Ufuk University

Graduate School of Social Sciences

Department of English Language Teaching

INCREASING FLUENCY IN SPEAKING THROUGH THE USE OF COMMUNICATIVE SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

Master's Thesis

Sam Al-asadi

Ankara, 2015

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KABUL VE ONAY

Sam Al-asadi tarafından hazırlanan "İletişimsel Konuşma Etkinlikleriyle Konuşmada Akıcılığın Artırılması" başlıklı bu çalışma. 12 .01 . 2015 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Yrd.Doç. Dr. Neslihan Özkan (Danışman)

Yrd.Doç. Dr. Gülşen Demir

Yukarıdaki imzaların adı geçen öğretim üyelerine ait olduğunu onaylarım.

Prof. Dr. Mehmet Tomanbay

Enstitü Müdürü

BİLDİRİM

Hazırladığım tezin tamamen kendi çalışmam olduğunu ve her alıntıya kaynak gösterdiğimi taahhüt eder, tezimin kağıt ve elektronik kopyalarının Ufuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü arşivlerinde aşağıda belirttiğim koşullarda saklanmasına izin verdiğimi onaylarım:

☐ Tezimin tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.

☐ Tezim sadece Ufuk Üniversitesi yerleşkelerinden erişime açılabilir.

☐ Tezimin…… yıl süreyle erişime açılmasını istemiyorum. Bu süreninsonundaığım takdirde, tezimin/ raporumun tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.

SAM AL-ASADI

_____

DEDICATION

To Allah, The Almighty for His help and endless support in enlightening my path of knowledge, I dedicate this humble work.

To my parents who were very enthusiastic, proud and supporting throughout my studying abroad.

To my faithful parents and wife who supported and encouraged me to achieve this mission away from home.

Finally, to my true friend Raad, I dedicate this work.

SAM AL-ASADI

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Sam, Al-asadi. Increasing Fluency in Speaking Through the Use of Communicative Activities, Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2015.

English language teaching professionals have always been in search of what makes speaking the language fluently possible. This study is another step taken toward that goal, aiming to find out if it is possible to improve fluency in the speaking performances of Iraqi learners of English with the use of communicative speaking activities such as role-play.

In order to realize this aim, an experimental research design is adopted with the 60 participants randomly selected in two Iraqi secondary schools. The participants were grouped into two and identified as the experimental group and the control group. First, a role-play activity, which functioned as the pre-test of the study was practiced. Then what followed was the treatment stage, which lasted two months. Finally, another role-play activity was done in the classroom and it was the post-test, which was to give the indication of a possible increase in students' fluency in speaking.

As for the analysis of the data, role-play activities, in other words, the pre- and the post-tests were graded by the coordinating teachers according to Doff's (1990) criteria. Afterwards, the grades were transferred to SPSS and the results were analyzed with the program.

Consequently, the study revealed that the use of communicative activities such as role-play activities or problem-solving tasks leads to an increase in fluency of EFL learners' speaking performance.

Keywords: ELT, EFL, Iraqi learners, Communicative Language Teaching, Speaking, Fluency.

ÖZET

Sam Al-asadi. "İletişimsel Konuşma Etkinlikleriyle Konuşmada Akıcılığın Artırılması",
Ankara, 2015 İngilizce öğretimi alanında çalışanlar her zaman dili en akıcı biçimde
konuşmayı öğretmenin yollarını aramışlardır. Bu çalışma da, bu amaca ulaşmak için
atılan adımlardan biridir ve rol yapma etkinlikleri gibi iletişimsel temelli konuşma
etkinliklerinin Iraklı İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin konuşma performansında akıcılığı
artırıp artırmadığını belirlemeyi hedeflemektedir.

Bu amaca ulaşmak için, Irak'taki iki ortaokuldan rastgele seçilen 60 katılımcının yer
aldığı deneysel bir araştırma deseni benimsenmiştir. Katılımcılar deney grubu ile
kontrol grubu olacak şekilde ikiye ayrılmıştır. İlk olarak, çalışmanın ön testi olarak işlev
gösteren bir rol oynama etkinliği yapılmıştır. Sonra iki ay süren deney süreci
başlamıştır. Son aşamada başka bir rol oynama etkinliği yapılmıştır ve bu da son test
olarak işlev göstermiştir.

