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**TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GRAMMAR PRACTICE
IN THE EFL CLASSROOM**

**(A COMPARISON BETWEEN LEARNERS TAUGHT
BY TRADITIONAL EXERCISE TYPES AND THOSE
BY COMMUNICATIVE EXERCISE TYPES)**

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

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ESKİŞEHİR, 1988

Anadolu Üniversitesi
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am most grateful to Dr. Gül Durmuşođlu who supervised me patiently with her advice and guidance in the development and the completion of the present work.

I would like to thank Dr. Embiya Ađaođlu who helped me in doing the statistics.

I would also like to express my gratitude for Dr. Zülâl Balpınar, Dr. Ahmet Konrot and Dr. Jonathan de Berkeley-Wykes who helped me with their valuable comments.

I am also indebted to my husband for his support and patience.

Finally, I would like to thank Atilâ Onur who typed perfectly this thesis.

ABSTRACT

This study aims at comparing two different approaches used in the teaching of grammar. The data have been collected from the experimental studies carried out at Anadolu University, Faculty of Education, first-year students.

The first chapter presents a brief introduction to the problem and states the aim of the study.

The second chapter reviews the literature related to the approaches used in language teaching and how the grammar is taught in these approaches.

The third chapter is devoted to the research design, data collection and selection of subjects.

In the fourth chapter the data collected for the purpose of study have been analysed, the results are given and discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Problem

1.1.1. The Definition of Grammar

The term "grammar" although has a core of generally agreed meaning is difficult to define because it is understood in different ways by different people with different purpose. Therefore, it is possible to find various definitions of the term.

The term "grammar" can simply be defined as the study of language that deals with the forms and structures of words (morphology) and with their arrangement in sprases and sentences(syntax) (cf.Dowen et al. 1985: 161).

Another definition of "grammar", as Fowler(1971: 1) suggests, is the linguistic knowledge which enables the speakers to communicate.

Some other definitions of grammar are also cited in Özen(1985: 85) as follows:

i) "Grammar is that department of study of a language which deals with its inflectional forms or their equivalents, and with the rules for employing these correctly; usually treating also of the phonetic system of the language and its representation in writing."(Shorter Oxford English Dictionary)

ii) "The features of a language (sounds, words, formation and arrangement of words, etc.) considered systematically as a whole, especially with reference to their mutual contrasts and relations"(The American College Dictionary)

iii) "The science dealing with the classes of words, their inflections, and their syntactical relations and functions."(The Concise Oxford Dictionary)

iv) "Grammar was not a set of facts observed but of rules to be observed, and the paradigms, i.e. of patterns, to be followed."(Middle Age and Renaissance-Language by Otto Jespersen)

v) "Grammar deals with the morphemes and their combinations."(An Introduction to General Linguistics)

vi) "The branch of linguistics which deals with the organization of morphemic units into meaningful combinations larger than words." (Structure of American English)

A final definition of the term grammar can be stated as the rules by which meaningful words and parts of words of a language are put together to communicate messages(Dowen et al. 1985).

Grammar is also considered as an indication of social and educational status. Students are given prescriptive rules that help them achieve correct usage. This philosophy is evident in classes for native speakers. Thus, the most visible purpose in teaching grammar to native speakers seems to be the correction of certain forms and constructions that are considered substandard or erroneous, such as the distinctions between:

"She don't", "She doesn't"

"He go home", "He goes home"

"He went to lie down", "He went to lay down."

"I ain't", "I am not."

It is said that some forms are correct and should be used, others are wrong and should be eliminated (cf. Dowen et al.1985).

Finally, it is also helpful to mention here two different aspects of grammar which appear:

1. Know the rule
2. Apply the rule(cf. Dowen et al. 1985: 161).

Downen et al.(1985: 161) also suggest that the condition of knowing the rule and applying it can appear alone. It is observed that many native speakers can apply the rules unwittingly for subconscious application when communicating. However, the case for foreign language learners is different. Some foreign language learners know and can explain the rules, but they may not be able to apply them, and because of this they may be able to communicate only partially or not at all(cf. Downen et al. 1985: 161).

As it can be deduced from all the definitions given above "grammar" is understood in different ways, however, one thing is clear: it refers to a common idea related to the overall structure of the language.

1.1.2. The Importance of Grammar in Foreign Language Learning

The teaching of grammar has long been assumed to constitute an essential part of both first, second, or foreign language teaching.

In the majority of places in the world today where foreign or second language teaching takes place, a recognized goal for the learner is to internalize the basic grammatical skeleton of the new language,

since to be able to speak a language one must master its grammar first. Even native speakers need to gain insights into the structures which are embedded in the language patterns(cf. Dubin 1977: 5).

Wilkins(1974: 5) suggests that the purpose of communication is to express meanings and to convey ideas. Languages possess grammatical systems so as to make the communication possible not, as some learners might be inclined to think to make the learning more difficult.

It is true that the speaker of a foreign language does not learn the grammar of that language in the same way as a child learns his native language. It is usually possible to observe a four or five-year-old child applying the grammar of his language correctly when he hears something new. It is said that he can do this by analogy, or by drawing on his previous experience(Üzen 1985: 86).

By contrast, the study of grammar when learning a foreign language is necessary to reach the mastery in the new language.

Grammar, in the study of foreign languages as mentioned by Downen et al(1985: 163), acts as a traffic officer, whose signals and rules help keep the learner

on the right road. One's own understanding of these signals and rules will allow him to self-monitor his progress and avoid practising errors. It is also suggested that we correct and improve our linguistic performance by a monitoring device that serves as a grammatical check of every sentence we speak, which when it works properly, assures our ability to follow the rules of discourse. The rules are easier to apply if one understands how the full structure works; they are more difficult to apply if they are arbitrary statements that have to be remembered and used in a capricious way(cf. Downen et al. 1985: 163).

It is, therefore, generally admitted that the knowledge and skill in grammar contribute to language proficiency(cf. Dubin et al. 1977: 7). Foreign language learners need to be informed of correct and incorrect usage of the language, since they approach the learning task without the experience of having lived in the language. Another strong and valid reason for learning grammar is to gain the descriptive experience which allows to correct errors on the basis of familiarity with the rules that explain the constructions which make up sentences(cf. Downen et al. 1985: 190).

1.1.3. The Status of Grammar in (EFL) Curriculum

In trying to equip the students with the ability

of using the language, grammar is an incompatible element. In an EFL classroom, the students need guidance and the teacher is ready to interpret the correct set of rules needed to communicate. The role of grammar is so serious and central that all avenues should be searched to focus the students energy on the task of mastering and internalizing it. Internalizing as Krashen(1982: 81) clarifies means "the acquisition of a rule that was first learned."

In spite of the fact that grammar knowledge is needed in clarifying the way the language works and to make understanding and teaching easier, it has always been considered one of the most boring and obscure subjects in the school curriculum(cf. Gethin 1983: 5; Allen et al. 1975: 45). Widdowson (1982: 45) argues that grammar has acquired a reputation for dullness, since the way it is taught in schools seems to be designed to kill all interest.

Students think that grammar is confusing and hard to "get right", and there is no practical help to correct errors. As for teachers, teaching grammar is boring and only a few of them find pleasure in giving grammar courses because it is difficult to explain since they are abstract, uninteresting to teach and the results are unsatisfactory(cf. French 1975: 88).

As a result of traditional approaches to language teaching the grammatical devices of language have been taught as an end in themselves. In other words, instructors considered the grammar as a separate subject to be taught in isolation apart from the other language skills such as writing or reading. Consequently, there attached a certain stigma to the teaching of grammar since it did not help the students in using the language appropriately (cf. French 1975: 89; Gethin 1983: 6).

Today, as Rutherford (1987: 14) states for a learner to be regarded as proficient, knowing the basic structural principles is essential but not sufficient. In the early years of language teaching, however, the grammatical focus has not only been a necessary part of language instruction; it has also been a sufficient condition for language learning.

When one looks on the content pages of a coursebook used in secondary schools or universities he can notice that almost all areas of grammar are included, and dealt with through the year. But the teachers forget that teaching the "usage" and the "use" of language is different. Students who know the usage -the rules- do the exercises without any mistakes. They produce grammatically correct sentences that may not be appropriate or meaningful in real-life situations. For this reason, the teaching of grammar should be taken up in a more

communicative way and the students should be given a chance to use English in appropriate and meaningful contexts(cf. Stapinska et al. 1986: 35).

1.1.4. Problems Related to Grammar in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

The problem of how to teach a language has been the concern of many scholars since classical times. As a result of our widening awareness of the nature and process of language learning in general and the manner in which the learners acquire a language, several teaching approaches have been introduced, and materials for the application of these approaches have been prepared.

The teacher of grammar, however, has been left to his own resources and as Kelly(1976: 34) points out the manner of teaching and learning of grammar has always been disputed.

Accepted, approaches have ranged from inductive, by which the pupil himself arrives at rules from examples, to the deductive whereby one proceeds from rules to a knowledge of the language(cf. Kelly 1976: 34). Furthermore, some of the widely used approaches either devoted a great amount of time to the teaching of grammar or completely neglected it.

However, whatever the fashion or the orthodoxy is, students seem to need and will ask for grammatical explanations, in other words, "teachers will teach grammar somehow, and students both want and need grammar somehow."(Allsop 1983: 30)

Reer supports Allsop and states:

"Although most of us have come to recognize that for students to be able to function well in a new language, they need not be highly sophisticated in their knowledge of grammar rules, I feel that students' desire to pull language apart and be able to formulate rules, look for regularities and understand why language functions as it does ought not to be ignored." (1986: 71).

In the last decade of foreign language teaching, educators have agreed in general that the goal of language learning is to develop the communicative competence so as to enable the exchange of ideas with others. But being communicatively competent does not only mean transferring ideas in an haphazard way, it is also being able to use explicit grammatical knowledge in spontaneous utterances.

However, earlier approaches failed to attain the goal of creating communicatively competent learners. This failure resulted in students who cannot appropriately

use the rules already taught in their grammar classes. The learners complain that they know all the grammar by heart and have hardly any trouble doing exercises, but when it comes to speaking they are unable to put the theory they know so well in practice (cf. Stapinska et al. 1986: 35).

It seems likely that there is something which goes wrong with the way the grammar is taught in schools. If related literature about the subject is reviewed, it can be said that with the application of a more creative approach the failure in grammar teaching can be overcome.

This alternative way to the teaching of grammar may be the use of a communicative approach where the rules of the language are practiced through roleplays, games, songs, poems, etc. In this way the learners will be better motivated and learn better, in addition, having completed the course they will be able to produce grammatically correct sentences (cf. Stapinska et al. 1986: 35).

1.1.5 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to throw light on the methodological problems involved in the teaching

of English grammar, particularly to compare two different approaches used in grammar teaching.

Two groups of students were formed so as to compare two different approaches. The first group consisted of students who were taught through traditional grammar exercises(cf. Appendix A) the second group consisted of students who were taught through communicative grammar exercises(cf. Appendix B).

In this study the hypothesis is that communicative exercises used in the teaching of grammar points may creat better results by making the learning more effective. This study aims at testing how much a communicative approach is effective in teaching the use of the past tense form.

In order to achieve this goal the following points will be taken into consideration and discussed:

1. the way grammar is taught and the types of exercises used in traditional approach.
2. the way grammar is taught and the types of exercises used in communicative approach.
3. whether there is a significant difference between the two groups before the exposure to approaches.

4. whether there is a significant difference within groups after the exposure to the approach.
5. whether there is a significant difference between groups after the exposure to the approaches.
6. whether the subjects in both groups make the same types of errors in free writing.

1.1.6. Limitations and Assumptions of the Study

This study was carried out at Anadolu University, Faculty of Education, Eskişehir. Subjects used in the study were randomly chosen among the first-year students of the English Teacher Training Department. The students were supposed to have similar backgrounds. Their aim is to be English teachers in a four years' time. The students were supposed to be at a level between the lower and the upper intermediate when their university scores were taken into consideration. They were from the same age group ranging between 17-22. All subjects were speakers of English as a foreign language and their native language was Turkish.

This study is limited to the teaching of grammar points in EFL classes. The particular point to be

dealt in this study is the teaching of the Past tense form. Considering that methods and techniques are the essential and inseparable components of teaching, in this study different techniques, in other words, different types of exercises are used to make the students practice the Past tense form.

This study is also limited to the comparison of two different approaches used in the teaching of grammar; Traditional Approach versus Communicative Approach.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Attitudes to Grammar Teaching: Native Language vs. Foreign Language

The teaching of grammar shows salient differences depending on the language to be taught. Attitudes towards the teaching of grammar are not the same in the native language acquisition with the one in foreign language learning. As it can be noticed from the terms used, the native language is acquired whereas the foreign language is learned. In this section it is necessary to discuss the difference between the terms 'acquisition' and 'learning'.

Krashen(1982: 10) suggests that acquisition is a subconscious process, and claims that every child acquires his native language fluently and efficiently,

he acquires it naturally without special instruction, provided that he is not mentally retarded. He points out that when someone acquires his native language he acquires it without being aware of the fact that he is acquiring the language. Grammatical sentences 'sound' right or 'feel' right and errors 'feel' wrong even if he does not consciously know what rule was violated. According to Krashen, acquisition involves implicit learning, informal learning and natural learning. In non-technical terms acquisition is picking-up a language.

On the other hand, he suggests that foreign language can only be learned, because a foreign language learner needs to make a conscious effort in order to learn the language in an artificial setting such as classroom. And this process can only be referred as 'explicit learning.'

When one learns a foreign language he learns the formal knowledge about that language. The competence in foreign language develops by the formal study of grammatical rules of that particular language(cf. Krashen 1982).

As Krashen(1982: 83) points out in the case of native language acquisition language is first learned through natural learning processes and then the rules are internalized unconsciously, whereas foreign language

learning involves explicit learning processes and the learner makes conscious use of the rules of his native language.

As most of the educators and linguists come to agree, in native and foreign language classes the teaching of grammar can be justified for different reasons.

A speaker who knows and uses his native language perfectly well may not know the rules of his own language unless he is formally taught them, though, he can judge the language as being grammatical or ungrammatical. For example, a native speaker of Turkish language can find the following sentences taken from a foreigner speech odd but cannot explain why until he receives a formal education.

- Dünkü toplantıya hiçkimse geldi.
- Ahmet'in, Ali ve Demet adında iki kardeşleri var.
- Yeni komşumuzla apartmanın kapısından karşılaştık.

To sum up, native language speakers and foreign language speakers are in different situations when they first start studying grammar. In the case of native language the formal study of the grammatical rules begins with the literacy development i.e. the native speaker already knows the language but he starts learning about the language after he learns how to read and write. However,

the foreign language learner needs to learn the rules of the new language so as to speak it. The contrast between the grammar in native language and foreign language can be thought to be similar to inductive vs. deductive learning respectively.

Since foreign language learners already know one set of grammatical rules (i.e. grammatical rules of their own mother tongue), they will try to build new habits on their old ones. This situation can be considered both advantageous, and disadvantageous. The knowledge of one set of rules might interfere in the learning process of new grammatical rules, or the learners may consciously exploit the grammar of their native language and use this as an advantage.

2.2. Different Approaches to the Grammar Instruction in ELT

2.2.1. Approach, Method and Technique

As Stern(1983: 452) informs the question of how to teach languages has been debated for over twenty-five centuries, however as Kelly(1969) puts it theory development as a debate on teaching methods has evolved only over the last hundred years. Stern(1983: 452) claims that the names of many methods are familiar enough but they are not easy to grasp because their names have not been used in a consistent and unambiguous way.

For example, while Prator et al.(1979: 3) refer to Grammar-Translation as an approach Freeman(1986: 4) refers to it as a method. In the same way Brown(1980: 243) calls Audiolingualism a method while Chastain(1976: 27) calls it the Audio-lingual Approach. Again Chastain (1976: 21) names Direct Approach of Celce-Murcia(1979: 3) as Direct Method.

However, linguists such as Anthony(1985: 199) suggest that the arrangement of these terms is hierarchical. According to Anthony and Freeman(1986: xi) techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach. Anthony(1985: 199) says that an approach describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. In other words; approach is a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning. It implies a view point, a philosophy about learning and teaching process.

Richards(1983: 155) supports Anthony and proposes that 'approach' encompasses both theories of language and language learning, and adds that all language teaching methods operate explicitly from a theory of language and beliefs or theories about how language is learned. Different theoretical views of language explicitly or implicitly underlie currently popular language teaching methods. Thus, it is possible to say theories contribute to approaches.

