

T.C.
ISTANBUL UNIVERSITY
SOCIAL SCIENCE INSTITUTE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING DEPARTMENT

Contextualised Grammar Instruction with Communicative Language Practice

Master Thesis

Thesis Instructor
Assist. Prof. Alev Bulut


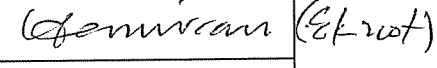
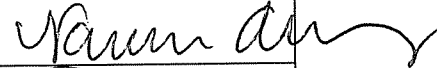
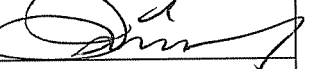
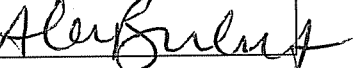
Prepared by
Merve Selçuk
2501971339

İstanbul
2000

İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ HASAN ALİ YÜCEL EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ KÜTÜPHANESİ	
KİTAP NO:	78 t
YER NO :	

TEZ ONAYI

İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ Anabilim Dalında 9725011339 numaralı MERVE SELÇUK 'un hazırladığı "APPLIED DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND GRAMMAR TEACHING" konulu YÜKSEK LİSANS / DOKTORA TEZİ ile ilgili TEZ SAVUNMA SINAVI, Lisansüstü Öğretim Yönetmeliği'nin 10.Maddesi uyarınca 22.06.2001 CUMA günü saat 10.00 da yapılmış, sorulan sorulara alınan cevaplar sonunda adayın tezinin ..kabulü.....'ne* **OYBİRLİĞİ / OYÇOKLUĞUYLA** karar verilmiştir.

JÜRİ ÜYESİ	KANAATI(*)	İMZA
PROF.DR. AYŞE DİLEK ERBORA	Basarılı	
PROF.DR. ÖMER DEMİRCAN	Basarısız, düzeltilmesi	 (Ek-2001)
PROF.DR.NAZAN AKSOY	Basarılı	
DOÇ.DR.TÜRKAN ARAZ	Basarılı	
YRD.DOÇ.DR. ALEV BULUT	Basarılı	

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to my thesis supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Alev Bulut of the Foreign Language Education Department at Istanbul University for her guidance and patience. I feel indebted to her for her generosity for sharing her time.

I also would like to thank my husband for his support and encouragement.

July, 2000

Merve SELÇUK

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS	V
GLOSSARY-TERİMCE	VI
SUMMARY	VII
ÖZET	X
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. THE STATUS OF GRAMMAR IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING	10
2.1 HISTORY OF GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING	11
2.2 FACTORS THAT AFFECT GRAMMAR TEACHING	16
2.2.1 <i>Social Factors</i>	16
2.2.2 <i>Discourse and Semantic Factors</i>	17
3. GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION	21
3.1. HOW DO CURRENT ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEXTBOOKS APPROACH TO GRAMMAR TEACHING?	26
3.2. CONTEXTUAL GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION	29
4. GRAMMAR ACTIVITIES	42
4.1 COMMUNICATIVE GRAMMAR ACTIVITIES	43
4.1.1 <i>Listening and Responding</i>	45
4.1.2 <i>Predicting the middles, ends or beginnings of discourse by using clues</i>	46
4.1.3 <i>Scrambled sentences</i>	46
4.1.4 <i>Telling Stories</i>	46

4.1.5	<i>Role Plays (Dramatic Activities)</i>	48
4.1.6	<i>Visual Stimuli (Pictures, Realia, Graphs)</i>	49
4.1.7	<i>Songs, Poetry and Verse</i>	49
4.1.8	<i>Games and Problem Solving Activities</i>	50
5.	THE RESEARCH	52
5.1	THE TECHNIQUE OF THE STUDY	53
5.1.1	<i>Contextual Grammar Instruction supported with Communicative Activities</i>	53
5.1.1.1	Aim and Topic of the Application Study	53
5.1.1.2	Importance of the Application	55
5.1.1.3	Hypothesis	55
5.1.1.4	Limitations	55
5.1.1.5	The starting point of the study	56
5.1.2	<i>Subjects of the study</i>	58
5.1.2.1	Learner Variables	59
5.1.2.2	Results of the Questionnaire	60
5.1.3	<i>Application of the Study</i>	66
5.1.3.1	Classroom Treatment	67
5.1.3.1.1.	The Features and the use of materials in the	67
5.1.3.1.1.	Classroom Treatment	68
	APPLICATION GROUP	69
	CONTROL GROUP	70
6.	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	72
6.1	THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY ACCORDING TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS	72
6.2	THE STUDY ACCORDING TO THE LIMITATIONS	74
6.3	THE GENERAL DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY	75
7.	CONCLUSION	77

REFERENCES	86
REFERENCE GRAMMARS	91
INDEX OF NAMES	92
INDEX	95
APPENDIX A QUESTIONNAIRE	97
APPENDIX B PRE-TEST	99
APPENDIX C POST-TEST	104
APPENDIX D RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST	109
APPENDIX E RESULTS OF THE POST-TEST	111
APPENDIX F- AN EXAMPLE MATERIAL USED FOR THE APPLICATION GROUP	113
APPENDIX G- AN EXAMPLE MATERIAL USED FOR THE CONTROL GROUP	119
APPENDIX H RESULTS OF THE <i>T</i>-TEST	121

ABBREVIATIONS

CLT	: Communicative Language Teaching
DA	: Discourse Analysis
EGI	: Explicit Grammar Instruction
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ESL	: English as a Second Language
FL	: Foreign Language
L1	: First language
L2	: Second language
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition

GLOSSARY-TERİMCE

Cognition: Biliş

Contextualized Grammar Teaching: Bağlamlı dilbilgisi öğretimi

Contextual grammar instruction with communicative language practice:

Bağlamlı-iletişimsel dilbilgisi

Communicative Approach: İletişimsel Yaklaşım

Communicative Language Teaching: İletişimsel Dil Öğretimi

Direct Method: Direkt Yöntem

Discourse: Söylem

Grammar- Translation Method: Dilbilgisi Çeviri Yöntemi

Interlanguage: Aradil

Language acquisition: Dil Edinimi

Language learning: Dil Öğrenimi

Language functions: Dilin İşlevleri

Natural Approach: Doğal Yaklaşım

Syllabus: İzlence

Traditional language teaching with mechanical language practice: Mekanik-
geleneksel dilbilgisi

SUMMARY

Grammar teaching and the place of grammar have always been one of the most controversial issues in language teaching. (Prabhu 1987; Larsen-Freeman 1986; Rutherford 1987, Richards 1985;) With the developments in second language acquisition and applied linguistics, grammar teaching has had different interpretations and viewpoints. This research was carried out to find out how English grammar should be taught and how this grammar knowledge could be used in real language situations effectively.

On the other hand, the study investigates the influence of "contextual grammar" teaching which communicative language teaching requires on four language skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking). For this reason, this study was carried out on "contextual grammar instruction with communicative language practice" and "traditional language teaching with mechanical language practice" and statistical results were obtained. The hypothesis of the study based on the idea that contextual grammar instruction should be applied in English foreign language (EFL) classes together with communicative language practice.

In this study, the role of contextual grammar instruction and communicative grammar activities, their effectiveness and sufficiency for the use of grammar knowledge in communication situations were ^{assessed} ascertained. Thus, the study was grounded on the research question: "Which type of grammar instruction and activity are more efficient to improve knowledge of

grammatical structures of upper-intermediate level of EFL Turkish students: traditional instruction with mechanical activities or contextual instruction followed by communicative activities?"

Therefore, while investigating the effect of contextual grammar instruction and communicative drills¹ on grammar learning, the traditional grammar teaching and the influence of mechanical drills were also examined. In addition, at the last part of the study the outcome of the suggested grammar teaching model and communicative practice activities were discussed.

To support this study, the statistical search was carried out with 46 students, composed of two classes. The application study took 6 weeks. Classes were selected at random from the preparation class at a state university and participants ^{had} have Intermediate level English knowledge.

The participants were exposed to equal amount of grammar instruction given by different teachers in six weeks. (Nine hours ~~in~~ a week). Before ~~and~~ the statistical search, the students were exposed to a questionnaire about their school, family lives and a pre-test to measure their English language proficiency level.

Following the application, the students were exposed to a post-test to observe how the suggested grammar instruction model improved their

¹ The aim of a drill is to give students rapid practice in using a structural item. Often this is done with the whole class- rather than with students in pairs- and the teacher is able to get students ask and answer questions quickly and efficiently.

grammar knowledge. The control group followed the grammar lessons in the syllabus whereas the experimental group students were exposed to the suggested grammar teaching model. In the experimental group, only ^{the} target language was used. The results were measured by t-tests.

All in all, at the end of the study, the influence of contextual grammar instruction and communicative grammar practice on Turkish university preparatory students has been assessed statistically and results verifying the hypothesis were recorded. The application group was much more successful in answering the post-test questions which measured the correct application of grammar rules in context. Therefore, it can be assumed that; the presentation of grammar rules in context and communicative grammar practice in ELT classes strengthen the use of grammar in communication.

ÖZET

Dilbilgisi öğretimi ve dilbilgisi öğretiminin dil öğretimindeki yeri her zaman en çok tartışılan konulardan biri olmuştur. (Prabhu 1987; Larsen-Freeman 1986; Rutherford 1987, Richards 1985;) İkinci dil öğretimi ve uygulamalı dilbilim alanındaki gelişmeler beraberinde, dilbilgisi öğretimi farklı yorumlar ve bakış açıları kazanmıştır. Bu araştırma Üniversite düzeyinde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce Hazırlık Okulunda yoğun İngilizce eğitimi alan öğrencilerin İngilizce dilbilgisini nasıl öğrenmesi gerektiğini belirlemek ve daha başarılı dilbilgisi öğrenimi yanında bunun gerçek iletişim durumlarında etkili olarak kullanılması için öneri getirmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Çalışma sonucunda, yabancı dil olarak öğrenilmiş İngilizce dilbilgisinin iletişimsel olarak, gerçek yaşam ya da gerçek yaşam ortamları benzerlerinde daha etkili kullanımı için nasıl öğrenildiği incelenmektedir.

Bu çalışma, İletişimsel Dil Öğretimi yaklaşımının öngördüğü "bağlamlı dilbilgisi" öğretiminin dört dil becerisi (okuma, dinleme, yazma, konuşma) üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktadır. Bu amaçla, "bağlamlı-iletişimsel dilbilgisi" ve "mekanik-geleneksel dilbilgisi" öğretimi üzerine bir uygulama çalışması yürütülmüş ve istatistiksel sonuçlar elde edilmiştir. Çalışmanın temel savı bağlamlı dilbilgisi öğretimi modelinin iletişimsel dilbilgisi alıştırmalarıyla birlikte yabancı dil sınıflarında etkileşimli olarak kullanılması gerektiğidir

Bu çalışmada bağlamlı dilbilgisi öğretimi ve iletişimsel dilbilgisi alıştırmalarının rolü, etkisi ve yeterliliği araştırılmaktadır. Çalışmanın temelini şu soru oluşturmaktadır: " Orta seviye İngilizce bilgisine sahip ve İngilizceyi

yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin dilbilgisini geliştirmede nasıl bir dilbilgisi öğretimi modeli ve hangi tip dilbilgisi alıştırmaları daha etkilidir: mekanik alıştırmalar öncesi geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretimi mi yoksa bağlamli dilbilgisi öğretiminin ardından gelen iletişimsel dilbilgisi alıştırmaları mı?

Bu sebeple, bağlamli dilbilgisi öğretimi ve iletişimsel dilbilgisi alıştırmalarının dilbilgisi öğretimi üzerindeki etkisi araştırılırken, geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretimi ve mekanik alıştırmaların etkisinde gözlemlenmiştir. Buna ek olarak çalışmanın sonunda önerilen dilbilgisi öğretimi modeli ve alıştırmalarının sonuçları tartışılmıştır.

Araştırmayı desteklemek amacıyla 46 öğrenciden oluşan iki ayrı grup üzerinde 6 hafta süren bir uygulama çalışması yapılmıştır. Araştırmanın kontrol ve deney grupları 23'er kişiden oluşan iki ayrı sınıfın öğrencileridir ve bu iki grup rasgele seçilmiştir. Öğrenciler bir devlet üniversitesinin İngilizce hazırlık okuluna devam etmekte olup orta-İngilizce (Intermediate) bilgisine sahiptir.

Uygulama çalışmasına katılanlar eşit miktarda dilbilgisi dersi almışlardır. Dersler iki sınıfa altı hafta boyunca farklı öğretmenler tarafından verilmiştir. (Haftada 9 saat) Uygulama süresi içerisinde, deney grubunun dersleri sadece İngilizce olarak yürütülmüştür. Uygulama öncesi bütün deneklere, İngilizce öğrenmelerine olumlu-olumsuz; dolaylı-dolaysız etkisi olabileceği varsayılan üniversite öncesi eğitim, sosyo-kültürel geçmiş ve aile yapılarına ilişkin soruların yer aldığı bir anket verilmiştir. Ayrıca, deneklerin elde ettikleri aşamanın sağlıklı ölçebilmek adına, uygulama öncesi ve ertesinde her iki gruba da aynı ön test ve son test verilmiştir. Uygulama süresi içerisinde,

deney grubunun dersleri sadece İngilizce olarak yürütülmüştür. Sonuçlar *t*-test ile ölçülmüştür.

Kontrol grubu 1.5 ay boyunca normal okul izlencesi kapsamındaki dilbilgisi derslerini alırken, deney grubu aynı süre boyunca bağlamli-iletişimsel dilbilgisi alıştırımları yapmıştır. Kontrol grubu öğrencileri dilbilgisi kurallarını formüller ile tümevarım yoluyla öğrenip, bağlam oluşturmeyan cümleler ile mekanik dilbilgisi alıştırımları yapmıştır. Deney grubu ise dilbilgisi kurallarını tamamen bağlamli metinler içerisinde öğrenip, iletişimsel aktivitelerle desteklenmiştir.

Sonuç olarak, bağlamli dilbilgisi öğretimi ile iletişimsel dilbilgisi alıştırımlarının İngilizce hazırlık eğitimi gören Türk üniversite öğrencileri üzerindeki etkileri incelenmiş ve çalışmanın hipotezini doğrulayan sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır. Uygulama sonunda, deney grubu öğrencilerinin uygulama süresi ertesinde İngilizce dilbilgisi kurallarını verilen metin içerisinde uygun ve doğru olarak kullanma açısından daha fazla ilerleme kaydettiği sayısal olarak gözlenmiştir.

1. INTRODUCTION

Grammar is not the most important aspect of foreign language learning. However, making many mistakes makes communication difficult and creates a serious obstacle to communicating successfully. Therefore, although the role and the place of grammar in second/foreign language syllabus have always been debated in the history of language teaching, it has always had a place in language teaching, only the degree of its significance shifted from time to time.

Approaches to language teaching welcome the grammar rules; however, the degree of presentation is a question. Simplifying the presentation of grammatical rules for pedagogical purposes has caused controversy. On the other side, in spite of the fact that the importance of contextual exercises in grammar teaching has been accepted, the dominance of traditional grammar exercises still continues in textbooks and classes. If a textbook does not emphasise formal grammar instruction, teachers take this as a handicap and try to meet this deficit by supplying loaded traditional grammar exercises.

Approaches, methods and techniques to FL teaching have had different views towards grammar instruction. In recent approaches to language learning there is a little room for deductive grammar teaching yet many teachers still rely on explicit presentation of grammatical structures and students expect detailed explanation of grammatical rules. (Rutherford and Smith, 1988) Teachers undervalue the importance of the combination of sentences forming discourse. Conversely, there are scholars^{who} assert that language practice in terms of grammatical focus do^{n't} not facilitate genuine

communicative skills and question their value in language classrooms. (Krashen and Terrel, 1983)

Longacre claims that "discourse is the primary unit of linguistic structure" and adds that "examples should include functional units at the level of speech acts and speech events: story, explanation, request, giving directions, and so on". (1977)² Language materials should be in line with students' expectations. Studies have shown that discourse structure of academic books, scientific articles or textbooks are quite different from daily language. (Stubbs, 1977) Thus, it brings the problem of language use. In different contexts, learners need to use different structures.

In addition to the importance of discourse in devising language teaching materials, other factors that affect language such as morphological, lexical, grammatical, phonological and cultural^{forms} must be considered and taught in a discourse. Therefore, teachers must give grammar rules in a certain discourse. Because "how we interpret grammatical forms depends on a number of factors, some linguistics^{is} some purely situational". (McCarthy, 1994;7) Intonation, stress or the pitch of the speaker's voice also are ^{the} factors that determine the communication. (Harman, 1990) A learner should gain the ability to use language both as a social behaviour and a linguistic performance. They are parts of grammar and they altogether combine the grammar^{rules} of a language. Not only forms, but also situations, the position of interlocutors and setting lead us to decide what communication strategies ^{are} to be followed in communication act.