Verilerin analizi için ilk aşamada, ön testi ve son testi oluşturan rol oynama etkinlikleri
Doff'un (1990) sunduğu ölçütlere göre katılımcı öğretmenler tarafından notlanmıştır.
Sonrasında bu notlandırmalar analiz için SPSS'e aktarılmış ve istatistiki olarak
çözümlenmiştir.

Sonuç olarak, çalışma rol oynama, problem çözme gibi iletişimsel dil öğretimini temel
alan etkinliklerin İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Iraklı öğrencilerin konuşma
performanslarında akıcılığı artırdığını ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ELT, EFL, Iraklı öğrenciler, İletişimsel Dil Öğretimi, Konuşma,
Akıcılık.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
EFL	ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
ESP	ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES
L1	FIRST LANGUAGE
L2	SECOND LANGUAGE
GTM	GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD
DM	DIRECT METHOD
ALM	AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD
CLT	COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 PRESENTATION

This chapter consists of the aim and the importance of the study as well as the research questions, limitations and definitions of relevant terms.

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is worth of note that, there are plenty of common pedagogical problems of English language learners, which teachers and students face throughout the language learning process.

In this sense, we see that students tend to use their native language much more than the target language and to be too dependent on the teacher. Thus, teaching productive skills, i.e. speaking and writing prove to be problematic.

Among all the language skills, speaking attracts a lot of attention because many problems have been diagnosed especially about fluency. So, English language learners have trouble expressing themselves orally. In such circumstances, it is required to have a closer look at other factors such as classroom participation, teacher roles, activity types, which are usually neglected and of little interest. This negligence can be said to result from the continuous application of traditional methods in the classroom although they have been transformed for decades now. Therefore, what needs to be done might be to move from the old ways and adopt or adapt a modern fruitful attitude toward teaching English.

In line with this perspective, learners need to get the much needed assistance throughout their learning processes within the framework of the most recent methods. In order to enable them to improve their fluency in speaking, English teachers play an important role since it is generally in their hands to get the students to succeed since they are the ones who are models for learners and who provide the input with various techniques in the classroom.

1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY

Teachers are one of the most important elements of classroom procedures, which is a fact stated by many, Martin and Sugarman (1993) being one of them: "Many difficulties in classroom management can be prevented by effective teaching" (as cited in Woolfolk, Winne and Perry, 2003, p. 423). Making the decision about getting students to achieve fluency in their speaking performance can be said to lie with the teacher, who chooses to make English classes serve communicative purposes or not. Hence, it is necessary to question despite the popularity of recent methods in ELT whether teachers are willing to apply them and whether these methods prove to be fruitful in terms of speaking, a problematic skill to teach within the limitations of a typical language classroom.

With these concerns in mind, this study aims to find out whether communicative speaking activities aid EFL learners in achieving fluency in speaking and what English teachers think about the use of these activities in their classes.

1.3 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

In various contexts, what foreign language learning means is mastering the four skills of language, i.e. speaking, writing, reading and listening. With a great deal of experience and research, it is also established that speaking is very significant since language is realized by the spoken word in the first place.

In this sense, Luoma (2004) explains that, "speaking skills are an important part of the curriculum in language teaching and this makes them an important object of assessment as well. Assessing speaking is challenging, however, because there are so many factors that influence our impression of how well someone can speak a language" (p.1). In accordance with this, Harmer (2009) adds that, "getting students to speak in class can be extremely easy. In a good class atmosphere, students who get on with each other, and whose English is at an appropriate level, will often participate freely and enthusiastically if we give them suitable topic and task" (p.343).

