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**Teaching the Speaking Skill: Speaking Activities to Develop
Learners' Communicative Competence.**

A Case Study: Second Year Middle Level

**Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
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Applied Linguistics and Foreign Language Teaching**

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this humble work to my father who introduced me to the world of languages, and my mother who supports me along the way of my work. Also, to my brothers Mouhamed, Oussama, and Abd-Allah, my sisters Khaoula, Hasna, and Nounou.

I am especially grateful to my beloved husband Salah. The many hours that I devoted were hours that came from his time.

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ABSTRACT

Many researchers in the field of language teaching and learning have agreed that the aim of the majority of people is to speak English fluently and with the least difficulties. Learners consider that to be able to speak in English means to know the language.

The communicative approach to language teaching and learning was the reason behind which tasks have been given great importance. Tasks, therefore, are regarded as an organizational principle of the lesson. They are taught in the four macroskills of the language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

The Algerian learners suffer from not being able to speak English as they want. They complain that they feel frustrated when they encounter some troubles to express themselves in English.

Research has shown that oral communicative tasks are the best tools to enhance learners' communicative abilities and help them to acquire some strategies that they might use in their everyday life situations.

Our work is an attempt to discover whether the speaking tasks, which are designed for second year elementary pupils, are appropriate and sufficient to enhance their proficiencies.



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I. Background of the Study

Current research in the field of language teaching and learning shows that the acquisition of a language is not only seen as the learning of how well learners construct sentences with correct grammatical and phonological structures. Rather, it goes beyond such narrow view of language. It is also the knowledge of how to use these structures appropriately to achieve a communicative purpose. This idea is relevant to Widdowson's distinction between language 'usage' and 'use' where he focuses on the point that "...we are generally called upon to produce sentences of language use: we do not simply manifest the abstract system of the language, we at the same time realize it as meaningful communicative behavior"(2001:03).

However, linguistic competence is not enough to reach better oral communication. Learners have to make good use of pragmatic and sociocultural factors, too. This is what Celce-Murcia et al.(1995) and others refer to as the key components of communicative competence (grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence).

In the language classroom, one way to develop these competences is through practice in the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Such practice is manifested in the form of activity that learners are to perform. Amongst these skills, speaking is generally considered the most important aspect of learning a second/foreign language (Nunan,1991:39).Many language learners regard the speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language(Nunan,1991).

Recent research about foreign/second language teaching and learning has shed light on issues related to teaching speaking and the major concern was on oral fluency. Byrne(1986) states that, to achieve this goal, teacher "...will have to bring the students from the stage where they are mainly imitating a model of some kind, or responding to cues, to the point where they can use the language freely to express their own ideas"(1986:9-10,quoted in Hughes,2002:67).

Debate on balancing accuracy and fluency has long been the course of researchers in the field of language teaching and learning (Thornbury,2005:115). This issue raises the question of which one of the two should precede the other, should fluency come before accuracy or the reverse? Earlier form-focused approaches (the Structural Approach, the Audiolingual approach,etc) believe that accuracy should precede fluency(Thornbury,2005) and that learners should practice drills based on recently taught grammar structures. Thus, speaking is seen in terms of a system rather than contextual appropriacy. Later on, proponents of fluency-based teaching fuelled the evolution of the communicative approach which incorporates ample number of fluency activities, besides the accuracy ones, into the classroom.

II. Statement of the Problem

The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second or foreign language learners. Many students equate being able to speak a language as knowing the language and therefore view learning the language as learning how to speak it. Consequently, learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the basis of how well they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency.

Current interest in tasks arises largely from what is known as the communicative approach to language teaching. Language is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for

the creation of meaning. This idea calls for the distinction between knowledge of grammatical rules and the ability to use these rules effectively and appropriately when communicating. Thus, there is no doubt that the development of communicative language teaching has greatly enhanced the status of the learning task within the curriculum.

Nevertheless, this does not seem to be the case of the Algerian teaching/learning context. Teaching speaking, in Algeria, does not receive considerable attention at all levels of learning, starting from middle one. Second year elementary teachers and even learners complain about the inappropriate way of teaching/learning how to develop the speaking capacities. To investigate such problem and know what are the reasons behind learners' insufficient oral proficiency, we have conducted two pre-questionnaires, one for teachers and the other designed for learners (See Appendix 1 and 2 respectively). We have noticed, from the answers, that teachers are not satisfied with their pupils' level of communicative competence. Learners, too, have shown great dissatisfaction with what they are taught. They claim that they do not feel motivated to participate in a number of practices and some of them claim that they do not see improvements at their level of speaking the language.

Accordingly, a number of questions merit to be discussed:

- What are the reasons behind learners' poor oral proficiency?
- Can we consider that teachers are, too, responsible for such problem?
- If yes, what can they do to overcome this problem gradually?

These questions and many others require many studies to be solved. Our research cannot cover them all because it just tries to shed light on such important issue, diagnosing the main reason behind second year middle pupils' insufficient oral proficiencies and suggest some possible recommendations that may change the situation gradually.

III. Aim of the Study

As stated earlier in this introduction, our study deals with speaking tasks that are designed in Spotlight book two. Our objective is to see teachers and learners viewpoints, through questionnaires, about the designed activities and the possibility of including real and authentic tasks.

The results obtained from our analysis and interpretation of the collected data will determine which appropriate recommendations can be suggested to the teacher to overcome the lacks faced while using speaking activities of the book. Such recommendations are built on Evans and ST.John's (1998) beliefs that a good provider of materials will be able to:

- 1-select appropriately from what is available.
- 2-be creative with what is available.
- 3-modify activities to suit learners' need.
- 4-supplement by providing extra activities (and extra input)

These recommendations are meant to improve learners' oral proficiency and guide them to become successful oral communicators. In this respect, Nunan (1989:32) claim that learners should develop:

- the ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly;
- mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns;
- an acceptable degree of fluency;
- transactional and interpersonal skills;
- skills in taking short and long speaking turns;
- skills in negotiating meaning;
- conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers);
- skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations;

-using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers.

IV. Limitation of the Study

We are aware that there are various factors and objections that may hamper, in a way or another, and affect learners' development of communicative abilities. Limitations, as Mauch and Park argue, "...typically surface as variables that cannot be controlled by the researcher but may limit or affect the outcome of the study"(2003:115).

Out of these limitations, we can mention: large class size, reticent learners who reject or who are shy to speak and interact, duration of the course, teachers' lack of communicative orientation, high pressure on the teachers to finish the program, etc...This is what leads us to limit our study to a particular population of learners and not to go beyond the factors already mentioned.

Besides, generalization of the results obtained and recommendations suggested is not appropriate since our concern is the study of a case. Nevertheless, such generalization becomes worth all the trial if the results are confirmed and recommendations experimented by other researches. These researches have to be conducted in the Algerian classroom context.

V. Hypothesis

If a teacher uses speaking activities which range from manipulative ones to those prompting discussion and communication, he/she would improve his/her teaching.

VI. Methodology

As it has been pointed out, this research is an attempt to show that pedagogical tasks cannot stand alone to improve learners' ability to speak and communicate in the real world and with the least difficulties.

To fulfill our objective, we need to rely on a method. Cohen, Manion and Morrison define methods as "...range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction" (2005:44). We will follow, in our study, the descriptive method. The research strategy that we will follow is a case study. We will work with second year elementary level.

VII. Data identification, Types and Collection Procedure

It becomes clear now that the methodology followed in our work is a descriptive one and that the research strategy used is a case study. What remains is a method to collect data. In our research, a questionnaire will be the mean by which our data will be collected.

Two questionnaires are designed. The first is prepared for teachers to consider their viewpoints about the available speaking tasks and whether it is applicable to include other authentic tasks to improve their learners' communicative abilities, hence, a gradual development towards autonomy. The second questionnaire is developed for learners. The questions are asked in Arabic and later translated into English. The questions are all about the current communicative level of learners and whether they appreciate Spotlight book two speaking activities.

VIII. Population and Sampling

Population we are concerned with includes learners of second year middle level, together with their teachers. However, a number of factors may prevent us from gaining information from the whole population. These factors include time constraints, financial means, accessibility and energy. Therefore, we need to select a sample of the members who we are able to question. The sampling strategy chosen in our dissertation is a random one (also known as probability sampling). Probability sampling is further divided into a number of techniques. We will rely on simple

random sampling technique. Our sample contains two groups, out of twelve, of second year elementary pupils. We will work with learners of Hacène Ghadjati School. Those learners make a total number of sixty-five pupils. Also, teachers, with whom we have worked the second questionnaire, are twenty-eight.

IX. Organization of the research

This work will be divided into six chapters. The first chapter will survey the communicative language teaching methodology and its main principles. Another important issue in this chapter is the use of authentic materials, what is an authentic material and what are its advantages and drawbacks. Chapter two tackles the design of authentic tasks, focusing on the various definitions of a task, its components and its roles and settings in the language classroom. Chapter three will discuss the classification of speaking activities which methodologists have proposed. The fourth chapter will discuss the research design of our study, speaking about the methodology followed, the identification of data, and the sampling technique. The fifth chapter will be devoted to discuss the nature of the corpus collected. It will be followed by description, analysis and interpretation of both teachers and learners' answers in the designed questionnaires.

The results obtained will clarify the lacks found in the way speaking is taught. As a final step of this work, we will develop a chapter which includes some recommendations to the teacher to take them into consideration in further teaching. The conclusion will revisit the question raised in the introduction and, more specifically, the results obtained in the last chapter.



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INTRODUCTION

The field of second language teaching has undergone many trends over the last few decades (Tarone and Yule, 1999, Widdowson, 2001...). Numerous methods have come and gone. These methods include the grammar translation method, the audio-lingual method, the natural approach, and many others.

In recent years, there has been a major shift in perspective within the language teaching profession concerning the nature of what is to be taught. This change resulted mainly from the failure of previous methods to create learners who are able to communicate in the target language. In simple terms, language is no longer presented as a system of grammatical and phonological rules, but as a functional system which is mainly used to reach communicative purposes. This fact brought forth communicative language teaching methodologies. Tarone and Yule view that "This shift in emphasis has largely taken place as a result of fairly convincing arguments, mainly from ethnographers and others who study language in its context of use, that the ability to use a language should be described as communicative competence" (1999: 17).

One of the characteristics of CLT is its emphasis on the use of authentic materials in language teaching and learning. Such materials are seen to develop learners' abilities to communicate in the real world.

Throughout this chapter, we will give an overview about communicative language teaching, and what do we mean by communicative competence. The next point will be devoted to tackle the main principles of CLT. As a final point, we will shed light on an

important issue within CLT which is 'authentic materials'. We will see various definitions of those materials and what are the advantages and drawbacks behind their use in language teaching.

It is worth noting that this chapter is not intended to discuss historical background of the communicative language teaching, but on the main principles that are built on this methodology.

I.1. Communicative Language Teaching

Interest in developing communicative approach has mushroomed in the seventies. This change brought new attitudes towards both language and learning. Nunan views that:

...it has been accepted that language is more than simply a system of rules. Language is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning. In terms of learning, it is generally accepted that we need to distinguish between 'learning that' and 'knowing how'. In other words, we need to distinguish between knowing various grammatical rules and being able to use the rules effectively and appropriately when communicating (1989:12).

This idea of language and language learning has underpinned communicative language teaching (CLT) (Littlewood,1996; Nunan,1989) . This latter is seen as an approach to language teaching.

The appearance of CLT led language teachers and teaching institutions all around the world to rethink their teaching syllabuses and classroom materials. In fact, Howatt views that CLT has two versions: weak and strong one. He states that:

The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes

and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching ...The 'strong' version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn It' (1984:279, quoted in Richards and Rodgers,(2001:66).

1.1.1 Communicative competence

As far as classroom communication is concerned, Richards (1998:5-6) argues that learners need to develop competence in both the social and interactional aspects of classroom language, so that they could participate in classroom activities. All these aspects make up communicative competence. Bussmann, in his Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics, defines communicative competence as "...the fundamental concept of a paralinguistic model of linguistics communication: it refers to the repertoire of know-how that individuals must develop if they are to be able to communicate with one another appropriately in the changing situations and conditions"(1995:208).

Llomas, Mullany and Stockwell view that communicative competence is "the ability to use language appropriately and effectively in different situations and for different purposes and audiences"(2006: 163)

Johnson considers that it is teachers' job to help their learners to establish classroom communicative competence. This may happen, as Johnson claims, if teachers "...recognize the norms that govern classroom communication, identify the knowledge and

competencies that are necessary for students to participate in classroom events, and be cognizant of the social and contextual issues surrounding classrooms"(1998:162-163).

Put simply, teachers' adjustment and modification of patterns of communication may play a role to develop learners' linguistic and interactional competencies, so that they can participate in a wider range of classroom events.

Communicative competence embraces a number of abilities. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000:175) consider these abilities as prerequisites for any learner who wishes to become a truly effective communicator in another language. These abilities include the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary (linguistic competence); the ability to use the appropriate form in the appropriate social situation (sociolinguistic competence); the ability to start, enter, contribute to, and end a conversation, and the ability to do this in a consistent and coherent manner (discourse competence); the ability to communicate effectively and use strategies to repair problems caused by communication breakdowns.

I.2.Principles of communicative language teaching

Erton (2006) states that communicative teaching is based on the following principles:

- The functional approach (the functional national syllabus) is behind the communicative approach.
- Activities should involve real communication to promote learning.
- Activities should not be imaginary but should be based on realistic motives.
- The meaningful use and production of language promotes the language learning process.
- Students use language as a means of expressing values and their concerns.
- Students are demonstrated with functions of language that best meet their own communicative needs.

- The communicative language teaching makes use of any activity which would help the learners to get engaged in authentic (real) communication.
- The communicative language teaching aims to develop certain language skills and functions by using the target language and communicative activities.
- Favorite activities are social interaction activities, conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues, pair and group discussions and role plays.

Doughty and Long (2003) describe CLT as set of methodological principles. They define such principles as being facilitative features to second language acquisition.

I.2.1. Use Tasks as an Organizational Principle

The first principle indicates that tasks should be used as an organizational principle. This means that, unlike traditional methods which use grammar texts as a basis for designing a syllabus, CLT gives priority to the development of communicative skills. This recognition of the importance of a task for its own sake raises the question on how a syllabus should be organized. Breen (1984, quoted in Nunan, 1989) views that tasks should be used as central units of a lesson. He suggests that an alternative to the listing of linguistic content would be to:

...prioritize the route itself; a focusing upon the means towards the learning of a new language. Here the designer would give priority to the changing progress of learning and the potential of the classroom – to the psychological and social resources applied to a new language by learners in the classroom context ...a greater concern with capacity for communication rather than repertoire of communication, with the activity of learning a language viewed as

important as the language itself, and with a focus upon means rather than predetermined objectives, all indicate priority of process over content (1984:52-53).

I.2.2.Promote Learning by Doing

The second principle involves learning by doing. Doughty and Long (2003) believe that "new knowledge is better integrated into long-term memory and easier retrieved, if tied to real world events and activities"(2003:58). This principle entails that learning could be promoted if it is based on real conditions of communication.

I.2.3.Input Needs to be Rich

The third principle stresses the fact input needs to be rich. Sanz defines input as "...the linguistic forms to which learners are exposed"(2005:207). Keck et al.(2006)regard that the input is considered rich if learners get the possibility of hearing the language from any source(from the teacher, from multimedia resources,...).Another important point which makes the input rich is the authenticity of materials used. Keck et al. argue that learners should "...be exposed to as rich a diet of authentic language discourse as possible" They add that, within the context of the classroom , authenticity can be achieved "Through the use of a wide range of materials, authentic and simplified, as well as the teacher's maximum use of the TL".

Since our next point will be about authentic materials, we see it worth not to tackle it now. We will move directly to discuss the issue of using the target language in the classroom as an important factor which makes input rich.

One way to enrich input in the language classroom is by using the target language. The strong emphasis on using the target language comes from the belief that learners will gain more in the new language when the amount of input is great (Cummins and Swain 1986). Some teachers, however, do not rely on the target language as the primary means of communication. Polio and Duff (1994), for instance , report that many teachers use the native language (English) for a number of tasks in the classroom. They prefer to use it while explaining grammar, translating unknown vocabulary items, managing the class,...

Furthermore, the issue of relying on the target language affects also learners. Brandl and Bauer (2002) state that, in beginning language classrooms, learners ask their teachers to use the target language when they teach most of the time in the native language (English). Keck et al. suggest some strategies that teachers have to rely on to minimize learners' frustrations to the extensive use of the target language. These strategies are as follow:

- 1- Do not constantly switch back and forth between the TL and the students' L1: It means that the teacher should avoid , for example, beginning a sentence in the TL and ends it in the L1. This act may show his lack of proficiency skills or laziness. Another point that the writers refers to is "code switching" which indicates that language users have the possibility of switching between different languages because it is a "...common language phenomenon that occurs in any normal social interaction between speakers who share knowledge of the same languages (2006:15)".

2. Set a good example for the students: Teachers are advised to use the target language consistently.

3. Provide clear guidelines: This strategy asks teachers to select some occasions during their courses to allow their students use their native language. This may be

conducted, say, when requesting for task instructions, or confirmation checks and so forth.

4. Discuss the rationale for using the TL in the classroom early in the term. Teachers should make their learners aware about the importance of providing courses in the target language.

I.2.4. Input Needs to be Meaningful, Comprehensible, and Elaborated

The fourth principle claims that input needs to be meaningful, comprehensible, and elaborated. Meaningful input means that the new knowledge must be related to the preceding and existing knowledge of the learner, so that he could assimilate or attach it to his cognitive structure. Keck et.al view that the notion of meaning is the primary principle of CLT and it appears as a reaction to audiolingual teaching. This latter was criticized for repetitive drills that did not require the processing of language, so the content made sense or was meaningful to learner.

The notion of meaningful input, however, is closely tied to comprehensible one. Comprehensible input, as Gass and Selinker define it, refers to "... the understandable input that learners need for learning. Input is slightly more advanced than the learners' current level of grammatical knowledge " (2008 :515). Lynch (2001) views that successful comprehension of input is important for language learners because it is "...regarded as an important potential route to progress in the foreign language" (2001:13). Yule (2006: 168) ,too, regards that input has to be comprehensible to be beneficial for L2 learning.

One way to make input meaningful and comprehensible is through input modification. Lynch argues that:

Much of the research into how native speakers modify their speech to non-native speakers has been based on the assumption that once the message is modified so as to make it comprehensible, the learner

may then pick up and later use new items of language contained in the message (2001 : 57)

Researchers interested in second language acquisition (Long 1983; and others) try to interpret Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis which is based on the belief that "...opportunities for second language acquisition are maximized when learners are exposed to language which is just a little beyond their current level of competence" (Krashen 1981, 1982 , cited in Nunan,1991). Nunan (1991: 50) sees that the whole issue is about the appropriate classroom tasks and patterns of interaction which support learners with the greatest amount of comprehensible input. In this respect, Long (1985) suggests his three- step argument, to explain such issue , when he made a connection between input, interaction, and learning. His argument is the following:

- 1- Show that discourse modification promotes the comprehension of input
- 2 – Show that comprehensible input promotes learning
- 3-Deduce that discourse modifications promote learning (1985:378, quoted in Lynch,2001:57)

Sanz explains that researchers decided to measure the comprehension effects of various types of modification when they found that "While exposure to input has been claimed to be sufficient for first language learners to master the syntax, morphology, phonology, and semantics of their native language, simple exposure to the target language rarely has the same outcome for second language (L2) learners" (2005 : 207)

Hence, Kumarawadivelu considers that "Input modifications and interactional activities constitute the foundational structure of classroom learning and teaching operation" (2006: 57).

Sanz (2005 : 208) points out that Long widens his scope of focus to include , not input alone, but ways or strategies to modify interaction. Long believes that modified interaction helps to make input more comprehensible for nonnative speakers.

Tsui (1995) states a number of devices, as she calls them, that “...native speakers use both to avoid and to repair breakdowns in communication ”(1995:65). These devices are the following

1. Confirmation check

A confirmation check enables the interactants to ensure that they have both understood the speech. Repetition and paraphrasing what the previous speaker said with a raising intonation are two confirmation check strategies. For example, Long suggests the following NS-NNS conversation where repetition is used as a confirmation check strategy.

NS: What time did you finish?

NS: Ten

NS: When did you finish?

NNS: Um? (Uh? sic)

NS: When did you finish? (Repetition)

NNS: Ten clock

NS: Ten o' clock? (Confirmation check)

NNS: Yeah. (Confirmation)

(1983a: 128, cited in Tsui 1995: 65)

2. Clarification request

Clarification request appeals to clarify a misunderstood utterance. Tsui's example is

C: Do you get satisfaction; though?

B: Yes. I reckon you get more satisfaction as you go up the scale as well.

C: (laughs) what do you mean, the money scale?

B: No, the job, the job. (1995: 66)

3. Repetition request

Tsui defines repetition requests as devices which are used "...when the speaker fails to hear or understand what the previous speaker has said and asks for a repetition or a restatement "(1995: 67). It can take the form of an explicit request, asking the other interactant to repeat what he said. The speaker may also repeat part of the other speaker's utterance with a rising intonation. He / she can do so to make the other interlocutor repeat the rest. The example is

Ss: while; happening at the same time

T: while; happening —?—

SS: At the same time.

(Tsui, 1995 : 35).

4.Decomposition

Decomposition, as its name suggests, means that the speaker "...breaks up the initial question into several questions, making it easier for the other speaker to respond to it "(1995 : 67). Long (1983b : 136 , cited in Tsui, 1995 : 67) suggests the instance below

NS: when do you go to the uh Santa Monica? ... You say you go fishing in Santa Monica, right?

NNS: Yeah.

NS: When?

5. Comprehension check

Comprehension checks are utterances or expressions used to determine whether the interlocutor has understood a previous utterance. They are usually realized by 'Right ', 'Ok or 'Do you understand? Native speakers and even teachers may rely on such

strategies to avoid a communication breakdown, or when there is no sign of comprehension from the part of learners. Consider the example below

T: Can you answer my question? Do you use English or Chinese in class?

S: (silence)

T: do you understand and my question?

S: (muttering)

T: Sorry? Sorry?

S: (in Chinese) Ask the question once again.

T: Do you do you speak English or Chinese in class? We speak—

S: We speak English.

(Tsui, 1995 : 68)

In this example, the student did not understand the question. This is what led the teacher to use the utterance 'do you understand' and the expression 'sorry'. Furthermore, he / she has simplified and modified the question to make it comprehensible to the student.

6-Self – repetition

Self-repetition includes instances where the speaker repeats what he has uttered previously, either an exact repetition or the one which contains some modifications.

Tsui's example is

T: Do you know what an emperor is? What is an emperor? Joyce.

S: A man who ruled the country.

T: Yes.

(1995: 56)

Moreover, Lynch (2001:61) speaks about this issue and mentions a number of specific features of native— non- native input modification. He has conducted this study

by relating it to the classroom context (relevance of input modification features to the classroom). These features are: highlighting the topic, repetition, rate of speaking, syntactic simplification, and elaboration.

Researchers (Pica, Young and Doughty 1987; Loschky 1994 ; Mackey 1999 ; ...) sought to find which kind of input is the greatest facilitator of L2 comprehension and development. Is interactionally modified input more effective than simple input modification or the opposite? Those researchers conducted a number of empirical studies to examine links between input and interaction.

a. Pica, Young and Doughty's Study (1987)

Pica, Young and Doughty (cited in Lynch, 2001:65) have worked with 16 low-intermediate learners on a general English programme at the University of Pennsylvania. Those learners were divided into two groups and given an information gap task in which they had to arrange various objects on a board in response to spoken instructions from a female native speaker (not a teacher). Listeners and speaker sat face to face, with screens preventing them from seeing each other's board. Each group heard either an 'input' version or an 'interaction' version of the instructions.

On the one hand, the instructor, in the input version, read out a text and paused to allow the listeners time to carry out each instruction. The script for the teacher's text was based on recordings of native speakers doing the task, but with some linguistic modifications. On the other hand, the instructor (in the interaction version) read an unmodified script but encouraged the learners to ask her for repetition, clarification , and other strategies when felt necessary .