² cited in Stubbs, 1988; 50

We have all learned to use our language in actual communication. It is as much a part of our language ability to pronounce it. Although there are differences between first and second language acquisition, studies indicate that second/ foreign language learners need ^{large} amount of contextual, meaningful input in order to acquire language. "In order to use and understand a language we need a communicative as well as a grammatical competence." (Wilkins, 1974, 19) Furthermore, SL learners who have opportunities to actively understand natural language, such as in face-to-face conversation, acquire language more quickly and successfully than learners exposed exclusively to meaningless exercises that focus on structure alone. (Lightbrown, 1985)

Traditional pedagogy of teaching isolated linguistic items, a procedure based on behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics is ineffective. (Long, 1988; Gass, 1993; Pienemann, 1984) Purely communicative syllabuses are inadequate because they neglect grammar instruction. (Chen, 1995; Fotos, 1994; Long, 1988;) Language that is introduced in context presents real situations that encompass the physical setting, the purpose of exchange, the roles of the participants, and the socially acceptable norms of interaction, in addition to the medium, topic, tone and register of the exchange. (Hymes, 1974)

As noted above, if grammar is taught in isolated unconnected sentences, ^{this} ~~which~~ makes language learning difficult since these rules can never be applied to real communication situations. Students may perform the oral drills quite fluently in the classroom, however/ they have the problem of

transferring the fluency and correct formation in to real life communication because these mechanical drills are set in highly artificial/and unlike the conditions of normal conversation. In fact, contextualization of isolated grammar points with communicative exercises will bring forth communicative interaction which is fundamental to language learning/ acquisition. Rapid development of natural language occurs when the learner has a chance to negotiate meaning in unplanned discourse. (Richards, 1985) Meaning-focused use of the target language as opposed to teacher-directed mechanical drills will promote comprehension and the production?. Bialystok (1983) indicates that decontextualization might be the cause of the difficulty experienced by both children and adults in acquiring a second language.³

Learners should be able to use real language suitable to different situations, adjust the language appropriately for different situations we use. Although it is claimed so, learners are not exposed to real language, real everyday communication through these textbooks. As far as grammar teaching is concerned "language was much more appropriately classified in terms of what people wanted to *do* with the language (functions) or in terms of what *meanings* people wanted to convey (notions) than in terms of the grammatical items as in traditional language teaching models. It was argued that we all understand that we use language to express certain meanings to apologise, greet, persuade, recommend or to praise, and we all understand that we use language to exemplify grammatical categories invented by linguists!" (Finnocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983; 12)

³ cited in Shrum and Glisan 1994; 23

If we teach grammar for communicative purposes, presentation of grammar rules, implicitly or explicitly, ⁱⁿ a communicative framework focused on communicative activities will help us maintain a good result. Within the grammar teaching model suggested in this dissertation, ^{in order} to provide a new perspective for teaching grammar, grammar knowledge was realised or presented through contextual language practice in communicative activities in connected discourse. Synthesis of grammatical knowledge with how it is used communicatively in social contexts in harmony with discourse, displays that there is a high correlation between grammar knowledge and use. Furthermore, the way in which grammar rules are presented, the amount and the way they are practised will lead to a comprehensible input. This combination attempts to close the gap between grammar rules and using them in real communication. Since this combination is relative to learners' age, English proficiency level or family background, personality and cognitive styles, a socio-cultural background test was given to participants before the application study.

In most instances, the language of explanation is more complex than the language points being taught. (Nunan, 1987; 140) Language learners need to comprehend the content of natural communication in the new language.

Geoff Thompson (1996) mentions that in CLT, grammar instruction has a room for itself but the degree of its importance has transformed recently. Besides the very first stage in teaching grammar is to introduce grammar in a comprehensible and coherent context. Learners become aware of how language works at the level of context. (Thompson, 1996; Hammond;

Halliday 1989; Piennamann, 1984) Moreover practice in context stresses communicative competence (Frank and Rinvolunci, 1991)

Lack of opportunities for communicative language use is a major problem in the classroom environment. In many classrooms, the old ways of practice ^{are} is still the dominant educational paradigm, and the communicative language practice is an instructional option as far as grammar teaching is concerned.

In the practice stage, communicative drills should be preferred over mechanical or meaningful ones. Each activity should be designed according to a topic with a communicative end. Grammar is not emphasised because when pupils acquire communicative goals, they will acquire grammatical rules as well. When setting our goals we, as teachers, do not expect students to acquire certain grammatical rules but to cope with certain topics in certain situations using appropriate language forms and functions. To deal with a certain topic, they are in need of using certain functions that are expressed ^{by} by certain structures and vocabulary. ^{This is the way} That is grammar and vocabulary are important features in LT but they are acquired when students work on a specific topic. Although the ultimate aim is to have learners speak grammatically correct sentences, ^{in the} comprehension and production stages complete grammatical accuracy is not expected from the students at the beginning. Only certain rules need to be taught and not every student benefit S from grammatical instruction at the same level. In natural communication we do not use or correct our grammar mistakes in oral communication. This only happens in written task. So ^{students} pupils should be concerned with grammar rules, should use their monitor, in writing or a prepared speech. Pupils can study

grammar at advanced levels for their own sake or special purposes if they want to become linguists or language teachers. Emphasis on oral grammar explanation should be avoided. Use of a grammar text outside the classroom might be recommended. "The notion of communicative competence has had a very powerful influence on language teaching' and defines communicative syllabus will set out variety of communicative abilities that the learner should be able to demonstrate at the end of a prescribed course or period of learning." (Mc Carthy and Carter, 1994; 172)

The proficiency definition of what it means to know a language defines language ability in terms of three criteria: 1) functions: linguistic tasks performed such as asking for information, narrating past activities, or expressing opinions; 2) contexts/ contents: the settings in which one uses language and 3) accuracy: the precision of the message in terms of fluency, grammar, vocabulary, pragmatic competence, pronunciation, socio-linguistic competence. (Buck, Byrnes and Thompson, 1989)⁴

Nunan insists on the importance of communicative practice of grammatical rules. "If one accepts weak interpretation of communicative language teaching, then one must accept the value of grammatical explanation, error correction and drill. However, learners also need the opportunity to engage in genuine communicative interaction." (Nunan, 1987; 141) Language and content can be combined through techniques such as storytelling, games, role plays and puzzles.

⁴ cited in Shrum and Glisan, 1994; 25

This study advocates neither purely communicative nor traditional grammar teaching. The development of another method of grammar instruction is proposed: Communicative language use with grammar instruction on structure in context⁵ and communicative activities that follow it. This work emphasises the significance of teaching all aspects of grammar in context combines structural and functional instruction with communicative activities. Integrating contextual grammar instruction with communicative language practice will enable learners to recognise the properties of target structures in context, and develop accuracy in their use. If linguistic structures are introduced to learners in contexts, that will enhance the communicative input. Moreover, the learners attention will be drawn to the target structure. In this way, the awareness of grammatical structures will be developed explicit or implicit instruction and learners tend to notice the target structures in communicative input (in context). Such repeated acts of noticing will promote the learners' comparison of the correct forms with their own interlanguage⁶ forms, triggering the cognitive processes involved in restructuring the learners' internal linguistic system, and thus facilitating acquisition. (Fotos, 1993; Schmidt 1990)

⁵ Long (1988) suggested a syllabus which would combine communicative language use in context a task-based language instruction in "Focus on Form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology."

⁶ Selinker (1974) has defined interlanguage as an individual linguistic system created by second language learners as a result of five cognitive processes: 1) interference from the first language; 2) effect of instruction; 3) overgeneralization of target language rules; 4) strategies in SL learning; 5) strategies involved in SLA. (Schrum and Glisan, 1994; 11)

Appropriate contextualization can only be achieved if a teacher finds or creates realistic social situations, language texts and visual stimuli that are interesting and meaningful to students. Thus, contextualization is partly a matter of being faithful to the language, by finding appropriate examples, and partly a matter of being responsive to students, by taking their interests into account.

To sum up, grammar instruction provides learners with specific information about correct target language forms and by implication this leads to internalisation of those rules and hence to greater communicative ability. Recent language teaching methodologies focus on authentic, communicative language use and discerns the relationship between grammar instruction and communicative ability.

2. THE STATUS OF GRAMMAR IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Teaching of grammar has had its place in any language teaching approach. There are still two basic arguments ^{in the} ~~of~~ teaching of grammar, however: Should grammar be ^{taught} thought? If so, how? In the past, grammatical knowledge was supposed to be sufficient to speak a foreign language. Today research in second language acquisition (SLA) and communicative approaches to language teaching have weakened the position of grammar in language syllabuses. As a result, the place of grammar teaching in the classroom is still uncertain.

Some approaches argue that internalisation and acquisition⁷ is subconscious and how we can put conscious learning, grammar, in a proper place in second language learning. Krashen, for instance, marks that we see acquisition in cases learning has never occurred. (1987) In learning focus is on form, in acquisition, whereas, the focus is on meaning.

According to Krashen, the aim of grammar teaching is to provide students with a monitor.⁸ Only when the target language is used as the

⁷ The process of converting learned rules into acquired rules (Krashen, 1987; 84)

⁸ Monitor Hypothesis, a theory developed by Krashen which distinguishes two distinct processes in second and foreign language development and use: the 'acquisition' and 'learning'. ~~In~~ the second process called 'learning', refers to the conscious study and knowledge of grammatical rules. In producing utterances, learners initially use their acquired system of rules. Learning and learned rules have only one function: to serve as a monitor or editor of utterances initiated by the acquired system, and learning cannot lead ^{to} acquisition. ?
(Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 234)

medium of instruction, can teaching of grammar result in language acquisition. (Krashen, 1987; 120)

2.1 History of Grammar Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching

In the past people also needed to communicate in a language other than theirs. To learn a foreign language, upper class children were either sent to regions where the target language was spoken or a native speaker was brought to the household.

From the 1700's, as Krashen and Terrell (1988) point out there has been the domination of grammar-based approaches. Since then, there ^{have} been always those accepting the importance of grammar and ^{those} ~~ones~~ opposing to formal grammar teaching.

The grammar teaching techniques of Grammar-Translation Method were accused of being inappropriate for English. It emphasised the grammar so much that learners were learning about the language more than using it. This is what has been criticised about this method. Pupils learn the rules heavily but cannot apply them in spoken English since this method takes its bases from teaching Latin, which is a dead language. As a result " it ignores authentic spoken communication and the social variation of language which goes with it, and concerns itself primarily with the written language of classical literature." (Rutherford, 1987: 4) The excessive use of translation to provide use of language creates greater emphasis on written language and lacks communicative value of natural everyday language. Hence, "It lost all relationship to the realities of language use" (Rutherford, 1987: 9)

Direct Method, which was popular in the USA at the beginning of the 20th century, emphasised effective language use. The phonetic method, which was a kind of traditional direct method, also was in favour of inductive grammar teaching. Students were asked to discover grammar rules rather than being told the rules.

After the so much insistence of direct method on spoken language, reading method emphasised extensive and intensive reading which "was accompanied by the teaching of grammar rules based principally on the structures found in the reading passages." (Krashen and Stephen, 1988; 6) The reading skill was the primary goal with detailed grammatical analysis of smaller texts.

By the period of World War II and its aftermath, the language profession in the United States had settled back into formal grammar-based methods which stressed conscious knowledge of grammar rules and ability to do translations. (Krashen, 1988: 12)

The ideas of the psychologist Skinner were applied in language teaching by linguists Bloomfield and Fries in the 1940s as the Structural Approach. To them, language learning is a habit formation and every structure should be parroted ^{in order} so as to be learned ^{repeated} so that it would become unconscious habit formation. The aim is to establish in the learner automatic control of the patterns of the second language, so that these newly acquired habits can exist side by side with the habits of the native language and without interference with them. Between 1950 and 1965, Structural Approach was developed into audio-lingual method, which was a reaction against the

grammar-translation method. It was a behaviourist model of language teaching. The study of grammar was banned at schools because it was claimed that learners ^{there} should gain the ability ^{would only} or ^{of} uttering grammatically correct sentences without learning about the language, ^{but} repeating the model sentences. "Students were not necessarily ^{to} understand the grammar and grammar rules; indeed rules were to serve more as summaries of established behaviour." (Brumfit, 1988: 14) The Audio-Lingual Method was harshly criticised ^{claiming} that the language that was taught by ^{this} audio-lingual method had no communicative value. Learners ^{will} are not able to gain the ability of uttering what they really wanted to say and drills ^{were} are not real communication.

In Europe, the audio-lingual method was assisted by visual stimuli. This encouraged the use of paralinguistic features and responding ^{to} visual stimuli. It consequently brought ^{to} audio-visual method into the scene. Nevertheless, grammar teaching was still based on habit formation.

With the cognitive movement, theorists and instructors returned to the grammar-based instruction. The grammar rules were explained and followed by exercises.

^{The} Situational method aimed at teaching language in terms of situations that are likely to occur in real life such as 'at the post office' or 'at the cinema'. "Learners were generally not shown how a structure or an expression in a particular unit could be used in another." (Brumfit, 1988: 8) Structures were not graded.

The term *communicative competence* which was first introduced by American anthropologist Dell Hymes in the mid 1960's had a significant

impact on language teaching. Although the term had different interpretations among scholars, Margie Berns points out that "Hymes also was concerned with language use as a meaning-making activity. (...) Meaning is only clear in real language situations." (Berns, 1990; 30) Moreover as Ellis puts it "He (*Hymes*) examined what factors, particularly socio-cultural, were necessary- in addition to grammatical competence- for speakers to engage in meaningful interaction" (Ellis, 1992; 18) Knowing a language entails being able to use it for social and communicative interaction. Hymes referred to knowledge of both grammar, vocabulary, semantics and rules of speaking; the patterns of sociolinguistic behaviour of the speech community.

¹² Speech act theory, developed by Austin and Searle, sees language not only as describing the world, but also as carrying out other actions as well. When we say, "I'll be there at five tomorrow" we might be performing the act of promising. One utterance might perform more than one act. That leads to the interpretation of utterances. The context will help us to differentiate the act of the utterance. "Often what is said is not meant and what is meant is not said." (Wilkins, 1974, 19) "A functional-notional approach to language learning places major emphasis on communicative purposes of a speech act. It focuses on what people want to do or what they want to accomplish through speech. Do they want to introduce people to each other. Do they want to invite someone to their home?" (Brumfit and Finnocchiaro, 1983; 13)

Functional approaches deal with the relationship between contexts of language and the communicative competence of speakers in these contexts. Two representatives of Functional approaches are The Prague School, which

revealed the functional understanding of language at sentence level and the British tradition ^{which} paved the way for Halliday's Functional Approach. While The Prague School revealed the functional understanding of language at sentence level, ^(specifically) Firth dealt with communicative functions of language. Halliday "developed situational and formal functions at a level between language and its social and cultural context" and interpreted language and meaning within a sociocultural context. (Berns, 1990; 14)

Halliday's views were applied to language teaching in ^{the} 1960s scale-and-category grammar and later applied to "syllabus design (Munby 1978; Wilkins 1976) and to changes in methodology and materials development (Candlin 1976, 1981; Piepho 1974, 1979; Ventola 1983)⁹ (Margie Berns, 1990; 27)

To Margie Berns Functional linguistics "is suited for application to second and foreign language teaching because of its emphasis on language as a means of social interaction and on the role of social structure in determining language form and function." (Berns, 1990; 26)

Functional-Notional Approach is sensitive to learners' needs. Since the aim is to communicate, the syllabus has been designed in terms of functions like apologising or asking for permission. "It concentrates on purposes for which language is used." (Finnocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983; 13)

Communicative Approach emphasises that the goal of language teaching is communicative competence. It has been developed particularly by British applied linguists as a reaction ^{in order to} away from grammar based approaches. Teaching materials used with a communicative approach teach the language

⁹ Cited in Margie Berns, 1990; 14)

needed to express different kinds of functions and^{are} based on notional syllabus or some other communicatively organised syllabus. Communicative approach emphasise^s the process of communicationⁱⁿ using language appropriately in different types of situation. ¹⁰

2.2 Factors that Affect Grammar Teaching

2.2.1 Social Factors

Language is the primary means in social interaction. The social roles of interlocutor^{and addressee?}, their relationship to each other, the subject of the communication, the setting and the purpose of the communication all affect the course of the communication. If the speaker is giving a lecture to colleagues or he is just having a friendly conversation with close friends there will absolutely^{be} difference^s in his language. That is called 'social factors'. The social factors have to be regarded when teaching a foreign language. To illustrate, the following are three examples of refusing an invitation, all of which fit in different situations:

- a) I can't. I've got an appointment.
- b) I'm sorry, Mr Briggs. I'd love to but I have an important appointment.
- c) Oh, I'm sorry. I'd be really very pleased but I've got an appointment.

In order not to be offensive and vulgar, a learner has to be aware of these constraints. The degree of politeness depends on the relationship between

¹⁰ (Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 1994; 67)

speakers. Interpretation of the social situation in which communication is taking place is a significant determinant. Because language carries not only functional meaning but also social meaning.

2.2.2 Discourse and Semantic Factors

Semantic factors include meaning, whereas, discourse factors involve topic continuity, word order, sentence sequencing. Uses of logical connectors, making meaningful conversations are all parts of discourse. Actually people are on the whole totally unaware of the mechanics of what they are doing when they speak, listen, read and write, but a teacher should consider these points when devising classroom activities.

The criteria for moving from structural grammar teaching to discourse level is that there may be pedagogical and descriptive problems in grammar teaching that sentence-based approaches cannot adequately deal with. Appropriate choices in different contexts; different distributions of forms in spoken and written language, items that make little sense if dealt with in stand-alone sentences can be explained by discourse level approaches.

McCarthy argues that discourse analysis (DA) has grown into a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline, which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts, and cultural influences that affect language in use. (McCarthy, 1994; 7) When a student is learning a language, actually he is learning the differences between his L1 and L2. There are many factors that affect language. Syntactic, morphological, lexical, grammatical, phonological and cultural etc. All of these should be taught integrated in a discourse.

Communicative language teaching emphasises^z the functions or speech acts that pieces of language perform, ^{and} overlaps in an important sense with the preoccupations of discourse analysts. (McCarthy, 1994: 10) In textbooks we can see such captions as "In this lesson you practise: giving advice and criticising, expressing obligation or prohibition" (Greenall and Sprenger, 1991; 9) This reminds people what is done through words, what functions of language are achieved by means of forms. Boxer and Pickering assert that language learners should be aware of being tactful and polite while complaining, as well as ^{of} acceptable ways of reacting ^{to} someone's anger. (Boxer and Pickering, 1995; 47)

All in all, all these categories interact with each other. In addition to grammar forms, learners should be taught some other features. In a conversation they should know who ^{should} would speak when as well as answering and interrupting politely, turn taking. It is easy to identify who will speak when as long as speakers are equal, or they should know when interlocutors are not equal such as in a patient-doctor or teacher-student conversation. Controlling and monitoring the discourse is essential. Sometimes three people might be speaking at the same time. "How people behave and how they co-operate in management of discourse is more important rather than elaborate models of structure. "How turn taking is managed, conversational openings and closings are effected." These are all essential. Because "English offers a limited set of options for creating surface links between the clauses and sentences, known as cohesion." (McCarthy, 1994; 28)

Learners can come across with different types of language: scientific,

commercial, engineering, agriculture. They differ in terms of lexical and syntactic properties. In a technical text, for instance, passive structure or imperative construction is formed to give instructions, whereas, the learner must be aware of when he will need to use ~~a~~ different grammar structures such as 'Will you.... please?' or "Can you...?" During the process of grammar teaching learners ought to be equipped with the knowledge of different types of discourse intonation, interrupting politely and turn taking.