Stern(1983: 452) defines the term 'method' and says that a method is more than a single strategy or a particular technique; it is a theory of language teaching. He goes on, and states; a method results from practical and theoretical discussions in a given historical context. 'Method' implies or overtly expresses certain objectives and a particular view of language. It makes assumptions about the language learners, and certain beliefs underlie the nature of the language learning process.

On the other hand, Anthony(1985: 199) defines "method" as the orderly presentation of the language. He also states that this presentation may be influenced by several factors. That is, the methods chosen may be modified according to the nature of the language to be taught. For example, the way French is taught to English students differs methodologically from the way it is taught to Spanish students.

The method employed is affected by the age, culture and the previous experience of the learners, in addition, the experience of the teacher and his level of mastery in that language, the time available during a given course, the goal of the course are also to be considered when deciding on a method. Anthony suggests that there can be more than one methods within one approach. To illustrate, he choses Audiolingual

as approach, and mim-mem and pattern practice as methods that can be used with success within the given approach.

He says that both mim-mem and pattern practice share the same goal of developing an automatic oral production. Neither assumes previous language experience, each is primarily for adults only the order of presentation differs.

Anthony explains mim-mem method; it begins with a situation-getting a room at a hotel. The learners repeat what they hear from the tape recorder and try to memorize some of the sentences from the dialogue. Later, these sentences are used for particular emphasis and drill. He also explains the pattern practice; pattern practice method starts with grammatical or phonological structures. These structures are first drilled later built up into a situation. In both methods, there is nothing which contradicts the assumptions of the Audio-lingual Approach.

Finally, Anthony clarifies what is meant by the term "technique". He admits that technique depends on the teacher's artistry, and on the composition of the class. He adds that the same problem may be tackled by the use of different techniques. This implies that several techniques may be used for the same method, and by contrast a given technique may well be associated

with more than one method. If two methods share certain principles then the techniques that are the application of these principles could well be appropriate for both methods. A technique is a particular trick, a strategy which actually takes place in a classroom to accomplish an objective. To make the point clear an example can be given here: tape-recorders or video-recorders are all techniques. The teacher to present a dialogue may either use a tape-recorder or he, himself, may read the dialogue.

Anthony sums up by saying that techniques must be consistent with the method and therefore in harmony with the approach.

Nonetheless, as it can be deduced from the brief survey given above, there is not a clear-cut distinction between the use of the terms 'approach' and 'method', and most of the time these terms are used interchangeably. In this study for the sake of unity the term 'approach' will be used to describe different ways to the teaching of languages.

In this study as samples four of the widely used approaches are going to be dealt with.

2.2.2. Grammar-Translation Approach

2.2.2.1. History and Source

In the eighteenth century the teaching of languages was based on translation between the known language (mother tongue) and the one being learned (target language) with the belief that there was structural similarity across languages. In Grammar-Translation Approach language teaching was equated with the development of learners' knowledge on how to conjugate and decline (cf. Rutherford 1987: 29; Kelly 1969).

Stern (1983: 453) notes that the main practice technique which combines the grammar and translation into the target language became popular in the late eighteenth century.

Linguists such as Freeman (1986: 4), Çakır (1986: 115) and Teo van Els et al. (1984: 147) mention that Grammar-translation Approach is also called as 'Classical' or 'Traditional' Approach. This is perhaps, it has been used in the teaching of classical or traditional languages such as Latin and Greek for centuries.

It cannot be easily said that Grammar-Translation was theorized and started by such and such people but the names of its leading exponents like Johann Seidenstücker,

Karl Plötz, H.S. Ollendorf allow us to say that it is a product of German scholarship(cf. Stern 1983: 453; Richards et al. 1986: 3).

According to Brown(1980: 241) Grammar-Translation came to dominate foreign language teaching after a study which investigated the success of modern language teaching in the United States. The results of this study showed that the time devoted to the teaching of languages was very limited. After that it was recommended that schools should concentrate on developing reading ability. In addition to stressing the reading ability the study of grammar and the use of translation from and into the target language were widely used considering that they were aids to reading comprehension. In this way the main goal in Grammar-Translation classes became developing the reading ability.

As Stern(1983: 455) suggests Grammar-Translation Approach considered the target language as a system of rules to be considered in texts and to be related to first language rules. Therefore, the first language became a reference system in the learning of the target language. This is why Grammar-Translation classes are taught in the students' first language.

As Krashen(1982: 129) notes Grammar-Translation Approach assumes conscious control of grammar necessary

for the foreign language mastery. He claims that this assumption necessitates all target structures to be introduced and explained. The failure with this is that there is not any attempt to specify when rules are to be used, the implicit assumption being that all students will be able to use all the rules when the need arises.

Krashen also informs that Grammar-Translation is grammatically sequenced. However, this means that the texts proceed from what the author considers easy rules to the more complex ones. He further adds that each lesson introduces certain rules and these rules dominate the lesson.

Stern(1983: 455) thinks in the same way, and adds that the complexity of the learning task is increased by the construction of practice sentences which illustrate a number of rules simultaneously.

As Stern(1983: 455) points out the Grammar-Translation Approach tended to make language learning appear as a matter of problem or puzzle-solving. He also adds that this approach was justified as mental training, since thinking about formal features of the target language and translation puts the learner into an active problem solving situation.

On the other hand, Brown(1980: 241) puts that the theoretical assumptions of the Grammar-Translation Approach were more pedagogical rather than linguistic and psychological. Economy of time and resources available in educational institution were all considered and the approach appeared to accomplish necessary educational objectives. Although no real psychological and linguistic foundations were put forward, it was admitted that the essence of learning to read in a foreign language was translation and grammar activities.

2.2.2.2 Characteristic Features of the Approach

The characteristic features of the Approach can be summarized as follows: the main goal being to develop reading ability of learners, oral skills are neglected, instead reading in the target language is emphasized. For that reason the use of the target language is minimal. Long elaborate explanations of grammar are mostly given in the learner's native language. In a Grammar-Translation class accuracy is important therefore little attention is paid to the content of texts, the focus of attention is the form of the language. The learners are required to **memorize** grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations. They are later asked to apply the rules as they have memorized them. Often the only drill is exercises

to be translated from the target language into the native language or vice versa. The learners start with sentences, then as they progress they may advance to coherent texts. When there is a word they do not know they refer to their bilingual dictionaries or ask their teachers. Vocabulary lists to be memorized are almost always given with their equivalence in the native language of the learners, since in the Grammar-Translation Approach the first language is very important as a reference system, as mentioned earlier(cf. Prator et al.(1979: 3), Freeman(1986: 8), Çakır(1987: 15), Stern(1983: 455).

2.2.2.3. The teaching of Grammar in Grammar-Translation Approach

In Grammar-Translation Approach the teaching of grammar is the most emphasized compared with the other language areas. Similarly Grammar-Translation Approach emphasizes the teaching of grammar more than any other approaches.

Freeman(1986: 10) says that grammar in Grammar-Translation Approach is deductively taught. This means that grammar rules are presented with examples. Exceptions to each rule are also noted. Once students understand a rule, they are asked to apply it to some different examples(cf. Appendix C).

As Krashen(1982: 130) mentions each lesson contains a few grammar points or rules which are set out and illustrated by examples. Although Krashen believes that a grammar-translation text-book is sequenced depending on the writer's choice,Çakır(1987: 15) stresses that grammar points are not ordered in any way in Grammar-Translation Approach.

Allen et al.(1978: 45) mention that the Grammar-Translation Approach was not very effective in preparing students to use the target language communicatively. Students did not easily achieve a fluent use of the target language because they spent much of their time studying abstract grammatical rules.

2.2.3. Direct Approach

2.2.3.1. History and Source

Before 1900 language teaching was limited to the classical languages and little or no attention was given to the teaching of speaking skills. But with the turn of the century interests in teaching foreign languages for speaking purposes began to increase (cf. Brown 1980: 240).

In Europe a reaction against the Grammar-Translation Approach started. This reaction emphasized foreign

language learning by direct contact with the target language in meaningful situations. This, later paved the way for the development of Direct Approach(cf. Lado 1964).

As Robinett(1978: 162) states a strong reaction against the emphasis of the traditionalists on written language and the acceptance of the importance of the mental discipline on the part of psychologists laid the foundation for the Direct Approach, which has never been closely associated with any particular school of linguistics.

Brown(1980: 240) notes that in the Direct Approach "the classes are conducted orally and directly in the foreign language without" any translation. This shows that the rationale behind the approach is that a person should learn to speak a foreign language not by memorization, translation or learning grammar rules instead by the same mechanisms a child uses to learn his native language.

2.2.3.2. Characteristic Features of the Approach

The most distinctive and perhaps the most important feature of the Direct Approach is the use of foreign language in the classroom forbidding all use of the

learner's native language(cf. Strevens 1977: 6; Prator et al. 1979: 3; and Diller 1978: 73).

Diller(1978: 77) stresses that through adequate organization and step by step progression it is possible to exclude the student's mother tongue from the classroom. He gives the first language learning as an example and adds that to establish communication with someone who does not know our language we must start with small beginnings, such as naming first, as the infant does, then pointing to things. According to Diller this simple act of communication resembles to the delight of a child learning his first language. To person who learns his foreign language the same delight comes when he realizes that he can communicate in a language that he did not know an hour before.

Lessons in the Direct Approach start with dialogues or anecdotes in modern conversational style, in this way the students are immersed in a flow of examples of the spoken language. The teacher while actively demonstrating the meaning of what is said may also use pictures to make the meaning clear and to achieve step by step progression. If the meaning is still not clear paraphrase technique may be used but L_1 equivalence is never used. To illustrate the paraphrase technique Diller(1978: 77) gives an example; to explain

the word "ice" the teacher says: "in summer, the water in a lake is liquid. In winter the water in a lake is not liquid: it is solid. Solid water is ice".

The preferred type of exercise is a series of questions in the target language based on the dialogue or anecdote. The teacher encourages the students to speak by asking them questions. The students are required to answer these questions in the target language(cf. Freeman 1986: 22; Diller 1978: 77; and Hubbard et al. 1986: 34)(cf. Appendix D).

The Direct Approach concerns primarily with the spoken language and pays little or no attention to the grammatical rules. The simple idea behind the approach is that languages are learned by hearing them spoken and engaging in conversation, i.e. automatically. Reading and writing can be developed later(cf. Hubbard et al. 1986: 34; Robinett 1978: 162).

2.2.3.3. The Teaching of Grammar in the Direct Approach

In this approach to demonstrate the knowledge about the language is not required. Little or no attention is paid to the teaching of grammar. Therefore, the syllabus is based on situations not usually on linguistic structures(cf. Robinett 1978: 162; and Freeman 1986: 25).

Diller(1978: 78) notes that just like in other parts of the lesson the knowledge of grammar is also built up in a step by step progression. Even so, the students are not told the rule until they see examples of it in operation. This is what Prator(1979: 3) and Freeman(1986: 23) call inductive teaching of grammar. Prator(1979: 3) adds that rule generalization comes only after experience. The aim in the Direct Approach is to give students a rich sample of the forms of the structural items to envelop them in a continuous stream of the language(cf. Hubbard et al. 1986: 34).

2.2.4. Audio-Lingual Approach

2.2.4.1. History and Source

Around the middle of the twentieth century the unique advances of linguistic and psychology had a profound and lasting effect on language teaching methodology. Structural linguistics had provided tools for dissecting language into its smallest parts and for contrasting two languages 'scientifically', and behavioral psychology had provided a model for teaching behavior by conditioning. These two theoretical assumptions merged perfectly well to create a new approach firmly grounded in theory: Audio-lingual Approach(cf. Brown 1980: 242).

Audio-lingual Approach is also known as Oral-Aural Approach and The mim-mem(mimicry-memorization). Downen et al. (1985: 35) claim that because oral-aural was a label which had not been easily understood by the hearers Nelson Brooks of Yale University coined the term Audio-lingual.

At the time when the Direct Approach continued to be used in Europe, Audio-lingual Approach began to progress slowly in the USA, but after the USA was involved in World War II, Audio-lingualism found a suitable climate for its development since to provide language expertise for this 'globe-spanning' operation was necessary and it was concluded that the speaking ability was the most needed. Thus, Leonard Bloomfield less than a year after America's entry into the war, published a guide on learning languages(cf. Downen et al. 1985: 32).

When the foundations of the Audio-lingual Approach were being laid the influences of behavioristic psychology and structural linguistics were at their peak.

Psychological theories of learning most closely related with Audio-lingual Approach can be traced back to antiquity. Early philosophers from time to time mentioned the possibility of humans' learning to be similar to that of animals'. However, this was

not taken seriously until the middle of the nineteenth century. The event that influenced the acceptance of these ideas was the publication of Darwin's "Origine of Species". In the book he said, "there may be a continuity between the human mind and the animal mind" (cf. Munn et al. 1969: 640). In this way an interest in animal psychology grew. However, scientists had to limit their descriptions to overt actions of animal, to behavior, as the observation of mental process was impossible. The school of psychology that developed from these experimental studies with animal behavior was called 'Behaviorism'. Soon behaviorists concluded that all learning consisted of some form of conditioning. In other words, the organism was conditioned to respond to a selected stimulus. Since all learning was similar to animal learning it was possible to conclude that humans learned by conditioning (cf. Chastain 1976: 104).

According to structural linguists language was overlearned to the point at which the speakers are able to focus their attention on what is being said rather than how.

In his "Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages" Bloomfield States:

"The command of a language is not a matter of knowledge: the speakers are quite unable

to describe the habits which make up their language. The command of language is a matter of practice" and "language learning is overlearning: anything else is of no use."

(1942: 12)

2.2.4.2. Characteristic Features of the Approach

Neither, the behavioristic psychologists nor the structural linguists were language teachers but their ideas influenced the direction that foreign language teaching has taken.

By accepting the essential ideas of behaviorism learning has been viewed as a mechanical process. It favours an implicit learning strategy rather than an explicit and the emphasis is on active and simple practice. In this approach it is believed that language learning is to be less of a mental burden and should be a matter of effortless and frequent repetition and imitation. All these add up to make it a mechanistic process. The approach being so simple and direct brings the language learning to ordinary people, it also does not require a strong academic background(cf. Stren 1983: 465).

In Audio-lingual Approach the most noticeable feature of a class time is oral work and the emphasis

is mainly on listening and speaking. Although reading and writing are not neglected they are emphasized only minimally(cf. Prator 1979: 3; Stern 1983: 465; Downen et al. 1985: 31).

A typical classroom activity starts with the repetition of dialogues. The students first repeat chorally, then in small groups and finally individually. By doing this they try to memorize. They respond to drill exercises, answer questions and produce variations on drills and dialogues(cf. Krashen 1982: 130; Downen et al. 1985: 34).

Chastain(1979: 121) claims that early Audio-lingual classes were good examples of teacher-centered classes. The teacher served as the language model, later with the new language technology of the language laboratory the tape recorder began to replace the role of the teacher. Stern(1985: 465) adds that although they were not actual conversations tape recordings offered practice in speaking by helping the students in rehearsing verbal exchanges of ordinary talk(cf. Appendix E).

The teacher, apart from serving as a model when required gives the stimuli and the most important, correct errors. To eliminate errors is essential in an Audio-lingual class since an incorrect response is seen as the beginning of an incorrect habit. To

avoid this possibility students are carefully led in minimal steps while drilling(cf. Diller 1978: 49).

2.2.4.3. The Teaching of Grammar in Audio-lingual Approach

The goal in Audio-lingual Approach is to develop the same types of abilities in foreign language learners that native speakers have. This means that the learners are expected to handle the language at an unconscious level. This approach aims at conditioning the students to give correct, automatic and non-thoughtful responses to language stimuli. In this way the students learn to talk without paying attention to the way language is put together just as in their native language(cf. Diller 1978: 50).

Unlike the previous approaches which see the language teaching as a compound system and thus which consider the mother language and the target language associated with each other, Audio-lingual Approach sees the language teaching as a coordinate system. This means that Audio-lingual Approach puts the mother language and the target language in their proper places considering them as systems to be referred to only when needed. Although Chastain(1979: 111) notes that the use of the mother tongue is banned in Audio-lingual classes Stern(1983: 464) argues that the use of the

native language is not severely forbidden as in the Direct Approach and is used to provide instructions and explanations for structures.

Yet, in the Audio-lingual Approach the grammar of the language is not taught explicitly. To provide inductive mastery in grammar is essential and therefore the teachers are not allowed to tell the learners "about" the language(cf. Strevens 1977: 5).