As a result, the researchers found that the learners of the interaction version score higher than those of the input version . The reason is , as the researchers explained it , that the former group of learners has got the opportunity to interact with their instructor , asking for repetition and clarification when needed, whereas the latter group was just limited with the pre-modified instruction. As Lynch puts it “The results supported the author’s hypothesis that interaction assists learners more than modified input ”(2001:66)

b. Loschky’s study (1994)

Loschky (1994) conducted his empirical study with 41 beginning –level learners of Japanese as a second language (JSL). Those learners were divided into three groups and assigned different tasks with various input situation . Sanz reports Loschky’s grouping as the following :

...(a) the unmodified input group , where subjects received baseline descriptions of objects to be located and circled on a picture ; (b) the premodified input group , where the descriptions were simplified ; and (c) the negotiated (i.e. interactionally modified) input group , where learners were allowed to interact with the NS interlocutor as they listened to the descriptions (2005:209)

The researcher designed two types of tests: vocabulary and a sentence verification tests (both are prepared as pre- and post tests). In the former type of test , the learners’ job was to show whether certain words were used during the tasks . In the latter type , learners should indicate if aural presented sentences matched a number of pictures . The results obtained claim that the third group of learners scored higher on the vocabulary test than the other two groups. This fact was not the same with the second type of test (sentence verification section) because there were no great differences between groups on such test . By and large, Loschky concluded that “...The interaction had facilitated the comprehension

of the vocabulary items but not the acquisition of the grammatical structure“ (Sanz , 2005:209)

c. Mackey’s study (1999)

Mackey divided his 34 adult ESL learners into five groups. The first group (interactors) worked on three tasks : a picture – drawing task , a story – completion task , and a story – sequencing task .What is specific for this group is that they received interactionally modified input. The second group (interactor unreadyies) had similar input as the previous group, but the difference lies in the point that they did not have a good level of forming English questions .The third group (observers) was asked to watch the other two groups while interacting without any kind of participation .The fourth group (scripteds) dealt with premodified input from the NS .The last group was the control one .Mackey, too, conducted two tests: pre- and postests. Ultimately, Mackey found that “...most of the learners who actively participated in conversational interaction showed stage increases , whereas none of the other groups demonstrated unambiguous evidence of development“ (Sanz ,2005:210)

2.5. Promote cooperative and collaborative learning

Communicative language teaching encourages cooperative and collaborative learning .It means that learners interact with each other and work together on language-learning tasks. Jonson supports such cooperation and claims that “...constructive student-student interactions influence students’ educational aspirations and achievement, develop social competencies, and encourage taking on the perspectives of others...” (1998:112)

Harmer, too, supports such view when he proposed that teachers can organize their students in different ways. Students can work as a whole class, in groups, in pairs, or individually. He further argues that whatever the way students are organized “Good teachers are able to use different class groupings for different activities. While they do

this, they will monitor which is more successful and for what, so that they can always seek to be more effective” (2001: 22)

Unlike traditional teacher directed instruction, learners’ interaction (or learners-centered instruction) promotes and enhance learner’ abilities to acquire language. Put simply:

...student-student interaction in second language classrooms can create opportunities for students to participate in less structured and more spontaneous language use, negotiate meaning, self-select when to participate, control the topic of discussion, and, most important, draw on their own prior knowledge and interactional competencies to actively communicate with others (1998 :116)

All these points do not deny the importance of teacher role. Woolfolk speaks about teacher’s guidance when she tackles Vygotsky’s theory of The Zone of Proximal Development .Though he saw that cultural tools can be passed from one individual to another through three ways (initiative learning, instructed learning, and collaborative learning), he supported instructed learning. Woolfolk (2006:51) sees that Vygotsky’s ideas are similar to those of educators who prefer direct teaching and who create learning environments. One aspect of teaching which is relevant to both situations is assisted learning. Woolfolk simplifies this notion and says that such guided participation in the classroom involves:

...giving information, prompts, reminders, and encouragement at the right time and in the right amounts, and then gradually allowing the students to do more and more on their own.[]. Teachers can assist learning by adapting materials or problems to students’ current level; demonstrating skills or thought processes; walking students through the

steps of a complicated problem; doing part of the problem (for example, in algebra, the students set up the equation and the teacher does the calculations or vice versa); giving detailed feedback and allowing revisions; or asking questions that refocus students attention (2006 : 51)

I.2.6. Focus on form

CLT combines both structural and functional aspects of language into a communicative view (Littlewood, 1996 : 01). In simple terms, the fact that the communicative language teaching stresses the importance of achieving a communicative goal does not mean that it neglects the structural side of the language. Nunan stresses the importance of grammar and holds that “...grammar exists to enable us to ‘mean’ and without grammar it is impossible to communicate beyond a very rudimentary level ”(1991: 153). Hence, we can say that “The structural view of language has not been in any way superseded by the functional view” (Littlewood, 1996 : 1)

Nevertheless, the question is what is the appropriate way of teaching grammar? Put simply, is explicit teaching of grammar more beneficial or implicit one. Richards et al. prefer to use deductive and inductive terms instead of explicit and implicit ones. They define deductive learning as “an approach to language teaching in which learners are taught rules and given specific information about a language. They then apply these rules when they use the language”. They contrast deductive learning with inductive one where “... learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules directly but are left to discover or induce rules from their experience of using the language” (Richards et al 1985 : 73 ,quoted in Nunan, 1991 : 156)

I. 2.7. Provide Error Corrective Feedback

Providing feedback to students’ responses is considered as one of the most common conceived classroom functions of teachers. In particular, Tsui regards it as “...so much

part of the classroom interaction routine that, when it is absent after a student response, students know that there must be something wrong or unsatisfactory about the response“ (1995:42)

Teacher feedback may take the form of positive feedback or negative one. Researchers (Numan1991; Tsui1995;...) agree on the point that positive feedback is better in the sense that it helps “...students know that they have performed correctly, and to increase motivation through praise”(Numan 1991.195).

Besides, many research studies show that teachers, and even learners, appreciate giving or receiving feedback. Nunan, for instance, sees that it is harder not to provide feedback in the classroom. He believes that “there is compelling evidence that learners expect feedback” (1991:198). Hargie , too, believes on its importance and claims that :

...once a response has been carried out, feedback is available to determine its effects and enable subsequent responses to be shaped in the light of this information. To perform any task efficiently, it is necessary to receive such feedback so that corrective action can be taken as required (2006 : 50)

Another issue concerns how errors are to be corrected. This question is directly related to the one of who corrects the errors and the way in which they are corrected. The teacher can provide feedback, get the student who produced the error to correct it, or get his peers to do so.

If the teacher is the provider of feedback, he/she may use a variety of corrective strategies. One strategy involves repetition of the student’s response with correction. Lyster and Ranta (1997) calls it recast and considers it as widespread response to learners’ errors. The teacher may also deal with errors directly, with explanation. The following conversation is a good example of explanation.

T: Now can you find a noise, a word which shows a noise?

Ss: (bid)

T: Queenie.

S: Pattering

T: Right. The pattering paw-steps of one stray dog. Another one?

Ss: (bid)

T: Yes?

S: Flutter

T: Flutter. But fluttering isn't a lot of noise, because when a leaf falls it turns round and round in the wind but it doesn't really make a noise, does it? So fluttering is hardly a noise at all, but paw –steps, pitter patter pitter patter quietly. So it means the place is very quiet. All right? (Tsui, 1995:51-52)

Teacher correction is not sufficient for effective learner's production. Learner readiness may be the most decisive factor in predicting success in the acquisition process. In other words, if a learner makes a mistake and has no clue that he made a mistake, nor does he know what he did wrong, then any type of correction may be useless as the learner is not ready yet (Brandl 1995).

I.2.8. Recognize and Respect Affective Factors of Learning

Tsui views that the reasons behind learners' reluctance to participate in classroom have to do with apprehension, fear, nervousness and worry. In addition, classroom anxiety is another reason behind such problem and the one which received considerable attention among researchers in the field of second language teaching. They all support Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis where he claims that negative emotions can raise the affective filter and from a 'mental block' that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. That is why "Language learning must take place in an environment where

learners are ‘off defensive’ and the affective filter (anxiety) is low in order for input to be noticed and gain access to the learners’ thinking”(Krashen,1982:127)

Learners may avoid interacting with their peers or giving responses because they fear being laughed at, and even being negatively evaluated by the teacher. Needless to say, teachers must take into account such facts and, instead of being one of the causes to raise learner’s anxiety, provide solutions for such problem. They may, for instance, create “...a good relationship with students, allowing students to discuss with their peers before offering answers, and using group work”(Tsui 1995:89)

As stated before, communicative approaches stress the importance of using authentic materials, if the teaching goal, as Tricia argues, is“... to equip students to deal ultimately with the authentic language of the real world”(2000:67).

Now, we will shed light on authentic language materials, what is an authentic material, and what are the advantages and drawbacks of using such materials.

1.3. Definitions of Authentic Materials

There are a number of definitions of authentic materials. Wilkins defines authentic materials as tools “...which have not been specially written or recorded for the foreign learner, but which were originally directed at a native speaking audience“ (1983: 79). Ur (1984) makes a distinction between ‘genuine authentic’ and ‘imitation authentic’. The former involves unadapted, natural interaction among native speakers, whereas the latter is an approximation of real speech that takes into account the learners’ level of ability.

Gebhard (1996) proposes instances of authentic materials EFL-ESL teachers have used. Some of his examples are shown below:

1-Authentic Listening –Viewing Materials –TV commercials, quiz shows , cartoons , news clips, comedy shows , movies , soap operas, professionally audio-taped short stories and novels , radio ads songs , documentaries ,and sales pitches.

2-Authentic Visual Materials: slides, photographs, paintings children's artwork, stick-figure drawings, wordless street signs, silhouettes, pictures from magazines, ink blots postcard pictures, wordless picture books, stamps and X-rays.

3-Authentic Printed Materials: newspaper articles, movie advertisements, astrology columns, sports reports, obituary columns, advice columns, lyrics to songs, restaurant menus, street signs, cereal boxes, candy wrappers, tourist information brochures, university catalogs, telephone books, maps, TV guides, comic books, greeting cards, grocery coupons, pins with messages, and bus schedules .

4-Readia ("Real world-objects) Used in EFL-ESL classrooms: coins and currency, folded paper, wall clocks, phones, Halloween masks, dolls, and puppets, to name a few.

Tomlinson sees that an authentic text is the one which is not written or spoken for language teaching purposes and that "A story written to exemplify the use of reported speech, a dialogue scripted to exemplify ways of inviting and a linguistically simplified version of a novel would not be authentic texts" (1999:VIII).

Celce –Murcia and Olshtaine argue that "...extention of classroom work to natural, true-to-life situations contributes to making the learning process more authentic" (2000:196). Furthermore, Tricia (2000: 67) holds that the development of communicative approaches to language teaching has made pressure to use authentic materials. What specifies authentic materials from others is the fact that they do not have contrived or simplified language. Richards (2001:252), in his book of Curriculum Development in Language Teaching, distinguishes between created materials as opposed to authentic materials. The former being textbooks and other specially developed instructional resources, the latter includes texts, photographs, video selections, and other teaching resources that are not designed for pedagogical purposes. Longman Dictionary of

Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics provides the following explanation of authentic materials:

in language teaching , the use of materials that were not originally developed for pedagogical purposes , such as the use of magazines , newspapers, advertisements , news reports , or songs. Such materials are often thought to contain more realistic and natural examples of language use than those found in textbooks and other specially developed teaching materials (42:2002).

Mc Donough and Show gloss authenticity as “ a term which loosely implies as close an approximation as possible to the world outside the classroom ,in the selection of both language material and of activities and methods used for practice in the classroom” (2003:40).

By and large, all the definitions provided by those researchers share a common point. They all agree that any spoken or written language data that has not specifically designed for purposes of language teaching can be classified as an authentic material.

1.4. Advantages and Drawbacks of Using Authentic Materials

Authentic materials are, then, sources which mirror the real world and can be regarded as the basis for classroom teaching within communicative language context. Using authentic materials, in fact, has many advantages. According to Wilkins, authentic materials can:

...provide the only opportunity that the learner will have to see the contrast between the somewhat idealized language that he is acquiring and the apparently deficient forms that people actually use, to meet the forms of language current in speech and to develop the ability to understand language that he will never need to produce (1983:79)

It means that the reliance on authentic materials in the classroom will help learners to communicate and interact in the real world. Wilkins views that authentic written materials are more available and can be provided easily than spoken ones. The argument he suggests is the fact that most learners have always been more advanced in reading comprehension than in other language skills. Brosnan, Brown and Hood (1984) claim that it is beneficial to use authentic language in the classroom. Their arguments are the following:

1-Language is natural. By simplifying language or altering it for teaching purposes (limiting structures, controlling vocabulary, ect.), we risk making the task more difficult. We may, in fact, be removing clues to meaning.

2-Authentic language offers students the chance to deal with a small amount of material which, at the same time, contains complete and meaningful messages.

3 -Authentic printed materials provide students with the opportunity to make use of non-linguistic clues(layout, pictures, colors, symbols, the physical setting in which it occurs) to help them discover the meaning more easily.

4-Adults need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom to what they need to do outside it, and real-life material treated realistically makes the connection obvious.

Gebhard (1996) sees authentic materials as a way to “contextualize” language learning. If lessons are centered on comprehending, let us say, a TV weather report, learners focus their attention on content and meaning rather than the language forms. Hence, authentic materials provide learners a valuable source of language input, so that they are not being exposed only to the language presented by the text and the teacher.

In addition, Tricia (2000:67) finds that students, who are exposed only to unnatural language in the classroom, will be demoralized and encounter difficulties during their first contact with authentic spoken English in the real world. The only solution for such

problem is to introduce authentic texts gradually in the classroom, so that learners can build confidence.

Also, Richards (2001) views that the advantages behind using authentic materials are:

-They have a positive effect on learner motivation because they are intrinsically more interesting and motivating than created materials. There is a huge supply of interesting sources for language learning in the media and on the web and these relate closely to the interests of many language learners.

-They provide authentic cultural information about the target culture. Materials can be selected to illustrate many aspects of the target culture, including culturally based practices and beliefs and both linguistic and non-linguistic behavior.

-They provide exposure to real language rather than the artificial texts found in created materials that have been specially written to illustrate particular grammatical rules or discourse types.

-They relate more closely to learners' needs and hence provide a link between the classroom and students' needs in the real world.

-They support a more creative approach to teaching. In using authentic materials as a source for teaching activities, teachers can develop their full potential as teachers, developing activities and tasks that better match their teaching styles and the learning styles of their students.(2001:252-253)

All these claims do not reveal that there are no critics of the use of authentic materials. Richards (2001:253) points out that such material may be a kind of distraction for both teachers and learners. This is because authentic materials often include difficult language and unneeded vocabulary items. These materials do not have any form of simplified language or modification, which may make them beyond the learners' abilities. Furthermore, authentic materials may be time consuming for teachers if we take into

account that those teachers "...have to be prepared to spend a considerable amount of time locating suitable sources for materials and developing activities and exercises to accompany the materials"(2001:253)

As far as authentic text is concerned, the fact that discursive feature of a text remains unchanged makes its original social and cultural setting implicit. In other words, the text becomes 'recontextualised' as a pedagogic text. Byram criticizes the process of recontextualization as being typical of communicative language teaching "despite authentic materials imported into the foreign language classroom, the experience is a restricted and limited version of using the language in the foreign culture and society, and the principal focus remains on the language and on learners' fluency and accuracy in language use" (1989:40, quoted in Mc Donald, Richard and Maria, 2006:256).

CONCLUSION

To end up, we can say that communicative language teaching appeared at a time when traditional approaches fell out of fashion. It has broken down traditional views of language, which placed grammar at the centre of language teaching and learning and aimed only at developing learners' grammatical competence through accuracy-based activities such as drills. CLT can be viewed, as Richards argues, as "...a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kind of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom" (2006:3)

Harmer gives a brief and at the same time a good description of CLT, saying that it is not only a re-examination of 'what' aspects of language to teach, but also a new focus in 'how' to teach. We have also seen that one of the key features of CLT is the use of authentic materials in the classroom. Those spoken or written materials which are not originally structured for pedagogical purposes should be the main tools of language teaching.

As far as our research is concerned, there is a closer relation between this chapter and our practical part. In other words, the first section of teachers' questionnaire involves items about the communicative language teaching method and to what extent those teachers are aware of its principles. The same thing can be said about the pupils' questionnaire, where the questions are about the authenticity of the speaking materials.

The relationship between classroom activities and real life emerged as an important issue within CLT, since real communication is a key characteristic of this methodology. Activities play an integral role in shaping what is learned in classrooms. Instead of using activities that require accurate repetition and memorization of grammatical patterns, instructors can use activities that demand from learners to negotiate meaning and interact meaningfully.

Real-life activities should not be regarded as the norm in classrooms, but research views that such type of activities, or tasks, are effective for learning. Tasks are best described by Anderman and Lynley as activities which "...provide a structure and goal for learning in classrooms and require time to accomplish. They are meant to engage students in an action, or sequences of actions, that require the application and production of knowledge" (2009:80)

These tasks form the focus of the next chapter.



CHAPTER TWO: AUTHENTIC TASKS

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INTRODUCTION

The first chapter has so far presented the characteristic features of CLT and laid out the advantages and drawbacks of using authentic materials .

Tricia (2000: 57) claims that "The communicative approach to language teaching is premised on the belief that , if the development of communicative language ability is the goal of classroom learning, then communicative practice must be part of the process " . That's why, practice is seen as the most important thing the teacher does in the classroom. Such practice, as Ur (1998: 21) views , contributes to successful language learning .

Researchers, to name but few Nunan 1989 ; Mishan 2005, consider that the current notion of task and interest in it emerged within the communicative approach to language teaching/ learning .

This chapter is devoted to tackle tasks under the umbrella of CLT. We shall first-hand start by defining a task. The second point discusses the components of a communicative task. Finally, we shall look at the roles of teachers and learners in tasks.

II.1. Definitions of a Task

The language teaching literature provides a multiplicity of definitions and interpretations of the term ' task '. Bialystok (1983: 103) , for instance , views that a communication task must (a) stimulate real communicative exchange , (b) provide incentive for the L2 speaker / learner to convey information , (c) provide control for the information items required for investigation and (d) fulfill the needs to be used for the goals of the experiment .

Long defines it as:

... a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others , freely or for some reward .Thus , examples of tasks include painting a fence , dressing a child , filling out a form , buying a pair of shoes , making an

airline reservation , borrowing a library book , taking a driving test , typing a letter , weighing a patient , sorting letters , taking a hotel reservation , writing a cheque , finding a street destination and helping someone across a road . In other words, by ' task ' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play , and in between (1985: 89) .

Nunan (1989: 5) sees that Long's definition is non – technical and non – linguistic .On the one hand , the examples provided in the definition describe actions or things normal people can do . On the other hand , some of the above examples may not involve language use at all .

Ricahards, Platt and Weber (1986) take a pedagogical perspective in their definition of ' a task ' . They restrict the notion of task into what learners can perform inside and not outside the classroom. Here is their definition:

an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e as a response) . For example , drawing a map while listening to a tape , listening to an instruction and performing a command , may be referred to as tasks . Tasks may or may not involve the production of language .A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task . The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative ... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake (1986: 289)

Breen suggests the following definition:

... any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective , appropriate content , a specified working procedure , and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task . 'Task ' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning from the simple and brief exercise type , to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem - solving or simulation and decision – making (1987: 23) .

This definition , too , is about pedagogical task because it implies that anything the learner does in the classroom can be qualified and considered as a task .

Prabhu, one of the originators of task, defines it as follows " An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process " (1987: 24). This definition is built on cognitive processes (process of thought).

Nunan considers the communicative task as :

... a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending , manipulating , producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form . The task should also have a sense of completeness , being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right (1989: 10)

Nunan's definition does not convey that form is not important. Rather, he sees that meaning and form are closely and highly interrelated and that, without grammar, language users cannot express different communicative meanings. Willis (1996: 36) defines a task as an activity in which the target language is used for a communicative purpose in order to

achieve an outcome. Skehan (1996: 38) also represents the core features of tasks within four defining criteria: there is a goal to be worked towards (completion of the task); meaning is primary; the activity is outcome – evaluated; and there is a real – world relationship.

Williams and Burden give a broad definition to ' task ' and say that it is " ... an activity that learners engage in to further the process of learning a language " (1997: 168) .

Tomlinson distinguishes between authentic task and pedagogic one . He sees the former as "a task which involves learners in using language in a way that replicates its use in the 'real world' outside the language classroom " (1998: viii). Whereas pedagogic task " does not replicate a real world task but [] designed to facilitate the learning of language or skills which would be useful in a real world task " (1998: xi- xii).

Celce – Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 189) argue that tasks are a way of bringing the real world into the classroom. Similarly, Ellis (2003: 9 – 10) outlines six features of a task. Besides the characteristics listed by Skehan , he adds that a task is also "a work plan for learner activity ", which " requires learners to employ cognitive processes " , and " can involve any of the four language skills " .

Edwards and Willis list that a language learning task is

- An activity .
- That has a non – linguistic purpose or goal.
- With a clear outcome.
- And that uses any or all of the four language skills in its accomplishment.
- By conveying meaning in a way that reflects real – world language use (2005: 18-19).

We understand, from all the above definitions, that researchers classify tasks into communicative (real – world) and non – communicative (pedagogic) tasks.

The first question which deserves to be answered is about the major differences between authentic and pedagogic tasks. The second question has to do with what kind of practice will lead to the development of communicative language ability. We shall look at both questions in the next section.

II.2. Authentic Tasks and Pedagogic Tasks

According to Nunan (1998: 40), real – world tasks "... require learners to approximate , in class , the sorts of behaviors required of them in the world beyond the classroom " . Pedagogic tasks, on the other hand, ask learners to do things they would not need outside the classroom. Nunan proposes examples of both types of tasks to illustrate his definitions. An example of a real – world task is:

The learner will listen to a weather-forecast and identify the predicted maximum temperature for the day .

A pedagogic task is :

The learner will listen to an aural text and answer questions afterwards on whether given statements are true or false.

He further argues that the selection of real – world task is built on needs analysis reference, while pedagogic ones are selected "with reference to some theory or model of second language acquisition ".

The illustration of real - world and pedagogic task is provided as follows:

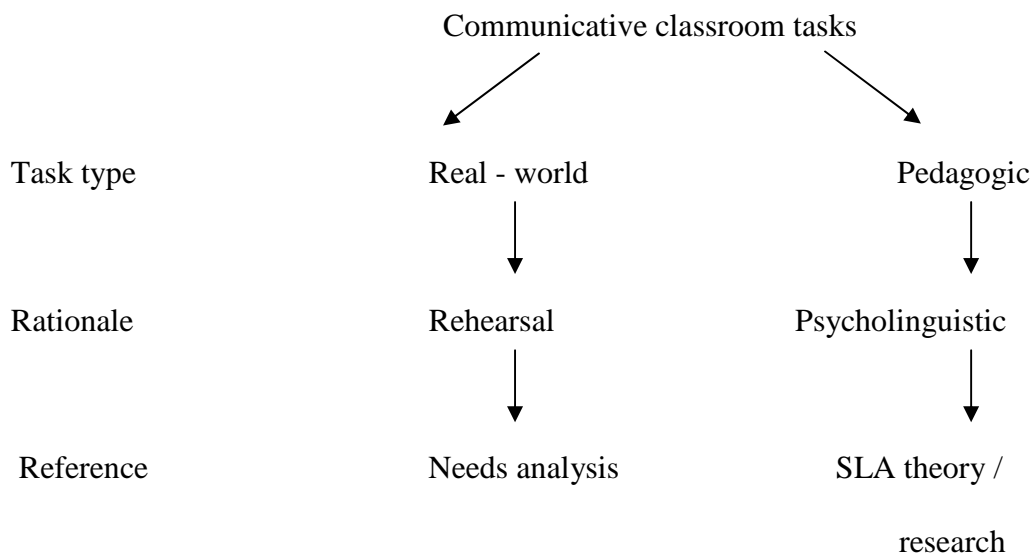


Figure 01 : The distinction between real – world and pedagogic tasks (Nunan , 1989: 40)

Richards (2006: 13), in his *Communicative Language Teaching Today's* booklet, summarizes the differences between accuracy and fluency activities in the following points:

Activities focusing on fluency

- Reflect natural use of language
- Focus on achieving communication
- Require meaningful use of language
- Require the use of communication strategies
- Produce language that may not be predictable
- Seek to link language use to context

Activities focusing on accuracy

- Reflect classroom use of language
- Focus on the formation of correct examples of language

- Practice language out of context
- Practice small samples of language
- Do not require meaningful communication
- Choice of language is controlled

Mishan speaks about defining criteria for task authenticity. There is a closer relationship between the passage of the task and the learner who is intended to give appropriate response to that task. Involvement or engagement is another feature of task authenticity. It implies that authenticity is a goal that teacher and learners have to work towards and what is an authentic task to one learner may not be for the other. However, learners cannot respond to a communicative task if it is not appropriate. All the above criteria cannot stand alone if tasks do not approximate real – world behavior. The criterion of rehearsal, though has a number of contestants, means that classroom tasks should resemble "real world and daily life experience of the learners " (Candlin 2001: 235 , quoted in Mishan 2005: 73) . Another feature of task authenticity is culture. It has to do, as Mishan points out, with the reader / listener "native cultural background plus his / her knowledge of the target culture, with the former necessarily acting as a filter for the latter" (2005: 74). Culture may facilitate the process of comprehending the task when learners are familiar with the target culture of it .Moreover, authentic tasks should be designed to involve" purposeful communication between learners" (Michan , 2005: 75) .

The second question that we raised above refers to what kind of tasks is effective for learning. Brumfit, for instance, calls for fluency activities. He argues that they " develop a pattern of language interaction within the classroom which is as close as possible to that used by competent performers in the mother tongue in real life (1984a: 69, quoted in Tricia , 2000: 57) . He claims that fluency could be achieved if the following criteria are respected and followed:

- The language should be a means to an end ,i.e. the focus should be on the meaning and not on the form .
- The content should be determined by the learner who is speaking or writing .The learner has to formulate and produce ideas, information, opinions, ect.
- There must be a negotiation of meaning between the speakers, i.e. students must be involved in interpreting a meaning from what they hear and constructing what to say as a response. In other words, they should not be reliant on the teacher or materials to provide the language. This criterion clearly brings into play pragmatic and discourse competences as well as fluency.
- In order for the previous criterion to function, what a learner hears should not be predictable, i.e. there should be an information or opinion gap.
- The normal processes of listening , reading , speaking , and writing will be in play , for example improvising and paraphrasing in speech ; in other words , students will practice and develop strategic competence .
- Teachers' intervention to correct should be minimal as this distracts from the message.

Nunan (1989: 41) regards the distinction between real – world and pedagogic tasks as a continuum. It means that there may be some authentic tasks which will not be found outside the classroom (learners will practice them just inside the classroom and do not come across in the real world) and other pedagogic ones for which it is possible to create real – life context.

Nunan , in *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom* , discusses both approaches to authentic tasks .Those who claim that pedagogic tasks should be the starting practice for learners argue that learners' engagement and involvement in such tasks will pave the way and supply learners with skills to carry out real world tasks . These latter are

difficult to predict in advance, or which are not feasible to practice in class. Nunan 's example is the following:

the learner who has mastered the pedagogic task of listening to a news report about a terrorist attack in the Middle east and then completing yes / no questions which require them to distinguish between true and false inferences might be able to use the listening and thinking skills they have developed for comprehending radio and television news broadcasts outside the classroom (1989: 41)

The advocates of authentic tasks view that learners, to achieve the final goal of the course, should practice real – world activities bearing in mind that such tasks will be modified to adapt them to learners' level, needs, and interest. Such modifications include slower pace of the re – recorded interview, repetition, and so forth. Nunan's point of view is that both types are needed and they complete each other. Substitution and transformation drills, for instance, are included on the basis that they will develop the important prerequisite skills (mastering the phonological and structural patterns of the language) learners will need for communicating in the target language.