As noted above, discourse is an important factor of grammar teaching. Terms like clause, pronoun, adverbial and conjunction will become theme, rheme, reference and anaphoric to make link between grammar and discourse. "Without a command of the rich and variable resources of the grammar offered by a language such as English, the construction and sophisticated discourse is impossible. But we shall be arguing that structuring the individual utterance, clause and sentence, structuring the larger units of discourse and creating textual coherence¹¹ are ultimately inseparable. (Stubbs, 1988; 34) ~~What~~ ^{the} discourse analyst can tell us about contextualized uses of structures and grammatical items, and ~~considering~~ ^{about} whether grammar teaching needs to broaden or shift its orientations to cover significant areas at present under-represented in grammar teaching. (Stubbs, 1988; 35)

All in all, different speech communities have different rules for communication. If language rules are illustrated in real situations, that is in a relevant connected discourse, then learners are able to acquire different discourse

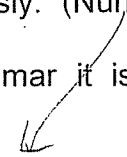
¹¹ "Coherence is the feeling that a text hangs together that it makes sense and it is not a jumble of sentences." (Mc Carthy, 1994;26)

types. By introducing learners different pieces of work, they can be acquainted with several types of discourse such as diaries, songs, formal meeting, legal contract, politics, courtrooms, law, religion, journalism , casual conversation and formal meetings. (Stubbs, 1988)

Just printed

3. GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION

To teach grammar or not has been the most controversial issues of language teaching. As noted in the previous chapters, grammar instruction was the core of language teaching. In recent years however, some scholars assume that second language learning is similar to mother tongue acquisition, therefore communicative language teaching provides a similar environment to the one in which ^{the} mother tongue is acquired.

If we talk about language *learning* then we should admit knowing the grammar rules of the target language consciously. (Nunan 1995, 153) "Grammar exists us to 'mean', and without grammar it is impossible to communicate beyond a very rudimentary level." 

The basic distinction in the teaching of grammar has been between the deductive and inductive approaches. "In a deductive approach learners are taught rules and given specific information about the language, which they are then expected to apply when they use the language. In an inductive approach, such as the communicative one, learners are not taught grammatical rules directly or explicitly, but are left to induce the rules from their usage of the language. The emphasis here is on the experience of the language rather than the formal presentation of language." (Wajnryb 1992;85) The first type of grammar presentation is the one in which learners are able to notice and process in communicative contexts. Such an instruction constitutes implicit grammatical instruction. However, while for some researchers, explicit type of grammatical instruction will help learners activate their previous knowledge about the language; for others explicit

instruction is not essential. A learner can presumably figure out the language information herself. The second/foreign language learner already has a grammar knowledge. To Krashen, (1987) both (deductive or inductive) are learning, not acquisition.

There are two arguments in communicative language teaching. There have been a number of applied linguists and researchers who argued strongly that explicit grammar teaching should be avoided. One line of argument is that grammar teaching is impossible because the knowledge that a speaker needs in order to use a language is simply too complex. Another is that grammar teaching is unnecessary because that knowledge is of a kind which cannot be passed on in the form of stable rules, but can only be acquired unconsciously through exposure to language.

There has been a reaction against the heavy emphasis on structure at the expense of natural communication. On the other hand, it is now fully accepted that an appropriate amount of class time should be devoted to grammar, this does not mean a simple turn to traditional grammar teaching, however.

Wherever possible, if learners are first exposed to ^{the} new language in a comprehensible context, they are able to understand its function and meaning. ^{Thus} ~~So that~~, learners work with the language, ^{and} discover the language with guidance from the teacher.

Although explicit and implicit grammar teaching are opposites, they share some deficiencies. They ~~do~~ not acknowledge the critical role of ^{the} teacher and the backgrounds of ^{the} students.

According to Celce Murcia (Celce Murcia, 27:1993)^{98?}, a grammar lesson consists of four sections:

- a) Presentation- introduction of the grammar structure
- b) Focused Practice- learners work with the form
- c) Communicative practice- learners engage in using target language to practise the learned grammar point. Information gap, choice and feedback are ^{the} main ^e emphasis of the communicative practice.
- d) Teacher feedback and correction- In every phase of the lesson, the teacher should have a different strategy to approach learners' errors to engage student^s cognitively.

Sandra Mc Kay (1987), on the other hand, maintains that there are three ways of teaching grammar:

- a) formal explanation of grammar rules which does not have a communicative end: Learners receive a great deal of grammatical instruction and this end^s up with knowing quite a lot about the language, ^b they are not able to put the language to communicative effect.
- b) analogy of grammar rules instead of explanation which results in being unable to use ^{the} rules in action: the learners may become fluent in the structures they have been fluent^{practiced}, but may not be able to use them appropriately in genuine communication outside the classroom.
- c) with no explanations of the grammar rules of the target language, but giving students ^{the} chance to use the new language in situations: in a variety of realistic situations, learners use the language, but they are unable to provide explanations of the grammatical rules of the target language.

Richards, on the other hand, states that there are four possible grammar-function ratios : a) grammar-based ^{but} and without functional focus, b) grammar-based ^{and} but with functional focus, c) function-based ^{and} but with grammatical focus, d) function-based but without grammatical focus.

Lastly, Ur (1988) advocates a four-stage approach to the teaching of grammatical items:

- a) Presentation: presenting the structure through an input in which the item appears
- b) Isolation and Explanation: making all aspects of the item clear
- c) Practice: getting students absorb and master the target structure
- d) Test: getting the learners to demonstrate their performance

In a language classroom, learners receive systematic instruction in the grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation of the target language to improve their four basic communication skills. Contrastive hypothesis¹² helped curriculum specialists to develop and sequence the items for instruction. 'Morpheme order' studies, however, concluded that contrastive hypothesis was not valid and actually there was a natural order of acquisition which was driven by innate learning process. As a result of morpheme order studies as well as other SLA research, researchers played down the role of grammar in the classroom. To illustrate, Krashen, suggested that the rules should be presented in some order when the goal is conscious learning (by 'conscious learning', he means 'grammar'), yet grammatical consciousness-raising

¹² This hypothesis claims that we can predict possible language learning difficulties by examining the learner's first language. (James, 1980)

came out as a result of organic view of language leaning. This new approach rejects the split between conscious learning and subconscious acquisition. The attention is paid to the relationship between form and function. On the other hand, Halliday's systemic grammar advocates the explicit grammar instruction, but not traditional grammar instruction. Systemic functional linguistics claim that language exists in context, and rather than in individual grammatical items, this approach works with whole texts. Systemic-functional linguists provided a way of linking context and text, function and form.

Ellis (1992) argues that looking explicitly at grammar may not lead immediately to learning, it will facilitate learning at a later stage when the learner is ready to internalise the new information about the language.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) state the steps in presenting the grammar as follows:

- We should motivate learners by arousing the need to learn a specific structure. To achieve this, we should dramatise a situation.
- They should know the objective of the lesson, that is what they will study.
- We ought to use the new form by using other parts of speech that students are familiar ^{with} and model it a few times.
- Repetition
- Highlight the new structure in the sentence you have written on the board, a chart may be helpful
- Oral practice



- Standard*
- Pupils should be able to consciously select new grammatical item^s from *around* contrasting ones that have been learnt previously.
 - Learners should use the new form with communicative expressions
 - Translation is allowed where suitable. (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983; 124)

On the whole, the place of grammar in language teaching is still uncertain. Theoretical and empirical studies on second language acquisition and the introduction of communicative approaches examine the place of grammar in language teaching.

3.1. How do current English Language textbooks approach to grammar teaching?

Obviously, there are hundreds of ESL grammar textbooks on the market. Although recent developments are applied to the teaching of other skills, textbook writers and teachers are conservative about the teaching of grammar. A few *examples* to illustrate how grammar textbooks approach are the following :

English Structure Practice is constituted by mechanical or meaningful drills with frequent reference to stress and intonation. Grammar Spectrum by Morman Coe begins with the explanation of the grammar structure, and the explanation is followed by mechanical or meaningful exercises.

Azar's Understanding and Using English Grammar consists of controlled grammar activities composed of sentences out of context and presentation is

supported by explanations and charts. For each different grammar point, the same type of activity has been devised. In the same way, Grammar Practice for Intermediate Students provides non-contextual and non-communicative grammar practice.

Round-up presents grammar knowledge by giving examples independent from context but provides some of the controlled exercises in context. Exercises are mostly 'fill in the blanks' type. Error analysis is another sort of exercise. Rarely has grammar presentation been supported by pictures. Likewise, Collins Cobuild Student's Grammar gives detailed explanation of the usage; but practical material only 'links structure and meaning' not the function and does not provide communicative practice.

In another grammar reference book titled Oxford Practice Grammar language material has been presented in short passages or conversations showing how forms are used in real context. The practice stage, however, has been restricted to controlled drills which have no communicative end. Similarly, How English Works is another grammar reference book combined of controlled exercises most of which are independent from context.

An additional example to this category is Advanced English Practice by Graver. Presentation is carried out by detailed explanation of grammar rules and sample sentences out of context. Controlled grammar activities constitutes the frame of the book. Sentence transformation and completion type of exercises result in more than one possible answer due to non-contextualized sentences. Introduction of the grammatical rule is supported by sample statements and exercises. They come after the presentation part

and they are mostly 'fill in the blanks type' non-contextualized sentences.

Michael Vince's Intermediate Language Practice presents grammar points in single sentences and provides 'fill in the blanks' or transformation types of exercises.

English Grammar Lessons presents each structure to be studied in four parts: the first part is called 'starting activities' which we can name as warm-up activities. A context is given and learners are prepared to need to use the target structure. Then grammar rules are explained in sample sentences and supported by both controlled and communicative activities.

Focus on Grammar closes the gap between grammar knowledge and the contextual use of new structures by expanding the activities on four skills; reading, listening, speaking and writing. Both controlled exercises and communicative ones help learners to internalise grammar. In the first step, grammar is presented in context; in a passage, article or dialogues. This aids learners to see the use of new grammar structures in real language context. Even though the passages are not authentic, students become accustomed to contexts in various formats. This presentation is supported by miscellaneous controlled or communicative activities such as listening and responding, visual stimuli or illustrations. Controlled drills like fill in the blanks, matching, multiple choice, sentence combining and error analysis are presented in context.

Unfortunately, many of the books on the market encompass manipulative drills which are grounded on rather shallow and artificial contexts, so these drills become rather meaningless to students.

3.2. Contextual Grammar Instruction

Students feel the urge to learn the formal rules of language, that is they expect grammar knowledge. Despite the recent impact of communicative approaches, learners persist in utilising grammar based supplementary materials. Whereas, they need to practice new grammar points in ^avariety of contexts to help them internalise and master FL structure.

Although knowing the grammatical rule is sufficient to produce grammatically correct sentences, what we aim is to have learners apply these grammatical structures in real communication act, that is in context. Richards goes further and maintains that there has been empirical evidence that proves that communicative language teaching generates better language learners. (Richards, 1985)

Contextual grammar instruction will enable learners to recognise the properties of target structures in context, and develop accuracy in their use. *Among these feature.* The relationship between the speaker and the addressee and ~~also by the~~ *the setting where the* ~~whether the~~ speech event takes place in an institutional or a more informal setting.

Most scholars agree that second or foreign language is best learned in a natural acquisition context. The best environment for this is the place where the target language is spoken. Therefore, to expose ^elearners to the use of language, an environment similar to the one outside must be created in the classroom. Traditional instruction environment¹³ will not assist learners

¹³ The traditional instruction environment is one where the language is being taught to a group of second or foreign language learners. ... the focus is on the language itself, ..., and

sufficiently to develop communicative competence as far as grammar knowledge is concerned. Communicative language environment, on the other hand, assists learners ⁱⁿ expanding their language competence¹⁴ by focusing on language use, interaction and conversation. By using his inner grammatical knowledge, the learner can form structurally correct utterances he has never heard of. A person might have the ability to perform sentences, but, ^{without} since not knowing the actual use of parts of speech, he ^{is} restricts ^{ed} the number of adjectives, ^{if} verbs, ^{he uses} hesitates or repeats the same words and as a result becomes boring.

Petrovitz declares that standard texts are adequate for grammar rules, however they fail to fulfil or represent other rules, usually at the expense of semantic factors crucial for correct application. As a result, learners can manage to apply rules but not in real communication situations. His argument is that there is no one single approach to the teaching all grammatical rules; "rules first must be distinguished on the basis of certain linguistic criteria before pedagogical strategies can be considered." (Petrovitz, 1997; 201) Nunan's ideas seem to be supporting Petrovitz: "Grammar exists us to

the goal is to see that learners learn the vocabulary and the grammatical rules of the target language rather than to use the language for daily communicative interaction. (Lightbrown and Spada, 70; 1993)

¹⁴ Competence is a person's internalized grammar of a language. Performance (in transformational generative grammar), on the other hand, is the actual use of language by the speakers of that language in speaking and writing.

'mean', and without grammar it is impossible to communicate beyond a very rudimentary level." (Nunan, 1995; 153)

p. 21
only the ?
 The Teaching of the only linguistic code has zero importance on communicative competence. Johnston¹⁵ criticised studying linguistic forms in isolation from their communicative functions. *(or) Drill - as intended ?* Drills, controlled practice, and interactions which are pseudo-communicative do not facilitate genuine communicative language skills, and Nunan questions their value in the language classroom. (Nunan, 1987) Littlewood sees drills as pre-communicative activities.

Sandra Fotos is in favour of "implicit focus on grammar during communicative language teaching." (Fotos, 1998; 301) She does not advocate *old* fashioned grammar teaching instruction. However she calls our attention to the fact that ELT takes place mostly in *EFL* situation where learners are instructed by non-native speakers of English, *different from* ESL environment. For that reason, the real problem is not to provide grammar instruction which can be managed in the classroom but learners should be given opportunities for communicative language use.

Michael Long presented a paper at a conference in Italy in 1988 and claimed that "it is not surprising that teaching grammatical forms in isolation usually fails to develop the ability of learners to use forms communicatively unless they are psycholinguistically ready to acquire them anyway"¹⁶ (Fotos, 1998; 302) Pienemann (1984) recommends a new type of syllabus which

¹⁵ cited in Nunan, 1987

¹⁶ cited in Fotos, 1998

“would combine communicative language use with instruction, on grammar forms in context”. Long ^{emphasised} the value of context-based presentation of grammar rules, Michael Long raises the question “Is learning a language a matter of developing skills, learning grammar rules, building neural networks, acquiring tacit linguistic knowledge, forming new habits, becoming a member of a new culture, adding a new repertoire, several of these or something else? Whatever course designers or teachers think language involves will influence the elements of the target language they present to their students—words, structures, notions, etc.—and how they should be presented—in isolation, in context, accompanied by rules, as naturally occurring parts of authentic excerpts, and so on.” (Long, 1993; 10)

In addition, Ellis (Ellis, 1987; 12) gives Long’s study as an example which provides evidence for the fact that instructed learners¹⁷ have a faster learning rate than the uninstructed¹⁸ ones. Ellis also points out that instruction may help learners to learn more rapidly.

Giving small grammar lessons will develop ^{an} awareness of grammar rules and help learners to notice the target structures in the communicative input. In that way, they will compare the correct forms with their interlanguage forms “triggering the cognitive process involved in reconstructing the learners’ internal linguistic system, and thus facilitating acquisition.” (Fotos, 1998; 305)

¹⁷ learners who have received explicit instruction

¹⁸ learners who have received implicit instruction

Claims

Geoff Thompson ~~puts forward~~ that the use of grammar in communicative language learning has been misinterpreted. Thompson ^{like} reminds that ^{the} explicit presentation of grammar rules has never been excluded in CLT, only the degree of emphasis has shifted. That is "the focus has now moved away from the teacher *covering* grammar to the learners *discovering* grammar" (Thompson, 1996; 11)

The first step to teach grammar is to present grammar in a comprehensible meaningful context. Then learners should observe and examine the forms used to convey the meaning. Discussing grammar rules is feasible since "learning is likely to be more efficient if the learners have an opportunity to talk about what they are learning" (Thompson, 1996; 11)

Hammond¹⁹ suggests that the teaching of grammar from a systemic functional perspective has a number of major benefits. Learners are taught how language actually works at the level of text, it can contribute to learners' literacy awareness. It also provides teachers and learners with a shared vocabulary for talking about language and the way it works. So it contributes significantly to successful literacy development.

Halliday argues that language exists in context, and that the context and purposes for which language is used will determine the ways in which language is realised at the levels of text and grammar. While there is no one-to-one relationship between form and function, the relationships between the two are not arbitrary. He advocates explicit grammatical instruction, but not a traditional grammar teaching. Learners work from context to text to

¹⁹ cited in Nunan, 1995;152

sentence and clause. How language differs according to the context in which it is produced, the purposes for which it is used, and the audience to which it is addressed.

Meanings and concepts are ^{the} main issues of communicative language teaching, however Wilkins (1974) does not ^{minimize} despise the importance of grammatical system. To him, linguistic creativity and communicative capacity depends on mostly grammar knowledge.

Ellis (1987) examines SLA in context. Since the learner performs differently in different occasions, we should be concerned with not only the output but also the input²⁰, different contexts affect the learners' output. When using the language the learner has different choices on the levels of grammatical, phonological, discourse and lexical ^{contexts} levels. For instance, the learner should be able to decide ^{using the} ~~to use~~ direct or indirect question ^{form} depending on ~~whom~~ he is speaking to. Undoubtedly there are different ways of asking for a glass of water: "I'm thirsty", "Fetch me a glass of water", "Could you bring me a glass of water". It is possible to increase the number of examples. So, if the learner is instructed the grammar rules independently from the context, he will not be able to learn/acquire and also use different functions of language in real act^s of communication. Language practice in context stresses communicative competence rather than linguistic competence. (Frank and Rinvoluncri, 1991)

²⁰ terms often used in applied linguistics, psychology, cognitive psychology and related disciplines to refer to information that a person receives (input), behavior which results from it (output).