Widely used pattern drills are taught without explanation, the pattern is practised first and then a brief explanation is given if necessary, since according to Audio-lingual proponents the knowledge of rule only impedes progress. Chastain(1979: 112) believes that one cannot use the language and think about its constructions at the same time.

Parallel to Chastain, Palmer(1921) notes that language learning is a habit forming process therefore time spent on explanation of the rules is wasted, because rules do not help to form new habits, nor to develop automatism(cf. Bolinger 1978: 23).

In Audio-lingual classes while studying and listening to dialogues the students are faced with the task of acquiring new structures. The important consideration of Audio-lingual Approach in doing so

is that structures are better learned in context as opposed to the study of isolated grammatical structures (cf. Diller 1978: 49).

Once the students become familiar with the structures used in the dialogues they begin to manipulate the same semantic and structural elements in pattern drills. The purpose of these drills is to enable the students to learn the structures at such a degree that they can give automatic, non-thoughtful responses. While the students perform these drills they learn the grammar points unconsciously. After the students have met the structure in context as part of the dialogue and drilled the same grammar points in pattern drills, they move on some type of activity in which they can practice the same forms. The purpose of these activities is to transfer what they have already learned to new contexts (cf. Diller 1978: 50).

As it can be concluded from the suggestions of various linguists there is no explicit use of grammar teaching in the Audio-lingual Approach. However, the object is to make the students practice the correct forms until there is an automatic connection between the stimulus and the response.

Audio-lingual Approach enjoyed a widespread acceptance for a time in the early sixties, it was

in its golden age, but by the end of the decade beginning with Wilga Rivers's classic criticism "The Psychologist and Foreign language Teacher"(1964), linguists, psychologists and language teachers hammered away at the shortcomings of the approach and it was blamed for all that was wrong with language teaching. Its theoretical basis was found weak according to Generative Linguistics which showed that language could not be dissected into discrete units, that language was a hierarchical structure in which all the bits and pieces do not add up to a single whole(cf. Stern 1983: 466; Brown 1980: 242).

On the other hand, Cognitive Psychology had begun to show that aspects of human behavior, especially linguistic behavior could not be learned by rote repetition. The language teachers were discovering that communicative functions of language could not be learned by this approach, thus teachers began to look for alternative approaches(cf. Brown 1980: 242).

In this way, the 1970's was bringing an age of restlessness and dissatisfaction. In some circles the importance of deductive and analytical approaches was stressed. Meanwhile, remnants of the Grammar-Translation and Direct Approach were being used in various modifications. So, the third quarter of the

twentieth century was a period when language teaching went from a well-accepted approach to times of uncertainty and searching.

2.2.5. Communicative Approach

2.2.5.1. History and Source

As our view of language and language learning have changed, there appeared a move away from structurally based teaching to one based more closely on a functionally based. There has also been a move in psycholinguistics from a behavioristic view to a cognitive/affective one which emphasizes the involvement of the learner's thinking process and feelings in learning. As a result, it has been admitted that language is a natural process rather than a habit formation and the goal of studying a foreign language has been defined as enabling the learner to achieve communication(cf. Hutchinson 1986: 1; McIntosh 1979: 19).

Since the goal of foreign language learning has been determined to develop the ability of using real, appropriate language to communicate and interact with others Communicative Approach began to be widely used(cf. Finocchiaro et al. 1983).

Communicative Approach is a very broad term covering all ways of teaching that emphasize the actual communication of meaningful information, feelings and ideas as opposed to the Structural Approach which teaches the language forms for their own sake. Communicative Approach suggests that the students' utterances should have real communicative value rather than just the practice of forms(cf. Newton 1987: 51).

2.2.5.2. Characteristic Features of the Approach

The most noticeable feature in a Communicative classroom is that it leads the teacher and the learner to different roles from those found in more traditional language classes. The teacher is a consultant and manager in the classroom not the only person who is responsible for the teaching.

Other features of the Communicative Approach can be summarized as follows: the first and the most important feature that characterizes the approach is the view which reflects the importance of meaningfulness in teaching. Beginning with the Communicative Approach it has been admitted that knowledge of structure and lexis is not enough to ensure the students with the ability of communicating effectively when required to do so. As meaning is paramount in this approach

the goal of teaching should be to use the language for a purpose. Instead of manipulating structures with no communicative purposes if the students can use the language they are learning they will be better motivated(cf. Swan 1982: 46).

In contrast with the previous approaches used in teaching languages Communicative Approach accepts any device of language. According to the age, need, and interest of the learners grammatical explanation, translation, errors, even the use of the native language are allowed and accepted where feasible. Apart from speaking and listening which are essential for communication reading and writing are also attempted from the first day if desired. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function or meaning which maintains interest. As for accuracy, while fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal, accuracy is judged in context. This reveals that the structures are not neglected in Communicative Approach, on the contrary, "it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language"(Littlewood 1986: 1).

However, in favour of providing fluency in communication accuracy may be played down, because it is known that only a knowledge of grammar does not constitute a language ability. Language is a process like walking or riding a bicycle. One may know what

is involved in riding a bicycle but can not necessarily do it in practice. Some of the previous approaches like grammar-translation and audio-lingualism considered the teaching of grammar and accuracy as a necessary preliminary, but as mentioned earlier, although it is an incompatible part of language, not sufficient to provide the goal of teaching communication.

To sum up, such a set of contrasts illustrates well some of the major differences between communicative approach and earlier traditions in language teaching (cf. Richards 1986).

2.2.5.3. The Teaching of Grammar in Communicative Approach

While a Cognitive Approach to learning implies a need for rules, the Functional/Notional Approach left the rules out of the language system. As Hutchinson (1984: 13) mentions this contradiction seems to become something of an embaessment with nobody knowing what to do with grammar.

Language teaching materials that are referred as communicative are often interpreted as signaling the death of grammatical mastery as a primary goal of language teaching (cf. Salimbene 1983: 2).

Although some linguists believe that grammatical accuracy is not required of EFL students in order to communicate, and do not incorporate the teaching of grammar into their syllabus Communicative Approach never abandons the systematic development of structural mastery in the presentation of materials. As Jones (1984: 96) mentions, Communicative Language Learning gives a major role to grammar teaching. He notes that the grammar is the means through which linguistic creativity is achieved. He also puts that an inadequate knowledge of the grammar would lead to a serious limitation in communication.

Therefore, while supporting the use of a communicative approach to the teaching of language grammar should not be thought as a taboo, on the contrary, the features of communicative approach should also be applied to the actual language system that makes the various communicative activities possible, in other words, to grammar(cf. Hutchinson 1984: 114).

Salimbene(1983: 2) notes that with a Communicative Approach to the teaching of grammar forms are not thought for their own sake but as means of carrying out communication. In Widdowson's terms(1979: 122) language 'usage' and language 'use' should be developed together. To achieve this, Communicative Approach brought activities, such as games, puzzles, songs

and pair-work into the classroom, which aim at developing language fluency and encourage language use(cf. Appendix F).

These types of grammar exercises engage the student's mind and imagination and the student is so absorbed in the meaningful activity that he learns the grammar points naturally, almost without having to think especially about it (cf. Comeau 1987: 57).

It is not difficult to transform a traditional grammar exercise into a communicative one, therefore the teachers should not worry about how to get communicative exercises. For example, by asking the students to work in pairs, to fill in the blanks, creating information gaps or by asking them to practice a dialogue and perform it for the class a traditional exercise can easily be changed into a communicative one(cf. Byrne 1982: 37; Mosback 1984: 178; Comeau 1987: 58).

CHAPTER III

THE RESEARCH METHOD

3.1. Research Design

This research is designed as a longitudinal and comparative study. In this study the first-year students studying at the Faculty of Education, English Language Teacher Training Department have been taught in two different groups. The subject matter has been the teaching of grammar points, especially the use of the Past tense, through traditional exercise types in one group, and through communicative exercise types in the other. Apart from their regular grammar classes the students received two extra hours of instruction per week during the second semester of the 1985-86 academic year. At the end of the semester the results obtained from each group have been noted and analysed in order to establish the performance and thus to

tell which approach to the teaching of the Past Tense form has been more effective.

In the study based on the written use of the Past Tense form there have been two different parts to be performed. The first part consisted of a composition task and the second part consisted of a fill-in-the-blanks task.

Both the composition and the fill-in-the-blanks tasks have been designed to measure the achievement of students in choosing the appropriate tense and using it in a correct form. The tasks have also been designed to determine which approach to the teaching of tense system(i.e. Past Tense) created better results: Traditional Approach or Communicative Approach.

In this study, the Traditional Approach is taken on a broader meaning. The grammar points taught within this approach utilized the techniques used by many other approaches such as Grammar-Translation, Direct and Audio-lingual. The techniques, in other words, the exercises used in Traditional Approach (cf. Appendix A) can be listed as follows:

1. Repetition Exercises
2. Translation Exercises
3. Substitution Exercises

4. Transformation Exercises
5. Formation Exercises
6. Completion Exercises
7. Multiple Choice Exercises

1. Repetition Exercises: The teacher utters the stimulus item and asks the students to repeat as it is pronounced. There is no creative activity involved in this type of exercise on the part of the learner.

2. Translation Exercises: The learners are required to translate the sentences into L_1 from L_2 or vice versa.

3. Substitution Exercises: According to the point being practiced, one item to go into one of the slots in the new pattern being practiced is provided by the teacher, and the students are asked to put it in its correct place, and repeat the whole utterance.

4. Transformation Exercises: In this type of exercise a model sentence is given as a stimulus item, and the students are asked to change it into the desired pattern.

singular _____ plural
active _____ passive
present _____ past
direct _____ indirect etc.

5. Formation Exercises: In this type of exercise certain constituents of a sentence are given, and the students are required to form a sentence in the desired pattern.

6. Completion Exercises: The students are supposed to complete an unfinished sentence, or fill in the parts which have been omitted from the sentence.

7. Multiple Choice Exercises: In this type of exercises the students are required to choose one of a number of alternative answers.

On the other hand, some of the exercise types used by the proponents of Communicative Approach (cf. Appendix B) are as follows:

1. Songs
2. Poems
3. Riddles
4. Puzzles
5. Picture Strip Stories
6. Role-Plays
7. Jazz Chants
8. Pair-works
9. Stories etc.

1. Song: A brief musical composition can also be used effectively for teaching purposes. Because

songs are rhythmical they remain in the pool of memory long after communicative competence has drained away.

2. Poems: Poems can also be used in teaching language. These are composed in verse, marked by language especially chosen for its sound, beauty and evocative power. Patterns of sound and stress are repeated in regular sequences, and this facilitates their acquisition.

3. Riddle: A riddle is a puzzling question or situation requiring thought to be solved. Riddles engage students thinking and the way it is told facilitates learning.

4. Cross-word puzzle: A puzzle in which a pattern of numbered squares is to be filled with words in answer to correspondingly numbered clues. These are also effective in practising vocabulary and simple patterns.

5. Picture Strip Story: The students are given a series of pictures and asked to write a story related with the pictures.

6. Role-Play: Two or more students come before the class to act out a conversation.

7. Jazz Chants: This is a term coined by Carolyn Graham to refer to the choral speaking of highly memorable, impressionistic, freewheeling verse.

8. Pair-work: Independent work by pairs of students working simultaneously on a task or practice activity.

9. Stories: The teacher begins a story which the class finishes. Each student in turn adds a line to the plot.

The first list given above includes the type of exercises used with the Traditional group and the second list includes exercise types used with the Communicative group.

However, it is possible to add many more to the lists. The teacher may modify and use them in appropriate ways according to the class size, need, and interest.

Here, it should also be noted that one type of exercise can be used in different approaches, i.e. it is not difficult to transform a traditional exercise into a communicative one or vice versa.

As 'grammar' is one of the most boring and dull subjects to be taught and learned, teachers should do the best of a bad job.

3.2. Collection of Data and Description of Tests Employed

The data regarding the achievement of students in using the Past Tense in English have been collected by a Pre-test and a Post-test (cf. Appendix G and H).

3.2.1. The Pre-test and The Post-test

All the subjects to take part in this study were given the Pre-test on the same day at the beginning of the term in order to measure their level of proficiency before applying the designed classroom activities.

The Post-test was designed parallel to the Pre-test and it was given to the subjects in order to measure how much competence was gained in the use of Past Tense, and to determine which approach has been more effective.

Both the Pre-test and the Post-test consisted of two parts: A Fill-in-the-blanks test and a Composition test. Duration was 90 minutes for the whole test.

3.2.1.1. Fill-in-the-blank Test

Fill-in-the-blanks test has been formed of a short reading passage but not of isolated sentences

so as to make it communicative -blanks left out in a reading passage require communicative ability to be completed.

In this part of the Pre-test and the Post-test the students were asked to replace a verb in a suitable form in the twenty blanks left. The test as a whole showed the characteristics of a cloze test where instead of every nth word verbs were omitted. The fill-in-the-blanks test was more controlled compared to the composition test, since the subjects had to find the verbs which were also suitable in meaning to the context.

3.2.1.2. Composition Test

In the Composition test the students were presented with picture clues which would lead them remember an event they experienced. Since it was difficult to limit the number of verbs to be used in a composition, the test was limited approximately to 250 words. Because the subjects were free in choosing the topic to write, and the verbs to use, this part of the test was less controlled compared to the Fill-in-the-blanks test.

3.3. Selection of Subjects

The subjects chosen for the purpose of this study are forty Turkish speaking students who are

studying English as a foreign language. The subjects were randomly chosen among the first-year students studying at Anadolu University, Faculty of Education, English Teacher Training Department.

After the Pre-test was administered to the subjects the results showed that they were at the same level of proficiency, so it was possible to organize them randomly into two groups of twenty students.

The first group formed the Control Group and the second formed the experimental Group.

The subjects in the Control group were taught through traditional exercises(cf. Appendix A) and the subjects in the Experimental group were taught through Communicative exercises(cf. Appendix B), by the same instructor.

3.4. Data Analysis

As mentioned in the previous section(cf. section 3.2.), the Pre-test and the Post-test were formed of two parts: fill-in-the-blanks and the composition.

Fill-in-the-blanks part included twenty blanks, the correct answers were counted and the test was scored out of a hundred.

As for the composition part, the number of verbs used by each student was counted and the number of correct ones was turned into a percentage correct.

In both the Pre-test and the Post-test the composition and the fill-in-the-blanks tests have been graded separately, but later, the scores of individual test types were added and a single(cumulative) number was used for the t-tests conducted. Therefore, for each group a single t-test score was obtained-one for the Pre-test and one for the Post-test.

The first phase was to test the students level of proficiency. In order to see whether there was a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group "two-sample t-test for the difference of means" was run with the results of pre-test between the Control group and the Experimental group in view of the fact that we have fewer than 30 data points available, namely 20.

Second, in order to measure the achievement in the Control group, those who were taught through traditional exercises, the results of the Pre-test and the Post-test were compared and in view of the fact that we have fewer than 30 data points, namely 20, we had to run "paired-sample t-test".

At the third phase, the achievement in the Experimental group was tested. In order to compare the results of the Pre-test and the Post-test "paired-sample t-test" in view of the fact that we have fewer than 30 data points available, was conducted.

At the fourth phase, in order to compare and analyse the results of the Post-test between the Control group and the Experimental group and to see the achievement "two-sample t-test for the difference of means" was run, in view of the fact that we have fewer than 30 students.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1. Results of T-tests

As mentioned earlier in the Data Analysis (cf. section 3.4.) the difference between the Pre-tests in the Control group and the experimental group was determined by the "two-sample test for the difference of means" and the calculations are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

The Results of T-test Showing the Difference between the Control group (traditional) and the Experimental group (communicative) in the Pre-test

types of treatment \ values	Mean	Standard deviation	Number of Subjects	t- values t_t $t_{calculated}$
Traditional	70,25	16,26	20	$\pm 2,093$ 0,07
Communicative	69,80	18,69	20	

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

As Table 1 illustrates t-value is $t=0,07 < t_t=2,093$ at the 0,05 significance level and this shows a non-significant difference between the Control group and the Experimental group in the test given before the approaches were applied. This reveals that the subjects in two groups had the same level of proficiency.

Second, to determine the effectiveness of a certain approach within a group the results of the Pre-test and Post-test were compared and the t-value was calculated. The results were indicated in Table 2.

Table 2

The Results of T-test between the Pre-test and
the Post-test in the Control Group
(Traditional Group)

Mean standard deviation	Variance	Number of subjects	t- values	
			t_t	tcalculated
-5,95	4,06	20	+ 2,093	-1,46

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

Table 2 shows that $t=-1,46 > t_t=-2,093$ at the 0.05 significance level two-tailed hypothesis test revealed that there is a non-significant difference between the results of the Pre-test and the Post-tests in the Control group after the approach was applied.