Building on the fact that linguistic competence is a fundamental and a necessary component of communicative language ability, Tricia sees that there should be a link between the two (accuracy and fluency work) and the focus is on how to " ... develop communicative language ability through classroom practice but, at the same time, to ensure an understanding of how language works as a system and to develop an ability to use the system correctly, appropriately, and creatively."(2000: 61)

Nevertheless, authentic tasks' use has a number of limitations. Anderman, in his Encyclopedia of Psychology of Classroom Learning, enumerates many difficult points that may come as a result of using such tasks. Teachers who are not keen in using these tasks

may encounter difficulties because they have to sequence them carefully and orient their learners to new ways of learning. Students, too, need to be interested in the task, and if it is not the case, they may become discouraged when they face problems to solve tasks. The impact of these tasks may also touch school organization and culture. The school , with its previous and existing norms , may not fit with the new model of instruction which calls for " more instructional time and resources , a different instructional stance on the part of teachers , and more effort on the part of students " (2009: 83) .

Researchers (Candlin and Murphy 1987 ; Nunan 1989 ; Williams and Burden 1997 ;...) agree that tasks can be effectively analyzed according to goals , input data , activities , and roles designed for teachers and learners . The following section will discuss these components.

II.3. Task components

The question that we may raise here is what are the elements that make up a task? A number of studies have been conducted to identify those elements and Shavelson and Stern 's attempt is one of them . They show that task design should include the following components:

- Content – the subject matter to be taught .
- Materials – the things that learners can observe / manipulate .
- Activities – the things the learners and teacher will be doing during the lesson .
- Goals – the teachers' general aim for the task (these are much more general and vague than objectives).
- Students – their abilities , needs and interests are important .
- Social community – the class as a whole and its sense of ' groupness ' (1981: 478 , quoted in Nunan 1989: 47).

Whereas , Candlin (1987 , cited in Nunan 1989: 47) views that the elements of a task are : input , roles , settings , actions , monitoring , outcomes and feedback. Unlike the above researchers, Wright (1987) mentions just two elements which are input data and an initiating question. The former may be supplied by materials, teachers or learners. The latter is required to inform learners about what to do with that input. Wright does not see it necessary to include objectives (outcomes) as a task element, if we bear in mind that some tasks might have a number of outcomes which might be totally different from the teacher's expectation.

II.3.1. Nunan 's Analysis

Nunan (1989: 48) graphically depicts a way to analyze the various elements of tasks, as shown in figure 02

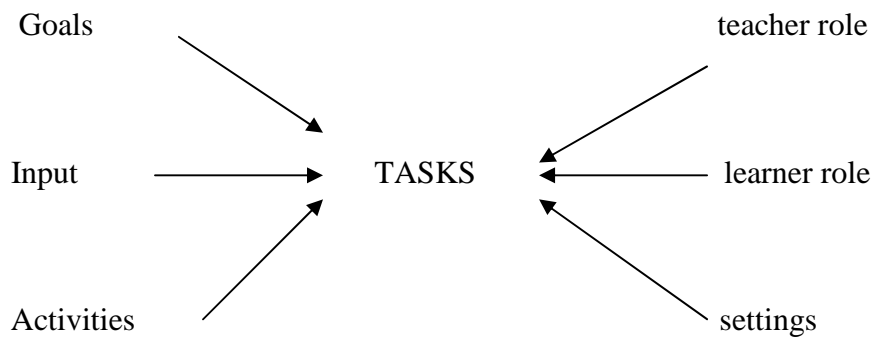


Figure 02 : A framework for analyzing communicative tasks

Williams and Burden (1997: 169) argue that Nunan's model is a helpful one because it demonstrates that all the elements affect each other in a dynamic and interactive way .

II.3.1.1. Goals

Goals serve as a guideline in the overall process of task performance and provide a point of contact between the task and the broader curriculum, involving a variety of perspectives . Thus , they may cover a broad range of pedagogical objectives from general

outcomes (for example, improving learners ' communicative competence or developing language skills) through specific ones (example, making a hotel reservation or making a travel plan in the target language) . Of key importance, among other things, are the explicit statements used in directing task participants to manipulate given materials, and imply what the results of a certain experience will be. Another point worth noting is that goals should properly reflect learners' needs and interests in order to stimulate their potential motivation for language use.

Nunan adapts Clark's classification of goals which are derived from the Australian Language Levels Project (ALL Project).

Example	Goal type
Establish and maintain interpersonal relations , and through this to exchange information, ideas, opinions , attitudes , and feelings , and to get things done.	Communicative
Have some understanding of the everyday life patterns of their contemporary age group in the target language speech community .This will cover their life at home , at school and at leisure .	Socio – cultural
To negotiate and plan their work over a certain time span , and learn how to set themselves realistic objectives and how to devise the means to attain them .	Learning – how – to – learn
To have some understanding of the systematic nature of language and the way it works.	Language and cultural

Figure 03 : Clark 's classification of goals (1987: 227 -32)

Furthermore, Clark devises communicative goals into three subcategories :

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| - picture stories | - extract from a play . |
| - telecom account | - weather forecast . |
| - driver 's license | - diary |
| - missing person 's declaration form | - bus timetable . |
| - social security form | - notice board items . |
| - business cards | - housing request form . |
| - memo note | - star signs . |
| - photographs | - hotel entertainment . |
| - family tree | - programme . |
| - drawings | - tennis court booking sheet . |
| - shopping lists | - extracts from film script |
| - invoices | - high school year book |
| - postcards | - note to a friend |
| - hotel brochures | - seminar programme |
| - passport photos | - news paper reporter 's notes . |
| - swop shop cards | - UK travel regulations . |
| - menu | - curriculum vitae . |
| - magazine quiz | - economic graphs . |

Figure 04 : Hover 's input sources (cited in Nunan 1989: 53)

Porter and Roberts (1981, cited in Nunan 1989: 54 – 5) claim that materials written specifically for English language teaching are different from genuine speech at the level of: (a) intonation, which is marked by unusually wide and frequent pitch movement ; (b) received pronunciation, which is different from what learners will normally hear in Britain ; (c) enunciation where words are clearly spoken ; (d) structural repetition ; (e) complete ,

short and well formed sentences ; (f) distinct turn taking , that is to say , each speaker waits until the other finishes ; (g) very slow pace ; (h) the same quantity of speech ; (i) absence of attention signals ; (j) formality or standardized language ; (k) limited vocabulary ; (l) too much information than in real language and (m) mutilation which means that texts are not marred by outside noise .

In short , input data , which task participants are supposed to comprehend and manipulate in the language learning process , should reflect the learners 'needs and interests , thereby positively encouraging the use of the target language .

II.3.1.3. Activities

Another task component is activities which specify what learners will do with the input. There are three ways of characterizing activities. One of them is authenticity. The issue of activity authenticity should be as well important as authentic materials. Candlin and Edelhoff (1982, cited in Nunan, 1989) point out that authenticity requires more than authentic texts but also authentic process. Porter and Roberts (1981 , cited in Nunan , 1989) also point out that , authentic texts in non – authentic way limit the potential of the materials as resources of language learning . In carrying out the activities , learners are required to rehearse and practice the skills they might be expected to displaying genuine communicative interaction in real world . According to Clarke and Silberstein (1977), "classroom activities should parallel the real world as closely as possible. Since language is a tool of communication , methods and materials should concentrate on the message , not the medium " (Clarke and Silberstein 1977: 51 , cited in Nunan , 1989). In addition , Widdowson (1987) claims that " ... what is wanted is a methodology which will ... provide for communicative competence by functional investment . " (Widdowson 1987: 71, cited in Nunan , 1989) . Another way of characterizing activities is whether they are concerned with skill and service encounters (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; cited in Oxford,

2006). Many task types involve multiple skills and subskills, for example, reading a passage for comprehension and then doing something with the information that has been read.

II.3.1.4. Learners' Roles

The history of foreign / second language teaching / learning has witnessed the emergence of a number of methods, each of which looks at language teaching and learning from a different angle (Richards and Rodger 1995: vii). All methods highlight what contributions can teachers and even learners bring to the teaching / learning process (see appendix 3).

Within the scope of communicative language teaching, learner role has changed. Traditionally, teaching has been based on the transmission of knowledge by the teacher and learners were seen as passive participants and empty vessels who are just waiting to be filled (Thornbury, 2006: 38). Breen and Candlin describe the new role of learners in the following passage:

The role of learner as negotiator – between the self , the learning process , and the object of learning – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes .The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains , and thereby learn in an interdependent way (1980: 110)
quoted in Richards and Rodgers , 1995: 77)

It means that information about learners and , where feasible , from learners will be built into all stages in the curriculum process , from initial planning , through implementation , to assessment and evaluation. Put simply, learners within the communicative approach are included in taking decisions about their learning process.

Teachers should encourage interaction between learners, set cognitive challenges and call for building knowledge in a cooperative way. Learners, thus, should understand that " ... failed communication is a joint responsibility and not the fault of speaker or listener .Similarly , successful communication is an accomplishment jointly achieved and acknowledged " (Richards and Rodgers , 1995: 77).

Learning strategies are another issue within tasks. As tasks ' outcomes may be affected by learners' perceptions about what they should contribute to task completion , their views about the nature and demands of the task , and their definitions of the situation in which the task takes place , researchers (Cohen 1998 ; Mc Donough 1999 ; Nunan 2004 ; ...) sought to add a learning strategies dimension to the curriculum . Cohen argues that" language learning will be facilitated if students become more aware of the range of possible strategies that they can consciously select during language learning and language use" (1998: 65). Rubin and Thompson (1982 cited in Nunan 1989: 81 – 82) suggest a number of strategies where learners are required to adopt a range of roles uncommon in traditional instruction. Candlin and Nunan (1987) provide the glosses behind each of the following strategies:

1- Finding your own way

Helping learners to discover what ways of learning work best for them. For example, how they best learn vocabulary items . It also implies learners discovering other ways of learning from other learners in the class , and using all senses to learn in as independent a way as they can .

2- Organizing information about language

Developing ways for learners to organize what they have learned, through making notes and charts, grouping items and displaying them for easy reference.

3- Being creative

Experimenting with different ways of creating and using language, for example with new ways of using words, playing with different arrangements of sounds and structures, inventing imaginative texts and playing language games .

4- Making your own opportunities

Learning language activating by performing tasks in class, for example by interacting with fellow learners and the teacher, asking questions, listening regularly to the language, reading different kinds of texts and practicing writing . There is much scope for rehearsal in the language class.

5- Learning to live with uncertainty

Not always relying on certain and safe answers but trying to work things out with the help of resources, for example using dictionaries. We might include here helping learners to keep on talking and to understand the general gist of texts , rather than every language item in them .

6- Using mnemonics

Helping learners find quick ways of recalling what they have learned, for example through rhymes , word associations, word classes, particular contexts of occurrence , experiences and personal memories .

7- Making errors work

Learning to live with errors and helping learners to prevent errors from blocking their participation in tasks. Helping learners to ask for error correction and help and to learn from the errors they will make. It helps if learners can estimate the relative gravity of errors and realize that errors vary according to channel and text – type.

8- Using your linguistic knowledge

Helping learners make comparisons with what they know about language from their own mother tongue , as well as building on what they have already learned in the new language , both in terms of formal rules and conventions for language use .

9- Letting the context help you

Help learners to realize the relationships that exist between words , sounds , and structures, developing their capacity to guess and infer meanings from the surrounding context and from their background knowledge and out – of – class experience .

10- Learning to make intelligent guesses

Developing the learners' capacity to work out meanings. Specifically , to focus both on the main parts of the message and to relate these to the overall text and context, to guess on the basis of probabilities of occurrence and meaning , and to try to work from what is relevant to the text and task in hand .

11- Learning formalized routines

Encouraging learners to learn routines and whole phrases. Idioms, routinised expressions , sound sequences , dialogue extracts , are all examples of this , as are ways of expressing a variety of interpersonal functions .

12- Learning production techniques

Helping learners not to be so much concerned with accuracy that they do not develop the capacity to be fluent. In particular, to develop their paraphrasing ability , their willingness to ask for help and their use of gestures and other devices to keep on talking .

13- Using different styles of speech and writing

Developing learners' ability to differentiate between styles of speech and writing, both productively and ' receptively '. Finding ways to transfer their mother tongue experience of such variation to the new language.

Furthermore , Dickinson (1987 , cited in Nunan 1989: 83 – 84) emphasizes the need for self – instruction and the development of independent learning skills as a learner role. He views that self – instruction is beneficial for those learners who are unable to attend classes , self – instruction may motivate learners, hence, developing their learning strategies and guide them towards autonomy .

II.3.1.5. Teachers' Roles

Richards and Rodgers point out that teacher roles are built on the following aspects :

(a) the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill, whether that of practice director, counselor, or model, for example; (b) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place; (c) the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught; and (d) the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners (1995: 24)

As far as teacher roles are concerned, Breen and Candlin agree that the teacher plays the role of a facilitator of the communicative process and an independent participant within the learning / teaching group. The teacher is also assigned the role of an organizer of resources where he has to select what materials meet best his learners' needs and interest. Unlike traditional methods, where the teacher is the dominator of the classroom, communicative language teaching asks the teacher to guide his / her learners while practicing activities.

Richards and Rodgers consider that teachers are needs analysts, counselors, and group process managers. Teachers may organize sessions to know their learners' needs, learning styles, learning asserts, and learning goals. Such analysis helps teachers to select the appropriate tasks and grade and sequence them in a helpful way. A counselor teacher is a model of a good communicator who explores all strategies and ways of teaching

recommended in the communicative approach. Moreover, communicative language teaching approach is not a teacher – centered one. Rather, teachers’ responsibility during an activity is to monitor and encourage learners’ maximum participation. Also, teachers should be aware of when to provide corrective feedback and should not give great importance to grammatical mistakes, otherwise, they may hamper learners’ communicative development.

Voller (1997) reduces teacher roles to a facilitator, a counselor and a resource. He joins the functions of these roles under the headings of technical and psycho – social support. The former implies :

- helping learners to plan and carry out their independent language learning by means of needs analysis (both learning and language needs) , objective setting (both short – and long term), work planning , selecting materials , and organizing interactions ;
- helping learners to evaluate themselves (assessing initial proficiency, monitoring progress, and peer – and self – assessment);
- helping learners to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to implement the above (by raising their awareness of language and learning, by providing learner training to help them to identify learning styles and appropriate learning strategies).

The latter includes the following features :

- the personal qualities of the facilitator (being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, empathic, open, non – judgemental);
- a capacity for motivating learners (encouraging commitment, dispersing uncertainty , helping learners to overcome obstacles , being prepared to enter into a dialogue with learners , avoiding manipulating , objectifying or interfering with, in other words controlling , them);

-an ability to raise learners' awareness (to 'decondition' them from preconceptions about learner and teacher roles, to help them perceive the utility of, or necessity for, autonomous learning). (Voller 1997: 102 , cited in Benson , 2001: 172)

II.3.1.6. Setting

Classroom setting refers to a certain environment, in which every task is performed. Wright (1987, cited in Nunan , 1989: 92) suggests the different ways in which learners might be grouped physically based on individual , pair , small group , and whole class mode (See Appendix 4). For the relationship between task participants ' roles and each setting , Anderson and Lynch (1989: 59) advocate the effectiveness of group work compared to that of individual work for general pedagogic reasons (for example, increasing the cooperation and cohesiveness among learners) .Tasks may be conducted outside the classroom where learners are asked to collect information about a particular topic or theme. Nunan quotes Strevens ' view about using tasks outside the classroom:

- 1.they provide learners with opportunities for genuine interactions which have a real life point to them ;
- 2.learners can adopt communicative roles which bypass the teacher as intermediary ;
- 3.they can change the in – class role relationships between teacher and pupils

(1987: 171 , quoted in Nunan 1989: 93)

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have looked at tasks' definitions which are found in the literature of language teaching and learning . A common agreement is that a task requires from learners to use language communicatively and give priority to meaning over form. At the same time, we have seen task components and adopt Nunan 's

analysis where he says that a communicative task is composed of goals , input , activities , teacher roles , learner roles , and setting .

The aim behind developing this chapter is to discover whether the speaking activities of Spotlight book two really follow an authentic designation. In other words, do they have a clear goal, is input data derived from authentic resources, are they practiced in different classroom setting, do teachers limit their role during such tasks to co-communicators, do learners have great chances to dominate talk and participate without facing any psychological problems.

Tasks can be used in the four language skills to develop learners' abilities to communicate effectively. As far as our study is concerned, we will narrow the scope of our study and discuss authentic activities related to speaking. This is what we are going to see in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

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INTRODUCTION

Speaking has always been a major focus of language teaching, however both the nature of speaking skills as well as approach to teaching them have undergone a major shift in thinking in recent years. Speaking in the early 70s usually meant "repeating after the teacher, reciting a memorised dialogue, or responding to a mechanical drill" (Shrum and Glisan 2000: 26), reflecting the sentence-based view of proficiency prevailing in the methodologies of Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching. The emergence of the constructs of communicative competence and proficiency in the 1980s led to major shifts in conceptions of syllabuses and methodology, the effects of which continue to be seen today. The theory of communicative competence prompted attempts at developing new syllabuses (communicative; notional; functional; ...) and new approaches to teaching (task – based and text – based approaches).

Speaking is one of the productive or active skills. According to Mc Donough and Shaw "As a skill which enables us to produce utterances, when genuinely communicatively, speaking is desire and purpose driven, in other words we genuinely want to communicate something to achieve a particular end". (1993: 152). It has now become a dire need for learners to speak and interact in a multiplicity of situations through English. Many learners think that to be able to speak in English means to know the English language. Nunan (1991: 39) claims that success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the target language. However, if learners do not learn how to speak or do not get any opportunity to speak in the language classroom, they may soon get de-motivated and lose interest in learning. The only way to develop learners abilities to speak English fluently is through the designation of appropriate speaking tasks that resemble their 'needs, interest, and levels'. If the right activities are taught in the right way, speaking in class can be a lot of fun, raising general learner

motivation and making the English language classroom a fun and dynamic place. Classroom speaking activities are, thus, "an important component of a language course" (Ur, 1998: 120).

The present chapter will shed light on one of the four macroskills i.e. speaking .We will start with a brief discussion about how speaking was taught along the history of language teaching / learning. The second point will be devoted to tackle the issue of prerequisites that learners need to develop such skill. Then, we will try to discover what are the key features of a successful speaking activity, together with the difficulty of this task. The last point is developed to answer the question: what are classroom activities that develop learners 'ability to express themselves through speech? Therefore, we will include taxonomies or classifications of speaking tasks that are proposed by a number of researchers in the field.

III.1. Development in the Teaching of Spoken Language

If we consider approaches to language pedagogy, we realize that the teaching of speaking emerged in the 1940s and many approaches had ignored it (i.e speech) as the grammar- translation method. Things changed with the emergence of new approaches and the European reform movement gave priority to speech and focused on an oral methodology in the classroom (Howatt1984, in Kaplan 2002). The direct method emphasized on speech over writing to present and demonstrate grammatical structures. Speech, Within this context, was used as a way to facilitate memorization too .

The audiolingual approach of the 1940s, inspired by the insights brought by the reform movement, believed that language should be taught initially through listening and speaking. For them, language is a set of habits and learning is attained through habit, i.e. the more something is repeated, stronger is the habit and greater is the learning. It means that accurate speaking depended on habit formation (mistakes were not allowed) and that

oral drills were an effective way of encouraging and supporting memorization (Fries 1945 , in Kaplan 2002). This approach could be described as one that applied oral activities for the sake of teaching pronunciation skills and grammatical accuracy and of promoting memorization. During the 1960s, critics saw that the oral drills suggested by the audiolingual approach were decontextualized and people felt that learners should be prepared for range of real – life situations in terms of dialogues. In the 1970, there was a claim for a "functional approach" as the audiolingual drills were considered to fail to teach the typical forms and functions of oral language. These criticisms led to the introduction of drills and exercises aimed to teach learners how to express a variety of speech functions (example, invitations, apologies, refusals,...) and to vary the degrees of formality . Some researchers included role play activities as Morrow & Johnson 1979.

If we summarize developments till now, we recognize that speaking was viewed in terms of system rather than contextual appropriacy. All these approaches did not take into account the development of interactive grammar and discourse patterns of typical speech . Besides, the types of exercises neglected to situate practice within the contexts of communication. Awareness of this lack led to the development and emergence of a new approach known as the communicative one.

The objective of the communicative approach is to help learners to develop the ability to communicate fluently and not just accurately. The learner was the center and regarded as an active participant , that is why the exercises developed were about solving problems and learners need to communicate with each other to resolve them (Allwright 1984)

Thornbury sees the availability for using the prerequisite knowledge by learners in terms of three processes. The first point is that learners need to be made aware of features of the target knowledge, they need the integration of these features into their existing

knowledge, and finally, they need the capacity to make these features of knowledge available for use.

Building on these processes, we shall speak briefly, before moving to teaching activities, about three major theories of language learning that have to do with the teaching of speaking. I mean by these theories: Behaviourist , Cognitivist ,and sociocultural theory .

The behaviourism views language learning as the formation of good language "habits " through repetition . For the audiolingualism , the three stages of learning were known as presentation , practice , and production (PPP). This latter was aimed at developing automatic habits through classroom processes of modeling, repetition and controlled practice. It was first applied to the teaching a grammar, but it has been extended to teach language skills, particularly listening and speaking. The process of teaching skills started with listening to a taped dialogue and imitating it. Then, features of the dialogue are repeated and followed by its performance in class.

The cognitivists did not appreciate the behaviourists ' view of learners as passive participants and empty vessels who are just waiting to be filled. The cognitivist sees that the learning of a complex skill, like speaking, should be based on automatic rather than controlled processing. The first stage to achieve such automaticity is that conscious attention is applied explicitly to the learning of the rules of the system. Then, the user (the learner) needs to restruct his linguist system since new rules are integrated into his existing knowledge. Finally, this new knowledge becomes available for use, with minimal attentional control on the part of the learner.

In teaching terms, cognitivist theory called these stages: awareness-raising, proceduralization (restructuring), and autonomy. It becomes apparent that the first stage is different in terms of classroom practice. Awareness-raising implies an explicit attention

to the rules of the system, whereas the audiolingual practice focused on simply imitating models without any overt emphasis on the rules that generate them.

In contrast to the cognitivist model which gives priority to mental functions over social ones, the sociocultural theory places the learning process in its social context. Following this view, all learning, including the learning of a first and a second language, is mediated through social and cultural activity. The learner first requires to experience other –regulation. This takes the form of assisted performance, by which the teacher interacts with the learner to provide a supportive framework (or scaffold) that helps the learners to extend their existing competence . Along this shared activity, new knowledge is constructed until the learners are able to make it their own (appropriation stage). Learners are now able to function independently in a state of self- regulation. Learning, when applying the stages of sociocultural theory, is a social phenomenon which requires both activity and interactivity. Thornbury gives an example about this view in classroom terms where learners begin solving a problem in small groups, during which the teacher intervenes when necessary to give suggestions.

III.2. Prerequisites for Developing Speaking

Celce–Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 175) see that people need a number of prerequisites to communicate in another language effectively. For them, linguistic competence is not enough to reach better oral communication. Learners have to make a good use of pragmatic and sociocultural factors, too. They view that the linguistic, sociocultural ,and discourse competencies required for effective oral communication include the following areas :

a-knowing the vocabulary relevant to the situation .

b-ability to use discourse connectors such as well ; oh ; I see ; okay .

c-ability to use suitable opening phrases and closing phrases such as Excuse me or Thank you for your help .

d-ability to comprehend and use reduced forms (reducing vowel sounds is particularly important in English) .

e-knowing the syntax for producing basic clauses in the language .

f-ability to use the basic intonation – or tone – patterns of the language .

g-ability to use proper rhythm and stress in the language and to make proper pauses .

h-awareness of how to apply Grice 's maxims in the new language .

i-knowing how to use the interlocutor 's reactions and input .

j-awareness of the various conversational rules that facilitate the flow of talk .

Uso – Juan and Martinez – Flor (2006: 147) present a framework of communicative competence. They want to prove that all components play an integral role for the development of speaking. The diagram below represents the components of communicative competence with speaking placed at its core.

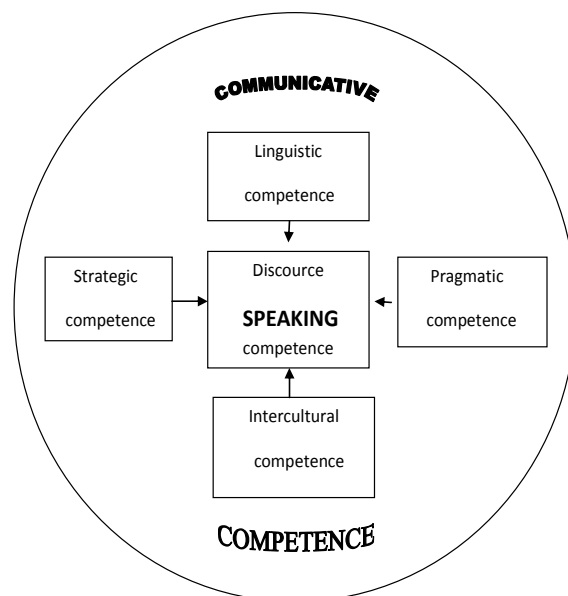


Figure 05: Integrating speaking within the communicative competence framework (Uso-Juan & Martinez, 2006:147)

Both researchers discuss each component separately, starting with discourse competence.