Both linguistic and situational context^s affect the speaker's choice because "meaning can only be interpreted in a particular context" (Ellis, 1987; 20) Ellis also believes that students perform a particular structure accurately in the context of controlled language practice but fail to do so in free practice or in communication outside the classroom. The problem is an important one because it raises one of the central questions of language pedagogy, namely the relationship between what Brumfit has called 'accuracy' and 'fluency' activities. (Brumfit, 1984; 180)

Fakhri²¹ asserts that discourse factors and students' urge to make their discourse textually by using cohesive devices influence the use of linguistic forms, which means language learners have pragmatic considerations. He refers to the research^{which avers} that "although formal instruction appears to have beneficial effect on the language performance that is elicited by using instruments such as translation tasks, it does not appear to have any effect on spontaneous use." (Ellis, 1987; 192). Similarly Prabhu²² (1982) puts forward that form is best learnt when the learner's attention is on meaning.

For Widdowson, learners should achieve ~~the~~ pragmatic skills in the second language, ~~skills~~ such as ["]interpretative skills relating to knowledge of the use of discourse conventions or non-verbal elements and ~~to~~ skills which they have already developed in their first language."²³

²¹ cited in Ellis, 1987; 182.

²² cited in Brumfit, 1984

²³ cited in Berns; 1990; 93

There are scholars who think explicit grammar teaching is not vital. Dulay and Krashen (1982) admit that exposure to natural communication in the target language is necessary for the subconscious processes to work well. The richer the learner's exposure to the target language, the more rapid and comprehensible learning is likely to be. Nonetheless, Krashen and Terrell point out that ^{-the} study of grammar has no role in ^{-the? their?} language program.

⑩ Communicative ability is usually acquired quite rapidly; grammatical accuracy, on the other hand, increases only slowly and after much experience using the language. (Krashen and Terrell, 1988;16) They claim that conscious understanding of grammar is not ^a prerequisite for communicative competence. According to Krashen and Terrell, that's why grammar-based methods purporting to develop communicative competence fail with the majority of pupils. "Grammatical accuracy is very low in early stages and increases slowly with increased opportunities for communicative interaction and acquisition." (Krashen and Terrell, 1988;20) Likewise, Canale and Swain assert that grammatical competence is not a predictor for communicative competence.²⁴ Similarly, Breen²⁵ (1985) criticised ^{the} the failure of SLA researchers ^{for} to take ^{ing} the social context within which learning take^s place, ^(into consideration) in the design and implementation of their research.

However, to theorists like

To Swain, "exposure to the target language in meaningful contexts is insufficient for most learners to develop a sophisticated working knowledge of

²⁴ Cited in Chen 1995

²⁵ Cited in Nunan 1995, 146

grammar.”²⁶ [?] Widdowson / ^{we} marks that, the language teacher’s view of what constitutes knowledge of a language is essentially the same as Chomsky’s: a knowledge of the syntactic structure of sentences, and of the transformational relations which hold between them. Sentences are seen as paradigmatically rather than syntagmatically related.(..) That is to say, that once the competence is acquired, performance will take care of itself. (Halliday, 1985; 89) *Cited in Holiday? or Halliday says this?*

Learners should achieve harmony between functional interpretation and formal appropriacy. “For example, getting learners to read a set of sentences in the active voice, and then transform these into passives following a model, is a standard way of introducing the passive voice. However, it needs to be supplemented by tasks which give learners opportunities to explore when it is communicatively appropriate to use the passive rather than the active voice.” (...). “They are not shown that passive forms have evolved to achieve certain communicative ends- to enable the speaker or writer to place the communicative focus on the action rather than on the performer of the action, to avoid referring to the performer of the action.” (Halliday, 1985; 103) Furthermore, ^{Halliday} he claims that genuine communication is characterised by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning (through, for example, clarification requests and conformation checks), topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. In other words, in

²⁶ Cited in Nunan, 1995; 153

genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grabs.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit claim that "the grammar introduced in the units is not sequenced or graded according to any linguistic theory. We use instead a communicative grammar, one which takes cognisance of authentic real world speech as recorded from live, spontaneous speech acts." (Finocchiaro and Brumfit , 1983; 124) Nevertheless, most English textbooks following the functional-notional approach follow a similar outline. Moreover, these textbooks do not use authentic texts but simplified texts suitable to the grammar unit that ^{is} has been being taught. This results from trying to teach one aspect at one time in the simplest way. Consequently, learners cannot be exposed to real language. "Selection and gradation within structural categories are extremely important, however, in the presentation of grammar"¹¹ (Finocchiaro and Brumfit , 1983; 124) Nunan criticises the language teaching materials that are based on linear model of language acquisition. (Nunan 1998; 101) ^{The} Linear model supposes that learners acquire language in a predictable order: first, ^{the} simple present, then past, ^{the / past} they will need to use ^{the} if clause structure after they have mastered in certain tenses. He compares this with building a wall, each language item representing a brick. On the other hand, he calls his alternative model 'an organic approach to second language pedagogy' and supports his idea of second language acquisition and discourse analysis. ^{as follows :} "The organic metaphor sees second language acquisition more like a growing garden than building a wall. From such a perspective, learners do not learn one thing perfectly, one item at a time, but

numerous things simultaneously (and imperfectly). The linguistic flowers do not appear all at the same time, nor do they all grow at the same rate." (Nunan, 1998; 102) Similarly, Brumfit claims that 'the process of grammar instruction by the learner is likely to be ^a developmental process which is 'organic' rather than 'additive'. (Brumfit, 102:1988)

In his later studies, Nunan puts forward that ^{the} organic approach gives learners an alternative way to see 'how to use grammar to get things done, socialise, obtain goods and services and express their personality through language'. He claims that "the notion that the learning of grammar is a linear, step-by-step process has largely been replaced by an organic, even metamorphic view in which the development of grammatical competence is seen in terms of process as well as product." (Nunan, 1995;166)

However, as Petrovitz puts it (Petrovitz, 1997; 201) "...contextualization is more important for some grammatical items than for others: discourse factors seem much more crucial for tense usage, for example, than for irregular plurals. Second, many of the more traditional exercises do seem to be useful in highlighting certain grammatical points." Nunan complains about the presentation of grammar out of context, too. In traditional kind of exercises like repetition, manipulation and grammatical transformation, they cannot see the relationship between form, meaning and use. While trying to contextualize sentences we should avoid exaggerating. For some grammar rules, traditional exercise types are more convenient than what we offer. For instance, when teaching the adverb and the adjective traditional types of exercises are necessary. However, these examples ought to be used in a

written piece of work, or a conversation. The student must need to use the required form. Corder, correspondingly, asserts that a learner needs contextual language data to acquire rules of language use. (Corder, 1985) ⁸⁸ This brings the importance of using authentic materials with different discourse. Chen, (1995) proposes an integrative grammar teaching model. She points out that explicit grammar instruction (EGI) can be successful with communicative activities.

Like Chen, Susan Gass emphasises the importance of explicit grammar instruction. She supposes that "explicit instruction facilitates student awareness of target language forms and/or meanings and of the discrepancies between what they have themselves constructed for their second language and the system which becomes apparent to them (through instruction) from the target language data they are confronted with." (Gass, 1991; 137) but she adds that explicit instruction is not essential, but a shortcut leading to internalisation of grammar rules to a greater communicative ability.

Desmond Cosgrave⁸⁴ marks that grammar "is to be learned no longer through the memorization of rules but through intensive oral practice on specific patterns, which have been determined and described by linguistic analysis." His grammar model consists of two types of grammar activity: "habituation practice (which corresponds to the dialogue memorisation and pattern-practice stage) and communicative practice. (Cosgrave, 1975; 141-143) On the other hand, Fotos's study on grammar consciousness raising tasks encourages formal instruction on grammar with communicative

activities in language classrooms. (Fotos, 1994)

In sum, in very general terms, the argument that is proposed here is that no single approach is enough for teaching all grammatical rules, and these rules should be presented in contexts exemplifying different situations and discourse.

4. GRAMMAR ACTIVITIES

If students' head is filled with only grammar rules, student will think grammar rules instead of using them. If rules are presented in context with real life-like situations (comprehension), they will think about situations. The production of meaningful discourse could only be achieved after communicative extension activities. They provide learners with the opportunity to use their new knowledge in creative and interesting ways while at the same time integrating it into other skills and existing knowledge. These activities should be interesting, be related to the theme of the lesson and allow for creative self-expression. Instead of requiring learners using the new target structure in the fill in blanks type of disconnected sentences; we should encourage pupils to participate in activities such as information-gap activities, role-plays, dramatisations, games, authentic writing projects, paired interviews, class surveys, or simulations of real life situations.

On the other hand, mechanical drills focus exclusively on the performance of structural operations. Many of the audio-lingual drills produced up to the end of 1960s are of this type. Oral drills are a very structured way to introduce students to a new grammatical structure. Depending on the drill, students can be either called on individually or the class can be asked for a chorale response. Either way, the drill should move quickly.

Learners are never aware of the meaning in this sort of activity, however. A structure focused drill like the following would be monotonous. Furthermore, students do not pay attention to the meaning. It lacks context,

as a result discourse features etc.

P: John has written the letter.

R: He wrote it yesterday.

P: John has seen the film.

R: He saw it yesterday.

However, this drill can easily be adapted so that it rehearses the same structures but in a meaningful context. Thus, it sounds more authentic and a realistic.

P: By the way, Has John written that letter yet?

R: yes, he wrote it yesterday.

P: Has he seen the film yet?

R: Yes, he saw it yesterday. (Littlewood, 1981, 9)

Since the principal reason for having grammar activities in the language classroom is to facilitate using grammar rules communicatively, grammar activities should be designed with a communicative end.

4.1 Communicative Grammar Activities

The most ^{successful?} communication according to Cosgrave is the one "which is built around people, places and things with which students are familiar." (Cosgrave, 1975, 143) He also adds that it should also take into account their age level, interests, hobbies, the locality in which they live. The teacher should take into consideration these factors while devising communicative activities. Pupils need some stimulus to get them going; something concrete like a newspaper article, a photograph or a map. This also should be

considered while inventing communicative activities for the classroom.

Where students most want to express themselves in real life communication is another element that requires attention. Because what a person says in real communication is determined by that situation. In a mechanical practice, the teacher tells the student what he will say. Actually, classroom activities should be turned into personal experiences. The students should be given situations and contexts in which they will practice what they have learned according to what ^{he} might want to say in language situations. Cosgrave advises to add some humour and even teasing to communicative activities since it will encourage ^a friendly atmosphere and is well suited to the natural conversation. (Cosgrave, 1975; 143) Moreover, in real life people talk about specific things, people, places and objects. Therefore being specific should be encouraged during communicative activities. This adds reality to classroom conversations.

^{This} Integration of grammar instruction with communicative language teaching activities, both raises the students' awareness for grammar rules and gives them an opportunity to practise these forms in discourse. In addition, Ur emphasises that explicit teaching and form-focused exercises should lead meaningful activities in game-like situations. (Ur, 1996) The following are some of the communicative activities that expand and extend particular grammatical structures.

There are three basic modes of classroom instruction: whole class, group (pairs etc.) and individual. Each mode can contribute to learning. To enhance the effectiveness of the classroom activities in language teaching

3?

tree modes can be applied in accordance with the participants, setting and the subject to be practised.

The success of an activity partly depends on providing learners with sufficiently detailed guidance. Since the classroom situation is ^{or} non-linguistic environment which is immediately real to the students it is indispensable to help them relate target language to external reality by providing them with communicative language practice.

4.1.1 Listening and Responding

Inspired by the silent period²⁷ of first language acquisition, scholars suggest that we use listening activities in grammar instruction. Total physical response²⁸ also could give us an idea about how to use listening and responding activities in grammar instruction. To expect ^{the} student to respond to verbal stimuli can be an effective way of grammar instruction especially at ^{the} early stages. Students can learn some grammar points without even ^{being aware of it} realising. Learners can respond physically, orally or by drawing pictures and writing. In this way, ^{*} pupils can match meaning and form in context and this could be used with students at all levels. Picture dictations provide a fun way ^{entertaining} for students to practice listening skills. For example, for a drawing dictation for the practice with the simple present/present progressive the teacher

²⁷ According to some research, there is a silent period when a first language learner just perceives language, does not produce any chunks of words.

²⁸ a language teaching method developed by Asher in which items are presented in the foreign language as orders, commands and instructions requiring a physical response from the learner. (Dictionary of Applied Linguistics)

* pupils + students dan kinnis gerak-gerak.

describes a scene with a lot of action. Students draw it without writing down the description.

4.1.2 Predicting the middles, ends or beginnings of discourse by using clues

Learners might be given a part of a text (a dialogue, poem, story, etc.) and asked to predict the middle, end or the beginning of the text by using clues like 'the', 'this', 'that' or 'well' etc. This practice contributes them to see the relationship between the sentences.

4.1.3 Scrambled sentences

Giving students all the words to form one sentence in mixed-up order by asking students to re-arrange the words to form a grammatically correct sentence is a good way of practising target language structure. It is an activity related to the moves and scrambled sentences are an excellent way to practice grammar recognition and syntax. Another ~~great~~ version of this game requires preparing sentences in advance on index cards (one word per index card) and putting the cards in numbered envelopes (one envelope per sentence). Students then compete in small groups to successfully arrange the words in all the envelopes. Using sentences from an actual newspaper article or advertisement makes the activity more vivid.

4.1.4 Telling Stories

Stories are common to nearly every culture and everybody enjoys them. In addition, stories provide perfect context for the grammar points. The teacher can exemplify the grammar points in context with a structure-discourse match. Stories can be manipulated with ^a variety of creative

activities such as telling the story from a different point of view, summarising or writing an imaginary conversation for a specific part of the story. Examples can be increased in number depending on the instructor's creativity. Moreover, stories are convenient and flexible for any grammar point. Target language literature provides practise in "the contextualization of linguistic expression". (Rönqvist and Sell, 1994; 125). "It extends students' grammatical knowledge."(Lazar, 1994; 115) It might be argued that authentic literary texts might be difficult for learners or have deviant structure. However, if these materials are selected and graded carefully, they can serve as grammar presentation and practice materials. Furthermore, they move beyond an understanding of the language simply in terms of individual words or sentences.

Chain stories work really well when they are given to the class some structure. To practice the simple present for habitual action, for example, the starting of the story could be given; "John always has a busy day. He wakes up at 6:00 o'clock every morning. At 6:10 he ..." and students are asked to continue the story. Each student continues the story by adding an original sentence.

Episodic organisation represented in stories aids comprehension and retention. Supporting story telling with other activities deepens comprehension. The framework of the story provides a continuous flow of mental images that help the learner to gather the function and the meaning of the forms.

4.1.5 Role Plays ²⁹(Dramatic Activities)

We claim that participants, setting and roles are important in a certain discourse. So role plays are one of the most convenient activities in our case. Pupils may learn to adjust themselves from setting to setting. Since participants are given a role in a context, role plays present a close connection between social discourse and the grammar point. Besides, they encourage motivation, self esteem and empathy. The aim is to train students with the unpredictable nature of the language.

Moreover, role plays are held in small groups or pairs and , in Brumfit's words, these small groups ' provide greater intensity of involvement, so that the quality of language practice is increased. The setting is more natural than that of the full class, for the size of group resembles that of normal conversation. (Brumfit, 1988; 77) What's more, role plays combine all effects of communication.

Pair and group work is the only available basis for naturalistic behaviour in conversational interaction in class. (Brumfit, 1988; 87) Role-plays are an active way for younger and beginning students to practice using new grammar.

Through role plays a wide variety of experience can be brought into ^{the} classroom. Moreover, phatic forms of language are often neglected by teaching syllabuses. It is possible to build up social skills through role plays. Besides, it is a rehearsal for real life and provides shy students with a mask.

²⁹ an individual's spontaneous behavior reacting to others in a hypothetical situation. (Revell, 1979; 60)

They communicate more freely if they have a role to hide behind. Ultimately, the most important reason for using role play is that it is fun.

4.1.6 Visual Stimuli (Pictures, Realia, Graphs)

Visual stimuli are useful and effective tools to enhance the contextual presentation and practice of grammar structures. Pictures, to cite an instance, can be presented in pairs (before and after Mr. Johnson has grown beard in the presentation of present perfect tense) or semantically grouped sets to tell a story or an event. It is a good idea to use real pictures from magazines, catalogues, and newspapers. It's best to choose pictures with a lot of action or activity.

Realia and other objects in the classroom are really vital teaching aids for communicative grammar teaching. Real objects facilitate the learning of grammar.

Charts, tables and graphs, timetables provide form and meaning match and serve communicative grammar practice. Question-and-answer activity based on visuals requires the learner to relate the language to non-linguistic reality in a similar way.

4.1.7 Songs, Poetry and Verse

Similar to stories, songs, poetry and verse present context for the exemplification of grammar points. They suit to structure and discourse match very well. In meaningful practice of grammar structure, songs, poetry and verse can be used in the presentation, practice and the reinforcement stages.

4.1.8 Games and Problem Solving Activities

Not only do these kind of activities have a goal which motivates students, but also they are enjoyable. As well as providing grammar and discourse match.

Student surveys, for instance, make for fun reading and writing practice. A short activity can be done by using a real survey (There are many good ones in women's magazines.), though for beginning students it's probably better for them to create their own. Some topics for the simple present might be: entertainment, hobbies, music, family, food, sports, and English. Likewise, pair interviews can be conducted on a variety of topics. Students can either prepare questions in class or for homework. Students should report back on their interviews in either oral or written form.

Short speeches (2-5 minutes per student) can be prepared for homework and presented in class to review target grammar. Impromptu speeches ,in which students choose a topic from a hat or paper bag and must perform immediately , is another type of activity.

Guessing games are a fun way for beginners to review vocabulary words, practice forming structures, and listen for meaning. (an activity related to the moves)

Through these activities the language become increasingly embedded in a context of social interaction. Gradually, learners' performance becomes less controlled by specific linguistic prompts and more controlled by the need to produce language in response to the functional and social demands of

social interaction.

To conclude, there are no set formula to determine the teacher's selection from among these activities. The teacher's ultimate goal, the target structure to be taught might determine his choice.