This reveals that Traditional type of exercises used in teaching grammar points are not very effective in preparing the students to use their grammar knowledge for communication.

The third task was to determine how much the students achieved in the Experimental group after the communicative exercises were used. In order to answer this question the results of the Pre-test and the Post-test obtained from the subjects of Experimental group were compared and the t-value was calculated. The results were shown in Table 3.

Table 3

The results of the t-test between the Pre-test and the Post-test in the Experimental Group

Mean standard deviation	Variance	Number of subjects	t- values	
			t_t	$t_{\text{calculated}}$
-16,65	2,65	20	$\mp 2,093$	-6,35

= 0.05

Table 3 shows that $t = -6,35 < t_t = -2,093$ at the 0.05 level of significance two-tailed hypothesis test revealed a significant difference between the results of the Pre-test and the Post-test. It can be said that communicative exercises used in teaching grammar help the students to develop their grammar in use.

Finally, the results of the Post-tests obtained from the Control group, those who were taught through traditional type of exercises, and the Experimental group those who were taught through communicative exercise types, were compared and the values were noted in Table 4.

Table 4

The Results of the T-test Showing the Difference between the Control group (Traditional) and the Experimental group (communicative) in the Post-Test

values types of treatment	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of Subjects	t- values t_t $t_{calculated}$
Traditional	74,45	15,01	20	-1,729 -2,72
Communicative	86,45	12,03	20	

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

Table 4 reveals that $t = -2,72 < t_t = -1,729$ at the 0.05 level of significance, one-tailed hypothesis test showed a significant difference between the results of Post-Tests obtained from the control group and the experimental group. In other words, t-values indicated that communicative exercises used in the teaching of grammar are more effective than traditional type exercises in preparing the students to develop their grammar in use.

4.2. Classification of Errors

Errors comitted by the subjects in the Control group and the Experimental group are arranged on the basis of error types that fall together structurally. Below is a list of errors taken from the free-composition part of the Post-Test.

4.2.1. Error types

Error type I: Misuse of tense (The use of the Present Tense for the Past Tense)

Control Group

I <u>bite</u> and <u>runaway</u>	I <u>bit</u> and <u>ranaway</u>
I really <u>feel</u> upset.....	I really <u>felt</u> upset
I <u>cannot</u> go there.....	I <u>could not</u> go there
He <u>takes</u> a taxi.....	He <u>took</u> a taxi

Experimental Group

He <u>buys</u> everything.....	He <u>bought</u> everything
I <u>shout</u>	I <u>shouted</u>
His nose <u>is bleeding</u>	His nose <u>was bleeding</u>
We <u>leave</u> the house.....	We <u>left</u> the house

Error type II Misformation of the Simple Past Tense

(negative transfer from another tense category)

Control Group

I gone to the doctor..... I went to the doctorThe girl fallen down..... The girl fell downHe taken the bus..... He took the bus

Experimental Group

It been a lesson for me... It was a lessonShe begun to cry..... She began to cryWe gone together..... We went togetherError type III: Misformation of verbal word following
modals

Control Group

He would given me..... He would give meI cannot forgot..... I could not forgetTheir darling may died.... Their darling might dieThey must went to war..... They must have gone to war

Experimental Group

I can went..... I could go

I would never forgot..... I would never forget

The man had to joined..... The man had to join

Error type IV: Overuse in the Past Tense (Double use in
the Past Tense)

Group A: The use of the auxiliary "do" in the Past tense +
main verb in the Past Tense

Control Group

He did not wanted..... He did not want

Did they saw her?..... Did they see her?

I hope, you didn't came... ... you did not come

Experimental Group

Why did they sent the card? Why did they send.....

Did you told the truth.... Did you tell.....

Group B: The use of the verb "to be" in the Past Tense +
main verb in the Past Tense

Control Group

He was loved her..... He loved her

Mr. Jones was went..... Mr. Jones went

The nurse was helped me... The nurse helped me

Experimental Group

The boy was wanted her.... The boy wanted her
 We were thought the same
 thing..... We thought the same thing
 I was had an old car..... I had an old car

Error type V: Overgeneralization resulting from the
 inability between the regular and irregular
 verb forms.

Control Group

At the end they leaved
 each other..... At the end they left each other
 She falled down..... She fell down

Experimental Group

This camed at 7..... This came
 He lended her some money.. He lent her.....
 This maked me sick..... This made me sick

4.2.2. Frequency of Errors

As it can be deduced from the samples, both
 the subjects in the Control group and the Experimental
 group performed the same type of errors, and they

still made errors. Whatever the approach was it was not possible to eliminate errors completely. The errors made by subjects in both groups were calculated and percentaged, and the results were shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Percentage of Errors

Control Group		Experimental Group	
Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
12,6%	10%	13%	5%

The table above indicates that in the control group the error rate decreases to 10% which means a reduction of less than 2%. This decrease between the Pre-test and the Post-test shows that the approach was less effective in teaching the past tense system. However, the percentage of errors made by the Experimental group decreases to 5% from 13%. This indicates a decrease of 8% which shows that a communicative approach to the teaching of grammar, to the past tense system in this study, is more effective in teaching the grammar in use.

Although the subjects in the Control Group and the Experimental Group made the same type of errors the frequency of errors is less in the group which

was taught through communicative exercise types (Experimental group).

4.3. Discussion

The results of the data collected from the first-year students attending the English Language Teacher Training Department showed that the students who are taught through communicative exercise types use grammar rules more effectively in communicative situations.

In the beginning of this study it was assumed that the students who were taught through communicative exercises would do better in grammar when they achieve their communicative purposes. In fact when the results of the Post-test between the Control group (taught through traditional exercises) and the Experimental group (taught through communicative exercises) were compared, t-value indicated a significant difference between the two groups.

Similarly, when the Pre-tests and the Post-tests results were compared the t-value showed a non-significant difference for the Control group while it indicated a significant difference for the Experimental group. This also reveals that the traditional approach used

in teaching grammar is not effective whereas the communicative approach is much more effective in enabling the students using grammar rules accurately and appropriately for communication.

4.4. Suggestions towards the Improvement of Grammar Teaching

Communicative language teaching is today something which cannot be ignored or restricted to certain levels of instruction only. It entails groupwork and pairwork, individualized, learner-centered activities and active participation of the students. Communicative language teaching takes the best from past tradition and experience, and eclectically combines it with the most recent pieces of linguistic research.

It seems a pity that when passing from common core English to grammar teaching students' motivation suddenly drop simply because modes of instruction, activities, expectations and achievements are not satisfactory(cf. Pantaleoni 1986:126).

As Hutchinson(1986: 1) mentions, it is surely time to take a new look at grammar work and to reassess its role in the process of language learning. The necessity of making such a change in the teaching of grammar arises from the fact that the students

need to convert their passive skills into active ones so that they can confidently and accurately speak and write English.

Grammar does not have to be a boring block of language data, it can become an active source of fun with the language. By getting the students to think about and play with grammar, the work becomes more fun, and students will lose some of their fear. All these can be achieved by the application of a Communicative Approach in teaching grammar(cf. Hutchinson 1986: 1).

However, a communicative approach to grammar does not imply a need for a whole new range of activities and techniques. It is a matter of applying techniques widely used to the purpose of learning grammar. There are ways to presenting grammar within a communicative framework and moreover, it is not difficult to transform a traditional exercise into a communicative one.

The ineffectiveness of the traditional exercises used in grammar classes may be that they only teach how the language system works. The students, as a result, cannot communicate even simple ideas. It is the teacher's job to take what the students know and help them to expand, in other words, the responsibility usually lies with the teacher to find the information,

process it, then pass it on to the student in such a way as to make the concept as clearly and immediately comprehensible(cf. White 1985: 18).

The types of exercises used in the communicative approach can fulfil this purpose by making the students use their existing knowledge to find meaningful patterns and relationships in the new data. They also help the students to acquire the confidence and strategies of the good language learner.

To conclude, it is suggested that the features of Communicative Approach can and should be applied to grammar work to make it a creative, problem-solving activity in its own right and to develop not just the students' knowledge of the language but also their competence as learners.

APPENDIX A - SAMPLES OF TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR EXERCISES

1. Transformation Exercises

Past Tense

A. Read the following: (a) as a question; (b) as a negative question:

1. Jack went to a shop.
2. He bought some eggs.
3. He paid for them.
4. He put them into a bag.
5. He lost the bag.
6. He left it in a tram.
7. Somebody found it.
8. Jack's mother sent him to bed.
9. Mr A rang the bell.
10. A young woman opened the door.
11. She took his hat and stick.
12. He sat down and waited.
13. He looked at the pictures on the wall.
14. He tried to read a newspaper.
15. The young woman came back.

from Living English Structure by W.S. Allen(1974: 89)

- B. Supply the Simple Past Form to show (a) cause and (b) the immediate effect of the cause in the past time.
1. The work (be) very difficult so we (get) tired.
 2. The film (interest) me so much that I (see) it a second time.
 3. The exercise (do) him so much good that he (feel) much better in a week.
 4. The naughty children (eat) green apples and (become) ill at once.
 5. The light (go) out so we (cannot) do our homework last night.
 6. She (not know) the answer so she (look) it up at the back of the book.
 7. She (see) a mouse under the bed and (scream) for help.
 8. The old king (die) and the prince (take) his place on the throne.
 9. The ball (strike) the window and (break) it.
 10. They always (bring) flowers which (please) mother very much.

from English in Use by G.M. Spankie (1975: 272)

C. Mastering verbs

DIRECTIONS Rewrite in the present tense, or time, the following retelling of an experience described in Studs Terkel's *Working* -that is, write it as though the event described were happening now. The words that you change will be verbs.

Past tense or time

I delivered newspapers. I had a hard time collecting from many of my customers. Some of them pretended not to be at home. They told their children to say that they were out. There was only one way to handle customers like them. I had to go back late at night or early in the morning. That made the customers mad, of course, but I did not care so long as I got paid.

from Harbrace College Work Book: Writing for the World of Work by S.Y. Graham (1979: 5)

2. Completion Exercise

Complete the following sentences by adding a phrase in the Simple Past.

EXAMPLE:

In 1492...Columbus discovered America.

1. A hundred years ago....
2. In 1815....
3. On our wedding day....
4. In his youth....
5. when I was a little girl (boy).
6. the day before yesterday.
7. in the Middle Ages.
8. In the reign of King Charles I....
9. Only last week....
10. a few days ago.
11. before you were born.
12. just after you were born.
13. In the Stone Age....
14. Before the Flood....
15. between 1920 and 1930.
16. in the days of Alexander the Great.
17. during the Golden Age of Greece.
18. After the First World War....
19. half an hour ago.
20. When Grandpapa met Grandmama....

from English in Use by G.M. Spankie (1975: 273)

3. Substitution Exercise

To practise the negative form, use the word(s) in brackets to form a negative statement.

Bill and Bob took some cake. (bread)

They didn't take any bread.

George went into the bedroom. (lounge)

He didn't go into the lounge.

Peter saw Jim outside the cinema. (chemist's)

He didn't see him outside the chemist's.

1. I sat on the chair. (sofa)
2. Peter found his wallet. (money)
3. Jill broke her watch. (necklace)
4. Jim wanted to see the zoo. (park)
5. Philip chose a Ferrari. (Cadillac)
6. Peter repeated the word. (sentence)
7. Mr. Smith loved his secretary. (wife)
8. Alice sent Paul a postcard. (letter)
9. Jack visited Betty last night. (Mary)
10. I advised Bob to buy a car. (scooter)

from English Structure Practice by G. Drummond (1972: 38)

4. Translation Exercise

Aşağıdaki cümleleri Türkçeye çeviriniz:

1. The fishermen sold very big fish in Halikarnas.
2. They bought a garden full of banana trees.
3. We sent a basket full of oranges.
4. You sent us a box full of butter.
5. I taught you English in two months.
6. Your mother got on the tram at Şişli and saw me.
7. You learned English at your home.
8. You read this book yesterday and went to the cinema with your mother.
9. He gave a nice knife to his friend at the bank.
10. The director of the bank came to İstanbul yesterday.

Aşağıdaki cümleleri İngilizceye çeviriniz:

1. Siz dün bizim eve geldiniz.
2. Ben İstanbul'a bir sepet dolu muz yolladım.
3. Biz geçen hafta taze balık yedik.
4. Bizim balıkçı iri bir balık sattı.
5. Senin annen çarşıdan taze tereyağı satın aldı.
6. Ben Haydarpaşa'da trene bindim.
7. Sen Taksim'de tramvaya bindin.
8. Ayşe Şişli'de otomobile bindi ve Tünel'de indi.
9. Dün gece babası Adana'dan geldi.
10. Öğretmenin bana geçen ay bir mektup yazdı.
11. Onlar dün sabah kahvaltıda sıcak çay içtiler.

5. Scrambled Sentences

Make sentences using the correct tense.

1. in/London/I/from/back/yesterday/my/get/visit/pleasant/
Paris/to
2. be/home/eleven/they/at/last/o'clock/night
3. you/?/where/your/last/summer/holiday/spend

from handouts (Fulbright Summer School for English Teachers, 1986)

6. Either-or questions

1. Did you lock the door or the window?
2. Did he count the chairs or the tables?
3. Did they pick up the food or the wine?
4. Did she ask for tea or coffee?
5. Did he expect Mary or Betty?

from handouts (Fulbright Summer School for English Teachers 1986)

7. Yes-no questions

Answer the questions with "Yes" or "No"

1. Did you close the window?
2. Did you happen to see the accident?
3. Did they arrive, on time?
4. Did he go with John?
5. Did you walk to school?

from handouts (Fulbright Summer School for English Teachers 1986)

8. Multiple Choice Exercises

1. What languages _____ last year?
 - a) you study
 - b) you studied
 - c) did you study
 - d) did you studied

2. Whom _____ on the way to school yesterday?
 - a) you seen
 - b) did you see
 - c) you saw
 - d) did you saw

3. He _____ the flowers for his wife.
 - a) bringed
 - b) brought
 - c) did bring
 - d) did he bring

from Nelson English Language Tests Book 1. Elementary
by W.S. Fowler and N. Coe 1976.

9. Sentence construction

Make 10 sentences utilizing the following table.

I went to sleep	after the program.
He started to read	after they had gone.
She had dinner	after the guests.
We switched on the lights	before going out.
They opened the windows	after 10 o'clock.

based on An English Course for Turks Intermediate 1
Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (1981: 67)

APPENDIX B - SAMPLES OF COMMUNICATIVE EXERCISES

1. Strip Story:

"The Young Lady and The Wolf"

One afternoon a wolf waited in a dark forest for a young lady to come along carrying a basket of food to her grandmother.

Eventually a young lady did come along and she was carrying a basket of food.

The wolf asked her whether she was carrying the basket to her grandmother.

The young lady said yes, she was.

The wolf then asked her where her grandmother lived.