However, teaching speaking proves to be difficult in many settings around the world, Iraq among them. The new strategic plan adopted by Ministry of Education in Republic of Iraq is in accordance with the recent methods and has led to an update of course books used in the English classes around the country. But it should also be kept in mind that reforms mean almost nothing without teachers to initiate the process. So, this study helps language teaching professionals with a look into what Iraqi teachers think about the popular Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

Another point of focus is whether any progress can be made from the use of CLT in the classroom. It might be possible that this study can find an answer to this question, at least in terms of speaking within the Iraqi context.

It is clear that the current study there might be a good opportunity to create a move from the humdrum of classical styles with their chronic roots still dug deeply in Audio-lingual Method (ALM) in schools to the applications of CLT.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

With the data provided from two groups of students and a group of teachers selected randomly from the Iraqi secondary schools of in the second scholastic semester of 2013-2014, this study aims to answer the following question:

Do learners of English in the secondary schools of Al-Ghad Almobarak and Al-Nossor in Iraq achieve fluency in speaking when it is taught communicatively?

1.5 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study has certain limitations in terms of scope and location. Firstly, this study is concerned with certain numbers of teachers and learners in Dhi-Qar province, Iraq. Secondly, the number of the participants in the study may limit the extent of the conclusions to be drawn in the end.

1.6 DEFINITIONS OF SOME TERMS

It is important to define some terms that are frequently used in this study. Here language teaching methods have been introduced so as to improve the quality of instructing and achieve the desired impacts on English language learners. Each method is somewhat related to the following terms:

1.6.1 FLUENCY AND ACCURACY

It is clear that fluency reflects the capacity of English language users to produce spoken language with ease in a good manner but not necessarily in a perfect command of intonation, vocabulary and grammar. Helieman (1996) states that, "fluency is concerned the learner's capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation" (p.22).

On the other hand, accuracy reflects the correctness of the language produced in relation to the role system of the target language. In accordance with this, Bryne (1988) explains that, "accuracy refers to the use of correct forms where utterance do not contain errors affecting the phonological, syntactic, semantic or discourse features of a language" (p.76).

1.6.2 SYLLABUS

It is deemed that, the syllabus represents a plan of what is to be done through the teaching and learning process. It is part of an overall language curriculum which is composed of four parts (aims, content, methodology and evaluation). Therefore, this term reflects what will be achieved by the teacher and learners in terms of the content selected to be appropriate for the overall targets.

In accordance with this scope, as Yalden (1984) puts it, a syllabus is "connected with learner's needs and aims also it is connected with not only selection and grading of content but with specifying and grading learning tasks and activities" (p.7).

On the other hand, Altman and Cashin (2003) suggest that "a syllabus lets students know what the course is about, why the course is taught, where it is going, and what will be required for them to be successful in the course" (p.65).

1.6.3 PEDAGOGIC TASK

A task includes real world processes of language use as well as pedagogic communicative activities. The design of the task goes from simple to complicated, vie the case of task designing in classroom teaching. In accordance with this Tomlinson (2011) states that "a task which does not replicate a real world task but which is design to facilitate the learning of language or skills which would be useful in a real world task. Completing one half of a dialogue, filling in the blanks in a story and working out the meaning of ten nonsense words form clause in a text would be examples of pedagogic tasks.

Pedagogic tasks can, however, require the use of real world skills. A task requiring a group to reproduce a diagram which only one member of the group has seen, for example, involves the use of visualization, giving precise instructions and asking for clarification. It is arguable that such tasks spite not being real world tasks, are in fact authentic" (p.xv).

1.6.4 ACTIVITIES

It is worth noting this term refers to the concrete action of the assigned task which will be implemented by learners. In this sense, McKay and Guse (2007) note that, "you are free to use any activity and in any order, but, according to good teaching practice, you should always consider whether children are ready for this activity or whether it would be better to do a less advanced activity, or to do an earlier activity in the sequence of the activity" (p. 4).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 PRESENTATION

This section will provide a look into the theoretical bases of this study especially with a focus on how teaching speaking has transformed throughout decades in ELT.