5. THE RESEARCH

Communicative function is closely bound up with situational context. A structural activity can easily be placed in a context in which it becomes meaningful. A further step in providing links between structure and function is to contextualize the language and ask learners to practise responses to perform useful communicative acts in realistic ways. Structurally, in an activity, a learner might be studying the use of gerund; whereas, functionally, he might be learning rejecting a suggestion or offer. That is, the pupil is learning to relate language to its function

In this study, how contextual grammar activities aid learners to use second language in real life situations has been analysed. This study claims that contextual grammar instruction supported with communicative activities will enable ^{Students} them to acquire linguistic forms and relate them to communicative function, non-linguistic reality and social context. This study has been applied ^{to} on Turkish university students who have studied at ^{the} preparatory school of the university.

This research also demonstrates the deficiencies of mechanical grammar activities in language lessons. How these traditional grammar activities fail to achieve to contribute to the pupils' communicative performance is also a part of this study.

The data necessary for this thesis was obtained from ELT books, magazines and periodicals on applied linguistics, discourse and grammar teaching. No empirical findings were found on this case.

5.1 The technique of the study

ELT books and periodicals were used to provide the theoretical support for this study. The list of these materials ^{can} could be found in the "references" part of the study. The list of grammar reference books examined ^{is} could be found in the 'reference grammars' section. In the light of this scientific and theoretical research, the effect of contextual grammar activities was measured on Turkish EFL students at a state university preparatory class. The performance of the students was compared to their performance before the application and the results of the application study were introduced in the research section. Hence, not only with the theoretical findings ~~(was this study supported)~~ but also these hypothetical findings were proved by an application study. ^{furthermore}

5.1.1 Contextual Grammar Instruction supported with Communicative Activities

5.1.1.1 Aim and Topic of the Application Study

The teaching of grammar has been the most controversial part of foreign language teaching. In the past several years, some researchers have claimed that communicative classes provide better understanding of language rather than classes controlled by formal instruction. In other words, contextual grammar activities which are based on communicative ends are more effective in facilitating language acquisition than mechanical teacher dominated ones.

This study was based on the suggestion that the raising ^{of} grammar

awareness is necessary but grammar activities to raise this awareness should be arranged in a way that pupils are able to communicate in the target language. This study was based on developing communicative competence in Turkish students studying English as a foreign language by means of contextual grammar activities. The aim of the study was to figure out whether contextual grammar exercises help learners to use language fluently and grammatically correct^{ly} in communicative situations better than the mechanical drills do. It was carried out by following the idea that a foreign language class, whether^{it} includes explicit grammar instruction or not, should be assisted by such contextual grammar exercises as story telling, games, role-plays, etc., Therefore, the purpose was to find out the best way in leaning grammar among Turkish university students who study English as a foreign language at ^{the} university preparatory class. This study aims at giving a detailed account of the need and conditions of contextual grammar activities in ^{the} acquisition of foreign language. Thus, the objective of the study is to explore the following questions:

1. Methodological Questions:

The methodological issues explored in this study were the following:

- Should learners be provided with contextual grammar drills?
- Are there any differences on the success of the students who study a foreign language in a communicative classroom environment?

2. Research Questions:

The purpose of this study was to investigate the following research question:

Which type of grammar instruction is more efficient to improve knowledge of grammatical structures of upper-intermediate level of EFL Turkish students: presentation of grammar rules in ^avariety of contexts and communicative grammar activities that follow the instruction or traditional grammar teaching with mechanical drills following that.

5.1.1.2 Importance of the Application

This study aims at investigating the effects contextual grammar practice by providing theoretical framework and an application study on the issue in Turkey's situation. Some of the failures and deficiencies of formal instruction with mechanical grammar drills have been displayed by the results of the application study.

5.1.1.3 Hypothesis

- Comprehensible input facilitates ~~the~~ language learning.
- Presentation of the grammar point in connected discourse helps students learn and utilise target language in communication.
- Communicative classes help learners 'use' the target language in communicative situations.
- Contextual grammar practice is more effectual than mechanical grammar practice in learning a foreign language.
- Social, semantic and discourse factors of language were considered in the preparation and the application of the exercises.

5.1.1.4 Limitations

- The study was conducted in one class of 23 students selected at random.

- The application was limited to university students aged between 18-21 composed of male and female students.
- The study was limited with the lessons nine hours a week at ^{the} university preparatory school. *To 9-hour weekly classes*
- The materials were taken from various books without regarding topic but ^{their contents} the structure. Some of the materials were authentic and activities were devised special ^{er} for these materials. *but*
- The learners in both groups received 12 hour ^{extra?} more input. The application study was only a part of English language learning classroom.

5.1.1.5 The starting point of the study

Krashen (1982) points out that ^{rules?} learners will be internalised only if students ^{are} urged to use the grammar for communicative purposes. If they are ^{taught} not ~~in a situation~~ to use the structure in a communication ^{situation} these rules can never be internalised. In addition, the learners need to apprehend the content of natural communication in the target language. (Nunan, 1987) Communication is the primary goal, however, it is strenuous to communicate without grammar efficiently and functionally. Long (1988) proposes a similar view. He asserts that teaching ^{the} grammar of the target language in isolation prevents learners to develop the ability to use forms communicatively.

On the other hand, to apprehend and recognise grammar rules is not sufficient to apply them in the production stage. Learners should be able to develop accuracy and fluency by paying attention to the setting of the communication, the interlocutors, their position to each other. SL or FL is

best learned in a natural acquisition context. Therefore ^{the} best language environment is the place where the target language is used. To ^e expose learners to the use of language, the FI should be exemplified in ^a many variety of texts as much as possible.

In most ELT classrooms, grammar teaching is carried out by old fashioned types of exercises (mechanical drills, questions which have no information gap etc.) which have no communicative use or value. What pupils complain is that they have to memorise the rules, cannot apply them in real communication act, however. To prevent communication failure problems or gaps, grammar rules ought to be presented in connection with different settings. Grammar teaching should be based on applied discourse analysis like other primary skills; reading, writing, speaking and listening, have been done. Grammar should be presented in connected discourse.

By combining all of these ^{particular} peculiarities, this study was ^{made} done to show that grammar instruction can be accomplished more successfully with contextualized grammar teaching and communicative grammar practice.

In the study, it is hypothesized that a text is difficult for an individual and comprehensible input facilitates the language learning. For that reason, ^a the presentation of ^a the grammar point in connected discourse facilitates and helps students learn and utilise the grammatical form in communication. Communicative environment created in the classroom support ^{s/} the use and the practice of target structure.

As a matter of fact, in ELT classrooms a variety of different communicative activities that reinforce the creativity and enhance the

motivation were employed. At the end of the study, it was realized that these activities motivated students and contributed to the students' positive attitudes ^{toward} about language learning and the use of grammatical forms in meaningful contexts.

5.1.2 Subjects of the study

In order to conduct this experiment, two groups of learners were chosen for this study. The data about their background was collected by giving students a questionnaire in Turkish.

The first group, the experimental group, comprised 23 university students whose age ranged from 18 to 21. Both groups had been studying English for ~~between~~ three to six years.

The second group, the control one, composed of 23 university students. The subjects belonging to this group ^{with} aged between 18-21 and had been studying English for ~~between~~ from four to seven years.

The experimental group students received grammar rules in context with various communicative grammar activities while one control group was instructed through traditional formal grammar teaching and supported with mechanical grammar activities. The students of both groups are university EFL students who had ^{entered the} got place at university with good achievement scores and ^{had} been studying 27 hours a week at the Prep School. Each group contained 23 Turkish EFL students. Both groups were given ^{an} Oxford placement test, in which grammar-based questions are asked in context before and after the application study.

5.1.2.1 Learner Variables

Learning strategies are affected by many factors. These are the nature of second/ foreign language development. For years, it was assumed that simple one-to one relationship existed between teaching and learning. In other words, it was thought that with learners who have enough intelligence and teachers with appropriate skills, teaching would result in learning. However, recently, with the studies in second language acquisition, discourse and learning styles ; and the work and research on socio-cultural and aspects of language development have shown that ^{the} learner variable is an important factor in designating language development. For instance, some learners may respond better to visual stimuli, ^{and others} whereas ~~some~~ to auditory input. Developmental aspects of learner language, learner interaction in the classroom, learning tasks and learner strategies, learners' background, ^{and} families, all of ^{these} ~~them~~ are ^{effective factors in} ~~characteristics~~ of second language learning. Furthermore, personality or cognitive styles also affect foreign/ second language learning; these factors include the willingness to take risks, skill in social interactions and attitude toward the target structure. (Wong-Fillmore 1985; Young 1990)³⁰

A study carried out by Willings in 1988³¹ to explore the possible learning –style differences indicated that the variables were ethnic group, level of previous education, length of residence in Australia (*in the country where the*

³⁰ cited in Shrum and Glisan 1994.

³¹ cited in Nunan 1983.

target language is spoken) speaking proficiency level and the type of the learning programme.

For that reason, these factors have been regarded in this study. All participants are at the similar age. Both visual and auditory input were supplied for pupils in the experimental group. Analytical and holistic learning strategies that learners apply when learning a foreign language have been ignored in this study.³²

5.1.2.2 Results of the Questionnaire

The Results of the Questionnaire³³

Control Group

Education of parents:

Education of mothers:

University: 25%

Highschool: 63%

Secondary school: 8%

Primary school: 4%

³² Educational psychology studies have shown that there are two basic foreign or second language learning strategies: Analytic and holistic. The former learners extract rules from rules. The latter ones, on the other hand, achieve their best by doing little or no analysis.

(Celce Murcia, 1988)

³³ see Appendix A



Education of fathers:

University: 48%

Highschool: 52%

Secondary school: 0%

Primary school: 0%

Foreign Language education of the subjects received before university

100% of the students received foreign language education before university

English Language education of the subjects received before university

100% of the students received English Language education before university

Duration of the received English Language education:

Primary School

100% of the students received between 0-4 hours English education

Secondary School

More than 12 hours: 100%

High school

Less than 4 hours: 92%

Between 4-6 hours: 8%

Private language courses: 4% of the students attended private

language schools 100% of whom attended less than one year.

100% of the students attended prep school at secondary school.

Secondary school education place of the students:

Metropolis: 60%

City: 40%

The grade of students in English in secondary school:

90-100: 0%

70-89: 40%

50-69: 56%

30-49: 4%

0-29: 0%

None of the students attended prep school at high school.

The grade of students in English in secondary school:

90-100: 0%

70-89: 20%

50-69: 32%

30-49: 36%

0-29: 12%

The percentage of the students that visited an English speaking foreign country

8% of the students visited an English speaking foreign country. Both of the students have been there less than a year.

None of the students reads newspapers, magazines, or other issues in English

The percentage of the students that read novels in English and their reading frequency

Every three months: 16%

Never: 84%

The frequency and the percentage of the students who watch films in English

Every week: 4%

Every fortnight: 48%

Every month: 48%

Experimental Group

Education of parents:

Education of mothers:

University: 20%

High school: 68%

Secondary school: 12%

Primary school: 0%

Education of fathers:

University: 40%

Highschool: 56%

Secondary school: 0%

Primary school: 0%

Foreign Language education of the subjects received before university

100% of the students received foreign language education before university

English Language education of the subjects received before university

100% of the students received English Language education before university

Duration of the received English Language education:

Primary School

100% of the students received between 0-4 hours English education

Secondary School

More than 12 hours: 100%

High school

Less than 4 hours: 96%

Between 4-6 hours: 4%

Private language courses: 0% of the students attended private language schools.

100% of the students attended prep school at secondary school.

Secondary school education place of the students:

Metropolis: 48%

City: 52%

The grade of students in English in secondary school:

90-100: 0%

70-89: 44%

50-69: 48%

30-49: 8%

0-29: 0%

None of the students attended prep school at high school.

The grade of students in English in secondary school:

90-100: 0%

70-89: 24%

50-69: 36%

30-49: 32%

0-29: 8%

The percentage of the students that visited an English speaking foreign country

None of the students visited an English speaking foreign country.

None of the students read newspapers, magazines, or other issues in English

The percentage of the students that read novels or stories in English and their reading frequency

Every three months: 4%

Never: 96%

The frequency and the percentage of the students who watch films in English

Every week: 20%

Every fortnight: 44%

Every month: 36%

In the analyses of the data collected, it can be easily observed that there have been great similarities between two groups. They come from similar social backgrounds and regions. All of them have studied English before and attended English preparatory school at secondary school. They were not successful language learners at school. Few of them have been to an English speaking country and they do not quite follow issues in English. They do not like reading novels or stories in English, either. Notwithstanding, they watch films in English. The results of this questionnaire verifies that this study was carried on two similar groups.

The data will be collected between March 8th, 1999 and May 21st, 1999. Two different sets of *Oxford Placement Test* were applied as pre-tests and post-tests. The pupils were also given a socio-cultural background test.

5.1.3 Application of the Study

To obtain empirical results to examine the influence of contextual grammar activities on foreign language learning, two groups of students comprised of 46 participants were used. The first group was the experimental group the second was the control one.

Both group participants received 27 hours of English consisting of reading, writing, listening skills and grammar knowledge. Class duration was 50 minutes.

The experimental group students was instructed through grammar rules in context with numerous communicative grammar activities. Through games, role-plays, puzzles, songs, etc,. The participants were treated with 9-hour- grammar lesson a week for 6 weeks.

The control group studied their routine grammar lessons. They did grammar activities irrelevant to the experimental treatment. They were taught grammar rules through traditional ways and supported with mechanical grammar activities.

Both groups were tested at the beginning and the end of the experiment. Before and after the application study, both classes were given *Oxford Placement Tests* as pre and post tests. The aim of the former test was to value their English level. In the second one, they exhibited how much they had progressed during the application study. In these tests, they were exposed to questions that require to use grammar knowledge in a whole context.

5.1.3.1 Classroom Treatment

The learners in both experimental and control group received totally 27 hour EFL instruction. In the experimental group, 9 hour-class of this period was dedicated to contextual grammar teaching activities. The teacher of the experimental group provided students with contextual grammar activities including puzzles, games, role-plays to support the textbook, Cambridge First Certificate. The teacher tried to improve grammar knowledge in all skills; reading, writing, listening and speaking and will try to enrich learners' socio-linguistic, pragmatic and discourse competencies. The instructor provided grammar rules only if it is necessary. Besides, she acted as a counsellor and organiser of the classroom activities. She emphasised fluency as well as accuracy but did not correct students errors directly.

The lessons of the experimental group exemplified contextual grammar activities. In the application group, the students needed to make use context clues, participate in role plays, act out dialogues, write poems to enhance their production in FL.

Conversely, the students in the control group followed the same course book but they were given grammar rules and examples in sentences independent from context. The control group students were exposed to mechanical grammar drills rather than contextual ones. Nothing communicative was done with the control group.

The Characteristic of the contextual grammar activities that were applied in this study can be summarised as follows:

5.1.3.1.1. The Features and the use of materials in the

Classroom Treatment

The application group and the control groups were instructed through different methods and techniques in the classroom. For the experimental group, the materials that were used in the classroom treatment were chosen according to the following criteria:

1. texts exemplifying the target grammar structure
2. the texts were suitable to the English level of the students.
3. most of them were authentic.
4. the texts were poems, songs, stories, articles and essays.
5. texts were selected of appropriate length. The students' interest and age were carefully thought when choosing texts.
6. grammar practice activities were composed of different techniques such as story telling, role plays, games, puzzles

In the control group, ^{the} students' grammar knowledge was enriched through formal explanation of grammar rules. They did not have any communicative activities following the presentation stage. Learners practiced sentences and were asked to apply the grammar rules in the sentences. The exercises were mostly fill in the blank or question and answer type.

The length of the study was equal for both groups. After the application of the study, the application group and the control groups were tested in order to examine the effect of suggested grammar teaching model and its relative contribution ⁱⁿ language use.

As to protect standardization and objectivity the pre test and the posttest were chosen from Oxford Placement Test³⁴. The students completed the posttest in their regular classrooms as in the pre-test at the end of the 6 week teaching period. The students were announced that the results of the tests would be regarded as assessment grade and told to do their best. The students were given one hour for the tests.

All students completed the test until the break time. There was no break during the test. At the end of this study, post-test was evaluated in SPSS program in computer and statistical results were acquired. The test scores were evaluated by paired-samples *t*-test. On that account, the difference between the scores of experimental group and the control group could be noticed.

Table 5.1 The Results of the tests³⁵

Application Group

	<i>Number of pairs</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>t-value</i>
Pre-test	23	16.004	62,8696	-,67
³⁴ See in Appendix B and C				
³⁵ See Appendix H				

Post-test		16,813	63,9565	
-----------	--	--------	---------	--

Control Group

	<i>Number of pairs</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>t-value</i>
Pre-test	23	10.294	64.6087	-2,53
Post-test		12.089	69,1739	

The statistical figures reveal that the application group is more successful than the control group. ^{The} That proves that the group participated in the application study exhibits higher achievement. The application group had a more meaningful result at the end of the *t* test. The statistical results supports the idea that presentation of grammar rules in variety of contexts and communicative grammar activities that follow the instruction are much more effective and meaningful than the formal explanation of grammar structure in non-contextual stereotyped sentences and mechanical drills

71

following that.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 The Results of the Study According to the Research Questions

In the course of this

During the study, the contribution of the proposed grammar instruction model on L2 performance has been tested. This model is composed of the presentation of target grammar point in connected discourse and communicative grammar practice that follows it. Although there studies on different aspects of this research (Berns, 1990; Chen, 1995; Ellis, 1987; Fotos, 1998; Gass, 1991; Nunan, 1998; Richards, 1985), the starting point of this application study is the combination of all these articles. Despite the studies and researches in the field, grammar ~~is~~ still persists as an uncertain matter in the scope of foreign language learning. Nevertheless, grammar instruction which has been ^{rejected} despised recently has ~~been~~ started to be questioned and grammar teaching is on the verge of finding itself a place in the area. There are ideas about not ~~to~~ ^{no} teach grammar at all. The other argument in the field is that whether to teach grammar explicitly or implicitly. This study accepts the existence of grammar teaching, that is, a grammar instruction, and during the application grammar classes were carried out through implicit instruction in the target language. It shared or combined different aspects of different researchers. Therefore, this research could be called as an eclectic one. The aim is to ~~have~~ ^{make} students aware of the target grammar item in context by indicating what meanings can be attributed ^{to} each utterance in different social situation^s. In a way form and function were combined in discourse. The next step ~~is~~ ^{was} to get pupils to utilize the structure

by providing them various social contexts and situations to illustrate the point in communicative activities. This study measured ^{what} ~~the how much~~ this grammar teaching model contributed to Turkish foreign language learners at ~~the~~ university preparatory school.