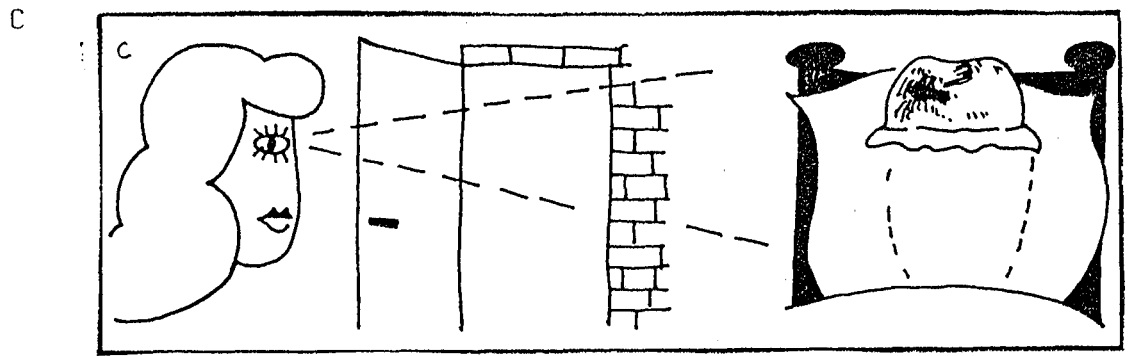
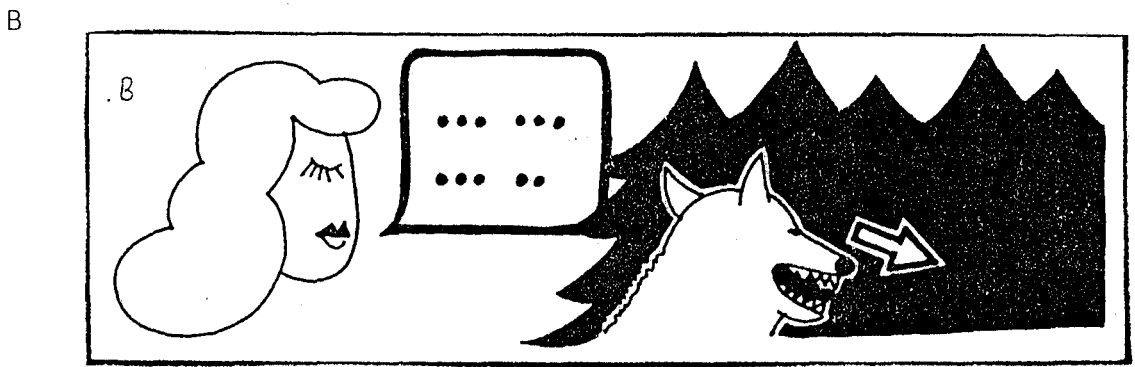
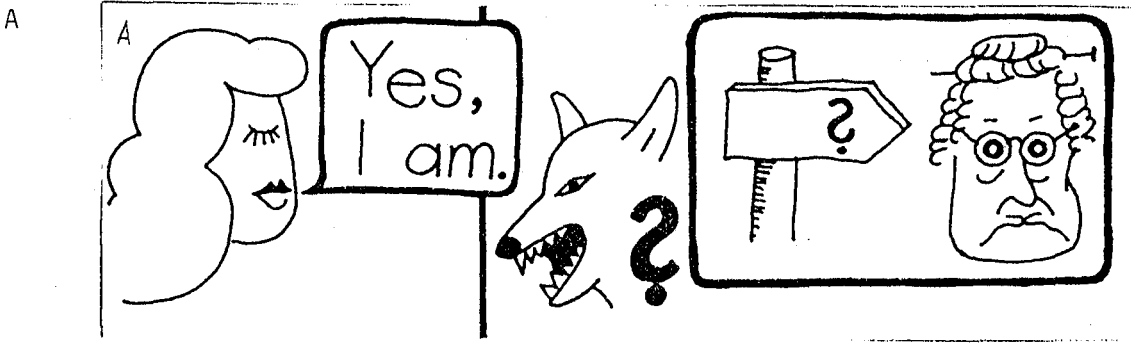
The young lady told him, and he disappeared into the woods.

When the young lady opened the door of her grandmother's house she saw that there was somebody in bed wearing a nightcap.

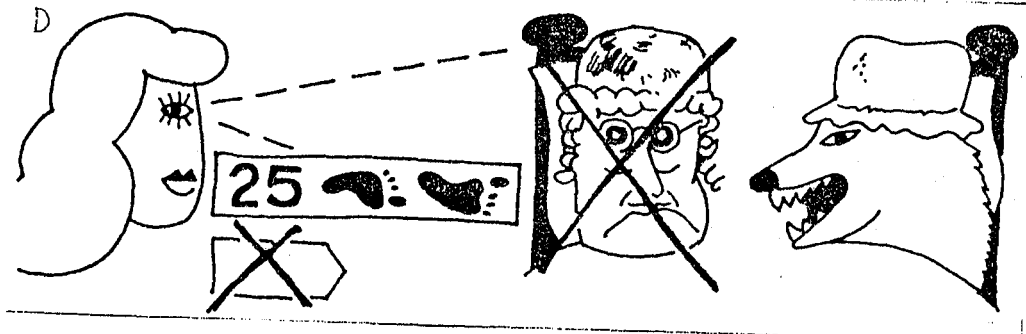
She was no nearer than twenty-five feet from the bed when she saw that it was not her grandmother but the wolf.

Even in a nightcap a wolf doesn't look any more like a grandmother than the Metro-Goldwyn lion looks like the President.

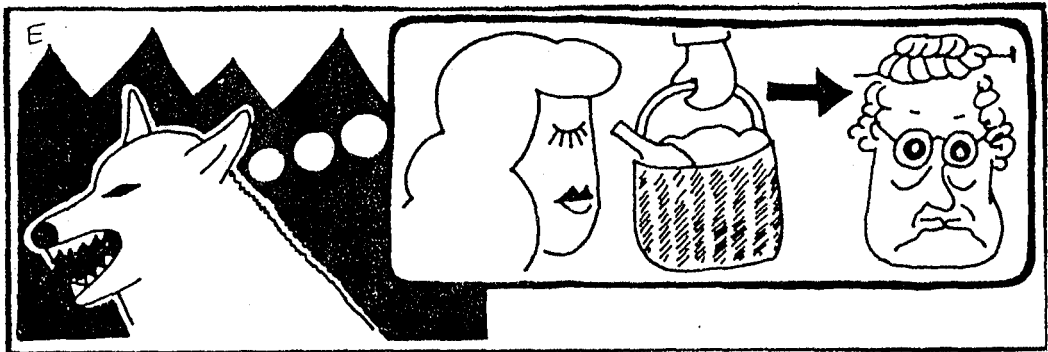
So the young lady took a machine gun out of her basket and shot the wolf dead.



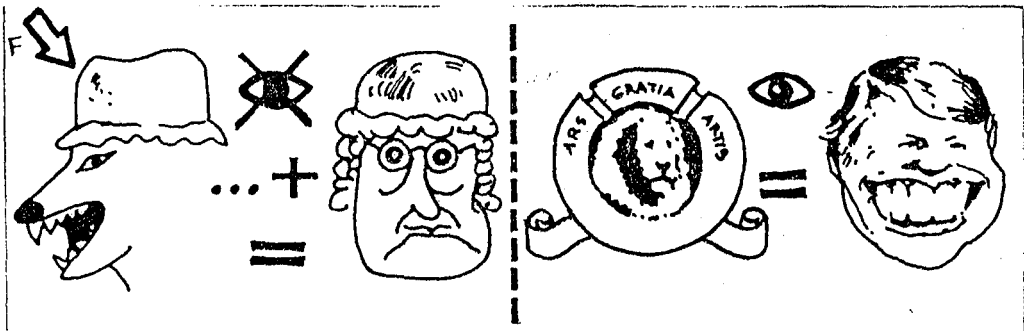
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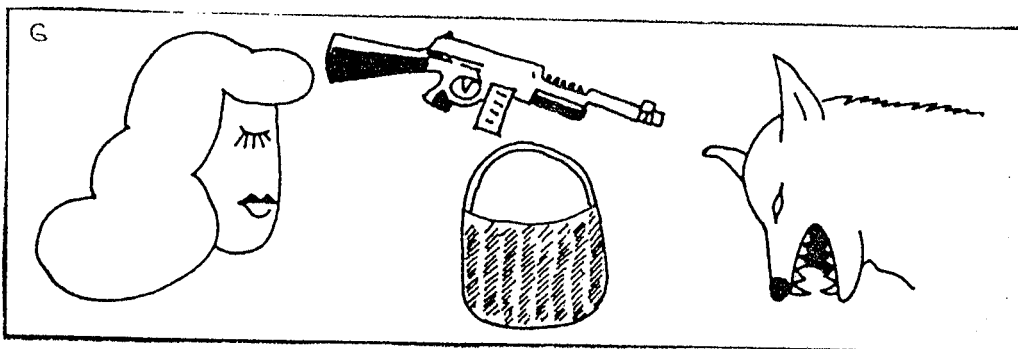
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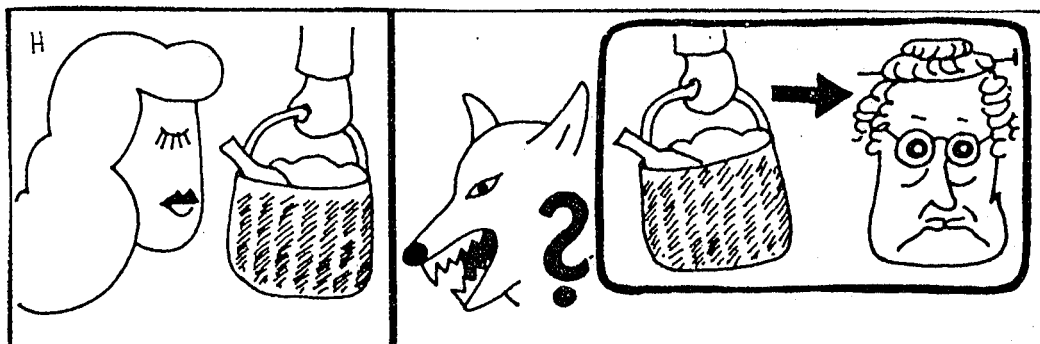
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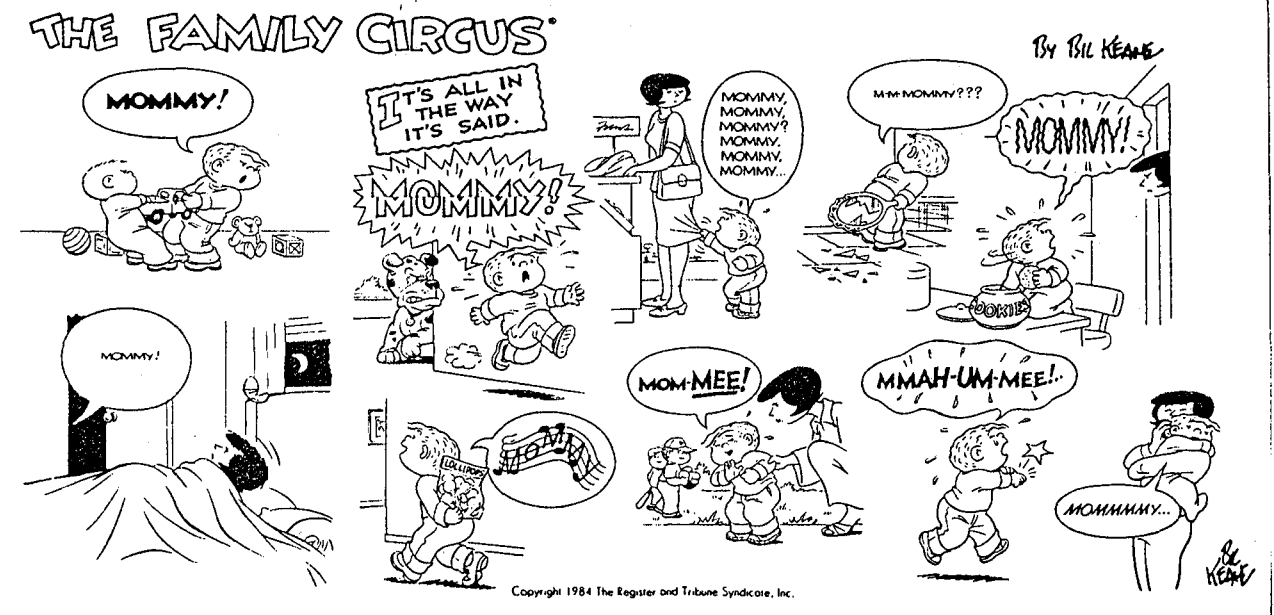
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1. The students are asked to work in pairs.
2. Each pair of students is given a set of pictures.
3. Students listen to the story from the tape and put the pictures in order.
4. They are asked to write the same story in their own words.

2. Story Telling

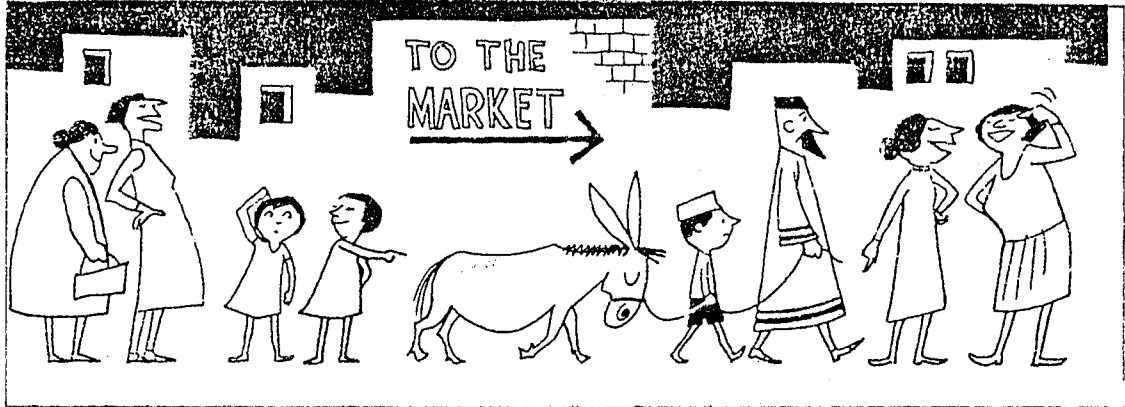
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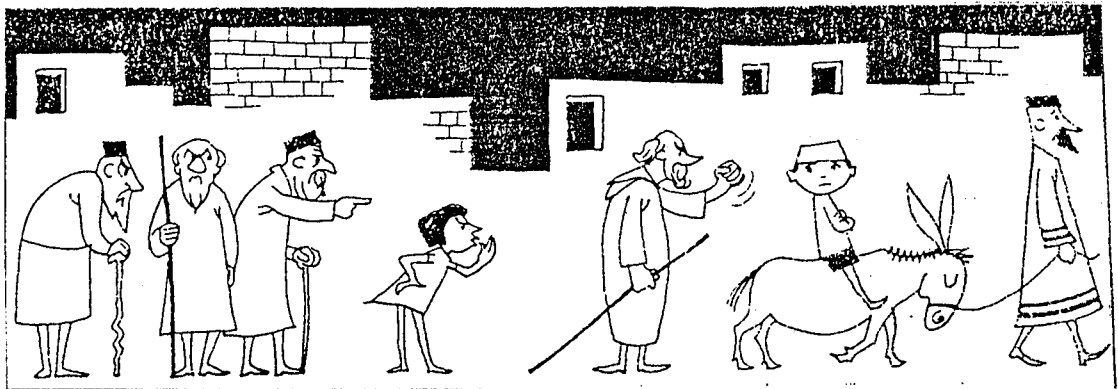
1. The students are asked to work in groups.
2. Each group is required to write a story related to one of the pictures given.
3. One of the group members is asked to tell the story written.
4. Later, groups may exchange their papers and do the necessary correction. (This is also a good example for peer correction.)

from Fulbright Summer School handouts based on Forum
(January 1985: 49)

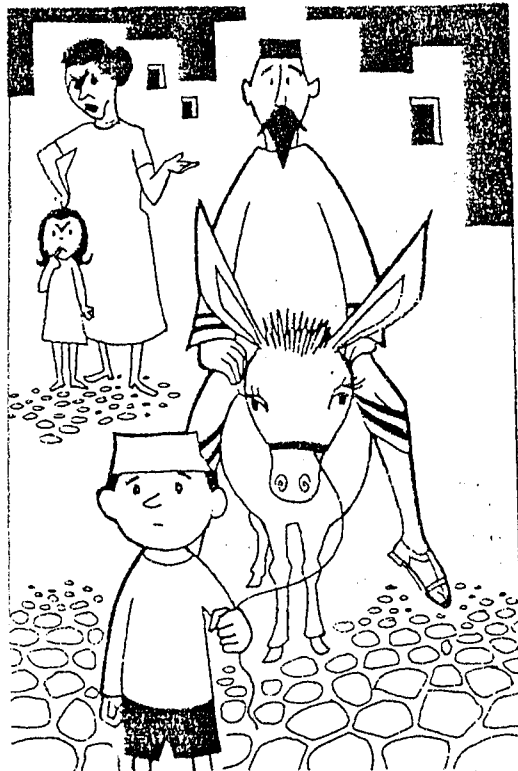
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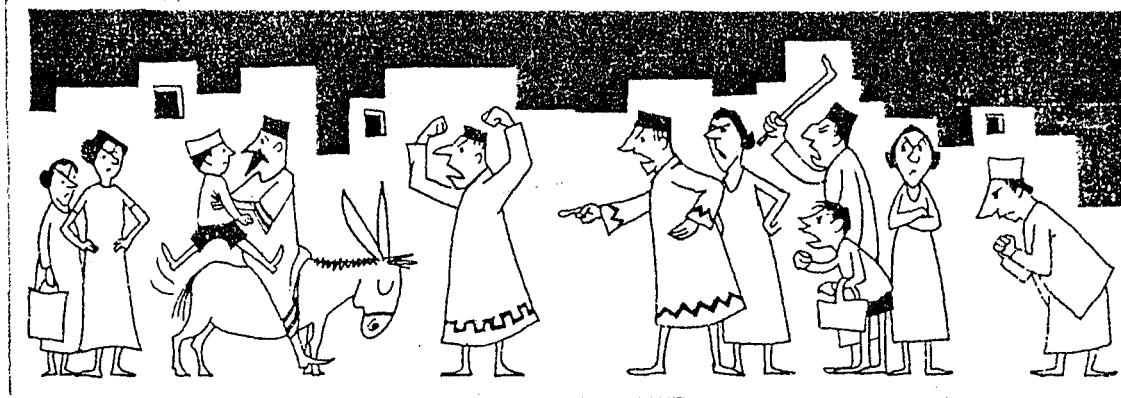
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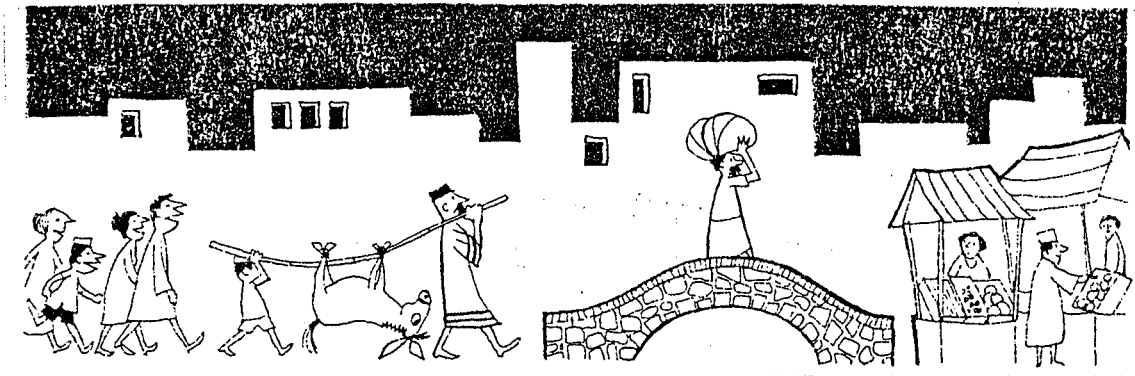
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4



5



6



from Composition

Through Pictures

by J.B. Heaton

(1966: 39)

merchant, son, donkey, sign, market, fist, bamboo, pole,
bridge; surprised; lead, scratch, shake, pick up, tie,
approach, slide(off); angrily, pitifully, sympathetically.