III.2.1. Discourse Competence

Discourse competence is defined as "...speakers' ability to use a variety of discourse features to achieve a unified spoken text given a particular purpose and the situational context where it is produced"(2006:147). By discourse features, we mean cohesion (grammatical and lexical ties); coherence (the unity of a piece of discourse such as individual sentences); conversational rules (turn – taking system: how conversations open and close, who speaks when and for how long, who can interrupt,...) ; and discourse markers. Thornbury proposes meanings of a number of discourse markers:

-right, now, anyway: these mark the beginning or closing of a segment of talk.

-well : this is a very common way of initiating a turn and linking it to the preceding turn , often to mark the onset of a contrast , e.g. a difference of opinion .

-oh : this is typically used either to launch an utterance or to respond to the previous speaker 's utterance , often with implications of surprise or unexpectedness .

-and, but, or: these conjunctions are used to connect discourse: and marks some kind of continuity, but marks a contrast, and or marks an option.

-so, because: these are also conjunction, they signal that what follows is (respectively) the result or the cause of what has been mentioned.

-then: this is often used to signal an inference based on what someone else has said.

-y 'know , I mean : these markers serve to gain and maintain attention on the speaker – the first by appealing to the hearer 's shared knowledge , and the second by signaling that some kind of clarification is going to follow. (2006: 15 – 16)

Nevertheless, to produce a good piece of spoken discourse, learners need to acquire knowledge from the remaining components .

III.2.2. Linguistic Competence

Linguistic competence is made of elements of the linguistic system (phonology, grammar and vocabulary) and those of the grammatical system (morphology and syntax). The manipulation of all these elements will enable learners to produce pieces of spoken discourse successfully.

III.2.3. Pragmatic Knowledge

Thornbury sees that " Pragmatics describes the relation between language and its contexts of use, including the purposes for which language is being used. How do speakers adjust their message to take context into account? And how do listeners use contextual information to make sense of what they are hearing?" (2006: 16)

Pragmatics is simply the study of how language is used in communication. Thomas (1996, cited in Mc Donough, 2002) points out that it is the study of the ways in which people

1. disambiguate meaning in context :
2. assign complete meanings ;
3. distinguish sentence from speaker meaning ;
4. arrive at particular meanings in listening ;
5. act in speech in the way they do ;

As such, pragmatics is concerned with people 's intentions , assumptions belief , goals , and the kinds of actions they perform while using language. It is also concerned with contexts , situations , and setting within which such language uses occur . Speakers , when performing utterances , fulfill two things ,(1) interactional acts and (2) speech acts . The former impose structure on the discourse by ensuring that one utterance leads smoothly to another, they concern how speakers manage the process of exchanging turns, how they open and close conversations , and how they sequence acts to ensure a coherent

conversation . Social actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts . This latter is usually performed within a situation that provides contextual elements that help interpret the speaker's intention. Thus, if a person says "it's really cold in here" in a room where there is an open window and the addressee is near the window, this utterance can easily be interpreted as a request for the interlocutor to close the window. Contextual and social information make it possible for interactants to interpret each other's intentions even when these intentions are not explicitly stated. Further functions include complaints, apologizes, compliments , and so on .

SLA research has given the greatest attention to the performance and acquisition of speech acts by L2 Learners, and little one to how they perform and acquire interactional acts.

When a speech act is uttered, the utterance (Austin's speech act theory) involves a locutionary meaning based on the meaning of the linguistic expressions. Thus, the utterance "I am hungry" is a basic description of the speaker's state. The illocutionary force is the performance of a particular language function. Following the same instance, the intended meaning is "give me some food, please ". The perlocutionary force, however is the effect the act has on the addressee. Searle, on the other hand, distinguishes between 'direct' and 'indirect' speech acts. The bulk of the work to date has concentrated on illocutionary acts , or as Ellis calls them 'language functions'. Despite the fact that there is an ample categories of speech acts, only a limited number has been investigated by researchers and studies of interlanguage pragmatics among which, to name but few requests , apologies , and refusals.

For request, research (by Blum–Kulka, House, Kasper) has found that L2 learners encounter few problem in understanding the illocutionary force of a request. Later on, they are able to perceive the sociolinguistic meanings of the different request types. Most

of the research has focused on the production of requests (Olshtain, Kasper, ...). Learners begin with very simple requests and then gradually develop their ability to perform more advanced types of requests. Furthermore, advanced learners, though they master native-speaker linguistic realization devices, produce requests which differ from those of native speakers. The reason is that non – native speakers tend to be verbose, i.e, they use more words than are needed to produce requests.

Studies of interlanguage pragmatics have also given consideration to the pragmatic problems that learners face. Thomas (1996) distinguishes between sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic failure. The former implies that a learner fails to respond to a native – speaker utterance. The latter is when a learner performs a speech act but misuses the right linguistic means, i.e, he does not use the appropriate linguistic means to produce the speech act. A good example is the one given by Thomas himself. According to Thomas:

The price is incredible →usually means incredibly high in English, but in French:

Le prix est incroyable →would usually be interpreted as incredibly low.

Besides, studies have not ignored which factors play major importance in the acquisition of pragmatic competence. Obviously, the level of the learners' linguistic competence is a key on. Learners with little grammatical or lexical knowledge of the L2 will find difficulties in performing speech acts in native– like ways.

Another factor of great importance is transfer. Learners transfer rules of speaking from their L1 to their L2. Hence, they perform speech acts in accordance with the rules of their native language.

III.2.4. Intercultural Competence

Intercultural competence has to do with knowledge about social values and the norms of behaviour in a given society, and how these values and norms are fulfilled through language. Hence, learners should pay attention to such factors, otherwise, there may

happen some misunderstandings or breakdowns in communication. Non – verbal factors, as Martinez– Flor and Uso – Juan (2006: 150) point out , are also one type of intercultural competence. Therefore , learners should not ignore body language , facial expressions , eye contact, etc.

III.2.5. Strategic Competence

Strategic competence is simply a matter of communication strategies that learners rely on to overcome any possible breakdowns while communicating. So, it is the learner 's job to select the language he is in need of. In this way, "... he can compensate for deficiencies in his repertoire, through communicative strategies such as using paraphrase or simplifying his message" (Littlewood, 1996: 65.). Bygate (2000: 14) divides these devices into facilitation and compensation ones. The former involves simplifying structure; using ellipsis; using formulaic expressions; using fillers and hesitation devices. The latter includes repeating or rephrasing what the speaker has just said , hesitation , circumlocutions and so on .

Learners need to take account of all the previous aspects, so as to be good speakers of English. Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 176) argue that the acquisition of these elements can best be achieved by wide exposure to authentic speech in the classroom and particularly by participating in a large array of oral activities.

Before we proceed our discussion about types of communicative speaking tasks, let us first make it clear what do we mean by an effective and successful speaking activity.

III.3. Characteristics of a Successful Speaking Activity

According to Ur (1998:120), a successful speaking activity should satisfy the following criteria:

1. Learners talks a lot: as much as possible of the period of time allotted to the activity is in fact occupied by learner talk .

2. Participation is even: classroom discussion is not dominated by a minority of talkative participants: all get a chance to speak and contributions are fairly evenly distributed.

3. Motivation is high: learners are eager to speak because they are interested in the topic and have something new to say about it, or because they want to contribute to achieving a task objective.

4. Language is of an acceptable level: learners express themselves in utterances that are relevant, easily comprehensible to each other, and of an acceptable level of language accuracy.

Olshtain and Celce– Murcia (2000:176) add the point that a classroom activity has to provide learner with an authentic opportunity to get individual meanings across. It means that the learner 's new knowledge is automated and he is autonomous. Moreover, learners should make use of every area of this knowledge that they have in the second or foreign language. They should also be given opportunity and be encouraged to use their knowledge flexibly, while keeping in mind the communicative goal.

Thornbury (2006:90-91) considers that speaking activities which aim at increasing learners autonomy should be :

1. Productive : a speaking activity needs to be language productive in order to provide the best conditions for autonomous language use .

2. Purposeful : language productivity is increased when the speaking activity has a clear outcome, i.e, learners work together to achieve a common purpose .

3. Interactive : classroom discussion is not dominated by a minority of participants. All learners must get a chance to speak and contributions should be fairly distributed .

4. Challenging: the task should motivate learners to use their available communicative resources to achieve the intended outcome. But , in this case , the teacher should be sensitive to the degree of the difficulty of the task and adjust it when necessary.
5. Safe : learners should feel confident when performing tasks and trying autonomous language use. It means that classroom conditions would help learners , including class dynamic and a non – judgmental attitude to errors on the part of the teacher. Also , learners need to be secure in the knowledge that the teacher will be there to help when things get out of hand .
6. Authentic: these speaking activities should have some resemblance and relation to real– life language use, otherwise, autonomy cannot be achieved. Here, we do not speak about drills and language games which are designed to raise learners’ awareness and appropriation. We are speaking about activities which make them experience a quality of communication in the classroom that is the same as communicating outside the class.

III.4.Difficulty of Speaking Tasks

The concept of "difficulty" is regarded as an intuitively appealing one which we use when we think about people's ability to deal with tasks. Luoma (2004: 46) cited that:

Difficulty is not a direct characteristic of tasks; rather, it is the sum of task characteristics and the conditions under which someone performs the task (...) in relation to the person's ability in the skills that it requires. Difficulty is nevertheless a concept that we use in designing teaching curricula and tests. We want syllabuses to proceed from easier tasks to more difficult ones to support learning ...

That is why, the issue of pedagogical tasks difficulty is amongst the major challenges which face teachers and curriculum developers.

Nunan (1991: 47) argue that "interlocutor effect" is a feature which should be taken into consideration when determining the difficulty of speaking tasks. In any interactional speaking task , according to Nunan, communication is a collaborative venture in which the interlocutors negotiate meaning in order to achieve their communicative end. Hence , this feature is important for researchers investigating task difficulty, and even for those designing task– based testing procedures.

Moreover, the studies on speaking– task difficulty helped in planning speaking tasks and handling their difficulty skillfully. Brown and Yule (1983) and Brown et al. (1984 , in Nunan, 1991:47) have conducted a research into the factors implicated in task difficulty . They worked with native speaking, secondary school pupils and faced a number of major problems. The first was how to motivate pupils to talk while working with an unfamiliar interviewer and while being tape recorded. To solve this problem , they suggest a series of short tasks with different content and different demands to keep the pupils' interest. But, this gave raise to another problem in that the researchers reached a number of unrelated performances, on the part of the pupils , from which no general description could be drawn. They further devised tasks which formed related groups, each group is different from another group in term of communicative skills.

In grouping tasks according to "communicative skill", they spoke about: (1) a diagram –drawing task; (2) a pegboard task; (3) a wiring – board task. In the first task, the speaker has to tell the listener how to reproduce a colored diagram. In the second, how to arrange different colored pegs and elastic bands into a particular pattern on a pegboard; in the third, how to complete an electrical circuit by arranging a series of wires in the appropriate sockets. Though these tasks appear to be different, Brown et al argue that they make similar communicative demands on the speaker. Pupils have to give a sequence of clear and explicit instructions through identification and distinction between

static objects and the spatial relationships between them. The researchers came to conclude that this type of tasks generated different types of language, patterns of interaction and communicative problems from other tasks.

Dynamic and abstract tasks are other types which are distinguished from the static tasks in the degree of difficulty. Tasks which include dynamic relationships were more difficult than static tasks, for the speakers are asked to describe relationships between objects and entities which changed along the task. Examples of such tasks include describing a car crash , retelling a narrative based on a cartoon strip. Tasks involving abstract relationships were more difficult than dynamic ones. They required the speaker to deal in abstraction , such as expressing an opinion on a given topic or giving argument to justify an action.

Luoma (2004:47) adds, on the grounds of Brown and Yule studies, that:

The more elements , factors or events there are in the task material, the more complex the language that the speakers need to use ,and therefore, the more challenging the task. Thus, if there are several picture– based narrative tasks that are intended to be parallel, the developers should check that each picture sequence involves a similar number of characters and events to make the tasks more comparable.

Brown et al , as cited in Nunan 1991: 49, did not limit their research to the study of task difficulty but extended to the area of how can pupils improve their performance on speaking tasks. They found that practice helped speakers to improve particular aspects of the task which they had already largely mastered. The second factor is that being first a " hearer " facilitated being a speaker because the speaker would recognize and appreciate the difficulties that exist in the task:

Giving speakers experience in the hearer 's role is more helpful than simple practice in tasks where a speaker is having real difficulties in appreciating what a particular task requires. In tasks where speakers are largely successful in meeting a particular task demand, then repeated practice may enable them to improve further their performance in this respect, and may indeed be a pleasant and motivating experience (Brown et al. 1984: 123)

Furthermore , the fact that speakers' inadequate performances would be recorded and later reviewed and discussed, with pupils taking part, is regarded as an important factor to enhance performance .

III.5. Classification of Speaking Activities

The question of how well speaking skill could be taught and learnt is the focus of a number of researchers in the field of language teaching and learning. Within the communicative approach, they suggest and design an ample number of interaction tasks, without minimizing the important role that accuracy tasks may play to enhance learners' communicative abilities. The starting classification of such tasks will be the one of Rivers and Temperley.

III.5.1. Rivers and Temperley's Classification

Rivers and Temperley (1978) provide a number of essential processes involved in learning to communicate and classify them under two types of skills : skill getting and skill – using. The authors claim that these two types are continually proceeding hand in hand and that knowledge and intensive practice do not necessarily lead to confident interaction. Rather, there is a great need for practice in actual , purposeful conversational exchange with others. Hence , the gap between the two processes must be bridged using

activities which the authors call " pseudo-communicative skill getting activities" (See the diagram below).

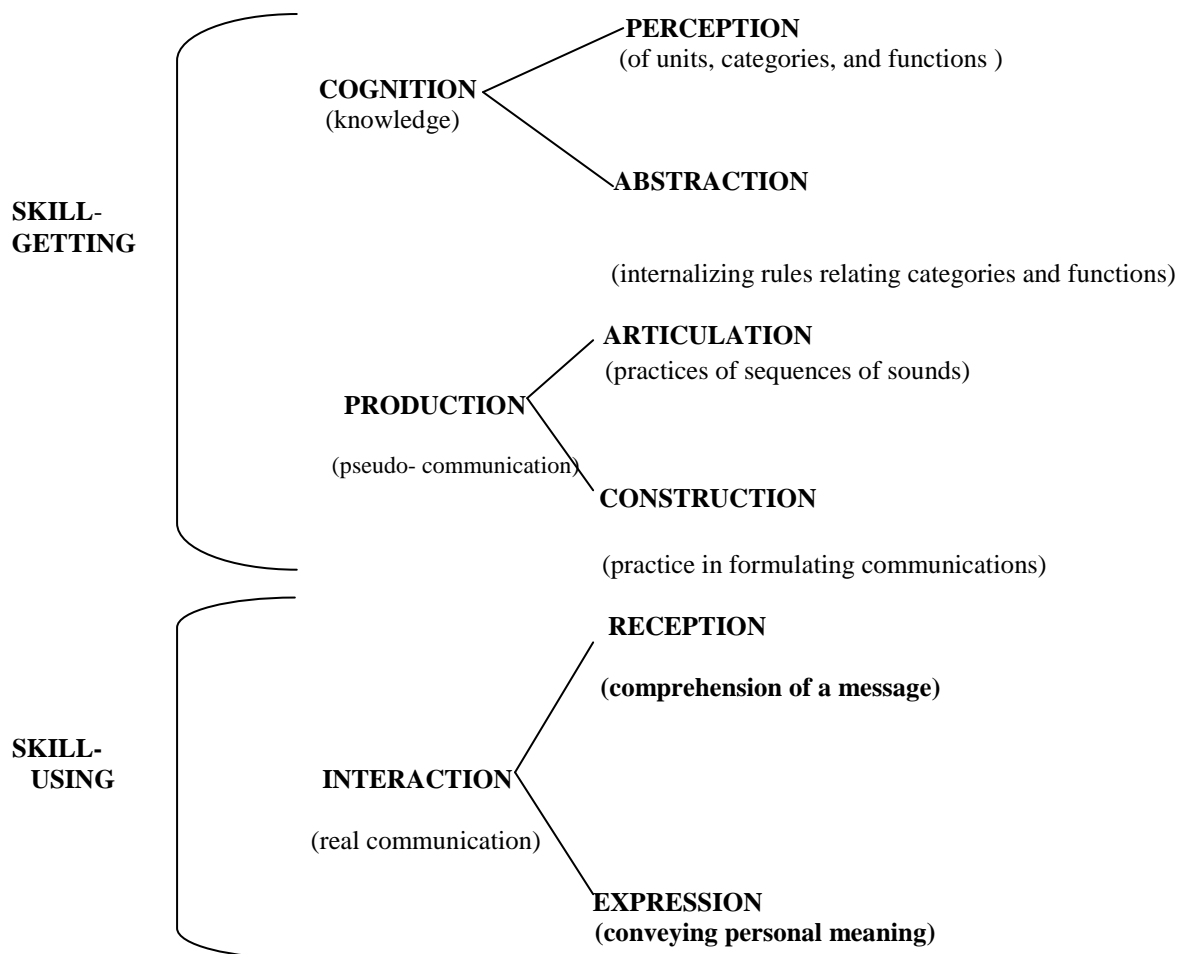


Figure06 : Rivers and Temperley’s framework (1978: 4)

They suggest three kinds of activity:

1. oral practice for the learning of grammar ;
2. structured interaction ;
3. autonomous interaction.

III.5.1.1. Oral Practice for the Learning of Grammar

Learning the grammar of the language may be approached deductively (students are given a grammatical rule with examples before they practice its use) or inductively (they see examples of the rule in operation in discourse, practice its use, and then get a rule from these examples with the teacher's help, or they get a rule after seeing the

examples, and then practice using the structure). In both approaches, " students practice the use of grammatical structures and apply the various facets of grammatical rules in possible sentences" (1978: 110). It means that speaking activities, under this category, will present, exemplify, demonstrate, and practice grammatical rules. Blank filling and replacement activities are essentially exercises for written practice because it is difficult for students to keep the sentences in mind while making substitutions or filling the gaps orally. That is why, the authors view that pattern or structure drill exercises are more effective for rapid oral practice. They demonstrate the operation of certain structural variations and familiarize students with their use "They serve an introductory function .They're useful only as a preliminary to practice in using the new structural variations in some natural interchange, or for review and consolidation of the use of certain structures when students seem in doubt " (1987: 120) .

Other activities for the learning of grammar include: repetition or presentation drills, substitution drills, conversions , sentence modifications , response practice, and translation exercises .

III. 5.1.2. Structured Interaction Activities

The structured interaction activities aim at bridging the gap between knowledge of the language rules and the students' ability to express their own meanings:

All that we can teach students in a foreign language is how to construct the appropriate framework, in all its detail, for the expression of meaning. We cannot teach students to express their own meaning: we can provide opportunities that stimulate motivation for this personal activity and we can help the student to improve the framework so that it can really carry the message intended.(1978:16)

That's why, Searle calls language "rule – governed intentional behavior".

Dialogues can be fitted under this category and used to present and demonstrate new language. The authors stress the importance of knowing the bad and good features of dialogues for several reasons:

- to select well-written materials for use in classroom teaching or in individualized learning packets ;
- to rewrite bad constructed dialogues;
- to write dialogues, if the teacher wishes to add available materials.

III.5.1.3. Autonomous Interaction Activities

As we have mentioned earlier, pseudo-communicative skill getting activities will lead to spontaneous communication, facilitating and stimulating autonomous interaction. The authors present fourteen " categories of use " that learners have to deal with properly, so as to develop " autonomous interaction". To do so , students must learn early to express their personal intentions through all kinds of familiar and unfamiliar recombinations of the language elements at their disposal . It does not mean that students should be given a variety of activities, which fit under these categories, and think that they will handle from the earliest stage of learning. Rather, "the teacher will select and graduate activities to propose from these categories, so that the attitude of seeking to communicate is developed early in an activity which is within the student's growing capacity" (1978: 48).

On the basis of this view, the authors suggest a number of activities for each category:

1. Establishing and maintaining social relations : short dialogues based on small situations : answering the door ; making a telephone call ; giving birthday greetings ; interacting at a party ; welcoming visitors, customers.
2. Expressing reactions: situations requiring reactions to TV show, photographic/painting exhibition, or slide show.

3. Hiding one's intention: students given a mission to carry out must not reveal it under any provocation; for example, the group decides on a spying mission, and individual group members are questioned by other groups to find out the mission.
4. Talking one's way out of trouble: students are asked awkward or embarrassing questions which they must answer or avoid without making any revelation.
5. Seeking and giving information: interviews, surveys, questionnaires, small projects, involving class members or outsiders.
6. Learning or teaching how to make or do something: for example, a sport, a hobby, a craft, a dance, a game.
7. Conversing over the telephone: social calls or enquiries about goods, services, or timetables.
8. Problem-solving: guessing games; interrogation games like Alibis, Guilty Party; logical puzzle-solving; project study.
9. Discussing ideas: arising from readings, stories, films; projects; controversial debating topics; short texts.
10. Playing with language: crossword puzzles; spelling games (Scrabble, Hangman, etc.); nonsense rhymes; charades; word histories.
11. Acting out social roles: dramatic improvisations, based on simple situations and character description.
12. Entertaining others: through producing a show, or concert, a TV or radio-type programme or show.
13. Displaying one's achievements, after another activity such as a project report.
14. Sharing leisure activities: participation in typical national meals, festivities, celebrations, or pastimes.

III.5.2. Littlewood's Classification

Littlewood (1996) distinguishes between pre- communicative and communicative activities, (See the diagram below)

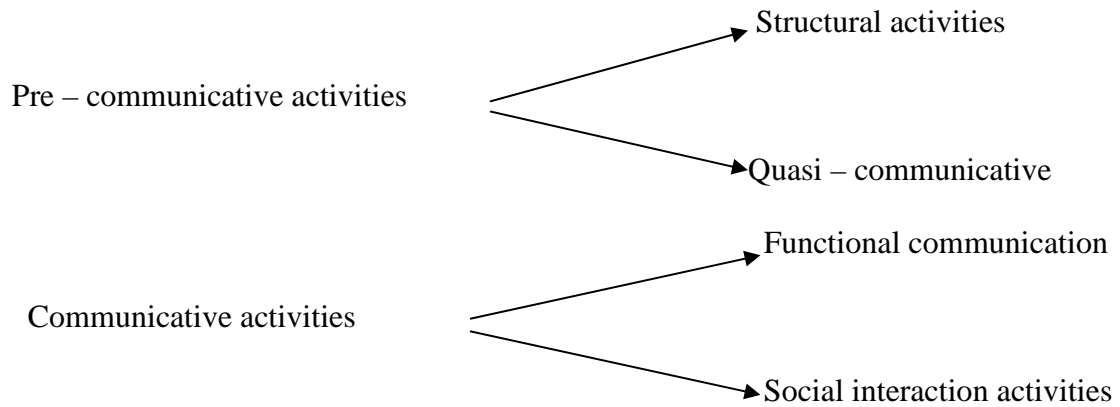


Figure 07: Littlewood’s classification of exercises (1996:86)

The former are intended to prepare learners for the second type of activities where they are required to communicate. Thus, with pre- communicative activities, learners are going to practice using acceptable language with reasonable fluency and leave specific parts of the skill for the purpose of communication. On the other hand, learners need to include and make use of their pre – communicative knowledge and skills to communicate meaning effectively.

III. 5.2.1.Pre – communicative Tasks

The aim behind pre – communicative activities, as Littlewood (1996: 89) argue , is " ... to give the learners fluent control over linguistic forms , so that the lower – level processes will be capable of unfolding automatically in response to higher – level decisions based on meaning". In simple terms, pre – communicative tasks are designed to give learners the opportunity of handling the linguistic structures and knowledge, so

that to produce correct and acceptable pieces of language. Such tasks are further subdivided into: structural and quasi – communicative activities.

III.5.2.1.1. Structural Practice

Structural practice, as the name suggests, stresses the importance of grammatical rules and the various combinations of linguistic items. The issue of structural activities has sparked a great deal of controversy among researchers. However, Littlewood does not deny the importance of this practice and is against those teachers who exclude it from their teaching. Structural practice is mainly effective when teachers' attention is directed towards developing a given structural feature.

III.5.2.1.2. Quasi – Communicative Activities

Quasi – communicative practice has to do with conversational exchanges (dialogues and drills). It helps the learner to join forms to three kinds of sentence meanings :

a. Communicative function : how to use interrogatives in order to ask questions, to make invitations ; how to accept or reject suggestions, ... Here, there is a combination of the linguistic structure and its communicative function. In other words, when the learner asks a question, he learns how to form an interrogative sentence and at the same time how to, say, make a request. Teachers, thus, can strengthen the link between both aspects by putting language in a real context and then asking learners " ... to practice responses which would be (a) realistic ways of performing useful communicative acts in (b) situations they might expect to encounter at some time " (Littlewood, 1996: 10).

b. Specific meaning: language can be used to clarify real facts, students' personal knowledge, and so on. Teachers may select activities in which language is performing a useful communicative function (example, giving directions to a tourist about the place of the museum). Such activities motivate learners since they correspond to their communicative needs.

c. Social context: activities also should not neglect the social side of the language. It means that learners should learn how to use language " as a vehicle for social interaction". Activities, which aim at relating language to social context, give learners opportunities to interact as equal partners in an exchange. They may work in pairs and perform an acquired repertoire of items in "an open dialogue" or " a cued dialogue". This latter contains a number of cues which guide the learner to interact. The following activity has the form of cued dialogue:

<p>Partner B</p> <p>You meet A in the street</p> <p>A :</p> <p>B : Greet A</p> <p>A :</p> <p>B : Say you are going for a walk</p> <p>A :</p> <p>B : Reject A 's suggestion. Make a different suggestion.</p> <p>A :</p> <p>B : Express pleasure</p>	<p>Partner A</p> <p>You meet B in the street</p> <p>A : Greet B</p> <p>B :</p> <p>A : Ask B where he is going</p> <p>B :</p> <p>A : Suggest somewhere to go together</p> <p>B :</p> <p>A : Accept B 's suggestion .</p> <p>B :</p>
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(Littlewood, 1996: 14)

III.5.2.2. Communicative Activities

In the previous activities, learners' focus was directed towards form and not meaning. They have learnt language forms , but not communicated meaning. Communicative activities include functional communication and social interaction activities.