? In favor of this study some hypotheses were tested. The first one dealt with whether comprehensible input facilitates ~~the~~ language learning. The second one was whether the presentation of the grammar point in connected discourse promotes to help students learn and utilise ^{them} / in communication. Another one was if communicative classes assist learners ^{to} / 'use' the target language in communicative situations. Whether contextual grammar practice is more effectual than mechanical grammar practice in learning a foreign language was the other one. The last hypothesis was related to whether social, semantic and discourse factors of language had to be considered in the preparation and the application of the exercises. For that reason, this research considered two variables: grammar presentation and practice. Finally, the study presented the expected results:

- Comprehensible input facilitates the language learning. Because when students are presented rules in meaningful texts, they comprehend the grammar point significantly better.
- Presentation of the grammar point in connected discourse facilitate to help ^{to} students / learn and utilise ^{it} / in communication. Different contexts might comprise different functions. Hence, learners are acquainted with examples of language use.

- Communicative classes help learners 'use' the target language in communicative situations. Students have a chance to practice language in miscellaneous activities enriched with numerous contexts. Furthermore, they have an opportunity to experience real life like situations in the foreign language.
- Contextual grammar practice is more effectual than mechanical grammar practice in learning a foreign language. The statistical results of the *t*-test testify that students who practised communicative drills have performed significantly better than the ones who studied through mechanical drills.
- Social, semantic and discourse factors of language must be considered in the preparation and the application of the exercises. Language cannot be separated from the discourse and the social context. All these three elements were contemplated in preparing language material.

6.2 The Study According to the Limitations

The application was limited to ^{weekly 9-hour courses} with the lessons nine hours a week. The study was conducted only in one preparation class composed of 23 students selected at random. They were university students aged between 18-21 composed of male and female students. The materials were taken from various books without regarding topic but the structure. Some of the materials were authentic and activities were devised special for these materials.

The learners in both groups received 12 hour^s more input. The application study was only a part of English language learning classroom. For that

reason, there are other factors that might affect the results of the study.

During the study, both application and control groups demonstrated an increase in their grammar knowledge from pre-test to posttest. However, the results showed that the application class improved significantly. According to the *t*-test, improvement for the application group was highly significant.

The improvement in the application class could be seen clearly when the *t* test results of the application group and the control group were compared. The results of the posttest displayed that both groups progressed, whereas, the application group's success was higher. Students in the experimental group who received contextual grammar instruction performed significantly better.

6.3 The General Discussion of the Study

The statistical results of the questionnaire which was yielded to both groups before the application display that the experimental group and the control group represented heterogeneity in the classroom environment. Both groups have similar characteristics.

The activities for the application group were supported by the visual aids, realia and authentic materials. The students had the opportunity to communicate in the target language all the time. The communicative activities were carried out in reading, speaking, listening and writing in a creative way. The aim was to improve the learners' ability to apply the learned or discovered structural rules related to the target foreign language in other skills in different social situations and contexts.

Conversely, none of these studies was done in the control group. They

studied the grammar lessons in a traditional way. At the presentation part, the rules were formulated or explained in a detailed way. After that, they practiced drills most of which were mechanical. They also studied few meaningful drills, too. At the end of the study, it was seen that the application group scores were better than the control group.

7. CONCLUSION

To summarize the study, the experimental group was instructed through contextual grammar together with communicative activities while the control group had traditional type of grammar instruction with mechanical activities. At the end of the course of instruction which took 6 weeks, data analyses were done. Both control and the experimental group were given tests and the results of the tests were examined. The students had two tests; pre-test and post-test. In both tests all students were required to apply grammar rules in context. In the statistical part of the research, how much every group progressed was measured by t-test. This statistical measurement also conveyed a reliable conclusion for this study.

To find the effects of contextual grammar teaching together with communicative activities, the control group kept on studying grammar rules in examples made of isolated sentences. No importance was given to context and there was no attempt to use authentic materials. The students of the control group were instructed through English but their mother tongue was also used when they encountered a problem. Conversely, the learners in the experimental group were encouraged to use target grammar structure in different discoursal contexts and real life-like situations. During the application, grammar knowledge was integrated into other language skills; reading, speaking, listening and writing. All learners' achievement in second language grammar was measured by the test taken by all subjects.

In this study, to find the influence of the suggested grammar instruction model, the grammar rules were presented and exemplified in

connected discourse. Although the meaning and fluency were emphasized over form and accuracy in the classroom, they were not totally neglected because form and accuracy are as highly desirable as meaning and fluency. The application group students were encouraged to learn and discover rules from the text and they were reminded that the speakers load meaning to their utterances in accordance with the topic or the position of the interlocutors because "when we attempt to communicate and how we set about it are determined not only by our knowledge of language but also our current assessment of our interlocutor's linguistic competence and his knowledge of discourse". (Corder, 1984; 15) Many cross-cultural misunderstandings and a serious communication breakdown might result from not being aware of language functions. After the presentation stage, learners were allowed to use the target language in real life simulations. The activities used at this stage were role plays, games, story telling, songs etc.³⁶ These activities made grammar knowledge meaningful, permanent, and comprehensible. Students became aware of the fact that grammar is not only a subject to be studied but body of knowledge to be used in real life communication.

During the classroom treatment no other mid-test was given. Meanwhile, both the application and the control groups demonstrated an increase in grammar knowledge and use from the pre-test to the post-test.

During the study, both the application and the control groups demonstrated an increase in grammar knowledge in themselves from the pre-test to the posttest. However, the statistical results exhibited that the

³⁶ see part 4

control group had slight progress whereas the experimental group improved considerably. According to the t -test for dependent variables, improvement for the application group was highly significant. The improvement of the control group was parallel to the pre-test results. The improvement in the application class could be seen clearly when the t -test results of the application group and the control group were compared.

The statistical results received at the end of the application study are noticeable in the advantage of experimental group. Nevertheless, the limitations of this study should be borne in mind. First of all, the suggested grammar teaching model was carried out on a limited sampling. The study was supervised in one class of 23 students selected at random. Another limitation was that the research was limited ^{to} with grammar lessons weekly six hours at university preparatory school with intermediate level students. In addition, all learners ^{were} exposed to 21 hour English language instruction a week and only nine ^{hour} instruction was reserved for the application study. The application study was limited ^{to} with the grammar lessons 9 hours per week at a state university and the learners were intermediate language learners which means that the research did not cover foreign language learners at every foreign language proficiency level and age. That is, they have 12 hour more exposure to English apart from the experiment. The study was a part of a general foreign language learning classroom and other language skills could support the results in achieving meaningful comprehension. During the application the other language skills also improved. They studied other lessons while this application study was in progress. The results of the study

may differ according to different sampling groups. The results of the study provide further evidence of the importance of communicative activities in the language classrooms among the Turkish students. The study also indicates that mechanical activities and non-contextual grammar practice does not help learners much in developing communicative performance. These limitations of the study should be taken into account when assessing the results.

Thus, it supports previous researches done by (Nunan, 1989; Petrovitz, 1997) indicating the importance of the presentation of grammar structure in context. What differs in this study is that in this research meaningful presentation of the target grammar structure was supported with communicative activities in which learners were given a chance to apply the rules in different situations. As well as seeing the actual use of the structure in different types of texts and contexts, they were able to use them in similar situations.

Grammar has traditionally had a central role in language teaching. However, the place of grammar in foreign language classroom is currently uncertain. This uncertainty is partly due to the arrival of communicative approaches to language teaching along with theoretical and empirical insights from second language acquisition research. Many researchers agree that formal classroom instruction of certain grammatical structures can be beneficial to students. (Chen 1995, Lightbrown and Spada 1993, Long 1991, Rutherford 1988) From ^{an} other perspective, grammar instruction can be beneficial because it raises learners' consciousness concerning the differences and similarities of L1 and L2. (Rutherford, 1988)

As Celce-Murcia puts it: "Like road signs, grammatical structures by themselves are rather useless. Like road signs, grammatical structures take on meaning only if they are situated in a context and connected discourse. (91) Krashen (1982) asserts that if learners are in a situation that they need to use the grammar for communicative purposes, the grammar rules will become internalised. For this reason, it is the teacher's responsibility to devise and present communicative activities and create situations for students to comprehend and communicate in the target language.

To Mc Carthy and Hughes (1998), grammar is best explained by referring to context and by taking into account interpersonal aspects of communication. Grammar can move from sentence to discourse whenever the teacher wants it to. One of the problems with teaching structures away from a rich context that it can leave learners with the impression that they know something when in fact they have often learned a structural pattern without comprehending its context. Teaching of grammar in context followed by communicative practice acknowledges the link between structure and function in context and aims to incorporate issues of appropriateness and use. Moreover, it highlights the interpersonal aspects of language use.

In this study, great attention has been paid ^{to} on the relationship between form and function. In the presentation stage, grammatical structures have been presented in context and discourse has been taken into consideration. Rarely have grammar rules been taught explicitly. Mostly, grammatical principles have been taught implicitly in communicative contexts. In the practice step, learners have engaged in communicative activities mostly

based on authentic materials. Learners' errors were not corrected directly, whereas feedback has been provided. Game-like situations in which the repetitive practice of the structures through a task aroused students motivation.

The statistical results of the study provide further evidence of the importance of teaching grammar in context and giving learners opportunities to use the target language structure in different discoursal contexts and genuine or like communication situations. There is a tendency among EFL teachers to treat sentences separated and isolated from a context. Most of the current reference grammar books on the market have ^{the} tendency to ignore presenting grammar rules in context. In most of the grammar reference books today, grammar is taught through deductive approaches and rarely is target structure exemplified in connected discourse. Practice activities are far from being communicative.

Grammar lessons may be composed of different phases, but ~~most~~ ^{them so that}, what is common to most of ~~all~~ ^{them}, they have three phases: presentation, practice and communication. These all phases may not be conducted within one class period.

To summarize briefly, there have been different approaches to grammar teaching: how to teach ^{whether} or to teach grammar at all have caused great controversy. The popularity of communicative approaches to language teaching which emphasize language use over rules of language usage has made the issue more complicated. Form focused language teaching methodologies lost their importance and language teaching methods or

approaches like Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia and Communicative Approach devote a significant amount of classroom time to promoting communication among students. However form does not take care of itself and the ignorance^{ing} of grammar teaching might result in insufficient language use. Pienemann³⁷ argues that "giving up the instruction of syntax is to allow for the fossilization of interlanguage in simplified form." Comprehensible input might be presented ~~through~~ deductively or inductively, however contextual presentation of rules is necessary for learning to take place and communicative practice of these rules is essential for language use to occur.

In this study the presentation and the communicative practice of grammar instruction have been analyzed. In the presentation phase, contextualized demonstration of language structure has been suggested. Communicative activities such as games, role plays, problem solving and story telling are good devices for practicing grammar points. These activities could be employed both to practice form and meaning. It is vital to learn to bond the form with its meaning and also to distinguish the meaning of one particular form from another. At that point, context, social, semantic and discourse factors help us. When dealing with semantic dimension of a grammar point, realia and pictures are very useful. Less control over grammatical structure is exercised ~~that~~ during the presentation stage. The aim is to have students use the structures they have been practicing in as natural and fluid ^a way as possible.

³⁷ cited in Larsen Freeman 1991, 280.

In both stages there are some other aspects that are effective in foreign language teaching. Learning variables, instructor, learning strategies are other substantial factors that concern learning.

Current views of foreign language learning have been influenced by communicative approaches but traditional views prevails in language classrooms and grammar reference books. Although the utilization of communicative activities is important in the classroom environment; teachers' attitudes toward these activities are not certain. One of the aims of this study is to make clear the use of communicative activities in foreign language classes and argue and indicate the results of such case in language classrooms. It is obvious that Turkish students need communicative activities related to the target grammar point in foreign language classrooms. These kinds of activities should ^{take the} place in ^{the} syllabus and teachers should pay attention to these activities and observe their effects in the classroom environment because, sometimes, they are thought to be useless and waste of time and omitted from the syllabus. The grammar model proposed in this research study was tested and the achievement of the students who participated in this study was ^{demonstrated} experienced. These learners accomplished better results in foreign language classroom environment. The lessons received great attention from the students and encouraged classroom and teacher motivation. They discovered that grammar could be fun.

A consequence of this study is that teachers can draw students' attention to the use of language reminding students that grammar is not something on

paper. They essentially need it outside the classroom when they need to communicate in FL. Therefore, the students will realize that grammar is not just a boring school subject ^{that} consists of stereotyped, dull repetitive exercises, but something they need so as to convey information ^{and} to negotiate in FL. Teachers can also encourage students' creativity and arouse motivation in the classroom. Unfortunately, most of the ELT teachers and grammar reference books ignore this. Grammar knowledge when presented with pictures, texts and other materials enhance ^s pupils ability to comprehend the structure. ELT teachers can present grammar structure ^s from different discourse perspectives.

This study examines the arguments for grammar instruction in context and the significance of communicative activities and suggests ways to adapt a more communicative way for EFL classes in which grammar instruction has never left the classroom. This study asserts that learners should be acquainted with different types of texts and discourse in the presentation of grammatical structure. In addition, they should be able to put the grammar knowledge into practice in different situations. To achieve this, communicative grammar practice is essential. This study is intended as a small contribution for FL grammar classes at ^{the} university level in Turkey.

REFERENCES

- Bäll and Jacobs. "An Investigation of the Structure of Group Activities in ELT Coursebooks." ELTJournal , 50, No. 2 (1996), 99-107.
- ✓ Berns, Margie. Contexts of Competence. Plenum: New York, 1990.
- ✓ Boxer and Pickering. "Problems in the Presentation of Speech Acts in ELT Materials: the Case of Complaints." ELTJournal , 49, No. 1 (1995), 44-56.
- ✓ Brumfit, Christopher. Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching. 4th ed. Cambridge: New York, 1988.
- Burt, Dulay and Krashen. Language Two. Oxford: USA, 1982.
- ✓ Celce-Murcia and Hilles. Techniques and Resources in Teaching Grammar. Oxford: Hong Kong, 1988.
- Celce-Murcia Marianne. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign Language. Boston: Heinle and Heinle, 1991.
- ✓ Chen, Tsai-Yu. "In Search of an Effective Grammar Teaching Model." ELTJournal , 33, No. 3 (1995), 58-60.
- ✓ Cosgrave, Desmond P. "From Pattern Practice to Communication" Forum, 13, No.1 (1975), 141-149.
- ✓ Corder, Pit. "Pedagogic Grammars." In Grammar and Second Language Teaching. Ed. W.Rutherford and M. Smith. New York: Newbury House, 1988.
- Corder, Pit. "Strategies of Communication." In Strategies in Tasks." ELTJournal , 28, No. 2 (1994), 323-343.

Ellis, Rod. "Contextual Variability in Second Language Acquisition and the Relevancy of Language Teaching." In Second Language Acquisition in Context. Ed. R:Ellis. UK: Prentice Hall, 1987, pp.179-212.

✓ Ellis, Rod. Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy. GB: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 1992.

Ellis, Rod. "Teaching and Research: Options in Grammar Teaching." TESOL Quarterly , 32, No. 1 (1998), 39-59.

Ellis, Rod. "Two Approaches for Investigating Second Language Acquisition." In Second Language Acquisition in Context. Ed. R:Ellis. UK: Prentice Hall, 1987, pp.179-212.

✓ Ellis, Rod. "Can Syntax be Taught? A Study of the Effects of Formal Instruction on the acquisition of WH questions by children." Applied Linguistics , 5, (1984), 138-155.

Fillmore J., Charles. "A Grammarian Looks to Sociolinguistics." In Sociolinguistic Aspects of Language Learning and Teaching . Ed. J. B. Pride. England: Oxford, 1979, pp. 2-15.

✓ Finocchiaro, Mary and Christopher Brumfit. The Functional-Notional Approach. New York: Oxford, 1983.

✓ Fotos, Sandra. "Shifting the focus from forms to form in the EFL classroom." ELTJournal , 52, No. 4 (1998), 301-307.

Fotos, Sandra. "Integrating Grammar Instruction and Communicative Language Use Through Grammar Consciousness - Raising

elisia

- ✓ Fotos, S. And Ellis R. "Communicating About Grammar: A Task Based Approach ." TESOL Quarterly , 25, (1991), 605-628.
- ✓ Frank, Christine and Rinvolunci Mario. Grammar in Action : Awareness Activities for Language Learning. New York : Prentice Hall, 1991.
- ✓ Gass, Susan M. "Grammar Instruction, Selective Attention and Learning Processes." In Foreign Second Language Pedagogy Research. Ed. Phillipson, Kellerman and et. All. GB: Multilingual Matters, 1991, pp. 134-141.
- Hoey, Michael. On the Surface of Discourse. GB. Oxford, 1983.
- Hughes and Mc Carthy. "From Sentence to Discourse: Discourse Grammar and English Language Teaching" TESOL Quarterly, 32, No.2 (1998), 263-285.
- ✓ Krashen, Stephen and Tracy D. Terrell. The Natural Approach . UK. Prentice Hall, 1988.
- ✓ Krashen, Stephen D. Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. UK. Prentice Hall, 1987.
- ✓ Lazar, Gillian. "Using Literature at Lower Levels." ELT Journal , 48 , No. 2 (1994), 115-123.
- ✓ Lightbrown and Spada. How Languages are Learned. UK: Oxford, 1993.
- Littlewood, William. Communicative language Teaching. USA: Cambridge, 1981.