1. The students work in pairs.
2. Each pair of students is given a set of pictures.
3. The pictures are in the correct order.
4. The students are also given a set of vocabulary they may need to use.
5. They are asked to tell a story related to the pictures.

3. Jigsaw Reading Story

1. Paragraph

- a. But Florence _____ parties boring; she _____ to be a nurse.
- b. Then she _____ in charge of a nursing-home for women in London.
- c. Florence Nightingale _____ from a rich family and _____ very pretty.
- d. Finally, in 1850, when she _____ 30, her parents _____ her decision.
- e. In her family, young girls usually _____ their time going to parties until they _____ rich young men.
- f. Soon she _____ to go to the Crimean to take charge of the wounded soldiers.
- g. So she _____ to study in a hospital in Germany.

2. Paragraph

- (a) Forty percent of the patients _____
- (b) By 1900 unsafe hospitals and ignorant nurses _____
things of the past.
- (c) The death rate _____ to two percent.
- (d) The conditions in the Crimean hospital _____
terrible.
- (e) Workmen put in a proper drainage system and _____
pure drinking water.
- (f) Certain beds _____ fatal; soldiers _____
in them after two days.
- (g) She _____ an important force in the movement
to reform hospitals and nursing in England.
- (h) On her return to England people _____ Nightingale
as a heroine.
- (i) Nightingale _____ that this _____ because
of bad drains, and insisted that the government
do something about it.
1. The students are required to fill in the missing
parts which are all verbs.
 2. They are also asked to put the sentences in the
correct order to form two paragraphs of a story.

4. Making short dialogues from short stories (Pair-work and role-play)

1. The students are arranged in pairs and are given a card including a short passage.

Sample Card:

Charles went to "Ley" store yesterday. He bought some items for his house. He went with Mary. She asked him what kind of items he needed. Charles told her that he needed some shoes, a couple of books, and some food for his family.

2. The students are asked to write dialogues.

A dialogue worked up from the above reading might look:

- Where did Charles go yesterday?
- He went to 'Ley' store.
- With whom did he go?
- He went with Mary
- What kind of items did he buy?
- He bought

3. The students are, then, asked to act the dialogue for their friends.

from Forum (July 1987: 34) by E. Mora

5. Chained Nonsensical Stories

1. The students are asked to form groups of 6.
2. Each student is given an empty sheet of paper.
3. The teacher asks the questions one at a time and the students write the answer.

The questions to be asked by the teacher are as follows:

Who was she/he/it?

Where was she/he/it?

What was she/he/it doing?

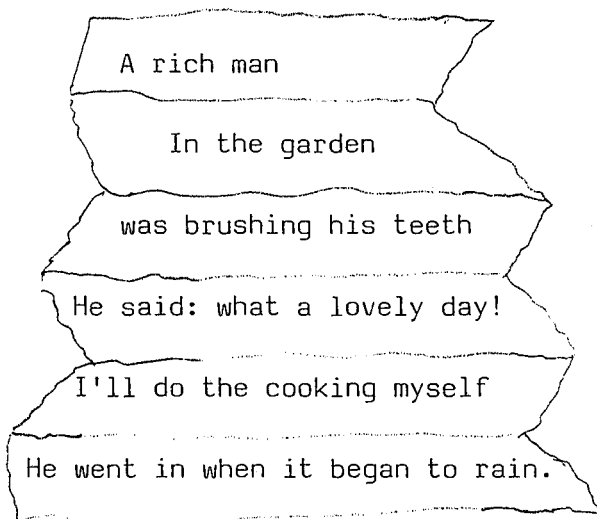
What did she/he/it say?

What did she/he/it say to the people?

How did the story finish?

4. After the students answered the first question they fold up their sheets and pass along to next student.
5. The teacher asks the second question.
6. They answer and change again.
7. They continue in this way until they finish.
8. Each student should answer the questions according to the original idea s/he had when answering the first question.

Example:



9. Finally, each student write a short story joining the sentences into a paragraf.

The story might look:

A rich man was in the garden brushing his teeth. He said: "What a lovely day!" And the he said "I'll do the cooking myself", and the went in when it began to rain.

from Forum (July 1986: 41)

by. C.M. Cuenca

6. Jazz Chants

"Easy Solutions" (Teaching Imperatives)

Gee, I'm hungry!	Have a sandwich
Gee, I'm angry!	Calm down!
Gee, I'm sleepy!	Take a nap!
Gee, it's chilly in here!	Put on a sweater
Gee, it's hot in here	Open a window
I' ve got the hiccups	Drink some water
My nose itches	Scratch it
My feet hurt	Sit down for a while
My shoes are tight	Take them off
I have a tootache	Go to the dentist
I have a headache	Take some aspirin
I'm lonely	Call up a friend
I'm bored	Go to a movie

1. The students are divided into two groups
2. One group reads the problems.
3. The other group tell the solution
4. They repeat until they learn them by heart.

from Forum (October 1986: 35)

by M. Stapinska and J. Sniechowska

7. Song

"Once Upon a Time"

Once upon a time there _____ a girl.
 Who _____ in a land of dreams unreal
 _____ from reality
 _____ like a stranger
 _____ with her fantasies
 _____ within their world

Once upon a time her hopes _____
 No one there _____ her futile cries
 _____ in a house of stone
 No one on her side
 A family in name alone
 No place _____ to _____

Once upon a dream a man _____
 and _____ her everything she _____
 and _____

But in the morning she'll _____
 _____ the room around her.
 It's just another lonely day
 And bitterness _____ her
 Bitterness _____

(Summer/Moroder/Bellotte 1977 Rick's Music, Inc.)

1. The students listen to the song as many times as needed.
2. They are told that the missing parts are all verbs.
3. They are required to fill in the blanks.
4. Later they sing the song.

8. Riddles and Jokes

A man bought a parrot that could speak five languages. He paid a thousand dollars for it. The pet-shop owner said that he would deliver the bird that afternoon. When the proud owner got home, he asked his wife if the parrot had been delivered. She answered, yes it has.

Where is it?

It's in the oven

In the oven? But he could speak
five languages!

Well, then why didn't he speak up?

Why was the elephant looking through the window?

Answer: Because he couldn't see through the wall.

Two chums are talking:

Did you hear about the poor bloke who made himself a new boomerang?

Answer: He went erazy trying to throw the old one away!

1. Jokes and riddles are gathered and written on a piece of paper. They are folded and put in a box.
2. Each student picks a joke or riddle.
3. He studies it for a few minutes and tell it to others.
4. If there is anything the class does not understand he explains.

CLUES DOWN

1. The computer has _____ a mistake again. (4 letters)
2. I _____ this coat a few days ago. It cost very little. (6)
3. Who _____ the football match last Saturday? (3)
4. At the moment I'm _____ to do a crossword. (6)
5. You shouldn't _____ across the road until the lights are green. (2)
6. When I was at school we _____ Latin and Greek instead of English. (6)
7. I usually _____ up when the alarm clock rings, but this morning I didn't. (4)
8. I have _____ two letters to England this week. (7)
9. He _____ me his old camera for 20 pounds. (4)
10. Where _____ you live? (2)
11. The airplane _____ traveling at 250 mph when a bird suddenly flew into one of the jets. (3)
12. Have you _____ the new ABBA record? It's really great! (5)
13. Röger can't walk because he has _____ his leg. (6)
14. I _____ a note for the milkman this morning because we needed two more pints. (5)
15. I've only _____ fifty cents on me. (3)
16. _____ he go swimming yesterday? (3)
17. He can't _____ the blackboard without his glasses. (3)
18. I _____ the house at 7:30 this morning. (4)
19. She _____ English very well. (6)
20. He _____ as fast as he could to catch the bus. (3)
21. Fred isn't at home; he's _____ for a short walk. (4)
22. _____ Ronald smoke? (4)
23. I've _____ you a thousand times not to smoke in class. (4)
24. He _____ sleeping at the moment. Perhaps you'd like to talk to the vice chairman instead. (2)
25. I _____ him a razor blade for his birthday. (4)
26. I've been _____ watches for years. It's the best job I've ever had. (6)
27. Ouch! That knife is really sharp! Look, I've _____ my finger. (3)
28. Yesterday I _____ 40 minutes for my friend to come and we both _____ (32 DOWN) the train. (6) (6)
29. How long have you been _____ English? (8)
30. Have you _____ the latest 007 film? (4)
31. I haven't _____ in a hotel bed before. (5)
32. See 28 DOWN.
33. The cat was _____ on the mat, but now it has gone somewhere else. (7)
34. I was _____ on January 2, 1958, in Hertfordshire. (4)
35. I think; therefore I _____. (2)
36. He was _____ on his coat to leave when I arrived. (7)
37. What did you _____? I didn't hear you. (3)

CLUES ACROSS

1. Last night the phone _____ at 2 o'clock. (4 letters)
2. The strong wind _____ his hat away. (4)
3. It's late. _____ you think Godot will come? (2)
4. I've _____ a cold, so I can't talk clearly. (6)
5. I _____ up in a small town near London. (4)
6. If you don't _____ your job, _____ (8 ACROSS) to find another. (4) (3)
7. I _____ it would rain, so I brought an umbrella. (4)
8. See 6 ACROSS.
9. My name is Jocelyn but my friends _____ me Joc. (4)
10. Have you ever _____ about leaving your country? (7)
11. I _____ my pen this morning, but I've _____ (13 ACROSS) it again. (4) (5)
12. I've been _____ English for years and still enjoy the job. (8)
13. See 11 ACROSS.
14. _____ you telling me you've spent all your money already? (3)
15. Did you _____ my last letter? I sent it on the first of February. (3)
16. Haven't you _____ your homework yet? You are lazy! (4)
17. He _____ me again. Look at my a:m, it's all red. (3)
18. My uncle often _____ books by Agatha Christie. (5)
19. Mr. Carpenter has a very good voice. He _____ very well. (5)
20. Do you like _____ English? (8)
21. I've _____ his name. I think it begins with a Z. (9)
22. Something has been _____ at the table leg. Do you think there could be mice in the house? (8)
23. What I don't like about our teacher is that he _____ everything we say. (7)
24. George _____ too much chocolate; it's bad for his teeth. (4)
25. He never tells the truth: he always _____. (4)
26. We _____ like doing homework. (4)
27. I always _____ to school on foot. (4)
28. Mr. Johnson is busy at the moment; he's _____ an urgent report. (7)
29. The dog is _____ on the grass in the sun. (5)
30. I _____ cornflakes for breakfast. (3)
31. I never _____ coffee before going to bed because it keeps me awake. (5)
32. They first _____ in 1958 and got married 9 months later. (3)
33. We are late. The film has already _____. (7)
34. Have you ever _____ to Scotland? (4)
35. I feel sick. I must have _____ too many chips. (5)
36. Can you _____ the guitar? (4)
37. The cat _____ on the mat. (3)
38. When he was a child, Picasso only _____ simple houses with little animals. (4)

10. Bingo-Verb Game

1. The students are given sets of cards with the infinitive form of verbs.

tell
find
cry
lie
hear
wake

feel
come
watch
shake
own
find

lie
fall
wash
say
hear
find

2. The teacher shows the past tense of the verbs on a flash card.

went

looked

found

lied

3. The first student to complete his card shouts "BINGO" and gets a gold star or any other token that makes him a winner.

from Forum (July 1987: 55)

değişecek. Cümlelerin diğer kelimeleri aynen kalacak:

I go yerine	
I went to school.	Ben okula gittim. oldu.
You go to school.	Sen okula gidersin.
You went to school.	Sen okula gittin.
He goes to school.	O okula gider.
He went to school.	O okula gitti.
She goes to school.	O okula gider.
She went to school.	O okula gitti.

Demek mazi şeklinde üçüncü tek şahıs yani «o» lar ve bunların yerini geçmiş oldukları tek üçüncü şahıs isimler de fiilin sonuna 's' alması falan yok.

Ayşe goes to school.	Ayşe okula gider.
Ayşe went to school.	Ayşe okula gitti.
We go to school.	Biz okula gideriz.
We went to school.	Biz okula gittik.
They go to school.	Onlar okula giderler.
They went to school.	Onlar okula gittiler. olur.

Genel kaide olarak fiilin muzari şekillerinin sonuna ed ekinin gelmesiyle mazi olurlar. Meselâ :

look looked olur.

receive received olur. Fakat İngilizcede muayyen fiiller vardır ki, bunlar böyle bir kaideye tâbi olmadan doğrudan doğruya değişik şekilde mazilenmişlerdir. Yani bunları bir kaide ile öğrenemeyip bir liste halinde bunları önceden ezberliyeceğiz. İşte en mühimle'ri :

Biz buraya yalnız normal muzari şekli ile ikinci gözdeki mazileri veriyor ve sağ tarafına da okunuşlarını yazıyoruz.

Muzari	Okunuş	Mazi	Okunuş
Come	kam	Came	keym
Take	teyk	took	tuk
Give	giv	gave	geyiv
Send	send	sent	sent
See	si:	saw	so :
Write	rayt	wrote	rout
Get	get	got	gat
Drink	drink	drank	drenk
Eat	i : t	ate	eyt
Sleep	slip	slept	slept
Buy	bay	bought	bot
Sell	sel	sold	sold
Teach	tiç	taught	to : t
Fall	fol	fell	fel
Read	ri:d	read	red
Cut	kat	cut	kat
Put	put	put	put

Şimdi bunları cümlelerde kullanalım :

My father writes a letter to his friend every week.	Babam her hafta arkadaşına mektup yazar «muzari»
My father wrote a letter to his friend last week.	Babam geçen hafta arkadaşına mektup yazdı. «mazi»
I read exciting books every day.	Ben her gün heyecanlı kitaplar okurum.
I read an exciting book yesterday.	Ben dün heyecanlı bir kitap okudum.
Böylece :	
You came to our school on Sunday.	Sen pazar günü bizim okula geldin.
You took an apple from the table.	Sen masadan bir elma aldın.
His mother came from Ankara.	Onun annesi Ankara'dan geldi.
Your director gave you money.	Sizin direktör sana para verdi.
Ayşe sent a basket full of bread.	Ayşe ekmeğe dolu bir sepet gönderdi.
We saw an ass in front of the door.	Biz kapının önünde bir eşek gördük.
Ali got on the tram at Taksim.	Ali Taksim'de tramvaya bindi.
In Datça they got one thousand oranges from each tree last year.	Onlar Datça'da geçen sene her ağaçtan bin portakal aldılar.
My son got up very early this morning	Oğlum bu sabah çok erken kalktı.