III.5.2.2.1. Functional Communication Activities

A key feature of functional communication activities is that learners are asked to solve a problem or overcome an information gap with whatever language they have. What matters here is not the accurate use of linguistic structures, but the achievement of "the communicative demands of the immediate situation". Littlewood subdivides functional communication activities into four types:

1. Sharing information with restricted cooperation .
2. Sharing information with unrestricted cooperation .
3. Sharing and processing information .
4. Processing information .

III.5.2.2.1.1. Sharing Information with Restricted Cooperation

This kind of communicative activities produces the simplest patterns of interaction. Often , one partner has information which the other learner must know through asking specific questions (yes/no questions). Identifying pictures can be classified as a functional communication activity.

a. Identifying Pictures

This activity involves the participation of two partners. Learner A is given a number of pictures which are similar in content but have some distinguishing features. He has to discover which picture, amongst the ones he possesses, learner B has selected. He can do so by asking questions about it. The level of difficulty of this activity is " ... determined largely by how numerous , how obvious and how easily describable the distinguishing features are " (Littlewood , 1996: 24).

b. Discovering Identical Pairs

This activity shares some features with the previous task. Both exercises produce the same kind of interaction and they also include the use of pictures. A number of learners , in this activity, are given different pictures , with another partner holding a duplicate of

one of his peers' pictures. His job is to ask all his peers, so as to find the one who has got the identical picture to his own. 'Detective enquiry', 'Find your partner', 'Find your missing friend', and 'Let's go together' are all variations of this activity.

c. Discovering Sequences or Locations

Learner A, in this activity, has a number of pictures arranged into a sequence. Learner B, who has the same pictures, must discover the sequence of his peer's pictures and arrange his own in the same way. Instead of discovering sequences, learners may be involved in discovering locations.

d. Discovering Missing Information

Learner A and B may be given the same table which contains, for instance, distances between various towns or a football league table showing a summary of each team's results. Here, each learner has a number of different deleted information from his table and his task, thus, is to complete the missing information by asking his partner for information he lacks.

e. Discovering Missing Features

Learner A has a picture of a street. Learner B has the same picture, but with some deleted items. Learner A, basing on his complete picture, should ask questions to discover what is missed in his peer's picture.

f. Discovering 'Secrets'

This is the activity of the knower and discoverer. Here, one learner has a secret information (for example, a profession he wishes to be his own, a country he would like to visit, ...), which his peers in the classroom must discover by asking appropriate questions (such as, yes/ no questions).

All the above activities may involve different learners' organizations. Learners may work in pairs, in groups, or the whole class. Such activities which consist of question –

and – answer sequence may demotivate learners if used widely and for a longtime in the classroom because they do not yet lead to the flexible, spontaneous kind of communication interaction.

III.5.2.2.1.2. Sharing Information with Unrestricted Cooperation

The previous activities can fall under this category, too. But, the only difference is that these activities should be practiced in a cooperative , rather than restricted , interaction. Learners can reach a good communicative cooperation if they are allowed to interact in any way they think fit in order to solve their communicative problems. Instead of being just limited to use question – and – answer technique , learners can rely on description , suggestions , asking for clarification , helping each other ,and so on. Besides , they should learn how to provide feedback , how to use their compensation and facilitations strategies to overcome communicative breakdowns . Such realities may help learners to make a step ahead towards acquiring the foreign language.

A number of other tasks may be

a. Communicating Patterns and Pictures

Littlewood describes the process of doing this activity as the following “Learner A has an assortment of shapes which he arranges into a pattern . Learner B has the same shapes . They must communicate with each other so that B can reproduce as exactly as possible the same pattern as A” (1996: 31)

By providing learners with a reasonable shared knowledge about the pictures or patterns to be described and by reducing the distinctive features found in shapes, teachers can supply learners with the communicative skills needed in the real world.

b. Communicating Models

Learner B should follow his peer's verbal instructions to construct a model identical to his peer 's. Learner A may see the production of B and ,thus, can make immediate feedback about the success or failure of his communicative efforts. Preparing a meal is a type of communicating models activity .

c. Discovering Differences

In this activity , learner A and B are given identical pictures. The only difference is found in some details .The learners' job is to discuss these pictures in order to discover what the differences are .

d. Following Directions

Learner A must direct B to reach the location of, for instance, a hidden treasure.

III.5.2.2.1.3. Sharing and Processing Information

So far, the communicative goal has been to share information. Activities under this heading encourage learners to discuss and evaluate this shared information in order to solve a problem. Littlewood claims that many of these activities work on the 'jigsaw' principle where "... each learner in a pair or group possesses information which is unique to him; he must share it with others; together, the different pieces of information provide the material for solving a particular problem" (1996: 33). Reconstructing story–sequences and pooling information to solve a problem are two types of activities which require learners to discuss their shared information to get a solution .

III.5.2.2.1.4. Processing Information

Learners, now, are prepared to solve problems that they may encounter in the real world. Henceforth, teachers are asked to include activities that best resemble their learners' needs and interests. The teacher may, for instance, asks his learners to select gifts to some people , taking into consideration their likes and dislikes and not exceeding

a specified sum of money. Here , learners must use a number of techniques (arguing , justifying , persuading, ...) to widen the range of communicative functions .

Nevertheless, functional communication activities have a number of limitations. A number of situations in which learners are asked to perform may not be encountered outside the classroom, like matching pictures or sorting out jumbled sentences. To solve this problem, Littlewood suggests social interaction activities:

III. 5.2.2.2. Social Interaction Activities

In addition to the functional dimension, social interaction tasks require from the learner to select the language under social dimension. The evaluation of his choice will not be restricted to functional effectiveness, but it will look for social acceptability, too.

a. Conversation or Discussion Sessions

The conversation session has a number of advantages:

- It opens up a rich stimulus for communicative interaction, namely the varied experiences, interests and opinions of the learners.
- It thus provides a context for a wide range of communicative functions and domains of meaning.
- It provides learners with opportunities to express their own personality and experience through the foreign language. It also gives them valuable experience in using the language as a means of handling their own social relationships . (Littlewood, 1996: 47)

Furthermore, teachers should be aware not to dominate the conversation. They must leave the space for learners to interact as equal participants. One way to minimize teacher domination is by changing the formal seating of learners. Tables may be arranged in a circle, so that learners can feel themselves as equal communicators. The teacher may also divide his class into independent groups and supply them with materials or instructions that may sustain the interaction without his presence.

b. Basing Dialogues and Role– Plays on School Experience

Another way of helping learners to develop their communicative abilities is through the use of dialogues and role play activities which tackle aspects of those learners' experience (for instance , homework , their good and low marks , ...). Such tasks discuss issues that are closely related to learners ' needs and bring a nonlinguistic subject matter which motivates communication.

c. Simulation and Role – Playing

In simulation and role playing activities, learners imagine themselves in a situation which could occur outside the classroom. They adopt a role in this situation and behave as if the situation really existed . A basic requirement in simulation and role playing tasks is that teachers should minimize their control over the activity, so that they help learners to be creative in their involvement. The teacher, thus, "... controls only the situation and the learners' roles in it, but leaves the learners themselves to create the interaction” (Littewood , 1996: 51)

Other types of social interaction activities include large-scale simulation activity and improvisation. The former is designed for more advanced level and is largely conducted outside the classroom. The latter type is tightly associated with work in the native– language context , especially in drama. It is a role playing activity .

To sum up what Littlewood has said about social interaction tasks, we can say that a number of these activities keep the reality of the classroom as it is, while others use simulation to overcome the limitations of the classroom. To conduct the activity successfully, teachers should link the linguistic demands of the activity with the linguistic capabilities of their learners. Moreover, teachers should engage their learners in many situations which resemble those they will face and live in the real world. However, learners should not think that tasks, which involve situations that they will not make use

of outside the class, are of no sense. On the contrary , they must adapt themselves to situations performed in their real– life and others restricted inside their class.

III.5.3. Harmer's Classification

When selecting speaking activities, Harmer (1998) sees that the following three reasons for speaking tasks should be satisfied:

1. Rehearsal : free discussions give students chances to make rehearsal outside the classroom . If, for instance , they take part in a role– play at an airport check-in desk, they will get the feeling of how communication in the foreign language looks like .
2. Feedback : it is evident that speaking tasks provide feedback for both teacher and students. Teachers can recognize what language problems their students are having. For students, speaking activities give them enormous confidence and satisfaction how easy a particular kind of speaking is, and what to do to improve it.
3. Engagement : Harmer considers that good speaking activities should be highly motivating .He argues that students' full participation , when the teacher has set up the activity properly and later can give sympathetic and useful feedback , will give them a sense of great satisfaction .

On the basis of these three reasons, Harmer suggests the following activities, each designed for a given level of students.

III.1. Information Gaps (for Elementary / Intermediate)

By information gap we mean the activity where two speakers have different parts of information making up a whole and because they have different information , there is a gap between them . The author gives the example of a popular information gap activity which is called "Describe and Draw". In this latter, one student has a picture which he /she must hide. The job of the partner is to draw the picture without looking at the

original , while the student with the picture is giving instructions and description and even the artist will ask questions.

The author regards it as containing many elements which make of it an ideal speaking activity . It is highly motivating (if not used very often), there is a real purpose for the communication taking place, and almost any language can be used. For this activity to remain motivating, there must be exchange of roles between students (the describer becomes the drawer and vice-versa).

Harmer illustrates with the following example: the teacher puts the class into four groups, calling them A , B , C , and D. He gives one picture to each group which in turn has to memorize everything they have seen in the pictures. Then, he collects back the pictures and asks for one student from each group to form a new four – person group. He tells them that the four pictures make up a story and that their task is to work out what the story is. The only way to do that is by describing their pictures to each other to form a story. The students, finally, tell the whole class their final stories, and the teacher can later re– show the pictures .

This type of activity, story– telling activity , can be used as an introduction to written narrative work.

III.2. Surveys (Elementary)

Questionnaires and surveys are activities which create an atmosphere of conversation and opinion exchange. This type of activity becomes more efficient if the questionnaire is planned by the students themselves. The author provides here too another example to illustrate, where the teacher has recently taught the present perfect tense and wants his students to use their language knowledge, including the use of the present perfect.

The first thing the teacher has to do is to talk about the topic, which is say sleeping , and then asks his / her students to give him vocabulary related to the topic. The students

now work in pairs to plan question for their sleep questionnaire and have to go round the class questioning other students and noting down what they say. The role of the teacher is to listen and intervene where necessary and then asks his students to tell the class of any experiences. The important thing he has to take into account is that he should not correct language errors until his students finish speaking. Encouraging students to walk around asking other classmates leads to a variety of interaction, allows a bit of physical movements, and varies the structure of classroom periods.

III.3. Discussion (Intermediate / Upper-Intermediate)

Discussion sessions, as the author notices, are regarded by many teachers as less successful than they had hoped. The reason is simply the fact that students need time to assemble their thoughts before any discussion. Hence, any discussion needs preparation and the teacher has to build it up in stages. He can start by asking questions to introduce the topic, let's say violence in films. Then , he puts the students into groups and tell each group to concentrate on a specific issue related to the topic. When students have got enough time to think of ideas, with the teacher going round and prompting where necessary, he asks one of the groups for an opinion about violence and encourages other students to intervene with their opinions and so forth. The teacher keeps working in this way until the discussion takes off, and he can later work on any language arising out of the activity.

Celce – Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 177) suggest that second or foreign language classroom students should be given enough opportunities to participate in group discussions. They add that "... a considerable amount of classroom time should be devoted to such group activities in order to facilitate the spoken production of individual students , thereby preparing them for more autonomous speaking activities".

4.Role play (upper intermediate / advanced)

In this type of activity, students are asked to imagine that they are in different situations and act accordingly. It provides the kind of rehearsal possibilities that Harmer has regarded as one reason for speaking tasks. He considers role play as more than just play- acting "... it offers chances for rehearsal and engagement that some other activities fail to give ". (Harmer, 1998: 94).

Furthermore, it gives students chance to use their knowledge of vocabulary, of narration, of speech acts, of turn taking, of pauses and so on. But, it turns to be a very difficult or unnatural task if they lack such knowledge. Hence "Care must be taken that all these are available to students so that the activity can be both meaningful and challenging" (Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 177).

How should teachers correct speaking tasks is an important question which received considerable attention in the course of language teaching and learning. That is why, a brief discussion about the issue is needed.

III.6. Teachers' Feedback

Providing learners with feedback, when dealing with speaking activities, is regarded as an important factor which may encourage them to develop a variety of communication skills for effective oral communication. One should not view it from the negative side only, where the teacher directs his students' attention to their individual differences, but also "strengths on which the learner may capitalize such as a rich vocabulary, good stress and rhythm, or a pleasant personality" (Olshtain and Murcia, 2000: 177) .

Harmer (1998 :94) advises teachers not to correct mistakes made during speaking activities at the same way when correcting mistakes during a study exercise. Saying it otherwise, when the teacher provides drill exercises (listen and repeat) for students to improve their pronunciation, he will often correct every time there is a problem . But if he intervenes continually while students are engaged in, let's say, a discussion or role play ,

the effect will be to destroy the conversational flow. Hence, it will turn learners' attention from fluency to accuracy.

Thornbury adds that this fact will run counter to the need to let them experience autonomy and their performance cannot be viewed as "self regulating ". Frequent and repeated interruption from the teacher, as Thornburry argues, prevent learners to take responsibility for their own monitoring and self repair, particularly with regard to their mistakes and not errors. On the one hand, a mistake is the learner's momentary failure to apply what he already knows, due mainly to the demands of online processing . An error, on the other hand, is the speaker's lack of knowledge of the system. That is why, mistakes can be self-corrected but errors cannot.

One way of correction is when the teacher watches and listens while the speaking activities are going on. He notes down errors as well as things that seemed to go well. When the activity has finished, he can discuss these errors orally in open class. Harmer suggests that teachers should avoid saying who made the mistakes. In other words, they should not single students out for particular criticism.

Alternatively, peer feedback can also be used very effectively if learners themselves are interacting (for example, in information gap activity where one student describes a picture and the other reproduces it). The initiation of the repair can be done in pairs, groups, or in planned deliveries in front of the whole class. In this case, learners must be supplied with the necessary and specific language to initiate repair such as Sorry, could you say that again? I didn't get your idea? What do you want to say? What do you mean, Y? and others.

In addition, self evaluation and analysis is another mean to improve subsequent performances. To do so, Learners' speech can be recorded and then, they are asked to

watch and make their own transcriptions and self-analysis of these recordings. They may be asked to suggest ways of improving and avoiding such errors and this will help them to improve their oral deliveries.

CONCLUSION

Teaching speaking, as a productive macroskill, has witnessed a number of changes along the history of language teaching and learning. Teaching speaking, within the communicative approach, involves the use of tasks that encourage learners to focus their attention on meaning and not form. They should practice the task with any language they have acquired. Teachers, too, should encourage creative learning by decreasing their control over the activity and play the role of 'co-communicators' rather than 'directors'.

This chapter is closely tied to our topic of research, since it discusses interactional and authentic tasks proposed by a number of researchers in the field. The objective is to see what theory has suggested as communicative speaking tasks for beginners. Many teachers may avoid using real-life tasks with beginners, claiming that they cannot cope with them. Researchers in the field of language teaching and learning prove that, even with beginners, teachers can rely on authentic tasks at early stages.



CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN

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INTRODUCTION

The previous three chapters of our work have tackled theoretical issues related to communicative language teaching and learning. We have spoken about CLT and its principles, authentic tasks, and then narrowed the scope to discuss, more precisely; the appropriate speaking activities that can be enhance learners' oral proficiencies.

This chapter, however, is totally different from them, in that it surveys the way we have designed our work. In other words, it is developed to handle the methodological framework that we have relied on. We will start first by the methodology used and the research strategy chosen to describe, analyze, and interpret classroom behavior. Then, we will shed light on the tool with which we have collected our data and the reasons behind our choice. The next point is about the population of our study, together with the sampling strategy that we have used to select the sample. Finally, we will briefly see the aim of the developed questionnaires and the way they are organized.

IV.1.Methodology

As we have stated earlier in the introductory part of this work, this research is an attempt to show that authentic tasks are the appropriate tools to enhance learners' oral abilities. To fulfill our objective, we need to rely on a method.

Nevertheless, there is no best way of classifying research methods in the field of education. The choice of the method depends largely on the subject of the research, its aim, and the sample under investigation. A method, then, is a "...range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction" (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison,2005:44).

In other words, methods are techniques and procedures used to gather data. Since our objective is to diagnose the available speaking activities of Spotlight book two, the descriptive method will be relied on in our research. According to Robson,"As the actions

and behavior of people are a central aspect in virtually any enquiry, a natural and obvious technique is to watch what they do, to record this in some way and then to describe, analyze and interpret that we have observed"(1993:190).

Wallian and Baiche, too, regard that descriptive research relies heavily on observation as a means of collecting data. They add "It attempts to examine situations in order to establish what is the norm, i.e. what can be predicted to happen again under the same circumstances" (2001:91).

Nevertheless, we need a research strategy to describe, analyze and interpret classroom behavior. Biggam(2008) describes a research strategy as the one "...where you describe how you intend implementing your own research study ,i.e. the strategy that you intend adopting to complete your empirical study" (2008:82).

The appropriate research strategy that matches our objective is "case study". A case study, as Biggam points out, is a single instance of some bound system, where a researcher seeks to observe the characteristics of an individual unit (a child, a class, a school, or a community).

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995:137, cited in Biggam,2008:71) claim that a case study has a number of distinctive features:

- It is concerned with a rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case.
- It provides a chronological narrative of events relevant to the case.
- It blends a description of events with the analysis of them.
- It focuses on individual actors or groups of actors and seeks to understand their perceptions of events.
- It highlights specific events that are relevant to the case.
- An attempt is made to portray the richness of the case in writing up the report.

The purpose of observation, in a case study, is "... to probe deeply and to analyze intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalizations about the wider population to which that unit belongs" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005:185).

In our research, the case study is used to explain the causal links in real life situations. In other words, we are attempting to investigate the effectiveness of Spotlight's speaking activities on pupils' communicative abilities.

Our case study has a number of features. It contains a research question which is about the reasons behind learners' poor oral proficiency. The proposition has to do with the direction of where to look for relevant data. Since we are dealing with speaking activities, we should examine the way pupils are taught the speaking skill in the classroom. The unit of our analysis is second year elementary teachers and the way they taught speaking.

IV.2. Identification of the Target Population

Population, in research, is not only limited to people. It is a collective term which "... is used to describe the total quantity of cases of the type which are the subject of your study. So a population can consist of objects, people or even events, e.g. schools, miners, revolutions" (Walliam and Baiche, 2001:232).

The population we are concerned with includes learners of second year elementary level, together with their teachers. However, a number of factors may prevent us from gaining information from the whole population. These factors include time constraints, financial means, accessibility and energy. Therefore, we need to select a sample of the members who we are able to question and who are fair representation of all the members of the union.

Decisions about sampling must be taken earlier in the overall planning of any piece of research because of the factors mentioned above (expense, time,

accessibility). As such, any researcher needs to collect information from a smaller group. This smaller group forms the sample of study.

However, any researcher needs to be made aware of a number of points in sampling. The first judgment has to do with the size of the sample. The second is the representativeness and parameters of the sample. The third is about access to the sample, and the last has to do with the sampling strategy to be used.

The size of the sample, as Cohen, Manion, and Morrison argue, depends on many factors. It is first determined by the size of the whole population and how much it is heterogeneous. In other words, “for population of equal heterogeneity, the larger the population, the larger the sample that must be drawn” (2005:93). Furthermore, the size of the sample is affected by the style of the research.

Besides, Borg and Gall (1979:195, cited in Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2005:94) argue that a sample size of a given population should be large where:

- there are many variables;
- only small differences or small relationships are expected or predicted;
- the sample will be broken down into subgroups;
- the sample is heterogeneous in terms of the variables under study;
- reliable measures of the dependent variable are unavailable.

The question that arises when conducting any piece of educational research is: does the sample represent the whole population? To answer this question, researchers need to set the characteristics of the wider population clearly and correctly.

Moreover, all researchers should ensure that access to the sample is permitted and practicable. Put simply, researchers should not face problems while trying to get information from the sample selected. Such problems may be the refusal of the sample participants themselves to be questioned or interviewed.

In our research, we need, before determining the size of the sample, to choose a sampling method or strategy.

In theory, there are basically two types of sampling: random and non-random. The former, also known as probability sampling, gives a reliable representation of the whole population, whereas the latter, known as purposive sampling, is an indication that judgments are given by the researcher or the accident. In addition, probability sampling, as Cohen, Manion, and Morrison(2005) and Walliam and Baiche(2001) argue, has less risk of bias than non-random sample. Besides, probability sampling is efficient if the researcher seeks generalization. In other words, as every member of the wider population has an equal chance of being included in the sample, generalization may become possible

Probability sampling is further subdivided into a number of techniques: simple random samples; systematic samples; stratified samples; cluster samples; stage samples; and multi-phase samples. In simple random sampling, all members of the population under study have equal chances of being selected, that is why the sample should contain subjects which cover all the characteristics of the whole population. Systematic sampling, however, involves the selection of a sample in a systematic way, rather than random. Stratified sampling is used when the population has many categories (strata). By cluster, or area, sampling, we mean the selection of a sample from a large population with similar as well as heterogeneous characteristics. The stage sampling is an extension of cluster sampling, in that it requires the researcher to select the sample in stages. In multi-phase case, the purpose behind any selection changes at each stage and the sample population too.

Non-probability sampling is also further divided into: convenience sampling which involves the selection of the immediate and available sample; quota sampling

has the characteristic of selecting responses from equal numbers of different respondents; theoretical sampling, when information is held from sample of the population that knows best about the topic; dimensional sampling, where the researcher identifies many interesting factors in a population and obtains responses of every combination of those factors; and snowball technique, where the task of the researcher is to contact numbers of the population and get them to introduce him to others.

As far as our research is concerned, we have opted for a random sampling strategy because of the evidences given above (that is to say, the equal distribution of chances, the possibility of generalizing, and the minimum risk of bias). For the technique, we will rely on a simple random sampling technique. The reason behind such choice is the fact that we do not search for specific characteristics in our selected teachers and even learners. What matters is that they should be second year elementary level teachers and pupils. Thus, the population from which we select our sample is uniform and each member of the whole population under study has an equal chance of being selected and the probability of a member of the population being selected is unaffected by the selection of other members of the population. Let us now move to our sample size. For teachers, we will work with twenty-eight middle school teachers, while pupils make a total number of sixty-four classmates (two groups out of twelve).

IV.3. Identification of Data and Collection Procedure

In any piece of research, there is a great need for a method to collect data. In our case, we have opted for the questionnaire. Walliam and Baiche(2001:236) argue that the questionnaire is a good method which enables the researcher to ask questions and receive

answers without having to talk to every member of the sample. Also, it is a very flexible tool, which must be dealt with carefully so as to fulfill the requirements of a research.

The reasons behind choosing questionnaire as a method of data collection amongst others are the key features that characterize it, though it has a number of problematic aspects and drawbacks. One of these features, as Walliam and Baiche view, is its impersonality, which means that questions are fixed. In other words, questions do not change whatever the replies are, and they are the same for all respondents. The second feature of the questionnaire is the fact that there is no geographical limitation with regard to the location of the respondents. The third feature, and the one which encourages us to rely on questionnaire, is that questionnaires can be relatively economic method, in time and cost. Put simply, questionnaires are means of saving time, since data can be solicited from a great number of informants in a short period of time.

IV.4.The questionnaires

To fulfill the objective behind which we have conducted this research, we have chosen to rely on the questionnaire as a method of collecting data. We have developed two questionnaires: one for teachers and the other for learners. The former is intended to know the way second year elementary pupils are taught speaking through tasks. Besides, we want to discover whether Spotlight book two speaking activities are appropriate and cover all principles that an authentic task should have. The questionnaire contains four sections, where each one has a close relation with the theoretical part of our work. The latter questionnaire is designed for pupils. Questions are prepared in both languages: English and later translated into Arabic. The eleven items are all about the current communicative level of learners, the way they practice speaking, how they are provided feedback, and whether they get equal opportunities of participating and speaking in classroom.

CONCLUSION

To conclude our chapter, we can end up with what Mouly has said about the nature of research:

Research is best conceived as the process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through the planned and systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data. It is a most important tool for advancing knowledge, for promoting progress, and for enabling man to relate more effectively to his environment, to accomplish his purposes, and to resolve his conflicts (Mouly,1978, quoted in Cohen, Manion, and Morrison,2005:45).

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA INTERPRETATION

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INTRODUCTION

In the introductory part of this work, we stated that our interest is greatly directed towards discovering whether speaking tasks, which are designed for second year elementary level on Spotlight book two (See Appendix 5 and 6), are the appropriate and sufficient tools to develop pupils' communicative abilities. To achieve this goal, we have designed two questionnaires: one for pupils and the other for learners.

V.1. Aim of the Questionnaires

The main aim of the pupils' questionnaire is to recognize how they are taught speaking through activities. Whereas teachers' questionnaire is developed to gather information about the speaking activities, which are designed in Spotlight Book two, and if they fulfill the requirements and needs of their pupils.