- ✓ Long, Michael H. And Graham Crookes. "Units of Analysis in Syllabus Design-The Case for Task." In Tasks in Pedagogical Context. Ed. Graham Crookes and Susan M. Gass. GB: Multilingual Matters, 1993, pp.9-54.
- ✓ McCarthy, Michael. Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers. 4th ed. UK: Cambridge, 1994.
- ✓ Mc Carthy and Carter. Language as Discourse. New York: Longman: 1994.
- ✓ Nunan, David. "Teaching Grammar in Context." ELT Journal , 52 , No. 2 (1998), 101-108.
- Nunan, David. Language Teaching Methodology. GB: Phonix ELT, 1995.
- ✓ Nunan, David. "Communicative Language teaching: Making it work." ELT Journal, 41 , No. 2 (1987), 136-45.
- Nunan, David. Understanding Language Classrooms- A Guide for teacher Initiated Action. UK: Prentice Hall, 1983.
- ✓ Petrovitz, Walter. "The Role of Context in the Presentation of Grammar." ELT Journal , 51, No. 3 (1997), 201-206.
- Revell, Jane. Teaching Techniques for Communicative English. London. Macmillan Pub., 1979.
- ✓ Richards, J. The Context of Language Teaching . UK. Cambridge, 1985.
- ✓ Rönnqvist and Sell. "Teenage Books for Teenagers: reflections on literature in Language Education." ELT Journal , 49, No. 2 (1994), 125-

Kaymakçalan 129.
Olmazın

Harman (2) Schrum + G. (4,7) Halliday (23)
Hymes (3) Hammond (5) Sandra McKay (37)
Pienemann (3) Selinker (8)

Rutherford, William. "Functions of Grammar in a Language Teaching

Syllabus." In Grammar and second Language Teaching. A
Book of Readings .Ed. W. Rutherford and M. Sharwood Smith.

USA: Heinle and Heinle, 1987, pp.231-49. *a*

Rutherford, William. Second Language Grammar: Teaching and Learning.

London: Longman, 1987. *b*

✓ Stubbs, Michael. Educational Linguistics. Great Britain: TJ Press Ltd.,
1988.

✓ Thompson, Geoff. "Some Misconceptions about Communicative Language
Teaching" ELT Journal, 50, No.1 (1996), 9-15.

✓ Ur, Penny. A course in Language Teaching : Practice and Theory . New
York: Cambridge University Press, 1996.

✓ Wajnryb, Ruth. Classroom Observation Tasks . Great Britain: Cambridge,
1992.

✓ Wilkins, D.A. Second Language Learning and Teaching. London: Edward
Arnold Publishers, 1974.

REFERENCE GRAMMARS

- ✓ Azar, Betty Schramper. Understanding and Using English Grammar. 2nd ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1989.
- ✓ Bonner and Fuchs. Focus on Grammar: A High Intermediate Course for Reference and Practice. Great Britain: Express, 1995.
- ✓ Coe, Norman. Grammar Spectrum 3. Italy: Oxford, 1995.
- ✓ Dean, Michael. English Grammar Lessons. 2nd ed. Hong Kong: Oxford, 1995.
- ✓ Drummond, G. English Structure Practice. 9th ed. Singapore: Longman, 1990.
- ✓ Eastwood, John. Oxford Practice Grammar. Hong Kong: Oxford: 1999.
- ✓ Evans, Virginia. Round-up 6. UK. Express, 1998.
- ✓ Graver, B.D. Advanced English Practice. 2nd ed. Great Britain: Oxford, 1979.
- ✓ Greenal and Sprenger. Flying Colours 2. Scotland: Heinemann, 1991.
- ✓ Vince, Michael. Intermediate Language Practice. Great Britain: Heinemann, 1998.
- ✓ Walker and Elsworth. Grammar Practice for Intermediate Students. 5th ed. UK: Longman, 1994.
- ✓ Walter and Swan. How English Works: A Grammar Practice Book. Spain: Oxford, 1997.
- ✓ Willis, Dave. Collins Cobuild Student's Grammar. Great Britain: Harper Collins, 1991.

H

Halliday · 16, 26, 37, 47, 51, 52
Hammond · 16, 47
Harman · 13
Hymes · 14, 25

P

Performance · 42
Petrovitz · 43, 53, 94, 106
Pickering · 30, 101

Pienemann · 14, 45, 97
Piennemann · 16
Piepho · 27
Prabhu · vi, ix, 49

R

Richards · vi, ix, 36, 41, 86, 106
Rutherford · vi, ix, 12, 23, 95, 102, 107

S

Sandra Mc Kay · 35
Searle · 25
Selinker · 19
Shrum · 15, 18
Skinner · 23
Smith · 12, 102, 107
Spada · 42, 95, 104
Sprenger · 30, 109
Stubbs · 13, 31, 32, 108
Swain · 50, 51

T

Terrel · 13
Terrell · 22, 50, 104
Thompson · 16, 18, 46, 47, 108

U

Ur · 36, 58, 108

V

Ventola · 27

W

Wajnyrb · 33

Widdowson · 49, 51

Wilkins · 14, 26, 48, 108

Willings · 73

INDEX

A

accuracy · 33, 41, 43, 70
 acquisition · 11, 13, 14, 25, 26, 28, 29, 33, 35, 39,
 43, 45, 51, 58, 59, 62, 73, 80
 application group · 75

B

background knowledge · 70, 75

C

cognitive · 16, 39, 41
 communication · 11
 communication skills · 28
 communicative activities · 6, 11, 32, 37, 46, 47, 49,
 50, 57, 73, 74, 75
 communicative approaches · 13, 29, 33, 73, 77
 communicative exercises · 11
 Communicative language teaching · 22
 competence · 11, 17, 18, 34, 36, 37, 40, 43, 59
 Competence · 34, 79
 context · 17, 18, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 38, 39, 40,
 41, 43, 46, 48, 49, 51, 52, 54, 55, 56, 57, 62, 69,
 70, 71, 73, 74, 75, 76, 78
 Contextual grammar instruction · 33
 Contrastive hypothesis · 28

curriculum · 28

D

deductive grammar · 10
 Direct Method · 15
 discourse · 2, 10, 11, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 35, 41, 42,
 45, 46, 48, 49, 50, 52, 53, 55, 57, 60, 61, 62, 70,
 73, 74, 78
 Discourse · 2, 5, 20, 81, 82
 drills · 11, 16, 30, 31, 32, 36, 37, 48, 59, 60, 61, 71
 Drills · 37

E

explicit · 10, 25, 26, 29, 38, 39, 40, 42, 46, 59

F

fluency³ · 41
 formal grammar instruction · 10
 function · 14, 18, 26, 27, 29, 40, 53, 57, 74

G

Grammar · 2, 3, 5, 10, 14, 19, 25, 30, 31, 32, 33, 35,
 36, 49, 58, 61, 73, 74, 77, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 85,
 86
 Grammar-Translation Method · 14

Özel Dil Kursları

a) Haftada 6-8 saat i) 1 yıldan az ii) 1-2 yıl iii) 2-3 yıl iv) 3 yıldan fazla

b) Haftada 8 saatten fazla i) 1 yıldan az ii) 1-2 yıl iii) 2-3 yıl iv) 3 yıldan fazla

8. Ortaokulda İngilizce Hazırlık okudunuz mu? a) Evet b) Hayır

9. Ortaokulu okuduğunuz yer..... a) Büyükşehir c) İl merkezi
c) İlçe d) Kasaba/ köy

10. Ortaokulda yabancı dil ortalamanız:

a) 90-100 b) 70-89 c) 50-69 d) 30-49 e) 0-29

11. Lisede İngilizce Hazırlık okudunuz mu? a) Evet b) Hayır

12. Liseyi okuduğunuz yer..... a) Büyükşehir c) İl merkezi
c) İlçe d) Kasaba/ köy

13. Lisede yabancı dil ortalamanız:

a) 90-100 b) 70-89 c) 50-69 d) 30-49 e) 0-29

14. Daha önce İngilizce konuşulan bir ülkede bulundunuz mu?

a) Evet b) Hayır

15. Ne kadar süre? a) 1 yıldan az b) 1-2 yıl c) 2-3 yıl d) 3 yıldan fazla

16. İngilizce yayınları takip ediyor musunuz? a) Evet b) Hayır

17. Süresini işaretleyiniz. a) 1 yıldan az b) 1-2 yıl c) 2-3 yıl d) 3 yıldan fazla

18. İngilizce roman, hikaye vs. okuma sıklığınızı belirtiniz.

a) her hafta b) her 15 günde bir c) her ay d) her üç ay e) hiç

19. İngilizce film seyreder misiniz?

a) her hafta b) her 15 günde bir c) her ay d) her üç ay e) hiç

APPENDIX B PRE-TEST

Oxford

Placement Test 3 B1

Look at these examples. The correct answer is underlined.

- a. In warm climates people like likes are liking sitting outside in the sun.
- b. If it is very hot they sit at in under the shade.

Now the test will begin. Underline the correct answers.

1. Today they are there are it is many millions of people learning English. 1 ..
2. Some people study studies is studying English for a special reason. 2 ..
3. They may need English for the job job their job. 3 ...
4. Some of them need need to are needing speak to English people. 4 ...
5. The majority of learners of English has are having have other needs. 5 ...
6. Most users of English use it for talk that they can talk to talk to people who aren't English. 6 ...
7. It is There is There are hardly any parts of the world where English is never spoken. 7 ...
8. Most of The most Most people have heard some English at some time. 8 ...
9. Very few people haven't heard some the any English spoken at all. 9 ...
10. English is undoubtedly the most the more a most widely-used language in the world. 10 ...
11. For many years the *Guinness Book of Records* has been one of the most popular books of in under the United Kingdom. 11 ...
12. It has been was is first published in 1955. 12 ...

Name		
Total A / 100	Total B1 / 50	Grand total /
	Total B2 / 50	

- 13 Since then it is was has been a regular bestseller. 13 ...
- 14 Most of the records in it are changing have changed changed many times in recent years. 14 ...
- 15 In 1954, the year the first *Guinness Book of Records* was being compiled, the world mile record could be was being was broken more than once. 15 ...
- 16 The year before that, in 1953, it had stood used to stand still was standing at over four minutes. 16 ...
- 17 But in 1954 the four-minute barrier could was to should be broken several times. 17 ...
- 18 Roger Bannister's famous run was the first time anyone has had would ever run so fast. 18 ...
- 19 If Dr Bannister had not been would not have been would not be the first to run the mile in under four minutes he would not be so well known. 19 ...
- 20 The record has been held by a great number deal many of runners since then. 20 ..
- The history of computer the computer a computer is really 21 ..
- a quite quite a quite long one. A computer is essentially an 22 ..
- efficient means of processing informations an information information 23 ..
- For thousands of years a man man the man has been using 24 ..
- different types of instrument to overcome the problems caused by unwieldy number systems. Early mathematicians had 25 ..
- difficulty to use difficulties to use difficulty in using

Subtotal / 2!

the number systems of their societies but succeeded to develop in developing into developing personal number systems in what where which to carry out their calculations.

The decimal number system, which we are used to working used to work have been used to working with for since during a long time now, and which is such such a so common basis of calculation today, has not ever still always been as widely used like that as it is now.

Both number systems dependent from of on the notion of zero were developed in some ancient societies in parallel with mechanical aids to calculation. As long ago as 500 B.C. — in other words for some 25 centuries some 25 centuries earlier some 25 centuries ago — the abacus were being was being has been used in China.

This aid to calculation, and the counting tables used by the Babylonians and the Greeks, were the real forerunners of the 'mainframes' and 'micros' that are so familiar today. of what which these we call a 'computer'.

Over the centuries between the invention of the abacus and the production of the first electronic digital computer in 1943 a vast number of different tools and machines for calculating have been were has been developed. Logarithms and 'bones' were both invented in the 17th century.

Before that, mathematicians and inventors

could develop have developed had developed many other types of aid but with much fewer little less success. The

first slide rule was produced in 1621 and the first mass-produced multiplying aid that same this same the next century, just

few a few not many years later. In 1642 the French philosopher, Pascal, produced a mechanical calculator which could do all

what which that basic adding machines do today, but he could not have make let it manufactured accurately enough to make it reliable. It was a long time long time long before

manufacturing techniques improved and not until early in the 19th century

came the Arithmometer the Arithmometer came did the Arithmometer come on the scene like as for the first commercially successful

calculator. Its producers could should couldn't hardly have imagined that by the 1980s technology

had advanced will advance would have advanced so far that an instrument the size of a wristwatch would be many times more powerful.

True computers

are only existing since have only existed for have only been existing for forty years but the 1980s have seen a computer explosion. By the time we

will reach will have reached reach the end of the decade, all our lives will be directly affected by computers.

- 26 B
- 27 C
- 28 C
- 29 A
- 30 B
- 31 A
- 32 C
- 33 C

- 34 ...
- 35 ...

36 ...

37 ...

- 38 ...
- 39 ...
- 40 ...
- 41 ...
- 42 ...
- 43 ...
- 44 ...
- 45 ...
- 46 ...
- 47 ...
- 48 ...
- 49 ...
- 50 ...

Oxford Placement Test 3 B2

Name

Total A / 100 Total B1 / 50 Grand total /

Total B2 / 50

64 ...

65 ...

66 ...

67 ...

68 ...

69 ...

70 ...

71 ...

72 ...

73 ...

74 ...

75 ...

51 ...

52 ...

53 ...

54 ...

55 ...

56 ...

57 ...

58 ...

59 ...

60 ...

61 ...

62 ...

63 ...

one evening Sandra's fiancé, John, tells her

he's going he'd go he goes out for a drink with his friends

and she decides she'll like she'd like she'd like to go to

the college disco rather than stay in

on her own by her own by her self . After a while she meets

Bob, an old boyfriend of her them hers and a friend of

John's. At first she's glad of his company, but then his attentions

become rather too few little much and she's

no more no longer not any more enjoying herself.

Bob Come on! Shall Won't Wouldn't you have another

drink? It won't take a minute

to get for getting get you one.

Sandra No, really, I'd I've had enough.

Bob I'm sure it would make you feel to feel feeling better.

Sandra No, honestly.

I'm feeling myself I feel myself I'm feeling fine, thanks.

Bob Well, how about a what's about a why not to dance?

There's no point sense need to be so unfriendly just because

you get you're getting you're to be got married. You

should could might as well enjoy yourself while you can.

Sandra Actually, Bob, I think I'll I'd better be going now.

It'll get It's getting It gets on.

Bob What? Leave now? It's not hardly scarcely really got

going yet. Surely you

don't have to go have not to go needn't have gone just yet,

do you? Is it because of me?

Sandra No, it's not that, but I really ought to go home. I've got

a homework some homeworks some homework to do. I

should have done it last week but

I've forgotten I'd forgotten I forgot

I needn't mustn't mightn't stay any longer or

I'll never get I never get I'd never got it done.

Bob You could do it in the morning if

you'll get you'd get you got up early.

There's not much point you try to try in trying to start

APPENDIX C POST-TEST

Oxford Placement Test 1

Grammar Test PART 1

Name Nurcan Kalkan

Total Listening _____ / 100 Total Grammar Part 2 _____ / 50

Total Grammar Part 1 _____ / 50 Grand total _____ / 200

Look at these examples. The correct answer is ticked.

- a In warm climates people like likes are liking sitting outside in the sun.
- b If it is very hot, they sit at under the shade.

Now the test will begin. Tick the correct answers.

- 1 Water is to boil is boiling boils at a temperature of 100°C.
- 2 In some countries there is is it is very hot all the time.
- 3 In cold countries people wear thick clothes for keeping to keep for to keep warm.
- 4 In England people are always talking about a weather the weather weather.
- 5 In some places it rains there rains it raining almost every day.
- 6 In deserts there isn't the some any grass.
- 7 Places near the Equator have a warm the warm warm weather even in the cold season.
- 8 In England coldest the coldest colder time of year is usually from December to February.
- 9 The most Most of Most people don't know what it's like in other countries.
- 10 Very less little few people can travel abroad.
- 11 Mohammed Ali has won won is winning his first world title fight in 1960.
- 12 After he had won have won was winning an Olympic gold medal he became a professional boxer.
- 13 His religious beliefs have made him made him to made him change his name when he became champion.
- 14 If he has would have had lost his first fight with Sonny Liston, no one would have been surprised.
- 15 He has travelled a lot both and or as a boxer and as a world-famous personality.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

subtotal _____

- 16 He is very well known all in all over in all the world.
- 17 Many people is believing are believing believe he was the greatest boxer of all time.
- 18 To be the best from in of the world is not easy.
- 19 Like any top sportsman Ali had to must should train very hard.
- 20 Even though he has now lost his title, people would will did always remember him as a champion.

The history of aeroplane the aeroplane an aeroplane is quite a a quite quite short one. For many centuries men are trying try had tried to fly, but with little few a little success. In the 19th century a few people succeeded to fly in flying into flying in balloons. But it wasn't until the beginning of this next that century that anybody were is was able to fly in a machine who which what was heavier than air, in other words, in who which what we now call a 'plane'. The first people to achieve 'powered flight' were the Wright brothers. His Their Theirs was the machine which was the forerunner of the Jumbo jets and supersonic airliners that are such such a so common sight today. They could should couldn't hardly have imagined that in 1969, not much not many no much more than half a century later, a man will be had been would be landed on the moon. Already a man man the man is taking the first steps towards the stars. Although space satellites have existed since during for less than forty years, we are now dependent from of on them for all kinds of informations information an information. Not only are they they are there are being used for scientific research in space, but also to see what kind of weather is coming comes coming. By 1998 there would must will have been satellites in space for forty years and the 'space superpowers' are planning to have make let massive space stations built. When these will be are will have been completed it will be the first time when where that astronauts will be able to work in space in large numbers. Apart For Except all that, in many ways the most remarkable flight of above at all was it that that one of the flying bicycle, which the world saw on television, flying to fly fly across the Channel from England to France, with nothing apart but than a man to power it. As the bicycle-flyer said, 'It's the first time I realize I've realized I am realizing what hard work it is to be a bird!'

The Walkers' boy, ~~who~~ ~~which~~ ~~he~~ is four, has just started at nursery school, but ~~his~~ ~~their~~ ~~her~~ sister shall stay stays will be ~~staying~~ at home for another couple of years, because she is nearly two years ~~younger~~ more young the younger than him. Charles and Kate Walker are used use ~~used~~ to live in the country, but now that they have children, they have moved move ~~moved~~ into the city. Charles wanted a house next ~~near~~ close the school in order for ~~to~~ get to work easily. Unfortunately ~~the~~ a that one the two of them really wanted was too expensive, so they must should ~~had to~~ buy one a bit further away. By the time the children go will go will have gone to secondary school, that ~~which~~ what Charles and Kate hope will be in Norwich, the Walkers will have been have been ~~will be~~ living there for at least fifteen years. They can't be sure if they stay do stay will ~~stay~~, but if they ~~do~~ didn't won't, their friends won't be too surprised.