2.1 METHODS AND APPROACHES IN ELT AT A GLANCE

In the late of 1800s and the vast majority of the 1900s, language teaching was generally considered as far as method, in looking to enhance teaching practices, forwardly. Teachers and researchers would typically try to find out which method was the most effective in the world of ELT. However, the method of teaching a language can be considered as a vague idea in language teaching, and has been utilized as a part of numerous diverse ways. According to Bell (2003), this variety in use "offers a challenge for anyone wishing to enter into the analysis or deconstruction of methods" (as cited in Hall, 2011, p.78).

2.1.1 METHOD AND APPROACH

Anthony (1963) formed a system to describe various language teaching methods, which comprised three levels: approach, method, and technique. According to Anthony (1963) "The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach. His idea of approach was of a set of standards or thoughts regarding the way of the nature of language learning which would be consistent over time; an approach is axiomatic. Finally, his concept of technique referred to the actual implementation in immediate objective" (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.19).

It can be said that a method reflects situated strategies and procedures which are utilized within an orderly path in the investigation of certainties and ideas. An approach here represents a specific way to utilize an investigative hypothesis.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) defines method as a set of assumptions, beliefs, and theories dealing with the nature of language and language learning which inspire teachers in their teaching practice. Henceforth, a method can be considered as a plan for the presentation of the language material to be learned and should be established upon a selected approach. A method presented a kind of prospective to help the students in their everyday learning activities, in order to activate the structural patterning of the language.

It might be useful to go over some significant methods to provide a solid theoretical background to the study in question.

2.1.2 GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was a method of teaching foreign languages derived the techniques of teaching Greek and Latin languages. In GTM classes, learners have to be taught grammatical rules, which is frequently followed by interpreting sentences from the target language to their native language. Since learners are required to translate or decode the whole texts word-for-word, this method focuses on reading and writing and has developed techniques which facilitate more or less the learning of reading and writing only. As a result, speaking and listening are overlooked. Thus, this method has two fundamental objectives: First is to enable students to read and second is to translate written literature in the target language to the learners' first language.

Mora (2008) points out that this method aims at learners' acquiring the target language deductively. It applies a deductive approach to grammar learning. The grammatical rules are presented explicitly. Grammar instruction provides the rules of putting words together. Instruction often focuses on the form and the inflection of words. The first purpose of the Grammar-Translation Method of the 1930s and 1940s was to teach students the classical heritage of literature. Second purpose was to secure a

greater understanding of the first language (as cited in Chastain, 1988, p. 86). As Freeman (1986)

states, in GTM "it was recognized that students would probably never use the target language, but the mental exercise of learning it would be beneficial anyway" (p. 4).

Richard and Rodgers (2001) characterize the main principles of this method as in the following:

1-Grammar Translation method is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. "The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language" (as cited in Stern, 1983).Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening (as cited in Stern, 1983).

2. Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.

3. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorization. In atypical Grammar-Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items is presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises are prescribed.

4-Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards in translation, because of "the high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy which, as well as having an increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century" (as cited in Howatt,1984,p.132).

5-Grammar is taught deductively- that is, by presentation and study by grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises.

6-The student's native language is the medium of instructions. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language"(p.5).

It should also be borne in mind that GTM has certain disadvantages. For instance, Jeremy Harmer (2008) points out that "a total concentration on Grammar-Translation stops students from getting the kind of natural language input that will help them acquire language (since they are always looking at L1 equivalents) and it fails to give them opportunities to create their language knowledge. If they are always translating the language, they are not using the L2 for communication. The danger with Grammar-Translation, in other words, is that it teaches people about language but does not really help them to communicate effectively with it" (p. 49).

In other words, it is clear that with this method English language learners have no chance to utilize the language they are exposed to. Actually, they become proficient translators, but not competent language users. The teaching of grammar does not allow learners to utilize or to use grammatical rules creatively.

They basically retain and digest the expressions but have no chance to utilize the target language orally except when they read the translated sentences aloud. If one has to look into the drawbacks of GTM in more detail, firstly, it can be said that through the goals of this method, much emphasis was paid to enable students to understand and read literary passages only, translate from one language to another, be conscious of the grammatical rules, and memorize the words.