V.2. Administration of the Questionnaires

The first questionnaire (the pupils one) is administered to pupils of second year elementary level. The sample represents two groups out of twelve where the number of pupils is sixty-five (**65** pupils). Those pupils are from Hacène Ghadjati school. Out of **65** distributed questionnaires, only **64** can be analyzed because the remaining copy lacks some answers. The second questionnaire, on the other hand, is handed to forty (**40**) Middle School teachers of English in Sétif, but only twenty-eight(**28**) were handed back.

V.3. Description of the Pupils' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is conducted in both languages: English and Arabic, so as to facilitate the process of understanding the questions and avoid any form of ambiguity (See Appendix 7).

Out of a total of eleven questions, five are yes / no questions, six are closed questions where respondents have to choose, from a limited range of answers, the one (s) they find appropriate. The results of the questionnaire are reported below.

Question 01: pupils’ viewpoint about the speaking tasks in spotlight Book two.

The first question is intended to know whether the pupils find oral activities interesting and motivating .

%	Participants	Response
76.56%	49	Yes
23.43%	15	No

Table 01: Pupils View about Speaking Tasks

High proportion of respondents (**76.56%**) see that the speaking tasks of Spotlight book two are helpful , **23,43 %** claim that they are not so.

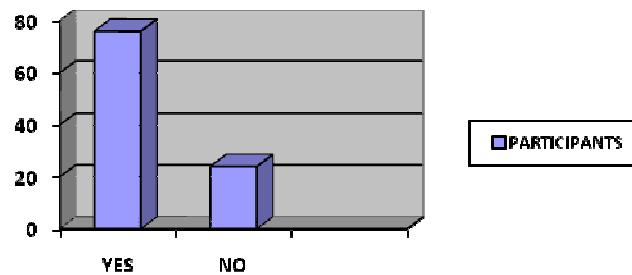


Figure 01: Pupils View about Speaking Tasks

Question 02: pupils feeling when asked to answer

In this question, we wish to know the pupils feeling when the teacher asks them to participate in an oral activity .

%	participants	Pupils' feeling
64.06%	41	-I feel ready to answer without anxiousness
25%	16	-I avoid answering because I fear from my peer's laughter.
10.93%	07	-I avoid answering because I fear from my teachers negative evaluation.

Table 02: Pupils Feeling when Answering

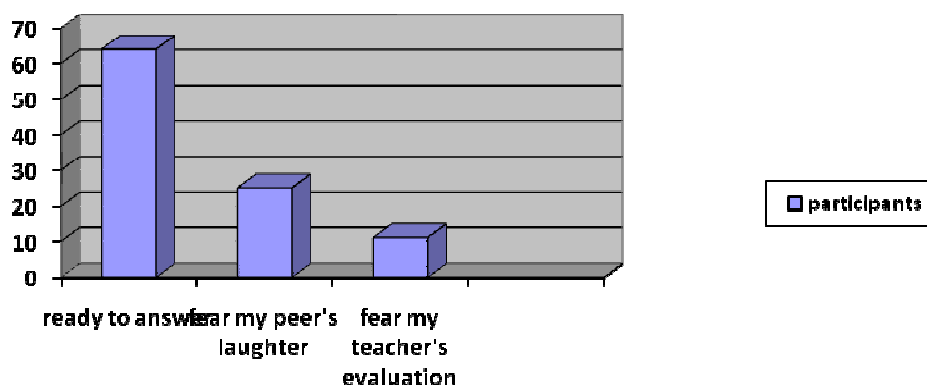


Figure 02: Pupils Feeling when Answering

Table02 shows that a great number of pupils (**64,06%**) maintain that they find themselves ready to participate in oral tasks without being anxious. Sixteen (**16**) pupils do not want to answer because they feel uneasy when their peers rise a storm of laughter about their answers . Fear from being laughed at is an affective side of anxiety . Those pupils, especially if they are with low English proficiency feel that their self-esteem is undermined. That is why, they keep silent to avoid humiliation from their peers. The same thing can be said about those pupils (seven pupils) who avoid the risk of making mistakes by keeping silent. Those pupils fear the negative evaluation of their teachers and lose face in front of them. Such feeling may have a great impact on pupils' self-perception and self-confidence. It may also hamper their educational process and cause their school failure.

Question 03: teachers’ work during oral tasks

This question seeks to discover with whom teachers work during speaking activities.

%	Participants	Response
20.31	13	-with good pupils alone
79.68%	51	-gives chance to whole class to participate

Table 03: Teachers Work During Oral Activities

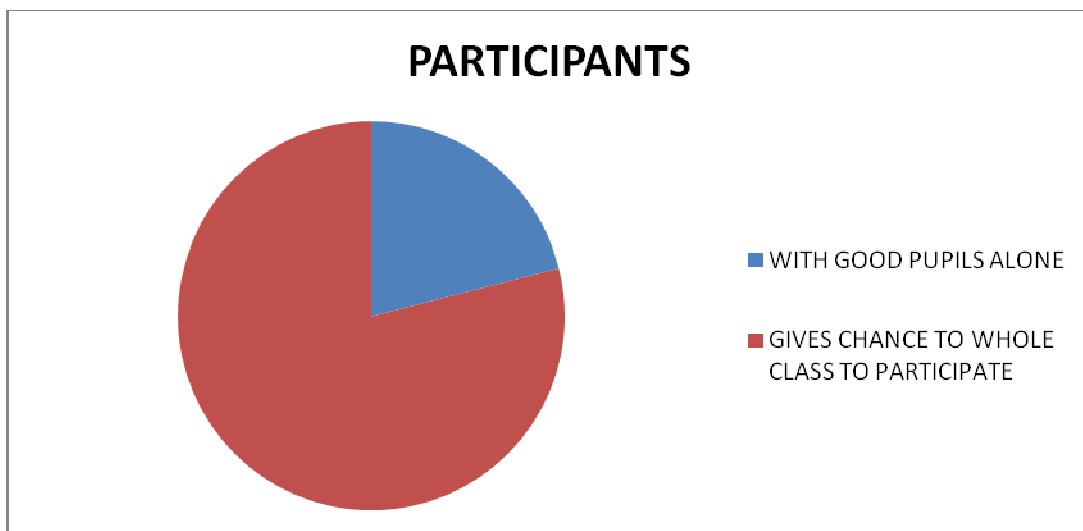


Figure 03: Teachers Work During Oral Activities

The majority of pupils (**51**) pretend that their teachers work with the whole class and give all learners an opportunity to participate. Whereas thirteen pupils (**20.31%**) claim that the classroom is dominated by good pupils. Such factor may demotivate learners and make them unready to study. They may feel that their teachers are unfair because they prefer and appreciate some learners than others .such, if we can call it, subconscious choice to allocate speaking turns to brighter pupils at the expense of weaker ones is a good reason in

pupils' reticence. Teachers may do so to save time so that more can be covered in a lesson, since brighter pupils are more likely to provide the right answer and therefore less time will be wasted in waiting for the answer, in guiding the pupil towards the right answer, or in explaining why their answer is wrong.

Question 04: playing roles in conversation

This question, too, is about teachers. It is designed to know whether teachers ask their pupils to play roles in conversations. The results are shown in table 04 below.

%	Participants	Response
65.62%	42	Yes
34.37%	22	No

Table 04: Role Plays in Conversations

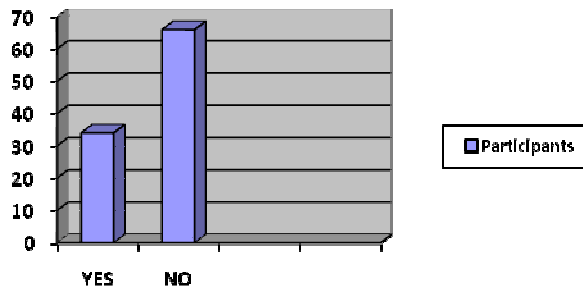


Figure 4: Role Plays in Conversations

Forty two pupils (65.62%) agree on the fact that their teachers ask them to perform dialogues. Role playing is a good technique of developing learners' communicative abilities. Role play is fun and motivating and it broadens the world of classroom to include the outside world, thus offering a much wider range of language opportunities. However, this is not the case of the remaining pupils. Twenty two (34.37%) learners say that they have not been exposed to role plays. Those pupils may be the neglected class in the

classroom. When learners are not given a chance to practice and participate such task, they may become discouraged and unable to improve their speaking capacities.

Question 05: classroom organization

This question has to do with the way teachers arrange their classroom, so as to encourage their pupils’ participation in speaking activities.

%	Participants	Classroom organization
16.92%	11	-Working in pairs
06.15%	04	-Working in groups
76.92%	50	-working individually

Table 05: Classroom Organization During Oral Tasks

Table five demonstrates that fifty pupils (**76. 92%**) maintain that they practice oral activities individually. This may be one reason, amongst many others, that increases the hesitation and embarrassment a shy learner may feel in a whole class. Learners, thus, may feel unsecure and lack a sense of motivation. Besides, it may minimize each learner’s opportunity to speak. The absence of co-operative atmosphere lessen the interaction between learners. Such teacher- learner relationship, which dominates in the classroom, limits the interactional skills learners need to practice. Teacher, in this case, plays the role of dominator and leaves little space for learners to communicate with each other.

Eleven pupils (**16. 92%**) say that they work in pairs, others (**04 pupils**) claim that their work is organized in groups.

Question 06: teachers’ correction of mistakes

This question sheds light on an important factor in teaching speaking :teachers feedback. From the question ,we want to know how does the teacher react to his pupils’ mistakes. See the results below.

%	participants	Teachers feedback
18.46%	12	-He interrupts the learner and corrects him.
52.30%	34	-He lets him finish and then corrects
29.23%	19	-He asks his peers to correct

Table 06: Teachers’ Feedback

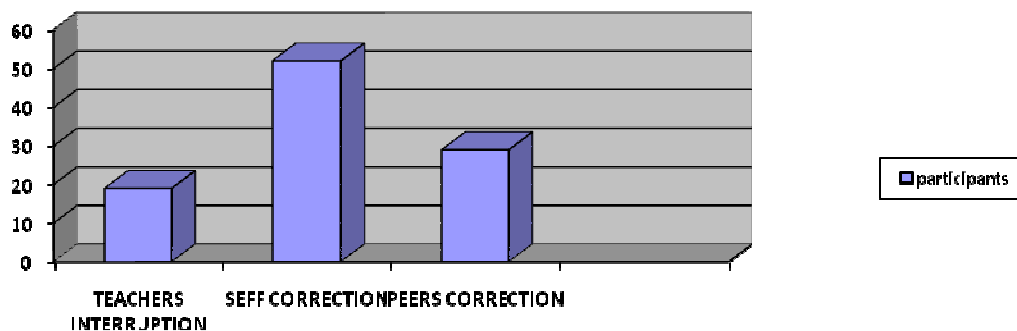


Figure 06: Teachers’ Feedback

Thirty four pupils (52.30%) show that teacher feedback is provided after the learner has finished the answer. Postponing the treatment of errors is a good technique of providing feedback. Nineteen pupils tell us that feedback is provided from learner to another.

This technique of providing feedback may increase pupils’ speaking opportunities, develop a conscious focus on language form and provide an opportunity for real communication. Furthermore, it is an acknowledgement that different individuals know more about specific areas than others. However, learner-learner feedback may bring risk, too. Some pupils may resent being corrected by their peers, especially when the correction is of a pronunciation

mistake. They do not accept that their peers have achieved a good level of English that permit them to correct others' errors. Also, we are not sure that such learner-learner feedback will help the pupil to notice the gap between what he has said and what he should have said.

Twelve pupils (**18.46%**) are interrupted , when answering and making mistakes , and corrected by their teachers. Immediate treatment of errors is a disruptive one. Interrupting learners in full flight to give them correction seems to run counter to the need to let them enhance their communicative abilities. A pupil whose response or contribution is constantly interrupted by the teacher may find it very frustrating. Teacher immediate feedback may also have the counterproductive effect of inhibiting gradual fluency by forcing pupils' attention on to accuracy.

Question 07: pupils' reaction when corrected

This question is a continuation of the preceding one. It is a close-ended question where learners are asked to respond either by 'yes' or 'no'.

%	Participants	response
62.5%	40	Yes
37.5%	24	No

Table 07: Pupils' Reaction Towards Teachers' Interruption

The majority of pupils (**40**) do not face the problem of demotivation when they are interrupted by the teacher to correct their mistakes. Twenty-four pupils, however, point out that teachers' interruption hamper them to finish answering. They may keep silent and avoid participating anymore.

Question 08: teachers’ behaviour with uncompleted answers

The development of this question is an attempt to discover the way teachers behave when the pupils missed the appropriate word to complete their answer.

%	participant s	Response
57.81%	37	-He helps me and gives me the word I missed
20.31%	13	-He asks me to say it Arabic and then he translates it.
21.87%	14	-He interrupts me and asks another pupil to answer

Table 08: Teachers’ Reaction Towards Uncompleted Answers

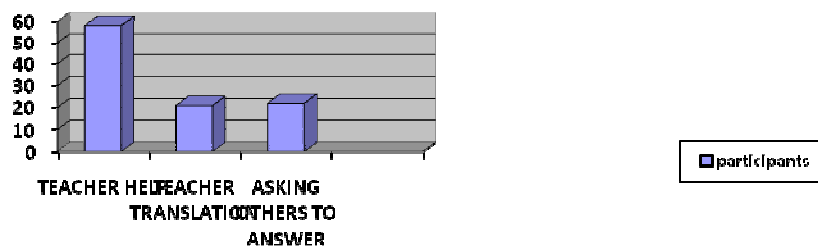


Figure 08: Teachers’ Reaction Towards Uncompleted Answers

In this table, thirty-seven (57.81%) pupils show that they get a direct help from their teacher whenever they miss a word. Instead of doing so, teachers may help the pupils to develop facilitation and compensation strategies and rely on them when they encounter such breakdowns. Thirteen pupils, out of sixty-four, say that the way they are given the word is by translating it from Arabic to English. Interfering the mother tongue in language course may encourage learners to focus their attention on it. They may come back to Arabic every time.

They may translate everything word for word to check whether they have understood the task before attempting to speak. Teachers need to minimize the use of the mother tongue, so as to encourage learners to use the target language. Fourteen pupils claim that they are not given a chance to think about the missed word. They are directly interrupted by the teacher who prefers to ask someone else to answer. This act is not advised in classes because it may turn the pupils angry and unready to participate again. This is also another reason that discourage the pupils and demotivate them.

Question 09: Amount of pupils’ talk in the classroom

This question is devoted to investigate the learners’ amount of English talk in the classroom.

No answer	rarely	Sometimes	Very often	response
15	09	36	04	participants
23.43%	14.06%	56.25%	6.25%	%

Table 09: Pupils’ Amount of Participation in Class

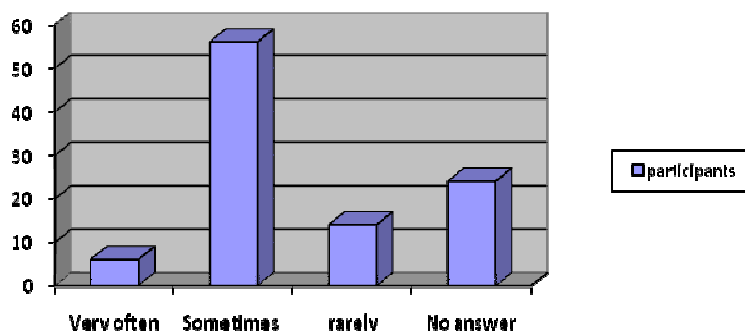


Figure 09: Pupils’ Amount of Participation in Class

Out of sixty-four respondents, merely half of the pupils (56.25%) report that they have an average participation; 23.43% do not provide any possible answer. 14.06% argue to have a rare participation in the classroom. In fact, there are a number of factors that contribute to pupils’ reluctance to participate actively. Low English proficiency is an

important factor, in that pupils may know the answer of the task but re unable to express it in English. The psychological aspects of classroom learning may also hamper learners from speaking. Many pupils may avoid answering or speaking in English for fear that they may make silly mistakes and lose face in front of their classmates and teacher. Besides, pupils may not have self-confidence in their language proficiency. The intolerance of silence is another factor that makes learners disturbed and do not know what to do. Such phenomenon is widespread in our classes where we find the teacher waits for a short time after his question, and then continues his questions without giving pupils very much time to come up with an answer. Moreover, pupils silence may be due to incomprehensible input. However, since the pupils do not indicate this to the teacher, no repair can be done. In addition, the subject matter of the activity may not interest and motivate pupils to participate.

Question 10: Teachers' encouragement

In this question, we want to know whether the teacher encourages those pupils who do not speak English.

%	Participants	Response
71.87%	46	Yes
28.12%	18	No

Table10: Teachers' Encouragement

The majority of pupils point out that they get the needed encouragement from their teachers. 28.12% claim that they do not receive such encouragement.

Question 11: Pupils' level of proficiency

The last question is intended to show whether pupils feel any improvement when practicing oral activities.

%	Participants	Response
90.62%	58	Yes
09.73%	06	No

Table 11: Pupils' Level

The results obtained show that the majority of pupils (90.62%) agree on the fact that they feel some improvement; while 09.73% claim that they do not feel any advance at their level.

V. 4. Description of Teachers' Questionnaire

Teacher questionnaire (Appendix 8) includes twenty-six items. It is made of four sections. They focus on the following areas:

- teachers' understanding of CLT,
- teachers' understanding of a task,
- teachers' views of oral activities in Spotlight Book Tow,
- teachers' views on implementing authentic speaking tasks.

V.5. Results Analysis

Section 1: Teachers' understanding of CLT

Question one: teachers' focus on grammar

In this question, we want to know whether teachers focus their attention on grammar instead of communication. The results are shown below.

%	Participants	Response
21.42%	06	Yes
78.57%	22	No

Table 01: Teacher's Emphasize on Grammar

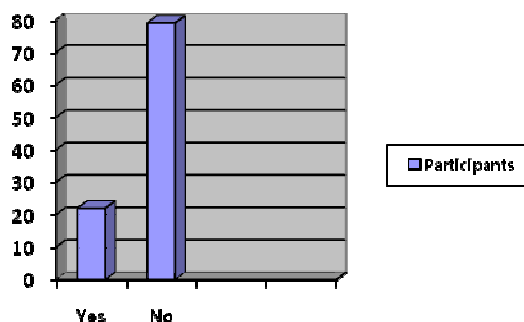


Figure 01: Teacher's Emphasize on Grammar

The results show that the majority of teachers do not give great attention to grammar. 06 teachers (21.42%) claim that their attention is primarily focused on grammar and not communication. Teaching speaking, in fact, is not only a matter of developing the ability to produce correct sentences. It is insufficient to subscribe to this view because learners need also to acquire how these sentences are used to communicate effectively.

Question02:Teacher's way of dealing with grammatical mistakes

Here, the aim is to discover if teachers pay attention to grammatical mistakes or neglect them and leave pupils to speak.

%	Participants	Response
96.42%	27	-pay little attention to grammatical mistakes
3.57%	01	-pay great attention to grammatical mistakes

Table02: Teacher's Perception of Grammatical Mistakes

96.42% demonstrate that they do not give much attention to grammatical mistakes; rather they aim at developing learners' communicative competence by allowing them to speak freely. Only one teacher points out that he does not ignore grammatical mistakes. If this teacher is constantly intervening and interrupting his pupils to correct their mistakes, he may inhibit their fluency development and urge them to direct their attention on to

accuracy. This teacher, who feels uncomfortable about letting errors go, may frustrate his pupils from participating and get them demotivated.

Question03: teacher's use of materials

This question is developed to know the type of materials teachers use during oral activities.

%	Participants	Materials
43.75%	14	Pedagogic materials
56.25%	18	Authentic materials

Table03: Teacher's Use of Materials

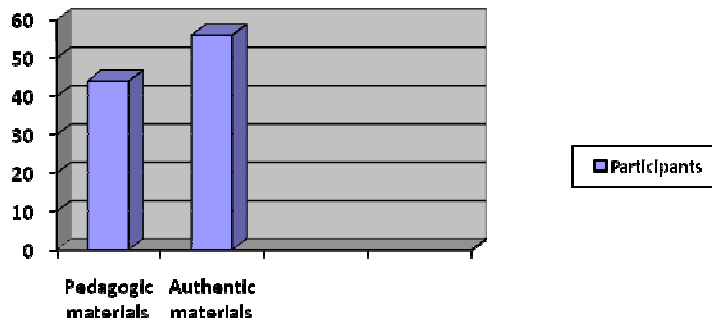


Figure 03: Teacher's Use of Materials

The table above shows that some teachers answer with both choices (we have thirty-two participations). 18 respondents (56.25%) say that they rely on authentic materials during speaking tasks, while 14 agree that they use pedagogic materials. The sole reliance on the latter type is not enough, if the aim is to develop learners' communicative abilities.

Question04: Reasons of Using Pedagogic Materials

This question is administrated to those teachers who point out that they make use of pedagogic materials. One reason behind such choice lies in the fact that the majority of available materials are pedagogic ones. It is not so easy to get hold of authentic materials because they are teaching outside an English-speaking context. Another reason is the

easiness of such materials for pupils. The aim behind using such materials is to help pupils know the concrete meaning of the building blocks of language. Others think that pedagogic tools, in Spotlight Book Two, are adapted to the pupils' level and needs.

Question05: Reasons for Using Authentic Materials

The question is directed to teachers who choose authentic materials. One reason is that those tools are more original and reflect the culture of the original country far from any subjective changes. Teachers argue that they prefer to put pupils in real situations which they may encounter outside the classroom. Also, such tools help learners to speak and express themselves fluently. The use of authentic materials , for some teachers, depend on the size of the classroom. It means that they make use of those tools with small classes.

Section 2: Teachers' understanding of a task

Question06: Spotlight book two oral activities

This question is designed to know if speaking tasks, which are found in Spotlight book tow, are communicatively directing.

%	Participants	Response
60.71%	17	Yes
39.28%	11	No

Table04: Oral Activities on Spotlight Book Two

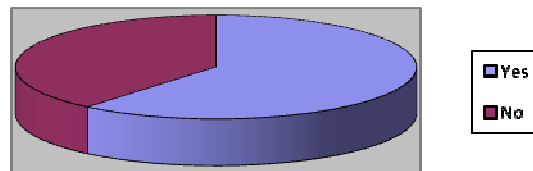


Figure 04: Oral Activities on Spotlight Book Two

Seventeen teachers (60.71%) point out that those activities are communicatively directing. Eleven teachers (39.28%) claim that those speaking tasks are not based on communication purposes.

Question07:teachers' use of tapes

This question aimed at discovering whether teachers make their learners listen to any recorded conversations or songs on a tape.

%	Participants	Response
64.28%	18	Yes
35.71%	10	No

Table0: Using Tapes in the Classroom

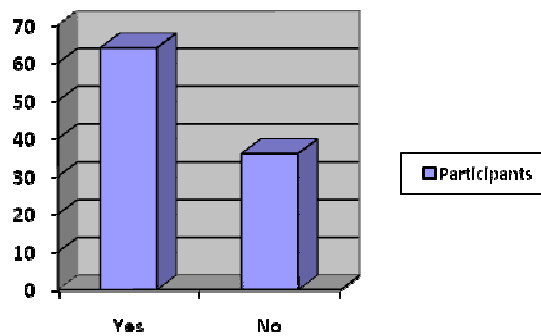


Figure 05: Using Tapes in the Classroom

The majority of teachers agree that they make use of a tape in the classroom. 35.71% show that they do not rely on such material in the classroom. When using recorded texts, teachers should be aware not to neglect the point that learners need to have a basic understanding of the text before they embark on close study of its language features.

Question08: Reasons of Using the Tape

The question is administrated to teachers who pretend that they use tapes in their classes. One of the reasons is to expose pupils to original materials. Such visual aids may motivate pupils and develop their communicative proficiencies. Besides, they can be used as a warming up for the coming lecture. Using tapes can improve learners' pronunciation.

Others claim that it is a good opportunity for pupils to listen to native speakers and develop their listening abilities.

Question09: Reasons for not Using the Tape

The question is directed to those teachers who say that they do not rely on tapes. They argue that such visual aids are not available in schools. Over-crowded classes do not permit teachers to cope with tapes. Also, time available to complete the whole program is short, hence inhibiting teachers to use tapes.

Question10: helpfulness of oral tasks

The reason behind developing this question is to discover the usefulness of oral activities.

%	Participants	Response
100%	28	Yes
0%	0	No

Table06: Usefulness of Spotlight Book Two Oral Tasks

All respondents share the same idea. They all agree that speaking tasks, which are designed in Spotlight Book Two, are helpful for pupils of second year elementary level.

Question11: Learners' needs within oral activities

In this question, we want to know whether oral tasks, in Spotlight book two, match the pupils' needs and interests.

%	Participants	Response
85.71%	24	Yes
14.28%	04	No

Table07: Speaking Tasks and Learners' Needs

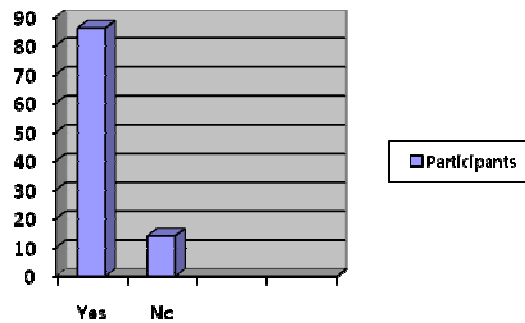


Figure 07: Speaking Tasks and Learners' Needs

The results show that 24 teachers (85.71%) claim that the designed activities correspond to pupils' needs and interests. 04 respondents (14.28%) share the idea that those tasks have nothing to do with learners' needs.

Question12: oral activities and their resemblance to real life

The question is intended to discover whether oral tasks resemble real life.