Bundan evvelki Test: 12 deki mektubun tercümesi :

Sevgili Babacığım.

Mektubunuz ve fotoğraflar için çok teşekkür ederim. Şimdi yeni işim ve Halikarnas hakkında söylemek istiyorum.

Size Halikarnas'tan yazmakla bahtiyarım. Hayatımı büyük bir sünger şirketinde daktilo olarak çalışmakla kazanıyorum.

Maasım ayda iki yüz liradır. Deniz kenarında küçük bir ev kiraladım. Evimin önünde birçok palmye, portakal ve muz ağaçları ve çiçekler var. Denize giden küçük bir patika var. Her sabah denizin üzerindeki ve havadaki martılara bakarım. Deniz mavi kuşlar koyu mavi ve bazan mordurlar. Gök daima mavi ve güneşli. Bulutlar beyaz fakat fecirde kırmızı, tuncu, sarı, yeşil, gri, mor, pembe; akşamleyin harikulâde renklerde oluyorlar. Halikarnas'ta her gün başka bir güneş doğar. Hergün yeni bir manzara görürüz. Her zaman gökte ve denizde yeni renkler vardır.

Başka birgün bu manzarayı resmetmeye çalışacağım.

Yeni bir araba alacak mısınız? Onu kim kullanacak? Onunla nerelere gideceksiniz? Buraya gelecek misiniz? Eğer buraya gelmeyi arzu ediyorsanız bana yazın lütfen. Eğer bana yazarsanız Milâs'a gidip sizi bekliyeceğim.

En iyi dileklerle

Kızınız

Esra Deniz

THE ENGLISH ALPHABET

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
H	I	J	K	L	M	N
O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
V	W	X	Y	Z		
a	b	c	d	e	f	g
h	i	j	k	l	m	n
o	p	q	r	s	t	u
v	w	x	y	z		

ABCDEFGHIJKLMN
OPQRSTUVWXYZ.

abcdefghijklmnop
qrstuvwxyz.

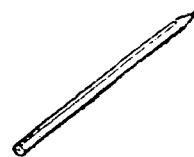
A. U. EDUCATION BUREAU
ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

Lesson One

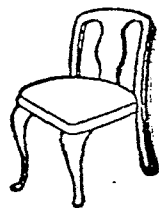
THE CLASS-ROOM (1)



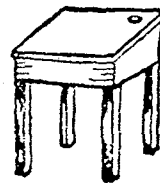
A book.
This is a book.
What is this? It's a
book.



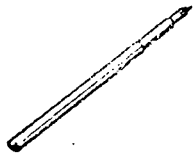
A pencil.
This is a pencil.
What is this? It's a
pencil.



A chair.
This is a chair.
What is this? It's a
chair.



A desk.
This is a desk.
What is this? It's a
desk.



A pen.
 This is a pen.
 What is this? It's a
 pen.

That is a chair.
 That is a desk.

What is that? It's a chair.
 What is that? It's a desk.

Is this a pen? Yes, it is.
 Is this a box? Yes, it is.

Is that a pencil? Yes, it is.
 Is that a book? Yes, it is.

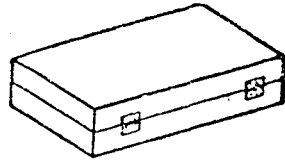
This is not a book.
 That is not a pen.

Is this a book? No, it isn't.
 Is that a pen? No, it isn't.

Is this a chair? Yes, it is.
 Is that a chair? No, it isn't.
 What is it? It's a desk.

This is the class-room.

Stand up. Sit down.



A box.
 This is a box.
 What is this? It's a
 box.

Writing

This is a book. That is not a pen.
 This is the class-room. Sit down.

That is a box. Is it a book? No, it isn't.
 What is this? It's a chair. It is not a desk.
 Is that a pen? Yes, it is. It's a pen.
 This is not a pen. What is it? It's a pencil.
 What is that? It's a desk. It is not a chair.
 Is this a book? Yes, it is. It is not a box.

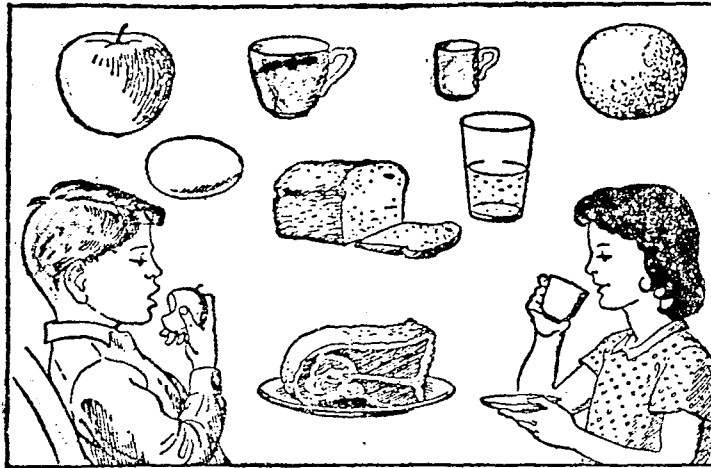
Exercise

Supply the missing words:

1. This — a pencil.
2. What is — ?
3. It's — book.
4. Is — a box?
5. —, it is.
6. No, it —.
7. This is — a chair.
8. — is it?
9. Stand —.
10. — down.

Lesson Eight

EATING AND DRINKING



That boy is eating an apple. The girl is drinking tea out of a cup. An apple is a fruit. An orange is a fruit, too. We can eat bread, meat and eggs. We can drink water, milk and coffee. We can't drink milk without a cup or a glass.

What is the boy doing?

What is the girl doing?

What is she drinking?

Isn't she drinking milk? No, she isn't.

Is she drinking out of a glass?

What is an apple?

Is bread a fruit?

What colour is an egg?

Can you drink coffee? Yes, I can.

Can you touch the floor?

Can you touch the ceiling? No, I can't.

Can a boy eat an orange?

Can we drink milk without a cup or a glass? No, we can't.

Can we write on the blackboard without a piece of chalk?

Can you clean the blackboard without a duster?

Can you drink tea without milk? Yes, I can.

Can we write "note-book" without a hyphen? No, we can't.

Can you drink out of a box?

Can we drink coffee out of a cup?

What can we drink coffee out of?

Can you draw a map of Turkey?

Is meat a fruit?

Is this a piece of bread or a piece of chalk?

Is this glass full of water?

Is the boy in the picture eating an apple or an orange?

Is the girl in the picture drinking milk or tea?

What is she drinking out of?

Can she drink coffee out of a cup?

What can you drink out of a glass?

Where is the water? It is in the glass.

Can you put water in a cup?

Can you read without a book?

Can't you write in your note-book without a pen or a pencil? No, I can't.

Write the word "meat". Are you writing with a pen?

What are you writing with?

What can you eat?

What can you drink?

What can you drink out of? I can drink out of a cup or a glass.

Go to the blackboard and write the word "fruit"

What are you writing with?

Sit down, please. Are you sitting in your desk?

What are you sitting in?

What am I sitting on? You are sitting on your chair.

Write the figures 4 and 5 on the blackboard.

What are you writing on?

What are you writing with?

Can't you draw with a pen on the blackboard? No, I can't.

Writing

Bread. An apple. An orange.

We can't draw with pencils on the blackboard.

Look at the picture in Lesson 8. You can point to an apple, two cups, an orange, an egg, and a glass with water in it. There are a piece of bread and a piece of meat, too. The boy is eating, the girl is drinking. Is the boy sitting on a chair?

What can you touch in this room? What can't you touch? What can you look out of? Can you take a match out of a box? What can we go out of?

Write a word with a hyphen. Now write a word without a hyphen. How many letters are there in the word "orange"?

We can eat bread, meat, eggs, apples and oranges, and we can drink water, milk, tea and coffee. We can write with a pen, a pencil or a piece of chalk. We can read newspapers and books. We can write in our note-books and on the blackboard. We can drink out of a glass or a cup.

The boy is looking at his apple and eating it. He is not looking at the girl. She is looking at her cup and drinking out of it. Is she drinking milk or coffee or tea? What is near the orange in the picture?

The boys and girls are reading English books. These books are full of pictures, and there is a map of England on one page. How many words are there on one page of your book?

Exercises

1. Take a piece of paper and write a question on it. Ask the pupil sitting next to you to write the answer under the question.

2. Put questions to these answers, e.g.
An apple is a fruit. What is an apple?

1. That boy is eating an orange.

2. She is drinking milk out of a glass.

3. No, we can't clean the board without a duster.

4. No, water is not a fruit.

5. Yes, this glass is full of water.
6. I can eat bread, meat, and eggs.
7. He is writing with a pen.
8. They are drinking water.
9. It is full of coffee.

C. Put *a* or *an* in the following:

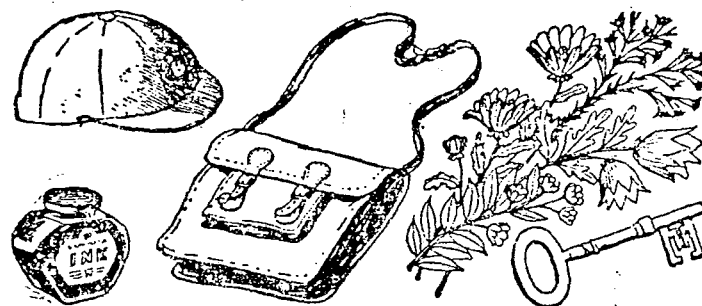
1. There is — city on the river.
2. — orange is — fruit.
3. Can you eat — egg?
4. There's — red apple on the table.
5. That is — figure 4.
6. Put — orange near you and — apple near that boy.

D. Finish these sentences:

1. We can't drink coffee without — .
2. He can't clean the board without — .
3. She can't write her name without — .
4. You can't draw a box in your note-book without — .
5. I can't draw on the blackboard without — .

Lesson Nine

WHOSE IS IT?



There is a cap on the desk. Whose is it? It is Altan's. That bag is not Altan's, it is Bedia's. Whose is this pencil? It is Sevim's. Lütfiye's is here on the desk. I can see a lot of things on the teacher's table. What can you see? I can see a bottle of ink, a short piece of string, a long ruler, some flowers, and a key.

Point to Altan's cap. What are you doing?

Whose cap is it? It is Altan's.

Isn't it Bedia's? No, it isn't.

Whose is that bag, Lütfiye's or Bedia's? It is Bedia's.

Write your name on the blackboard.

Now write Sevim's. What are you doing?

APPENDIX E - An Example for an Audio-Lingual Coursebook

English 900 Book 3 by English Language Service 1964

UNIT 5 TALKING ABOUT NEIGHBORS AND FRIENDS



- 361 Where did you grow up?
 362 I grew up right here in this neighborhood.
 363 My friend spent his childhood in California.
 364 He lived in California until he was seventeen.
 365 There have been a lot of changes here in the last 20 years.
 366 There used to be a grocery store on the corner.
 367 All of those houses have been built in the last ten years.
 368 They're building a new house up the street from me.
 369 If you buy that home, will you spend the rest of your life there?
 370 Are your neighbors very friendly?
 371 We all know each other pretty well.
 372 A young married couple moved in next door to us.
 373 Who bought that new house down the street from you?
 374 An elderly man rented the big white house.
 375 What beautiful trees those are!

SUBSTITUTION DRILLS

1. Where did

you
she
he
Peter and John
they

 grow up?
2. I grew up

in this neighborhood
in this city
on a farm
in a little country town

 . Where did you grow up?
3. My friend spent his

childhood
early childhood
early years
childhood years

 in California.
4. He lived in

California
Texas
New York
Virginia

 until he was seventeen.
5. There have been a lot of

changes
developments
improvements

 here in the last 20 years.
6. There used to be a

grocery store
drugstore
department store
movie theater

 on the corner.
7.

All
Some
A few
Many
Almost all

 of those houses have been built in the last 10 years.
8. They're building a new

house
apartment house
building
office building

 up the street from me.

9. If you

buy
purchase
rent

 that home, will you spend the rest of your life there?
10. Are your neighbors very

friendly
kind
quiet
noisy

 ?
11.

We all
Some of us
A few of us
Most of us
Three or four of us

 know each other pretty well.
12. A young married couple

moved in
has moved in
is moving in
is going to move in

 next door to us.
13. Who bought that new house

down the street
up the street
across the street
around the corner
two blocks

 from you?
14. An elderly man

rented
has rented
is renting
is going to rent

 the big white house.
15. What beautiful

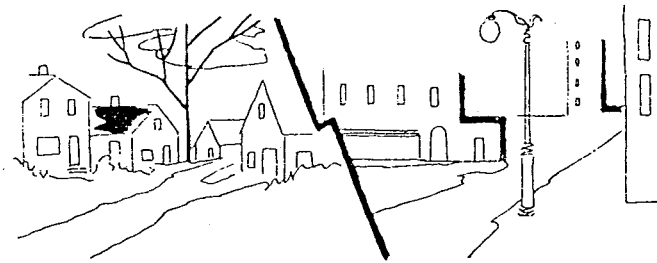
trees
flowers
homes
trees and flowers

 those are!
16. We all

know each other pretty well
see each other often
talk to each other every day
help each other all the time

 . We're neighbors.

READING PRACTICE



Talking About Neighbors and Friends

Last summer, my wife Jane and I went to visit the town where we both grew up. We hadn't been there since we were married ten years ago.

First, we went to the neighborhood where my wife spent her childhood. It hadn't changed very much. The house where she was born was still there, but it was now a different color. The same neighbors still lived next door. They were very glad to see Jane, and asked us to come in and have a cup of coffee. We learned about all the neighbors, old and new. Jane had a very good time. As fast as one question was answered, she would ask the next. "What happened to the Dunbars who used to have the little yellow house on the corner?" "Who bought the old Johnson place in the next block?" "Do Fred and Martha Alberts still live down the street?" "What about Miss Burton who lived alone in that extremely big house around the corner?"

Then we went to see the neighborhood where I grew up. What a disappointment! It was all changed. All the old houses I remembered were gone and in their place were some very modern ones. I didn't know any of the people who lived there.

Someone has said that you can't go home again. Jane might not think so, but I believe this is true.

Questions

1. How long had it been since Jane and her husband visited their hometown?
2. Had Jane's neighborhood changed very much?
3. How did she learn all the news about her neighborhood?
4. Was Jane's husband's neighborhood the same as when he lived there?
5. Is it true that "you can't go home again"?

CONVERSATION

1. Looking for a new house

SALESMAN: I think I have exactly the house you are looking for, Mr. James. It's in a very good neighborhood.

MR. JAMES: Fine. Is it near a shopping center?

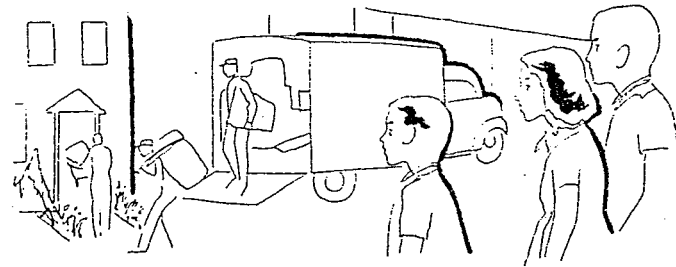
SALESMAN: Yes, it is. The shopping center is just a short walk. And the school, too.

MR. JAMES: Good. Is the house very old? I'd like a new one.

SALESMAN: All the houses here are very modern. None of them are over five years old.

MR. JAMES: I'd like to see the house. From what you tell me it is just what I want.

SALESMAN: I can take you to see it now.



2. Neighborhood friends

MABEL: Have you met our new neighbors yet? They moved in last Saturday.

KITTY: No, I haven't. I understand they are renting the house. They aren't buying it.

MABEL: That's right. I've talked to one of the children. He's the same age as my son. There are five in the family: the parents, two sons, and a daughter.

KITTY: Let's go and welcome the new family to the neighborhood. I'm sure they'd like that.

MABEL: That's a good idea. Perhaps there is something we can do for them.

KITTY: Everyone was very kind when I moved here two years ago. It's good to feel welcome in a new neighborhood.

EXERCISES

1. Use the right form of "grow up."

Example: I *grew up* in Texas.

