KOCAKAYA
English Teacher

ANKET

1. Cinsiyet Kız ☐ Erkek ☐

2. Okul

3. Kendi dilinizde iyi bir konuşmacı mısınız?

a) Evet

b) Hayır

4. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?

a) 1

b) 2

b) 3 ve yukarı

5. İngiltere, Amerika veya Avustralya'ya daha önce hiç gittiniz mi?

a) Evet

b) Hayır

6. Yabancı bir dil turistle daha önce hiç konuşmaya çalıştınız mı?

a) Evet

b) Hayır

7. Okulun açıldığı ilk dönemde İngilizce öğrenirken hangi beceriyi daha zor buluyorsunuz?

a) Okuma

b) Yazma

c) Dinleme

d) Konuşma

8. Sınıfınızda İngilizce derslerinde aşağıdakilerden en çok kim ya da kimler İngilizce konuşur?

a) Öğretmen

b) İngilizcesi iyi olan öğrenciler

c) Bütün öğrenciler

9. İngilizce dersinde, bir ders saati içinde en çok kaç kez söz alırsınız?

a) 1-3

b) 3-5

c) 6-10

d) 11-15

10. İngilizce dersinde sözlü olarak (Speaking) alıştırma yaparken öğretmenleriniz aşağıdakilerden en çok hangisini kullanırlar?

a) Soru-cevap (Öğretmen-öğreci arasında)

b) Soru-cevap (Öğrenci-öğrenci arasında)

c) Oyun veya bulmaca

d) Tartışma (Discussion)

e) Grup çalışması

f) İkili çalışma

g) Diğer (Belirtiniz)

11. Sene sonunda İngilizce düzeyi açısından aşağıdakilerden hangi kategoriye dahil olmak istersiniz?

- a) Seviyeme uygun birçok kelimenin Türkçe karşılığını bilmek.
- b) Mektup arkadaşı bulmak ve onunla yazışmak.
- c) Yaz tatilinde yabancı bir turistle karşılaştığımda onunla normal bir hızda konuşabilmek.
- d) Yaz tatilinde seviyeme uygun bir kitap okuyabilmek.
- e) İngilizcede bütün zamanları çok iyi bilmek.
- f) Bir İngiliz gibi konuşabilmek.
- g) Diğer (Belirtiniz)

12. İngilizce dersinde konuşurken hata yaptığınızda öğretmeniniz size nasıl davranır?

- a) Kendisi hemen düzeltir.
- b) Arkadaşlarımın düzeltmesine şans tanır.
- c) Hatalarımı bir sonraki derste düzeltir.
- d) Kendi hatamı düzeltmem için bana şans tanır.
- e) Diğer (Belirtiniz)

13. İngilizce konuşurken en çok de zorlanıyorum.

- a) Doğru kelimeyi bulma.
- b) Zamanları ayarlama.
- c) Bağlaçları kullanma.
- d) Fikir üretme.
- e) Sonuca varma.
- f) Diğer (Belirtiniz)

14. İngilizce dersinde söz aldığımda ne söyleyeceğim hakkında tereddütte kalıyorum.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

15. Sınıfta konuşmaya alışık değilim.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

16. Hata yapmaktan korkuyorum.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

17. Hata yaptığımızda öğretmen üzerinde kötü özlenim bırakacağımdan korkarım.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

18. Yapı olarak utangaç bir insanım ve çabuk heyecanlanıyorum.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

19. Konuyla ilgili değilim.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

20. Kelime bilgim sınırlı ve telaffuzum kötü.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

21. Sınıf arkadaşlarımdan bana güleceğini düşünüyorum.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

22. Fiziksel öz rl rim var.

a) Evet

b) Hayır

23. Verilen konuřma konularını buluyorum.

a) Sıkıcı

b)  ok iyi

c) Sa ma

d) İlgin 

24.  ğretmenler konuřma i in iyi motive edebiliyorlar mı?

a) Evet

b) Hayır

c) Bazen



APPENDIX C**STUTENTS QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear Students,

This questionnaire, which will take only 15 minutes, has been prepared in order to help you develop your speaking skill.

Thank you for your kind interest.