All of these goals would not create an opportunity for the student to use the target language in real situations. So, there is no opportunity to let the students have any kind of interaction among them. Secondly, the teacher's role is represented as the authority in the classroom, which does not provide learners with any positive opportunities to create something or to participate in among students themselves and the teacher. Furthermore,

there is no opportunity to use the target language at all because the students' role is passive as receivers only.

They just listen to and do what the teacher says. Another drawback is that the teaching process means students translating from one language to another, studying grammar deductively, memorizing the grammar rules

and examples, having them apply those rules to other examples in order to complete teaching grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations, and memorizing native language equivalents for target language vocabulary items. Moreover, literary language is regarded as superior to spoken language, and culture is viewed as consisting of literature and fine arts making GTM useless at some point, for the literary language is of little or no use in daily life.

In GTM, reading and writing are considered as the primary skills that students work on. In this sense, much less attention is given to speaking and listening. Without these skills, there would be no fluency in using language or any kind of classroom participation. As for error correction, if a student's answer is incorrect, the teacher assigns another student to give the correct answer or sometimes s/he himself or herself corrects that mistake immediately. That can be considered as a big mistake because there is no kind of feedback from the teacher, who demotivates his/her students by providing them with no possible chance of correcting their mistakes on their own.

In a nutshell, this method can be considered as an unnatural method because the natural order of learning a language is listening, speaking, reading, and writing. That is the order in which a child learns his/her mother tongue language in a natural way.

In Grammar Translation Method, the teaching of the second language starts with writing and reading. Thus, the learning process is reversed. Therefore, it does not enhance a student's communicative ability in the language communication affairs. Students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations, and memorization, which leads to students not being able to communicate in the target language.

2.1.3 DIRECT METHOD

During the 1850s to 1990s, Europe experienced a trend away from GTM, which resulted from the fact that it was not achieving the desired results. Reformers wanted to respond to a need for better language teaching methods in a time of industrial expansion and international trade and travel. The resulting reformed procedure went under a variety of names such as the Natural Method and the Phonetic Method, but ultimately all were categorized under the name 'Direct Method'.

Direct Method (DM) was established in Germany and France around 1900s. Then it became widely known in the United States through its use by Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz in commercially successful language schools.

According to J. D. Bawen and et al (1985), it is clear that "In 1902 the official language teaching method in both France and Germany was Direct Method. But it had no place in American classrooms until the 1920s. Supporters of the Direct Method tended to favor instruction in modern foreign languages rather than in classical languages" (pp. 24-25).

In this sense, this term has come to the prominence because it was believed that L2 learning must be an imitation of L1 learning as this was the natural way human beings learn any language. In addition, it is the called Anti-Grammatical Method since it argued that L2 can be taught without translation or the use of the learner's native tongue if meaning is to be conveyed directly through demonstration and action.

The Direct Method was termed 'direct', for meaning should be connected directly with the target language without translation or a switch to the native language. So, the Direct Method aims to provide language learners with a practically useful knowledge of language. Knowing a language is being able to speak it rather than translating the teaching material.

Here the teacher is expected to directly use the target language in class because a language can best be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Teacher should not explain, but associate the meaning through action and demonstration. In this way, learners would be able to induce grammar rules through examples, illustrations, and demonstrations. This method replaced the textbook with teacher-student and student-

student activities such as reading aloud, question and answer exercises, fill in the blanks, etc. Correct pronunciation is given careful attention in this method.

Through these principles we can see how this method can be useful in increasing students' fluency level in speaking because classroom instruction is conducted exclusively in the target language. The teacher should demonstrate, but not explain or translate. In DM, vocabulary is taught through known words, demonstration, authentic objects (realia), pictures, and miming.

A direct bond between a word and its meaning is created during the teaching process. Students are encouraged to understand what they have learned thinking about it and then expressing their own ideas in correct English about what they have read and written.