%	Participants	Responses
64.28%	18	Yes
35.71%	10	No

Table08: Oral Tasks' Resemblance to Real Life

More than half respondents (64.28%) view that those tasks have some common features with the outside world. Ten teachers agree that those speaking tasks do not match real-life. Authenticity is one of the characteristic features of a speaking task. Learners need to have some exposure to the real world, and this can only be achieved through materials used to

teach them such skill. Needless to say, course designers and even teachers can adapt real-world tasks and modify them in a way that best suit learners' level and needs.

Question13: input sources

The question has to do with the input of speaking tasks. We want to know what are the sources that can be relied on to design activities. One of these sources is the internet sites from which a number of interesting topics and themes can be derived and used in class. Other resources include: magazines, newspapers, books, media, pupils' experience in and outside the classroom, other visual aids like video films, dictionaries, leaflet, and so on

Section 3: Teacher's view of oral activities in Spotlight book two

Question14: the principles of oral tasks

In this question, we have attempted to know what are the principles that govern speaking activities of the book.

	%	No	%	Yes	Principles
	39.28%	11	60.71%	17	-centered on the learner
	28.57%	08	71.42%	20	-communicatively directing
	35.71%	10	64.28%	18	-rich input
	48.27%	14	51.72%	15	-meaningful and comprehensible

Table 09: Oral Activities Principles

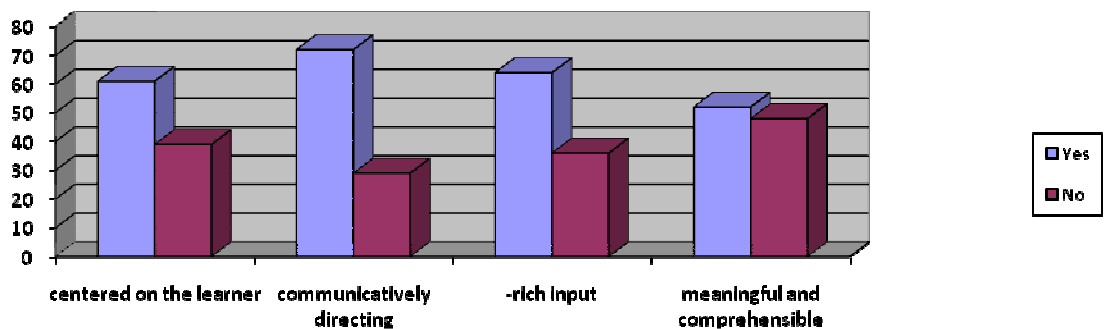


Figure 09: Oral Activities Principles

The results of the above figure demonstrate that great proportion of respondents (60.71%) agree that those tasks are centered on the learner; 39.28% show that they are not so. As far as the second principle is concerned, 20 respondents view that they are communicatively directing; while 28.57% claim that such tasks do not have any communicative purpose. 64.28% say that those activities include rich input. 14 teachers (48.27%) argue that speaking tasks are neither meaningful nor comprehensible.

Question15: oral activities base

The question is intended to discover the base of those tasks.

%	Participants	Response
0%	0	-written language
0%	0	-spoken language
100%	28	-both

Table10: the Base of Oral Activities

All teachers agree that Spotlight Book Two speaking activities are based on written and spoken language. In fact, writing has a useful role to play as an initial stage in the acquirement of newly encountered language for speaking. It can act as a way of easing transition from learning to using. One may think that speaking tasks should only be based on spoken language. This is not true because all authentic written texts that pupils study will be lived in the real environment.

Question16:teacher's reliance on other sources

The aim of the question is to know whether teachers make use of other sources besides the school book.

%	Participants	Response
85.71%	24	Yes
14.28%	04	No

Table11: Teacher's Use of Other Sources

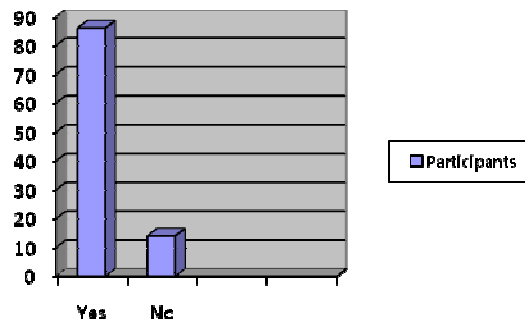


Figure 11: Teacher's Use of Other Sources

The majority of teachers claim that they do not make use of other sources. They rely solely on the book provided by the educational administration. Whereas, 14.28% point out that they use those resources in their classes.

Question17: reasons of not using other sources

The question is administrated to a particular group of respondents: those who do not rely on other sources. One major reason that frustrates teachers to rely on other sources is the fact of time pressure. Teachers are required to finish the program in due time and they taught three hours per week. This short period, with the longest program, is an obstacle that inhibits those educators to use other sources. Others pretend that they do not have extra sources. Some teachers claim that, whenever they find the activities incomprehensible, they change them themselves, taking into consideration that such adaptation and modification will not deviate the task from its designed objective.

Question18: teacher's amount of talk

In this question, we want to discover who dominate classroom talk, is it the teacher or his learners.

%	Participants	Response
32.14%	09	-more than pupils
67.85%	19	-less than pupils

Tablee12: Teacher's Amount of Talk.

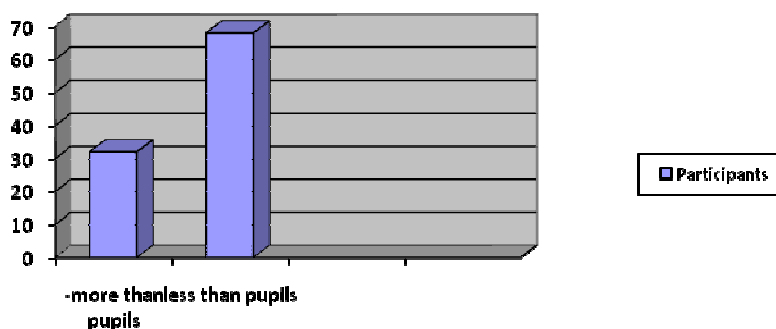


Figure 12: Teacher's Amount of Talk.

From the above figure, we understand that 67.85% show that they talk less than their pupils do. The remaining teachers (32.14%) agree that they speak more than their pupils. Teachers who dominate speech during each session limit the communicative functions that pupils need to use and the interactional skills they need to practice. Teachers, who play the role of directors rather than co-communicators, frustrate learners who are eager to participate from speaking. In this way, they minimize their opportunities of developing their communicative proficiencies.

Question19: reasons of speaking more than pupils

The question is designed to diagnose the reasons that let teachers speak than their pupils. One reason is the fact that pupils face difficulties to speak English because of their poor proficiencies. Also, they claim that the syllabus is bad and themes are difficult. Pupils are timid and avoid participating in classroom. Teachers think that they have to dominate

the classroom to make learners understand easily. For others, the aim behind dominating the class is to stop pupils from chatting and getting noisy.

Question 20: Reasons of speaking less than pupils.

Teachers, who say that they speak less than their pupils, did not say so from scratch. They argue that pupils must be given opportunities to dominate the classroom and communicate freely. In this way too, teachers help pupils to build self-confidence and rely on themselves. They allow them to interact orally as much as possible. Also, the aim is to make the learning process learners-centered and give them more chances to correct each other.

Section 04: Teachers’ views on implementing authentic tasks

Question21: teacher's use of further speaking tasks

We want to discover, from this question, whether teachers make use of additional activities besides the ones included in the book.

%	No	%	Yes	Tasks
03.57	01	96.42%	27	Role plays
28.57%	09	67.85%	19	Information gathering tasks
46.42%	13	53.57%	15	Problem-solving tasks
53.57%	15	46.42%	13	Debates/discussions
28.57%	09	67.85%	19	Interviews
75%	21	25%	07	Surveys

Table13: Additional Speaking Tasks

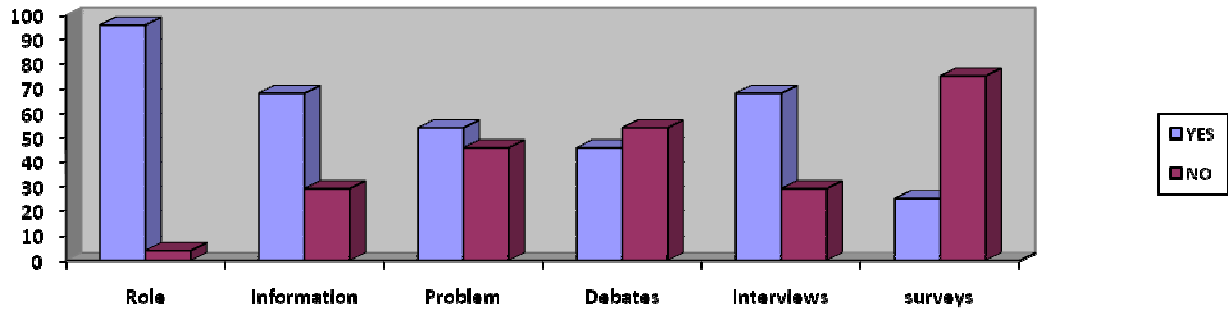


Figure 13: Additional Speaking Tasks

The results obtained demonstrates that almost all respondents (except) use role plays activities. As far as information gathering activity is concerned, 67.85% say that they rely on such task; while 28.57% do not make use of. Problem-solving activities are adopted by 15 teachers and neglected by 13. Debates and discussion are rejected by 15 teachers, whereas interviews are used by 19 teachers. The last type of activity is greatly neglected by teachers (75%) show that they do not rely on surveys in their teaching.

Question22: reasons for selecting some tasks instead of others

Those teachers who claim that they use the activities suggested above argue that they are the most frequent ones and relevant to pupils' level. They help learners to use what they have learnt from such tasks in real life situations. Also, teachers think that such tasks turn pupils active, they like English. The chosen activities match pupils' needs and interests. Besides, some teachers pretend that such activities help pupils to enrich their vocabulary luggage.

Question23: reasons for omitting some suggested tasks.

Time pressure and over-crowded classes work as barriers for teachers' use of some of the mentioned tasks. The difficulty of some tasks is another reason that makes teachers avoid their use. From the point of view of teachers, we understand that they feel that such tasks are too demanding and pupils, at this age, cannot cope with them. Another reason, as

teachers pretend, is the non-availability of these tasks. Time pressure is another reason that hamper teachers from using some of the mentioned tasks.

Question24: classroom organization

In this question, we have asked teachers to rank the activities' grouping according to their degree of importance.

4		3		2		1		Order
%	P	%	P	%	P	%	P	Grouping
64.28%	18	28.57%	08	3.57%	01	3.57%	01	Individual work
3.57%	01	28.57%	08	60.71%	17	7.14%	02	Pair work
17.85%	05	28.57%	08	28.57%	08	25%	07	Work in groups
17.85%	05	10.71%	03	7.14%	02	64.28%	18	Whole class with teacher

Table14: Teacher's Grouping of Pupils During Oral Tasks

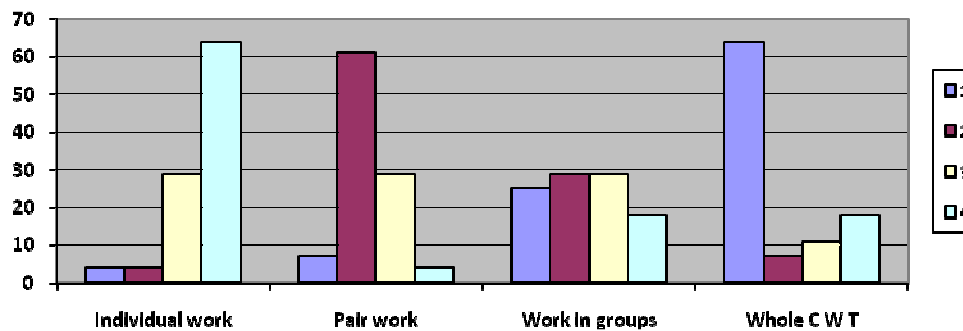


Figure 14: Teacher's Grouping of Pupils During Oral Tasks

The table above shows that the first grouping of pupils (64.28%) is the one f whole class with teacher. It means that all pupils participate at the same time, with their teacher's guidance and help. 08 respondents put work in groups in the third class; while 17 teachers (60.71%) agree for the classification of pair work in the second class. 18 respondents (64.28%) see that working individually is in the last class. Teachers, who work with whole

class, should be prepared to include learners as co-participants in the activity and forget their traditional role as directors and controllers. When setting up group work, teachers should plan and monitor how to arrange pupils in groups carefully. If not, such group interactions may hinder learning and weaken social relations between pupils. For instance, differences between learners in the group may lead higher-level learners to refuse work with weaker partners. In groups, where one pupil dominates the others, interaction can be unproductive and unreflective. Also, other pupils may think that they have to speed up and finish early, at the expense of thinking and learning.

Question25: teacher's role

The question is intended to discover the role that teachers think they must perform during oral tasks.

%	Participants	Teacher's role
3.44%	01	Dominator
96.55%	28	Guide
0%	0	No role

Table15: Teacher's Role

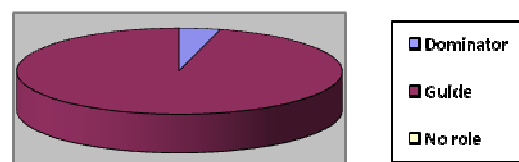


Figure 15: Teacher's Role

All teachers (28) share the same belief that the teacher should be a guide to his learners. One teacher sees that he should play both roles. He may think that, to keep

control over the class, he should always be severe and do not give enough chances for pupils to speak and interact.

Question26: teacher's feedback

The question is designed to see how teachers correct their pupils' mistakes.

%	Participants	Choices
02.27%	01	-directly after the error
40.90%	18	-deleted correction
13.63%	06	-ask the pupil who made the mistake to correct it
43.18%	19	-ask his peers to correct

Table16: Teachers' Corrective Feedback

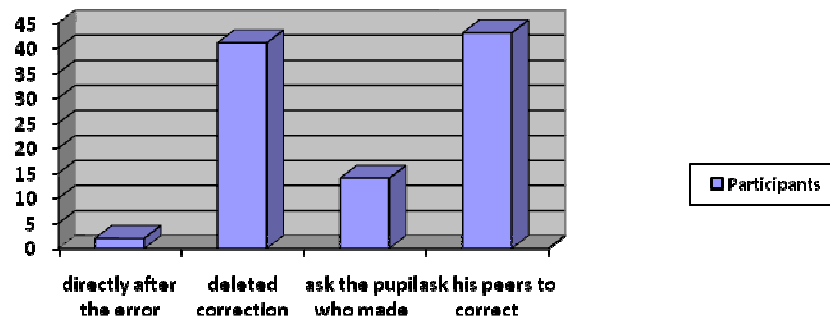


Figure 16: Teachers' Corrective Feedback

The majority of choices (43.18%) show that teachers ask the respondent's peers to correct his mistake. 40.90% prefer deleted treatment of errors. They let the pupil finish his answer and then correct him. 13.63% say that they involve the learners, who made the mistake, to correct it; while just 02.27% claim that they provide direct feedback. They interrupt the pupils and correct their mistakes.

CONCLUSION

In this second part, we have analyzed two questionnaires (one for teachers and the other for pupils) to diagnose the usefulness and efficacy of speaking tasks designed in Spotlight

Book Two for second year elementary level. The pupils' questionnaire is made of eleven items, whereas teachers' questionnaire contains four sections with a total number of twenty-six items. From our analysis of the answers provided by pupils and teachers, we draw the following results:

- The majority of teachers and even pupils agree on the point that speaking activities of Spotlight Book Two are helpful.
- Some teachers still focus their attention on grammar and not communication.
- Both pedagogic and authentic materials are used by teachers.
- Speaking activities of Spotlight Book Two are based on written and spoken language.
- Teachers rely solely on the school book and do not make use of extra sources.
- Pupils are not given enough opportunities to speak in class.
- All teachers agree that their role is to guide pupils while practicing.
- Pupils practice speaking tasks individually.
- Some pupils feel uncomfortable when they are asked to participate because they fear their peers' laughter and even their teachers' negative evaluation.
- Some teachers work with higher-level pupils and neglect weaker ones.
- Some teachers do not use the right technique to correct their pupils' errors. Sometimes, they interrupt them and correct.
- Teachers have the great proportion of talk in the classroom, at the expense of their pupils.

CHAPTER SIX: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

Language teaching in Algerian middle schools, mainly second year classes, has encountered a number of crucial problems and deficiencies in pupils' language proficiency, in speaking skills in particular.

Building on the results obtained in the field study chapter, we see it worth all the trial to suggest some points that may remedy the lacks found while teaching speaking activities.

To encourage speaking proficiency to occur, the following recommendations should be taken into consideration:

VI.1. Teachers should encourage their pupils to talk and participate

Some second year pupils do not talk in English willingly or we can say that they prefer silence and avoid participation. One way to tackle this problem is to find its root and start from there. If the problem is cultural, that is, in our culture it is unusual for pupils to talk out loudly in class, or if they really feel shy about talking in front of other pupils, then one way to break such cultural barriers is to create and establish our own classroom culture where speaking aloud in classroom is the norm. One way to do this is by, for instance, decorating the walls with posters of English language and culture. From the first day, teachers should teach their pupils English and keep on teaching it and encourage them to ask questions in English. Another way to make pupils speak is to allocate some marks for class performance and let pupils know they are being assessed continually on their speaking practice in class throughout the school year.

A completely different reason for pupils' silence may be that the class activities are boring or are pitched at the wrong level. When speaking activities are not highly interesting, pupils may finish them quickly and then just sit in silence or they talk noisily in

their mother tongue. Teachers, in this particular case, need to take a closer look at the type of speaking tasks and see if they really capture pupils' needs and interests and create a real need for communication.

Another way to encourage pupils speak in English is simply to ask them to speak in English with you, as teacher.

VI.2. Teachers should provide their pupils with opportunities for practicing specific skills

Teachers can also help students adapt their speeches and informal talks so as to correspond to the intended audience, the information to be communicated, and the circumstances of the occasion at which they will speak. The teachers can illustrate how well-known speakers have adapted their presentations in ways to suit these different circumstances. Teachers can enable learners to present ideas to individual peers, peer groups and entire classes of students. They can learn to speak on a subject of their own choosing or on teacher assigned topics. Preparing for debates and participating in them help students to develop their speaking abilities. Students also benefit from interviewing others and from participation in dramatic presentations. Students may enjoy speaking about their personal experiences. When given this opportunity, they can benefit from instruction in the elements of good story-telling. Students can also learn speaking and social skills by suggesting possible improvements to one another's practice speeches. Positive experiences in speaking can lead to greater skills and confidence in speaking in front of larger groups.

VI. 3. Teach your pupils to adapt their speech to specific situations

Pupils need to know how speakers differ from one another and how particular circumstances call for different forms of speech. They can learn how speaking styles affect listeners. Thus, the rate at which they speak, the volume and the precision of pronunciation may differ substantially from one situation to another. It is useful for students to know that speech should differ in formality, such as when speaking to a judge, a teacher, a parent or a playmate. They may also benefit from learning about the differences among various dialects.

VI. 4. Teachers should encourage their pupils to decrease the use of their mother tongue

Teachers should give their pupils all the tools they need to be able to complete the task. If the language is pitched too high they may revert to their L1, likewise if the task is too easy they may get bored and revert to their L1. Teachers of second year pupils have to be aware of the fact that some students will often use Arabic as an emotional support. At first, they translate everything word for word. In the case of these pupils, teachers have to be patient as most likely their confidence grows in using English their, dependence on using their L1 will begin to disappear.

Another way to discourage pupils speaking in their L1 is to walk around the classroom monitoring their participation and giving support and help to them. If certain pupils persist in speaking in L1, then teachers can ask them to stay after class and speak to them individually and explain to them the importance of speaking English and ask them why they do not feel comfortable speaking English.

VI.5. Teachers should organize their classes in different ways during oral practice

Developing oral/speech skills does not mean practicing the structural elements of speech (phonology, vocabulary and grammar) alone. There ought to be a basis of content and situation to keep the learner motivated. Since speaking is a

communication tool in society by which people stay in touch, make contact and share understanding, practice in speaking also ought to be done in groups with a concrete task on hand.

Not only does working in groups help the learners to socialize in simulated micro-groups of society, it also allows a larger number of students to participate.

Group work gives an opportunity to learners to speak in small groups comprising of their classmates and this is a non-threatening situation for them. It reduces the hesitation and embarrassment a shy learner may feel in a whole class. It allows the learners to open up and shed some of their inhibitions. In addition, group work provides a feeling of security and a sense of belonging as the learners sit huddled, working out a problem, putting their heads together in a non-competitive atmosphere.

An atmosphere of healthy competition is built when the groups try to see which group has performed best. Individuals have the comfort and security of their group. Gains and losses, if any, are shared by all members of the groups alike.

Besides, teachers can adopt speaking activities where pupils are required to work in pairs. For instance, Describe and Arrange activity involves pair work where one pupil has a number of elements (examples, pictures) arranged in a certain way. The other pupil has the same elements, but not arranged. What he has to do is to arrange them by talking to his partner without looking at the partner's pictures.

VI.6. Teachers should develop tasks that really reflect the pupils' needs and interest

Secondary year elementary level teachers are invited to follow the techniques below to teach oral skills.

The Conversation Class or the Question and Answer sessions

One of the common methods of teaching oral skills is the 'Question and Answer session in which the teacher sits with a group of learners and asks them questions

about their home, family, study, play, etc. The learners answer the question with no other motivation but to respond to the teacher's queries. With young learners, it serves a purpose, however limited it may be, as the learners are still learning to string words into appropriate responses.

The Topic Based Discussion Class

Another kind of fluency-based activity is the topic-based discussion. The teacher plans discussions on different topics and encourages all the learners to participate. Even though the topics are interesting, the learners may or may not be inclined to participate, as it is a discussion for the sake of discussion. In addition, the discussion may not carry personal relevance for the learners and thus, they have no incentive to talk. It is thus important that the learner must have some involvement with the topic so that he may share understanding of the topic with others.

Task Centered Fluency Practice

With increasing importance being given to Communicative Language Teaching, communicative tasks are being used to develop fluency. These activities are done in small groups by the learners, and may involve interaction, asking and answering questions, exchanging notes, agreeing or disagreeing or role-play. The tasks have a clear purpose and a tangible output, which depends on effective interaction between or amongst the learners. Those learners have a concrete task to work with and clear guidelines given by the teacher in a situation, which is akin to problem solving. It also provides a basis for feedback.

VI.7. Teachers should know how to reduce their pupils' anxiety

Teachers should know how to behave with anxious pupils. They have to establish a good relationship with pupils, allowing them to discuss with their peers before offering answers. Teachers should avoid some unsuccessful strategies like obliging the unready

pupils to answer the question. When the teachers ask their pupils to act out scenes from plays, they need to be careful not to choose the shyest learners, and to create the right atmosphere in the class. They need to give those pupils enough time to prepare themselves and rehearse their roles before performing them. When pupils are working, the teacher can go through the class, drawing attention to appropriate stress, intonation and speed.

-The teachers' role should be developed in order to facilitate classroom environment.

Patterns of classroom interaction should be promoted (pair work and group work).

- Information technology should be brought into the classroom in various forms of activity, or project. This technology can be brought in the form of films, radios, videos, which are available in many EFL settings, along with newspapers and magazines. These affordable sources enable the EFL students to increase their opportunities in learning to speak proficiently. A number of other technologies encourage and support the development and maintenance of high levels of language proficiency. The Internet brings authentic language and cultural experiences to students and provides opportunities for them to interact with native speakers, to access culturally appropriate and high-level reading and listening texts.

- Interactive program should be recommended in assistance with the practice of speaking English. Students should be encouraged to involve themselves more in interaction with the target language.

- For teacher training, it is important to develop Middle school teachers to have opportunities to improve their English speaking proficiency as well as the other language skills. In doing this, workshop or conference in language teaching should be provided.

- Teachers can establish learning environment to compensate the authentic atmosphere in language learning using pair work and group work which help in carrying out the learning process to be successful.

- Teachers should also choose the appropriate time to provide feedback for pupils. They should not interrupt pupils when they are engaged in answering, otherwise they may cause their failure and avoidance of interacting.
- Teachers should play the roles of prompters, guides, participants and forget their traditional role as dominators and authoritative.
- They may also teach pupils some compensatory strategies such as repetition, paraphrasing and so on.
- Teachers are not obliged to stick to their book's activities. Rather, they may develop their own tasks and adopt them to pupils' level, interest and needs.
- When teaching the structural system, teachers should start with forms that pupils need to master for productive use (for instance, can+inf; should+ have +p.p) and then on those they need for comprehension purposes (the distinction between “shall” and “will”).
- When introducing and practicing structures, teachers should do so through topics that pupils want to talk about.
- Teachers may make a check-list of important communicative functions and make sure that pupils, during course, practice ways of expressing them.
- Teachers should keep in mind that their role as co-communicators place them on an equal basis with the learners. This helps to break down tension and barriers between them.
- The pupils should not be constantly corrected. Teachers should regard errors with greater tolerance, as a completely normal phenomenon in the development of communicative skills.
- Teachers should allow their pupils to progress at their own rate whenever possible.
- Teachers should reduce social comparisons of achievement.
- Teachers should give pupils opportunities to improve their performance.
- Teachers should encourage their pupils' participation in the evaluation process.

- Teachers can make tasks fun.
- Teachers can provide incentives and rewards, if needed.
- Teachers should explain connections between present learning and later life.
- Teachers should reduce task risk without over simplifying the task.
- When choosing the appropriate tasks, teachers should connect problems in school to the real problems outside.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Our work has surveyed the speaking activities, which are designed for the Algerian second year middle school pupils, and their effects on learners' oral achievement. Before we have discussed those tasks, we have gone along three chapters, each of which has a close relationship with the aim of our study.