Serpil KOCAKAYA
English Teacher

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Sex Female ☐ Male ☐
2. School
3. Are you a good speaker in your own language?
a) Yes b) No
4. How many years have you been learning English?
a) 1 b) 2 b) 3 and above
5. Have you ever been to England, USA or Australia?
a) Yes b) No
6. Have you ever tried to speak to a tourist before?
a) Yes b) No

7. Which skill do you find most difficult to learn in the period of the first term?

- a) Reading b) Writing c) Listening d) Speaking

8. Who speaks English in class most of the time?

- a) Teacher b) Students who are good at English c) All the students

9. How many times do you usually take turn in an English lesson?

- a) 1-3 b) 3-5 c) 6-10 d) 11-15

10. Which activities do you usually do in speaking lessons?

- a) Question-Answer (Teacher-student)
b) Question-Answer (Student-student)
c) Games or puzzles
d) Discussions
e) Groupwork
f) Pairwork
g) Other (Please specify)

11. Which of the below categories would you like to be in considering your English level?

- a) Knowing English equivalents of many Turkish words at my level.
b) Finding a penfriend and corresponding with him/her.
c) Talking with an English tourist at a normal rate.
d) To be able to read an English book at my level in the holiday.
e) Learning all the tenses in English.
f) To be able to speak like a native speaker.
g) Other (Please specify)

12. How does your teacher treat you when you make a mistake while speaking English?

- a) She immediately corrects my mistakes.
- b) She gives a chance to my friends to correct my mistakes.
- c) She corrects my mistakes in the other lesson
- d) She gives me a chance to correct my own mistakes.
- e) Other (Please specify)

13. When I'm speaking English I find it difficult to

- a) Find the right word
- b) Regulating the tenses
- c) Using conjunctions
- d) Producing ideas
- e) Coming to the result
- f) Other (Please specify)

14. I hesitate when I take turn in English lesson.

- a) Yes
- b) No

15. I'm not used to speak in class.

- a) Yes
- b) No

16. I'm afraid of making mistakes.

- a) Yes
- b) No

17. I'm afraid of my teacher's reaction when I make mistakes.

- a) Yes
- b) No

18. I'm shy so personality and I quickly get excited.

a) Yes

b) No

19. I'm not interested in the subject.

a) Yes

b) No

20. I have got a bad pronunciation and limited word knowledge.

a) Yes

b) No

21. I think my friends will laugh at me when I make mistake.

a) Yes

b) No

22. I have got physical problems.

a) Yes

b) No

23. I think the topics are

a) boring

b) very good

c) nonsense

d) interesting

24. Can the teachers motivate you for speaking?

a) Yes

b) No

c) Sometimes

ÖZET

Bu çalışma öğrencilerin hata yapma kaygısı olmaksızın, sınıf içinde ve dışında, ne kadar rahat ve akıcı İngilizce konuşabildiklerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışma ayrıca, öğrencilerin, hatalarının düzeltilmediği, konuşmaya teşvik edildikleri, kendilerini rahat hissedecekleri ve gerçek bir atmosfer oluşturulduğu ortamlarda konuşma derslerine katılıp katılmadıklarını belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Veriler üç ayrı Anadolu Lisesi'nde öğretmen ve öğrencilere uygulanan anketler sonucunda elde edilmiştir.

Birinci bölümde, sorunun ne olduğu, çalışmanın amacı, önemi ve sınırlılıkları sunulmaktadır.

İkinci bölümde, yabancı dil öğreniminde, dilin ve sözlü iletişimin yeri, bilgi ve beceri arasındaki fark sunulmuştur. Temel dil öğrenme metod ve yaklaşımları, konuşma öğretiminde son yaklaşımlar ele alınmıştır. Ayrıca sözlü iletişim ve konuşma derslerinde uygulanan aktivitelere de bu bölümde değinilmiştir.

Üçüncü bölümde, toplanmış verilerin analizleri ve yorumları sunulmuştur.

Dördüncü bölümde öğrencilerin akıcı konuşma becerilerini geliştirme amaçlı örnek bir ders planı önerilmiştir.

Son bölümde ise, çalışmanın özeti, araştırmanın devamı ile ilgili öneriler ve açıklamalar sunulmuştur.

ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate the extent to which students speak English fluently and confidently in and out of the class, regardless of their making mistakes. It also aims to determine whether or not students participate in conversation classes when their teacher does not correct mistakes, but encourages them to speak, helps them feel confident and create a real atmosphere in the class. The data have been collected through the administration of two different questionnaires at three Anatolian Lycees.

In the first chapter, the purpose of the study, the problem, the scope of the study and assumptions are presented.

The second chapter focuses on the nature of language and oral communication in learning a foreign language, and the difference between knowledge and skill are presented. Major language teaching methods and recent trends in the teaching of speaking are discussed. Activities for oral practice are also mentioned in this chapter.

In the third chapter, the method of analysis and interpretation of the data collected are discussed.

In the fourth chapter, a suggested model for developing fluency in speech is recommended.

In the last chapter, summary of the study, implications and recommendations for further research are presented.