- a. Children _____ fast.
 b. John _____ in California.
 c. Where did they _____?
 d. They _____ in New York.
 e. Boys _____ to be men.
 f. A girl _____ to be a woman.

2. Use the right form of "wake up."

Example: I *wake up* at 7 o'clock every day.

- a. Yesterday morning I _____ at ten o'clock.
 b. I usually _____ at eight.
 c. My family often _____ before 6:30.
 d. My brother _____ on time this morning.
 e. Last night they _____ at midnight.

3. Use the right form of "spend."

Example: I *spend* every day at work.

- a. John _____ his childhood in New York.
 b. Will you _____ the night at my house?
 c. Yes, I'll _____ the night.
 d. I _____ last week in California.
 e. My sister _____ her childhood in Texas.

4. Complete the sentences with the correct word from the list.

on	up
from	until
of	in

- a. There have been a lot _____ improvements here.

- b. I grew _____ in a small country town.
 c. There used to be a grocery store _____ the corner.
 d. A young married couple moved _____ next door.
 e. We bought the new house two blocks _____ you.
 f. He lived in Texas _____ he was seventeen.
 g. An elderly man rented the house _____ us.
 h. I spent my childhood _____ a farm.
 i. Many of those houses have been built _____ the last ten years.
 j. The movie theater is _____ the street from me.

5. Change the following sentences to exclamations as shown in the examples.

Examples: That tree is large.

What a large tree that is!

Those are beautiful trees.

What beautiful trees those are!

- a. That is a large building.
 b. Those flowers are beautiful.
 c. You have quiet neighbors.
 d. He had a happy childhood.
 e. This neighborhood is noisy.
 f. That couple is friendly.

6. Answer the following questions. Give short answers as shown in the example.

Example: Do you live in Virginia? *Yes, I do.*

- a. Did Peter grow up on a farm? Yes, _____.
 b. Did you spend your childhood in California? Yes, _____.
 c. Has an elderly woman rented that new house? Yes, _____.
 d. Do you know that couple next door? No, _____.
 e. Are you building a new house next month? Yes, _____.

- f. Has Mr. Jones bought that office building yet? No, _____.
- g. Will Mrs. Jones buy a new house? No, _____.
- h. Did Mary know Mrs. Jones last month? Yes, _____.
- i. Have there been a lot of improvements in this neighborhood?
Yes, _____.
- j. Are those neighbors very friendly? Yes, _____.

WORD LIST

beautiful	each other	kind
building	elderly	new
change	farm	noisy
childhood	flower	quiet
couple	friendly	the rest of
department store	grocery store	tree
development	improvement	until
drugstore		

Verb Forms

buy, bought (*p. and p. part.*)
 build, built (*p. and p. part.*)
 grow up, grew up (*p.*),
 grown up (*p. part.*)
 move in, moved in (*p. and p. part.*)
 purchase, purchased
 (*p. and p. part.*)
 rent, rented (*p. and p. part.*)
 spend, spent (*p. and p. part.*)

Expressions

all the time
 know (someone)
 spend (one's) childhood

Supplementary Word List

(Conversation and Reading Practice)

again	modern
alone	shopping center
changed	true
disappointment	welcome
idea	

REVIEW ONE

UNITS 1-5

1. Conversation Review and Practice

a. Weighing things

- A: How much does that book weigh?
 B: I don't know. Let's weigh it.
 A: It weighs nearly two pounds.
 B: This dark blue book weighs just as much as that green book.
 A: How much does that table weigh? Can you tell me?
 B: It's not awfully heavy, but I don't know the exact weight.
 A: It must weigh about forty or fifty pounds.
 B: I'd say it weighs nearly seventy pounds.
 A: Can you tell me how much that typewriter weighs?
 B: No, I can't. I don't know what the weight of the typewriter is.
 A: How much do you weigh?
 B: I don't know how much I weigh. Maybe I weigh about two hundred pounds.
 A: Does your brother know his exact weight?
 B: No, he doesn't. He doesn't know how much he weighs.

b. Measuring things

- A: Will you please measure that window to see how wide it is?
 B: It's twenty-eight inches wide.
 A: How high is that window? Will you measure it?
 B: It's not very high. It's forty-one inches in height.
 A: This window is just as wide as that one, isn't it?
 B: Yes, it is. But this window is higher than that one.
 A: What's the width of those walls?
 B: These walls are exactly two inches thick.
 A: How wide is Jones Boulevard? Do you know?
 B: I'd say it's about seventy-five feet wide.
 A: Jones Boulevard is wider than Baltimore Avenue, isn't it?
 B: Yes, it is. Baltimore Avenue is only fifty feet wide.

APPENDIX F - An Example for a Communicative Coursebook

Meridian Book 1 by J. Harmer 1985

17 John's story

John Strange is in hospital.

Now Mr Strange, let's hear the whole story. What happened?

Well, I was in the street. Two men pushed me into a car.

What did you do?

I screamed, but they put a bag over my face. We drove for about three hours. Then they stopped and we all got out of the car.

I see. Then what did they do?

They threw me over a cliff.

- 1** Look and listen. Answer the questions.
- 1 Who is telling the story?
 - 2 Put the following verbs in the order in which they occur in the story:
threw. pushed stopped drove put got out

Language focus

2

Match the verbs with the pictures of Sofia's activities last week.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------|
| listened to records | visited her grandmother |
| bought a television | cooked a meal |
| went shopping | watched television |
| read the newspaper | drove to Verona |

3

Ask and answer like this:

What did Sofia do on Monday morning?
- She went shopping.

4

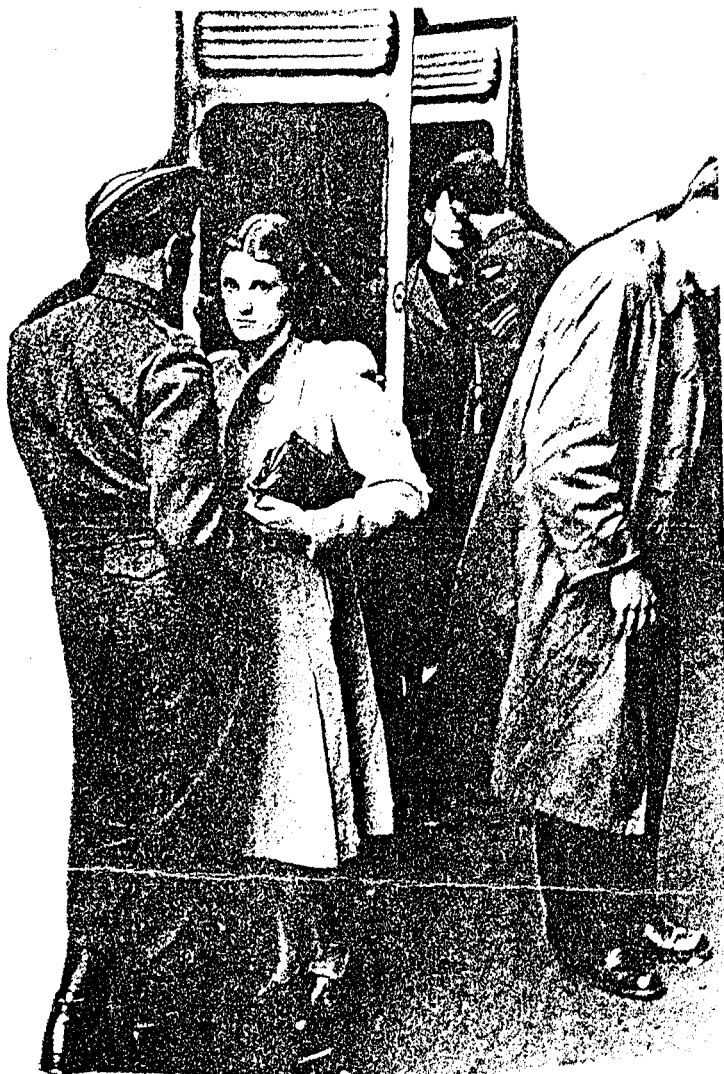
Ask and answer about you, like this:

What did you do yesterday evening?
- I watched television and then I went to bed.

a.m.	p.m.
Monday 	
Tuesday 	
Wednesday 	
Thursday 	

APPENDIX G - PRE-TEST

Goodbyes



What past experience
does this picture
remind you of?

Write a composition.
(approximately
250 words)

Fill in the blanks using appropriate verbs with their correct tense form.



Last week at a dinner party, the hostess _____ me _____ next to Mrs. Rumbold. Mrs. Rumbold _____ a large, unsimiling lady in a thigt black dress. I _____ beside her. Her eyes _____ on her plate and in a short time, she _____ busy eating. She even _____ look up when I _____. I _____ to make conversation:

"There is a new play in The Royal Theatre"
I said "_____?"

"No." She _____.

"_____?" I _____.

"No." She _____.

"_____?" I _____.

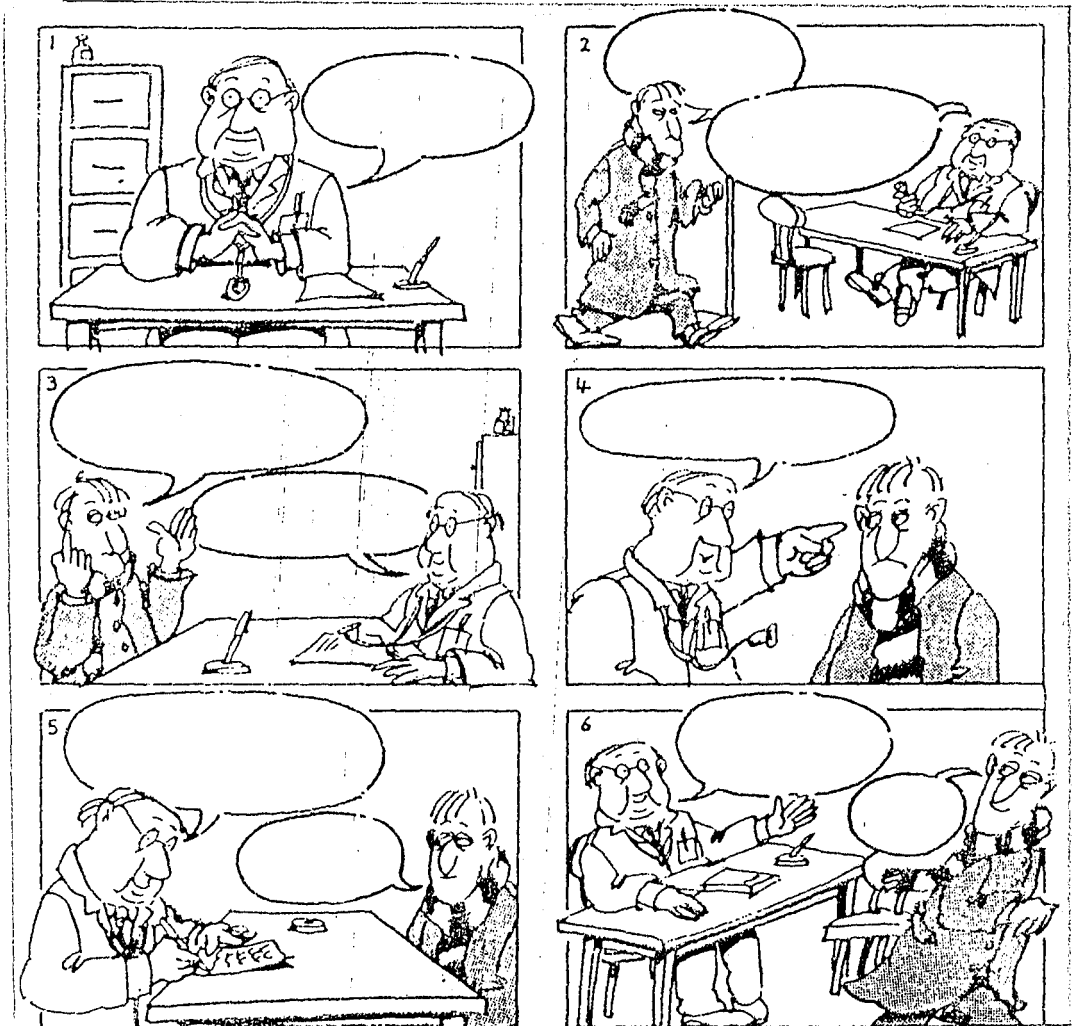
"No." She _____.

In despaire I _____ her whether she _____ her dinner.

"Young man" she said if you _____ more and _____ less, we would both enjoy our dinner.

APPENDIX H - POST-TEST

A

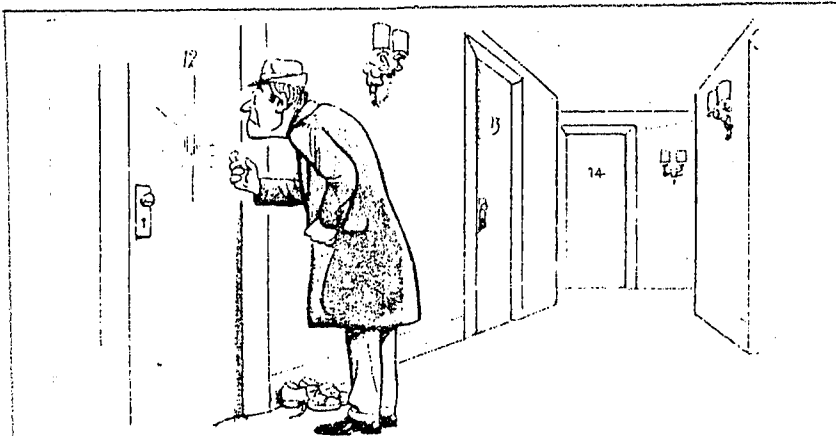


1. Fill in the bubbles.

2. Write a similar story related to your past experience.

(250 words)

B



Len and Jim : (1) for the same company. One day, Len (2) Jim \$20, but then Jim (3) his job and (4) to work in another town without paying Len back his \$20.

Len (5) Jim for a year, and then he (6) from another friend that Jim (7) in town and (8) at the Central Hotel, so he (9) to see him there late in the evening.

He (10) the number of Jim's room from the clerk at the desk downstairs and (11) to find him. When he (12) to the room, he (13) Jim's shoes outside the door, waiting to be cleaned.

'Well, he must be in,' he (14), and (15) at the door. There (16) no answer.

He (17) again. Then he (18) 'I know you're in, Jim. Your shoes are out here.'

'I (19) in my slippers,' (20) a voice from inside

B) Fill in the blanks with verbs in the appropriate tense.

- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| 1. _____ | 11. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 12. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 13. _____ |
| 4. _____ | 14. _____ |
| 5. _____ | 15. _____ |
| 6. _____ | 16. _____ |
| 7. _____ | 17. _____ |
| 8. _____ | 18. _____ |
| 9. _____ | 19. _____ |
| 10. _____ | 20. _____ |

APPENDIX I - Distribution of Scores

Traditional Group			Communicative Group		
<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Pre-test</u>	<u>Post-Test</u>	<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Pre-test</u>	<u>Post-Test</u>
1	78	80	1	83	98
2	80	88	2	63	78
3	60	76	3	90	100
4	60	72	4	65	80
5	75	75	5	85	95
6	88	92	6	30	62
7	38	71	7	35	63
8	60	75	8	80	80
9	80	78	9	65	90
10	90	85	10	65	73
11	73	86	11	65	85
12	28	48	12	93	98
13	73	80	13	90	95
14	78	43	14	75	100
15	78	94	15	48	80
16	85	85	16	88	92
17	90	38	17	60	75
18	68	80	18	80	90
19	60	73	19	48	95
20	63	70	20	88	100

APPENDIX J

Formulas used in two-sample t-test for
the difference of means

Hypotheses: $H_0 : \bar{X}_1 = \bar{X}_2$

$$H_1 : \bar{X}_1 \neq \bar{X}_2 \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{X}_1 > \bar{X}_2$$

Variance:
$$\bar{S}^2 = \frac{\sum (\bar{X}_i - \bar{X})^2}{n - 1}$$

Standard
Deviation:
$$S = \sqrt{\frac{n_1 s_1^2 + n_2 s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}$$

t-statistics:
$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}$$

APPENDIX K

Formulas used in Paired-sample t-test

Hypotheses: $H_0 : \bar{d} = 0$

$$H_1 : \bar{d} \neq 0$$

Standard
Deviation:
$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2 - \frac{(\sum d)^2}{n}}{n - 1}}$$

Variance:
$$S_{\bar{d}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

t-statistics:
$$t = \frac{\bar{d}}{S_{\bar{d}}}$$

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