In the first chapter, we have seen that CLT emerged as a result of the failure of previous methods to cope with the communicative ways of teaching/learning the language. Communicative competence, as a key component of this approach, requires learners to develop a number of abilities. Some of them are: social, interactional, and linguistic aspects of classroom language. CLT stresses the fact that tasks should be used as an important part in a lesson. Besides, students should be supplied with rich input. One way to do so is to use authentic materials. Also, teachers should rely more on the target language and lessen their use of L1. Meaningful and comprehensible input is another feature of CLT. It means that teachers have to introduce new knowledge and keep in mind that it must have a closer link with learners' background knowledge, so as to avoid any form of troubles while acquiring it. Furthermore, teachers should encourage cooperative and collaborative atmosphere among learners. All these features do not reveal that learners should forget about form. On the contrary, both form and meaning are in a complementary relationship. We have also discovered that authentic materials are not devised specifically for pedagogic purposes, but can be converted into the classroom if the aim is to enrich learners' communicative abilities. Such claim does not reflect that those tools are free from any disadvantages. In fact, they may form a source of distraction for learners, as well as

teachers as they include difficult and sometimes unwanted items. For inexperienced teachers, those materials may be time consuming.

In the second chapter, we have discussed issues related to communicative tasks, starting with the definition of a task. We have agreed that task is an activity which has a non-linguistic goal and a clear outcome to be reached. Task has a number of components. We have seen that the adopted model is the one of Nunan because all elements are seen to affect each other in an interactive way. Goal, as the first component, is the objective behind developing a given task. Input is the second element that makes up a task. It is the verbal and non-verbal materials of the task. The activity input can be derived from a number of sources, including letters, photographs. Seminar programmes, magazines, and so on. Learners' role, in tasks, has greatly changed from that of the past. Learners now are seen as active participant who have to negotiate meaning and interact between each other. Teachers, on the other hand, are assigned the role of facilitators, organizers of sources, guides, needs analysts, counselors, and group process managers. The setting is the environment in which a task should be performed.

In the third chapter, we have narrowed the scope of our study and tackled speaking tasks, as seen by researchers in the field of language teaching and learning. We have first seen how speaking was looked at along the history of language teaching and learning and concluded that it was hardly neglected at the very beginning. Later on, and with the coming of communicative approaches, educators and researchers recognized its importance and developed special tools to enrich the communicative achievement of learners. Then, we have examined the prerequisites that learners need to develop their communicative competencies. Those requirements are: strategic competence, discourse competence, intercultural competence, and the pragmatic one. Later on, we have shed light on the main characteristics of a successful speaking activity and understood that oral tasks should be

productive, safe, have a great resemblance to the real world, and more than that match learners' needs and interests. Then, we have discussed some of the taxonomies of oral tasks, starting with the one of Rivers and Temperly. These researchers propose three kinds of activities: oral practice of grammar; structured interaction; and autonomous interaction. The second taxonomy is the one of Littlewood. He classified activities into pre-communicative and communicative ones. The first category relied more on structural aspects of language, whereas the latter supported a more communicative approach to language. That is way, role plays, conversations, debates and discussion are advised as appropriate tools. Harmer proposed different activities suitable for various levels of learners. He spoke about information gap activity, discussion task, and role plays.

The fourth chapter tackled the research design followed in our work. We have started with the methodology chosen to develop our work. We have stated that we opted for a descriptive method. The population of our research is second year elementary pupils and teachers. We have also spoken about the questionnaires used to diagnose the problem.

In the practical part of our work, we have developed two questionnaires and administered them to teachers and pupils of second year Middle school. The pupils' questionnaire includes eleven items, whereas teachers' one contains twenty-six questions. From our analysis of both questionnaires, we have derived the following results:

- There are some cases where pupils say that they do not find the designed activities of their book interesting.
- Teachers still do not know how to lower pupils' anxiety and make them feel comfortable.
- They still prioritize good pupils instead of others.

- Being neglected by their teacher, pupils sometimes feel unready to participate and get demotivated.
- Some pupils are not given the chance to play roles in dialogues.
- Oral activities ask pupils to work individually.
- Some teachers still interrupt pupils, while answering, and correct their mistakes.
- The above behavior stagnate some pupils who lose the desire to continue answering.
- There are some teachers who still give great importance to grammar and grammatical mistakes instead of communication.
- Spotlight speaking tasks, for some teachers, are not communicatively directing and do not reflect pupils' needs and interests.
- Teachers still dominate talk in the classroom.
- Teachers make use of pedagogic and authentic materials.
- Teachers do not make use of other sources besides the school book.
- All teachers see that speaking activities of Spotlight Book Two are useful for pupils.

From the above results, we can say that there exist some problems while teaching speaking through activities. The conclusion we can draw is that Spotlight Book Two oral activities are helpful to some extent. But this does not entail that they are sufficient and that teachers should not look for additional and more motivating activities.

To solve some of the problems mentioned above, we have added a sixth chapter where we have suggested a number of pedagogical implications that may help teachers to overcome some of the obstacles while teaching speaking.

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APPENDIX ONE: Teachers' pre-questionnaire

Teacher's pre-questionnaire

Please, answer the following questions carefully.

1. Do you see that the speaking activities of Spotlight book two helpful?
 Yes..... No.....
2. Do you think that those tasks are sufficient to teach speaking?
 Yes..... No.....
3. Do not you think that your pupils need more authentic tasks to develop their oral
 proficiencies?
 Yes..... No.....
4. Have you ever asked your pupils to practice speaking tasks in pairs or in groups?
 Yes..... No.....
5. Do you give your pupils enough time to think about the activity and solve it?
 Yes..... No.....
6. Do you give your pupils equal opportunities to talk in the classroom?
 Yes..... No.....
7. Have you ever modified the content of any speaking activity?
 Yes..... No.....
8. Do the speaking activities, of Spotlight book two, have a real and authentic
 context?
 Yes..... No.....
9. Have you ever asked your pupils to select a topic of their interest and discuss it in
 class?
 Yes..... No.....



10. Are you satisfied with your pupils' oral proficiency?

Yes.....

No.....

Thank you for your help

APPENDIX TWO: Pupils' pre-questionnaire

Pupils' prequestionnaire

Please, answer the following questions

من فضلك ، اجب عن الأسئلة التالية

1. Do you enjoy practicing oral tasks?

Yes..... No.....
-1 هل تستمتع خلال حل التمارين الشفوية؟

لا نعم

2. Do not you feel that you need more practice to improve your English speaking abilities?

Yes..... No.....
-2 ألا تشعر انك بحاجة إلى ممارسة تمارين شفوية أكثر لتحسين قدرتك على تكلم الانجليزية؟

لا نعم

3. Does your teacher give you enough time to practice oral activities?

Yes..... No.....
-3 هل يمنحك أستاذك وقتا كافيا لحل التمارين الشفوية في القسم؟

لا نعم

4. Does your teacher give you equal chances to participate in oral tasks?

Yes..... No.....
-4 هل يمنحك أستاذكم فرصا متساوية للمشاركة خلال التمارين الشفوية؟

لا نعم

5. Has your teacher ever asked you to correct your peers' mistakes during oral practices?

Yes..... No.....
-5 هل طلب منك أستاذك تصحيح خطأ ارتكبه زميلك أثناء مشاركته في حل تمرين شفوي؟

لا نعم

6. Do you face difficulties while you practice oral tasks?

Yes..... No.....
-6 هل تواجهك صعوبات عند حلك للتمارين الشفوية؟

لا نعم

7. Have you ever asked your teacher to help you when you do not understand anything in an oral activity?

Yes.....

No.....

7- هل طلبت من أستاذك ذات مرة أن يساعدك عندما يصعب عليك حل التمرين؟

لا.....

نعم.....

8. Has your teacher ever permitted you to practice oral tasks with your peers?

Yes.....

No.....

8- هل سمح لك أستاذك حل التمارين الشفوية مع زملائك؟

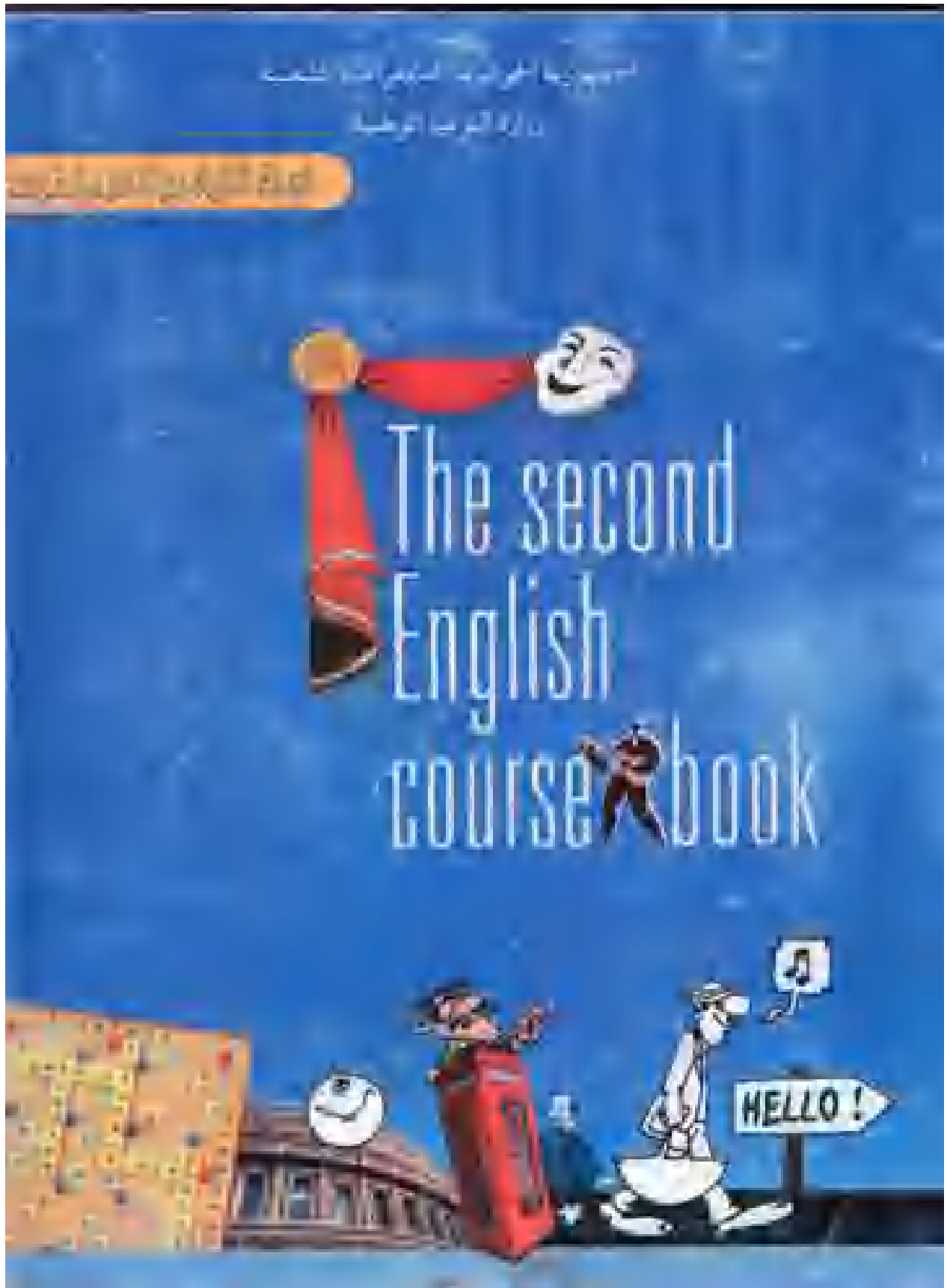
لا.....

نعم.....

Thank you for your help

شكرا على مساعدتكم

APPENDIX FIVE: Spotlight speaking activities



SEQUENCE

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

- Identify the main idea of a text
- Understand the main points of a text
- Identify the main points of a text
- Identify the main points of a text


Listen and speak

Billy and Steve are watching a video film.
 Listen to what they say, then choose a partner and play their roles.

Formulation and Spelling

Listen and repeat :
 with an emphasis, rhythm, partner

Sounds		
[s]	[z]	[iz]
the sofa	the sofa	the sofas
the people	the people	the peoples
the words	the words	the wordes
the things	the things	the thinges



Identify :
 - like, match, come, just, know, some, some, some

Compare :
 - some, just, match, come, some, some

Practice dialogues and information

Is he **NOT**?

No, he isn't

Are you **slim**?

Yes, I am

EXERCISES

Choose one of the people and describe them.

a) Use words in a speech to find the names with the eyes and the hair

Name: Sam
 Nationality: French
 Age: 17
 Height: 1.70
 Weight: 60 kg
 Eyes: blue
 Hair: brown

Name: Michael
 Nationality: Young
 Age: 17
 Height: 1.80
 Weight: 70 kg
 Eyes: blue
 Hair: grey

Name: Carla
 Nationality: German
 Age: 15
 Height: 1.65
 Weight: 55 kg
 Eyes: green
 Hair: brown

2• Listen to your teacher. Write the words you understand and leave blanks for the words you don't understand or you miss.

Now, with a partner, try to write the text from your notes. Then read your text to the rest of the class. Does it make sense ?

After that, go to page 20 and check .

3• The «Famous People» game.

Bring photos of famous people to the class. Work with other groups. Ask questions to identify the man or the woman in the photo and answer them.

e. g. A : Is it a man or a woman ? A : Is he / she a painter...? A : What does he / she do ?

B : It's a woman./ It's a man. B : No, he / she isn't. B : He / She sings...

Go forward

1• Read this article from «TODAY'S STAR».

Then write questions for the answers below.

e. g. Is he fat ?

No, he isn't. He is slim

No, he hasn't. He's got brown eyes.

Yes, he's got a moustache.

Yes, he does. He writes all his shows.

In Arabic, Tamazight and French.

No, he doesn't. He lives in France.

TODAY'S STAR

Mohamed Fellag

Fellag is a slim handsome man with black hair, brown eyes and a thick moustache. He 's a popular and successful comic star. He writes all his shows and performs them in Arabic, Tamazight or French. He lives in France.

2• Pair work.

Look at these photos. Do you recognize these people ? What are their names ?

What do they look like ? What do they do ? Where do they live ? Ask and answer questions about them.



Now, imagine you interview one of them.

SEQUENCE

OBJECTIVES

- To be able to identify the sound of a word
- To be able to identify the opposite of a word
- To be able to identify the opposite of a word

Listen and speak

Listen and try to find the word needed.

Focus on the sounds and spelling:

• **Listen and repeat :**

ladder, house, film, swimming, coffee

Sounds	
[l]	[h]
ladder	house
ladder	house
ladder	house
ladder	house
ladder	house
ladder	house
ladder	house
ladder	house
ladder	house

Here is an example of a crossword puzzle

• **Identify :**

North, South, thick, thin, heavy, light, wide, thin, top, bottom

• **Compare :**

thin - thick / wide - narrow / top - bottom

thick (1) thin (2) wide (3) narrow (4) top (5) bottom (6)

Can you give me the **third** of **thirty** ?

Yes, I can. It's **ten**.

Is this thing **thin** or **thick** ?

It's **rather thin** for **thick**. It's **quite**.

EXERCISES

• Read the dialogue page 44,
and find the opposite of these words.

thick / thin / heavy / light / top / bottom

- consolidate : 1 st AM vocabulary about illnesses,
- consolidate « have got » - consolidate the imperative,
- use « must » / « mustn't »,
- use "should".

Listen and speak

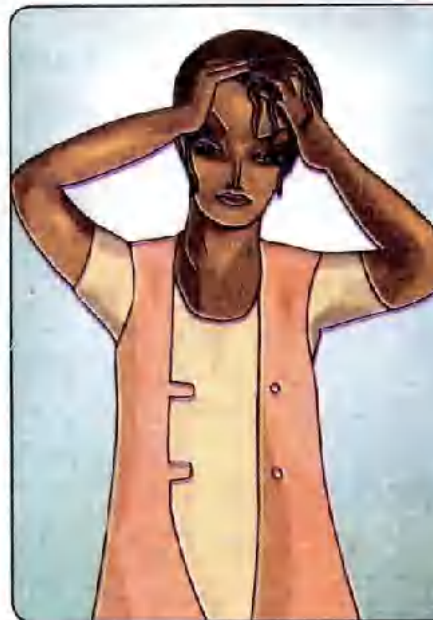
Listen to the conversation then act it out.

Pronunciation and Spelling

Listen and repeat :

should, each, shoulder, match, brush, ache, stomach, school.

Sounds		
[ʃ]	[tʃ]	[k]
English	teacher	school
should	check	ache
fresh	choke	stomach
wash	French	chemical
shoulder	challenge	character
insurance	stretcher	mechanic



Identify :

English, check, shoulder, stretcher, ache, stomach, wash...

Compare :

challenge, shoulder, character, fresh, French, ache, choke ...

Practise Stress and Intonation

What should I **do** when it **aches** ?
 You should **check** with **Granny** or see a **doctor** !
 Ah **yes**, **Granny's** **remedies** are **cheap**
 But the **doctor's** **drugs** are **sharp**!

Practise

1. Pair work. Choose the right advice for health problem. then ask and answer.

e. g. Pupil : I've got a terrible headache. What can I do ? - Pupil 2 : You should take some aspirin

1 SEQUENCE

OBJECTIVES

- consolidate : 1st AM vocabulary about leisure activities
- consolidate time expressions : at three o'clock, on Sunday
- consolidate prepositions : to / at / for
- make invitations using «would you like»
- use expressions : Yes, I would/ Yes, I'd love to /Yes, I really like...

Listen and speak

Listen to your teacher and say what the conversation is about.
Did Peter accept the invitation for lunch ? Justify your answer.



Pronunciation and Spelling

■ Listen and repeat :

job, jacket, objective, singer,
forget, ignore, language.

■ Identify :

got, subject, singer, Olga, job,
jacket, give, organise, language ...

■ Compare :

jacket, forget, subject, singer, Algeria, language...

/dʒ/	Sounds	/g/
job		got
Jane		give
jazz		Olga
jacket		forget
subject		singer
objective		organise
Algeria		ignore
college		language

Practise Stress and Intonation

Would you like this jacket ?

No, I'd like that one.

Which one ? The blue one or the red one ?

The blue one.

APPENDIX SEVEN: Pupils' questionnaire

***People's Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Ferhat Abbas University- Sétif-
Faculty of Letters and Social Sciences
Department of Foreign Languages***

***Post-Graduate Studies
Applied Linguistics Discipline***

***Teaching the speaking skill: speaking activities to develop
learners' communicative competence
A case study: second year elementary level***

***Prepared by:
Douadi Fatima***

2009/2010

Pupils' questionnaire

Dear pupils,
This questionnaire is designed for you to answer. Be sure that your answers would help us
in our work. Please, answer it seriously.

عزيزي التلميذ:

هذه الاستمارة حضرت من أجلك لتجيب عن الأسئلة الموجودة بداخلها. كن متأكدا أن إجاباتك ستساعدنا في بحثنا
العلمي. من فضلك اجب عليها.

1-Dou you find oral activities, in your book, interesting and motivate you to participate? (Please tick)

Yes.....

No.....

1. هل التمارين الشفوية الموجودة في كتابك المدرسي، ذات أهمية و تحفزك على المشاركة في حلها؟

لا.....

نعم.....

2-How do you feel when your teacher asks you to respond orally to an activity?

(Please, select the appropriate answer)

-I feel myself ready to participate without any anxiousness

-I avoid answering because I fear that my peers laughed at me

-I avoid answering because I fear that my teacher will negatively evaluate me, if I make mistakes

2. كيف يكون شعورك عندما يطلب منك الأستاذ الإجابة شفويا؟ من فضلك اختر الإجابة المناسبة

- اشعر أنني مستعد للإجابة بدون أي قلق

- أتجنب الإجابة لأنني أخشى سخرية زملائي مني

- أتجنب الإجابة خوفا أن يقيمني أستاذي سلبيا، إذا اخطأت

3-Does your teacher, during an oral activity, work (Please, tick)

-with good pupils only

-he/she gives chance to whole class to participate

3. هل يعمل أستاذك، خلال التمارين الشفوية؟

- مع التلاميذ النجباء فقط

- يعطي فرصة لجميع التلاميذ للمشاركة

4-Does your teacher ask you to play roles in any conversation?

Yes.....

No.....

4. هل طلب منكم الأستاذ تمثيل ادوار في حوار ما؟

لا..... نعم.....

5-Has your teacher ever asked you, during oral activities, (Please, select)

- to work in pairs
- to work in groups
- to work individually

5. هل طلب منك الأستاذ، حل التمارين الشفوية

- حل التمرين في ثنائيات، أنت وزميلك
- حل التمرين في مجموعات
- حل التمارين فرديا

6- How does your teacher react to your mistakes? (Please, select)

- He interrupts me and corrects the mistake
- He lets me finish my answer and then corrects
- He asks my peers to correct the mistake

6. كيف يتصرف أستاذك عندما تخطئ؟

- يقاطعني ويصحح خطئي
- يتركني أكمل إجابتي ثم يصحح ما اخطأت فيه
- يسأل زملائي أن يصححو خطئي

7-Do you feel ready and motivated to continue your answer, even when your teacher interrupts you to correct your mistakes?

Yes..... No.....

7. هل تجد نفسك مازلت على استعداد لمواصلة الإجابة عندما يقاطعك أستاذك ليصحح خطأ ارتكبته خلال الإجابة الشفوية؟

لا..... نعم.....

8-How does your teacher behave when you do not find the right word to finish your answer? (Please, select the appropriate answer)

- he helps me and gives me the word I missed
- he asks me to say it in Arabic and then he translated it
- he interrupts me and asks another pupil to answer

8. كيف يتصرف أستاذك عندما تجيب ثم لا تجد الكلمة المناسبة لتكمل إجابتك؟

- يساعدي ويعطيني الكلمة
- يسألني أن أقولها بالعربية ثم يترجمها
- يقاطعني ويسأل تلميذ آخر ليحجب بدلا مني

9-How much do you speak English in the classroom? (Please, tick)

Very often..... Sometimes..... Rarely..... No answer.....

9. كم تتكلم الانجليزية في القسم؟

في كثير من الأحيان..... أحيانا..... نادرا..... لا إجابة.....

10-If you do not speak enough in the classroom; does your teacher encourage you to participate?

Yes..... No.....

10. إذا كنت لا تتكلم الانجليزية في القسم، هل يشجعك الأستاذ و يدفع بك للمشاركة؟

نعم..... لا.....

11-Do you feel that your English level is improving when you participate in oral activities?

Yes..... No.....

11. هل تشعر أن مستواك في تحسن عندما تشارك خلال التمارين الشفوية؟

نعم..... لا.....



Thank you for your help

شكرا لتعاونك

APPENDIX EIGHT: Teachers' questionnaire

Dear Teachers,

Our work is about the speaking skill and more precisely speaking activities. Our choice of speaking stems from the idea that the mastery of speaking is a priority for many learners. One way to develop learners' oral communicative skill is through the use of speaking activities. Our aim is to analyze that tasks designed for second year elementary learners and whether you, as teachers, view them as appropriate. To fulfill this aim, we've opted for this questionnaire to detect such problem. Your answering of the questionnaire would be of great help and be sure that it will be used for scientific reasons only.



Section1

1-In your teaching the speaking skill, do you give more importance to grammar instead of communication?

Yes.....

No.....

2-What do you focus on when your pupils are answering an oral activity?

-I pay little attention to grammatical mistakes and let my pupils speak

-I give great importance to grammatical mistakes

3-What do you exploit with your pupils during oral practices?

Pedagogic materials.....

Authentic materials.....

4-If your answer to 3 is the first choice, why do you do so?

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5-If your answer to 3 is the second choice, why do you do so?

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Section2

6-Are oral activities found in Spotlight book two communicatively directing?



Yes.....

No.....

7-Have you ever made you pupils listened to conversations or songs in a tape?

Yes.....

No.....

8-If your answer to 7 is the first choice, why?

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9-If your answer to 7 is the second choice, why?

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10-Are oral activities helpful to your pupils?

Yes.....

No.....

11-Do oral activities match your pupils' needs and interests?

Yes.....

No.....

12-Are oral activities life-like?

Yes.....

No.....

13-What are the sources that can be used to derive themes/topics for communicative tasks? (Please, name them)



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Section 3

14-On which principle amongst the following are speaking activities, which are provided by the book, based on?

- they are centered on the learner Yes No
- they are communicatively goal directed Yes No
- they include rich input Yes No
- they are meaningful and comprehensible Yes No

15-Are the speaking activities, designed in the book, based on?

- Written language
- Spoken language
- Both

16-Do you rely solely on oral activities provided by Spotlight book 2(you do not exploit other sources)?

Yes..... No.....

17-If your answer to 16 is Yes, why do not you use further resources?

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18-Do you speak, during oral activities, (Please tick the appropriate answer)

-more than your pupils

-less than your pupils

19-If your answer to 18 is the first choice, why do you do so?

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20-If your answer to 18 is the second choice, why do you do so?

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Section 4

21-Do you exploit the following oral activities, not included in Spotlight book 2, for developing your pupils’ speaking skill? (Please circle the appropriate answer)

Role plays	Yes	No
Information gathering activities	Yes	No
Problem-solving activities	Yes	No
Debates/discussions	Yes	No
Interviews	Yes	No
Surveys	Yes	No

22-For those you have chosen to answer with yes, what are the reasons?



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23-For those you have chosen to answer with no, what are the reasons?

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24-What is the appropriate way of activities' grouping that help learners to develop their language abilities? (Rank them according to their degree of importance).

1=most valuable.

- Working individually
- Working in pairs
- Working in groups
- Whole class with teacher directing

25-What is the role that you must play in the classroom when your pupils are participating in oral tasks? (Please tick)

- The dominator
- The guide
- No role

26-Do you provide feedback during speaking activities?

- directly after the pupil's error

- let the pupil finishes and then correct
- get the pupil who produced the error to correct it
- get his peers to do so

Thank you for your cooperation