The advantages of Direct Method can be summarized as in the following:

1. Lively classroom procedures motivate the learner.
2. The learning process is contextualized.
3. It facilitates the alertness and participation of the pupils.
4. It follows the natural order of learning L1, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
5. It puts great emphasis on speaking, the most important skill for many learners. It avoids the unnatural block of translation in the communication process. Students are supposed to learn the language, not about the language.
6. This method can also be usefully employed at all levels. In addition, through this method fluency of speech, good pronunciation and power of expression are properly developed.

It is also important to refer to some disadvantages in this method. In spite of its achievements, the direct method fell short from fulfilling the needs of educational systems. One of its major shortcomings is that it was hard for public schools to integrate it. As Brown (1994) puts it, "the direct method did not take well in public schools where the constraints of budget, classroom size, time, and teacher background (native speakers or native like fluency) made such a method difficult to use" (p. 56).

2.1.4 AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

Before being coined by Nelson Brooks in 1960s, Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) was known as 'Oral Approach' or 'Aural-Oral Method'. It is based on the principles of behavioristic psychology, which was led by Skinner and on structural linguistics of Leonard Bloomfield.

In the same vein, the Audio-Lingual Method is "a method which was based on the notion that learning a foreign language was a matter of developing new linguistic habits.

Learners had to memorize and manipulate the foreign language grammar through various manipulating, substitution, transformation and application drills" (Ziahosseiny, 2009, p. 50).

As for the linguistic basis of ALM, it is possible to say that 'progressive' 1950s' "language pedagogy drew on a version of structuralism developed by the British linguist Palmer in 1920s, and subsequently by Fries and his Michigan colleagues in the 1940s" (Rosamond 2013, p. 28). For its views on language, the term audiolingualism drew on the work of American linguists such as Leonard Bloomfield.

The prime concern of American linguists at the early decades of the 20th century had been to document all the indigenous languages spoken in the USA. However, because of the death of trained native teachers who would provide a theoretical description of the native languages, linguists had to rely on observation and a strong focus on oral language was developed.

"The technique Bloomfield and his colleagues used was sometimes known as the 'informant method' since it used a native speaker of the language- the informant-who served as a source of phrases and vocabulary and who provided sentences for imitation, and a linguist, who supervised the learning experience. The linguist did not necessarily know the language but was trained in eliciting the basic structure of the language from the informant" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 51).

At the same time, behavioral psychologists such as B. F. Skinner, were forming the belief that all types of behavior (including language) are learnt through repetition and positive or negative reinforcement.

Similarly, Chastain (1988) suggests that, "behaviorist learning theories conceived of learning as a process of changing behavior the use of external reinforcement to train learners to give conditioned responses to selected stimuli basing their insights on their conceptions the behavioristic model of learning" (pp. 87-88).

Another factor that facilitated the emergence of ALM was the outbreak of World War II, which entailed the need to post large numbers of American servicemen all over the world. It was therefore necessary to provide these soldiers with at least basic verbal communication skills. In addition to support the previous scope, "the U.S. military.

provided the impetus with founding for special, intensive language courses that focused on the aural / oral skills; these courses came to be known as the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) or more colloquially, the Army Method" (Brown, 1987, pp. 95-96). Barker and James (2008) also state that "Unsurprisingly, the new method relied on the prevailing scientific methods of the time, observation and repetition, which were also admirably suited to teaching en mass. Because of the influence of the military, early versions of the audio-lingualism came to be known as the 'army method" (p. 56).

As mentioned before, ALM is based on behaviorist theory, which professes certain traits of living things, and in this case humans, could be trained through a system of reinforcement. In turn, to correct or use of a trait would receive positive feedback while incorrect use of that trait would receive negative feedback.

The behaviorist roots of ALM can be summarized as in the following: "Teaching did not involve the proper arrangement of information to be presented, but the establishment of learned connections between selected stimuli and desired responses. Conditioning the desired responses depended upon providing immediate and appropriate reinforcement" (Chastain, 1988, pp. 87-88).