Look at the following examples of question tags in English. The correct form of the tag is ticked.

- a He's getting the 9.15 train, ~~isn't he~~ ~~hasn't he~~ ~~wasn't he~~ ?
- b She works in a library, ~~isn't she~~ ~~doesn't she~~ ~~doesn't he~~ ?
- c Tom didn't tell you, ~~hasn't he~~ ~~didn't he~~ ~~did he~~ ?
- d Someone's forgotten to switch off the gas, ~~didn't one~~ ~~didn't they~~ ~~haven't they~~ ?

Now tick the correct question tag in the following 10 items:

- 91 John's coming to see you, ~~hasn't he~~ ~~wasn't he~~ ~~isn't he~~ ?
- 92 It's been a long time since you've seen him, ~~hasn't it~~ ~~isn't it~~ ~~haven't you~~ ?
- 93 He's due to arrive tomorrow, ~~won't he~~ ~~isn't he~~ ~~will he~~ ?
- 94 He won't be getting in till about 10.30, ~~isn't he~~ ~~is he~~ ~~will he~~ ?
- 95 You met him while you were on holiday, ~~didn't you~~ ~~weren't you~~ ~~haven't you~~ ?
- 96 I think I'm expected to pick him up, ~~aren't I~~ ~~don't I~~ ~~are you~~ ?
- 97 No doubt you'd rather he stayed in England now, ~~didn't you~~ ~~wouldn't you~~ ~~shouldn't you~~ ?
- 98 Nobody else has been told he's coming, ~~is he~~ ~~has he~~ ~~have they~~ ?
- 99 We'd better not stay up too late tonight, ~~didn't we~~ ~~have we~~ ~~had we~~ ?
- 100 I suppose it's time we called it a day, ~~didn't we~~ ~~isn't it~~ ~~don't I~~ ?

91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100

The Walkers' boy, who which he is four, has just started at nursery school, but his their her sister shall stay stays will be staying at home for another couple of years, because she is nearly two years younger more young the younger than him. Charles and Kate Walker are used use used to live in the country, but now that they have children, they have moved move moved into the city. Charles wanted a house next near close the school in order for to get to work easily. Unfortunately the a that one the two of them really wanted was too expensive, so they must should had to buy one a bit further away. By the time the children go will go will have gone to secondary school, that which what Charles and Kate hope will be in Norwich, the Walkers will have been have been will be living there for at least fifteen years. They can't be sure if they stay do stay will stay, but if they don't didn't won't, their friends won't be too surprised.

Look at the following examples of question tags in English. The correct form of the tag is ticked.

- a He's getting the 9.15 train, isn't he hasn't he wasn't he ?
- b She works in a library, isn't she doesn't she doesn't he ?
- c Tom didn't tell you, hasn't he didn't he did he ?
- d Someone's forgotten to switch off the gas, didn't one didn't they haven't they ?

Now tick the correct question tag in the following 10 items:

- 91 John's coming to see you, hasn't he wasn't he isn't he ?
- 92 It's been a long time since you've seen him, hasn't it isn't it haven't you ?
- 93 He's due to arrive tomorrow, won't he isn't he will he ?
- 94 He won't be getting in till about 10.30, isn't he is he will he ?
- 95 You met him while you were on holiday, didn't you weren't you haven't you ?
- 96 I think I'm expected to pick him up, aren't I don't I are you ?
- 97 No doubt you'd rather he stayed in England now, didn't you wouldn't you shouldn't you ?
- 98 Nobody else has been told he's coming, is he has he have they ?
- 99 We'd better not stay up too late tonight, didn't we have we had we ?
- 100 I suppose it's time we called it a day, didn't we isn't it don't I ?

APPENDIX D RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST

	Control Group	(The results are out of 100)	
Student 1	72	Student 23	56
Student 2	50		
Student 3	75		
Student 4	57		
Student 5	70		
Student 6	77		
Student 7	45		
Student 8	75		
Student 9	70		
Student 10	78		
Student 11	52		
Student 12	40		
Student 13	63		
Student 14	86		
Student 15	85		
Student 16	60		
Student 17	40		
Student 18	80		
Student 19	72		
Student 20	45		
Student 21	28		
Student 22	70		

Experimental Group	(The results are out of 100)
Student 1	67
Student 2	61
Student 3	56
Student 4	63
Student 5	64
Student 6	71
Student 7	77
Student 8	69
Student 9	67
Student 10	50
Student 11	69
Student 12	70
Student 13	62
Student 14	79
Student 15	77
Student 16	69
Student 17	60
Student 18	59
Student 19	43
Student 20	57
Student 21	44
Student 22	84
Student 23	67

APPENDIX E RESULTS OF THE POST-TEST

	Control Group	(The results are out of 100)	
Student 1	67	Student 23	44
Student 2	52		
Student 3	74		
Student 4	63		
Student 5	68		
Student 6	78		
Student 7	49		
Student 8	78		
Student 9	64		
Student 10	80		
Student 11	45		
Student 12	46		
Student 13	69		
Student 14	82		
Student 15	87		
Student 16	65		
Student 17	57		
Student 18	83		
Student 19	70		
Student 20	28		
Student 21	35		
Student 22	87		

Experimental Group	(The results are out of 100)
Student 1	75
Student 2	58
Student 3	69
Student 4	69
Student 5	72
Student 6	70
Student 7	80
Student 8	77
Student 9	64
Student 10	66
Student 11	77
Student 12	72
Student 13	63
Student 14	68
Student 15	84
Student 16	70
Student 17	48
Student 18	69
Student 19	65
Student 20	35
Student 21	98
Student 22	75
Student 23	67

APPENDIX F- AN EXAMPLE MATERIAL USED FOR THE APPLICATION

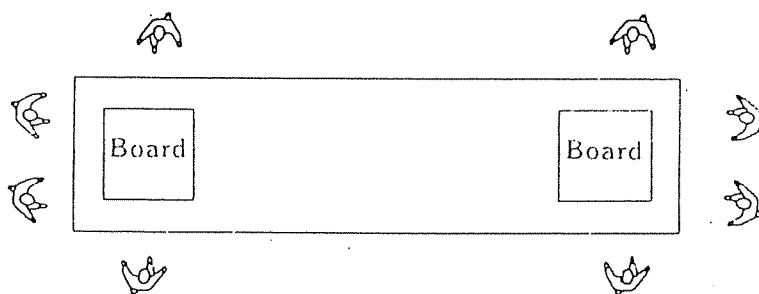
GROUP

I.6 Snakes and ladders

GRAMMAR: Present perfect + for/since
 LEVEL: Intermediate
 TIME: 30–40 minutes
 MATERIALS: One board per four students
 One die per four students

In class

- 1 Divide the class into fours and give each group a board and a die. Ask the students to sit so they can all see the board properly:



Ask each student to choose a coin to represent him or herself and to place the coin on START.

- 2 Explain that the aim of the game is to get from START to FINISH. Some of the sentences on the board are correct and some are incorrect. Explain/demonstrate how you play:
 - a) The first player throws the die and advances to the square indicated. If there is a sentence on that square the player says whether it is correct or incorrect and, in the latter case, tries to correct it. The other three students act as jury and have to decide if the player is right or wrong in his or her judgement. If all three, or two out of three, agree with the player, then he or she goes forward three squares. If they disagree with the player, the player moves back three squares. If the player lands on an empty square then none of the above happens and he or she stays there. It is then the next person's turn. A player who lands on a square at the foot of a ladder must go up it. A player who lands on the mouth of a snake must go down it.

- b) The winner is the first person whose score takes him or her to or beyond FINISH.
 - c) If a player lands on a sentence that has already been discussed, he or she automatically goes on to the next *unworked-on* sentence.
 - d) If a person in the group feels that the others are wrong about a grammar point, he or she should note down the number of its square and ask the teacher at the end of the game.
- 3 Ask the groups to start playing. At first your time will be taken up with answering queries about how to play. Once they settle down to play watch carefully for situations where both the player and the others in the group *agree* on a *wrong* verdict. Don't say anything to them and don't interrupt the game but make a note for after the game. Students will certainly ask your advice when they can't agree on a given sentence. Tell them you will deal with the point *after* the game. Ask them to play on according to the rules. It is vital that you *withhold your knowledge* during the game or you will kill it. The real pleasure and value of the game lies in the students realising and defending their own grammar criteria.
- 4 When most groups have finished, stop everybody and ask if there are disagreements over any of the sentences. If a student in Group A comes up with a disagreement do *not* give him or her an authoritative answer. Refer the problem to the other groups – very often they will give Group A the answer – only give the answer yourself as a last resort. This way the students teach each other.
This is also the time to bring up any sentences where everybody in a group was wrong.

Variation 1

Give pairs of students a blank board and invite them to choose 16 bits of grammar they find hard and to write 16 sentences round these structure areas, half of them correct and half incorrect. Ask them to write their sentences onto the board, leaving every second square blank. They can then add *a few* snakes and ladders. Go round helping the students. In later classes, students play each other's games.

Variation 2

Don't mark the students' homework. Just read through it carefully and pick out 16 mistaken sentences, choosing the mistakes you want the whole group to focus on. Turn 8 of the 16 sentences into correct equivalents. Mix up the correct and incorrect sentences and fit them onto the board. Copy the resultant board so that there will be one copy per four students.

Don't give back the homework – ask them to play the game. In the usual way go through any doubts after the game is over. Then give back the unmarked homework and ask them to read it through. This way they find their mistakes, or some of them, for themselves. The second board, on page 32, is an example of a lower-intermediate class's homework mistakes transposed to a 'Snakes and ladders' board.

Grammar note for board on p.31

6 is correct, though many students are unhappy about the *for* in final position.

8 is correct *and* clearly refers to the future.

24 is correct and refers to the future.

Acknowledgement

My thanks to Chris Sion, the editor of the *Pilgrims Recipe book for tired teachers*, 1980 (Addison Wesley, 1984) where the grammar 'Snakes and ladders' idea was first published, for his help with improving the rules.

Board – Present perfect + for/since (You need 1 per four students.)

31	32 WHAT'VE YOU BEEN DOING WITH YOURSELF THESE LAST FEW MONTHS ?	33	34 WELL, THEY'VE LIVED IN THE SAME FLAT 6 YEARS AGO.	35 FINISH
30 SHE'S ARRIVED LAST WEEK.	29	28 SHE HASN'T WRITTEN FOR AGES.	27	26 THEY ARE TOGETHER 3 MONTHS NOW.
21	22 HE HASN'T STILL COME.	23	24 HOW LONG ARE YOU WAITING ?	25
20 SHE'S BEEN WANTING TO TELL ME EVER SINCE WE FIRST MET.	19	18 I HAVEN'T YET SEEN HIM.	17	16 THEY'RE STAYING WITH US SINCE CHRISTMAS.
11	12 THEY'VE KNOWN EACH OTHER FOR 3 MONTHS	13	14 SHE WORKED AT IBM FOR 15 YEARS.	15
10 HE'S LIVED IN LONDON SINCE 8 YEARS.	9	8 I'M STAYING FOR 2 DAYS.	7	6 HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN IN ENGLAND FOR ?
1 START	2	3	4 I AM HERE SINCE MONDAY.	5

APPENDIX G- AN EXAMPLE MATERIAL USED FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

Directions: Complete the sentences with the appropriate form of the words in parentheses. Add *not* if necessary for a sentence to make sense.

1. A: Why wasn't Pamela at the meeting last night?
B: She (*may + attend*) may have been attending the lecture at Shaw Hall. I know she very much wanted to hear the speaker.
2. Alex has a test tomorrow that he needs to study for. He (*should + watch*) shouldn't be watching TV right now.
3. A: Why didn't Diane come to the phone? I know she was home when I called.
B: I don't know. She (*might + wash*) _____ her hair when you called. Who knows?
4. There's Tom. He's standing at the bus stop. He (*must + wait*) _____ for the 2 o'clock bus.
5. Kathy lost her way while driving to River City. She (*should + leave*) _____ her road map at home.
6. A: Where's Ann?
B: I don't know. She (*could + visit*) _____ her aunt and uncle right now. She usually visits them every Friday evening.
7. You (*should + watch*) _____ the movie on TV tonight. I highly recommend it. It's a classic.
8. I heard a loud crash in the next room. When I walked in, I found a brick on the floor, and the window was broken. Someone (*must + throw*) _____ the brick through the window.
9. Jack is in the employee lounge drinking coffee. He (*should + work*) _____ on his report right now. It's due at 3:00 this afternoon. He (*should + waste*) _____ his time in the employee lounge.
10. A: Where's Jane? I haven't seen her for weeks.
B: I'm not sure. She (*might + travel*) _____ in Europe. I think I heard her mention something about spending a few weeks in Europe this spring.
11. My tweed jacket isn't in my closet. I think my roommate (*might + borrow*) _____ it. He often borrows my things without asking me.
12. Do you hear that guitar music? Carla (*must + play*) _____ her guitar.
13. A: When I arrived, Dennis looked surprised.
B: He (*must + expect*) _____ you.



APPENDIX H RESULTS OF THE T-TEST

OGRENCI	SINAV1	SINAV2
1 HUSEYIN ERKAL	67,00	75,00
2 ALI AKBAY	61,00	58,00
3 BILEN KARATAS	57,00	69,00
4 M.FAIK OKCESIZ	63,00	69,00
5 UGUR AKCAL	64,00	72,00
6 ETKIN GUNDOGAN	71,00	70,00
7 OZAN ERTURK	77,00	80,00
8 SERKAN CELIK	69,00	77,00
9 AYDIN YURTCU	67,00	64,00
10 SORGUN KARATAS	50,00	66,00
11 KORAY KARAKAS	69,00	77,00
12 BULENT KIRAR	70,00	72,00
13 EMIR ARPAG	62,00	63,00
14 OKTAY CAKMAK	79,00	68,00
15 EBRU ELMAS	77,00	84,00
16 YASEMIN TORAMAN	69,00	70,00
17 AYSEGUL ABADAN	60,00	48,00
18 DOGU OZER	59,00	69,00
19 MERT SERTOGLU	57,00	65,00
20 MURAT YURTSUZ	44,00	35,00
21 SELIN KARAORMAN	84,00	98,00
22 AJLAN KOLCU	67,00	75,00
23 SERCAN TAS	43,00	67,00

Number of cases read: 23 Number of cases listed: 23

- - - t-tests for paired samples - - -

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SINAV1	23	,713	,000	64,6087	10,294	2,147
SINAV2				69,1739	12,089	2,521

Mean	Paired Differences SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig

```

-4,5652      8,638      1,801      "      -2,53      22      ,019
95% CI (-8,302; -,829)      "

```

- - - t-tests for paired samples - - -

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
SINAV1				64,6087	10,294	2,147
	23	,713	,000			
SINAV2				69,1739	12,089	2,521

Paired Differences			"			
Mean	SD	SE of Mean	"	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-4,5652	8,638	1,801	"	-2,53	22	,019
99% CI (-9,643; ,513)			"			

	VAR00001	VAR00002	VAR00003
1	LATIF YILMAZ	72,00	67,00
2	ATHALIN BOZ	50,00	52,00
3	CELAL AYALP	75,00	74,00
4	ERKAN ULGER	57,00	63,00
5	SALIH SAHIN	70,00	68,00
6	NURCAN KALKAN	77,00	78,00
7	EMEL AKPINAR	45,00	49,00
8	NUKHET CAN	75,00	78,00
9	ESIN SEN	70,00	64,00
10	MERT AKTAS	78,00	80,00
11	MESUT PESEN	52,00	45,00
12	SALIH AKKEMIK	40,00	46,00
13	CELAL TOSUN	63,00	69,00
14	YUSUF MERMER	86,00	82,00
15	GOKHAN KURT	85,00	87,00
16	FIRAT KARAKOC	60,00	65,00
17	RECEP HAHAT	40,00	57,00
18	ERDI MINK	80,00	83,00
19	RIFAT KAVANOZ	72,00	70,00
20	GULGUN SEL	45,00	28,00
21	AKIN AKTAN	28,00	35,00
22	ESIN GOKCEN	70,00	87,00
23	AYSEGUL AFACAN	56,00	44,00

Number of cases read: 23 Number of cases listed: 23

- - - t-tests for paired samples - - -

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
----------	-----------------	------	------------	------	----	------------

VAR00003	74,00	75,0000	,	1
VAR00003	78,00	76,0000	1,4142	2
VAR00003	80,00	78,0000	,	1
VAR00003	82,00	86,0000	,	1
VAR00003	83,00	80,0000	,	1
VAR00003	87,00	77,5000	10,6066	2

Total Cases = 23

- - - t-tests for paired samples - - -

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
VAR00002	23	,887	,000	62,8696	16,004	3,337
VAR00003				63,9565	16,813	3,506

Paired Differences			"	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
Mean	SD	SE of Mean	"			
-1,0870	7,827	1,632	"	-,67	22	,512
99% CI (-5,688; 3,514)			"			

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. VAR00002

Block Number 1. Method: Enter VAR00003

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. VAR00003

Multiple R ,88737
 R Square ,78743
 Adjusted R Square ,77731
 Standard Error 7,55220

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	4436,85988	4436,85988
Residual	21	1197,74882	57,03566

F = 77,79098 Signif F = ,0000

Var-Covar Matrix of Regression Coefficients (B)
 Below Diagonal: Covariance Above: Correlation

VAR00003

VAR00003 ,00917

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
VAR00003	,844654	,095767	,887373	8,820	,0000
(Constant)	8,848402	6,324102		1,399	,1764

End Block Number 1 All requested variables entered.

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. VAR00002

Residuals Statistics:

	Min	Max	Mean	Std Dev	N
*PRED	32,4987	82,3333	62,8696	14,2012	23
*RESID	-16,9937	12,5013	,0000	7,3786	23
*ZPRED	-2,1386	1,3706	,0000	1,0000	23
*ZRESID	-2,2502	1,6553	,0000	,9770	23

Total Cases = 23

Durbin-Watson Test = 2,05266