Unlike GTM and DM, the Audio-Lingual Method does not specifically focus on vocabulary items but on chunks, which are practiced with the drills the teacher gets the students to repeat. The teacher would then continue by presenting drills replacing certain words in the chunks with different ones.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) also add "the teacher's role is central and active; it is a teacher-dominated method. The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects the learner's performance.

The teacher must keep the learners attentive by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practice structures" (p. 62).

In this manner, lessons are built on static drills in which the students have little or no control on their own output. In other words, "Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, and thus have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 62).

The notion behind the use of drills is that "much learning is the result of habit formation, where performing the correct response to a stimulus means that a reward is given, constant repetition of this reward makes the response automatic" (Harmer, 2008, p. 49).

The frequent use of drills in ALM has led to the fact that "much audio-lingual teaching stayed at the sentence level, and there was little placing of language in any kind of real-life context. A premium was still placed on accuracy; indeed Audio lingual method does its best to banish mistakes completely.

The purpose was habit-formation through constant repetition of correct utterance, encouraged and supported by positive reinforcement" (Harmer, 2008, p. 64), which means errors are not tolerated. Thus, lessons in the classroom focused on the correct imitation of the teacher by the students making it the teacher's responsibility to prevent learners from committing language mistakes or errors because these would lead to the formation of bad habits.

When mistakes or errors occur, learners are immediately corrected by the teacher. Not only are the students expected to produce the correct output, but attention is also given to correct pronunciation.

The role given to the teacher in ALM does not provide learners with any chances to correct their mistakes because one of the teacher's major roles is that of a model of the target language. The teacher is to provide students with a native-speaker-like model. By listening to how it is supposed to sound, students should be able to

mimic the model, and s/he should be like an orchestra leader conducting, guiding, and controlling the students' behavior in the target language.

In ALM, students are considered as imitators of the teacher's model or of the tapes s/he supplied of model speaker. They are expected to follow the teacher's directions and to respond as accurately and as rapidly as possible. Most of the interaction is between the teacher and the students, which is initiated by the teacher. Consequently, there is no student-to-student interaction in chain drills.

As for the instructional process, it is possible to say that in ALM the natural order of skills presentation is adhered to: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The oral/aural skills receive most of the attention and pronunciation is taught from the beginning.

With dialog memorization technique, students memorize dialogues through mimicry and they usually take the role of one person in the dialog, while the teacher takes the other.

In such activities students have to repeat each line of the new dialogue several times. In this case students do not have any kind of sense with language because they perform mechanically without attaching meaning to their utterances; in other words, they have to repeat everything without understanding.

The assumption ALM starts from is as Kumaravadivelu (2006) suggests: "Audio lingual method seeks to provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, presequenced linguistic structures through form-focused exercises in class, assuming that a preoccupation with form will ultimately lead to the mastery of the target language and that the learners can draw form this formal repertoire whenever wish to communicate in the target language outside the class" (p. 90).

Brown (1987), sums up the characteristics of ALM as in the following:

1. *New material is presented in dialog form.*
2. *There is dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and overlearning.*
3. *Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis and taught one at a time.*
4. *Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills.*

5. *There is little or no grammatical explanation: Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than deductive explanation.*

6. *Vocabulary is much of tapes, language labs, and visual aids.*

7. *Great importance is attached to pronunciation.*

8. *Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.*

9. *Successful responses are immediately reinforced.*

10. *There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.*

11. *There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content. (as cited in Vossoughi, 2000, p. 35).*

ALM has received a lot of criticism since its emergence. Harmer (2008) explains the reasons for the fall of ALM stating "the audio-lingualism and behaviorism lost popularity because commentators argued that, language learning was far more suitable than just the formation of habits. For example, students are quickly able to produce their own combination words, whether or not they have heard them before.

This is because all humans have the power to be creative in language" (p. 46). Ziahosseiny (2009) supports those ideas by opining that "There is a limitation for the applicability of dialogues for free conversation and genuine conversational management. Most dialogues are not designed to be used to negotiate meaning.

In other words, students, with audio-lingual techniques and material, will end up with a stock of sentences and patterns that will be of occasional use in conversation. Students are able to parrot responses in predictable situations of use, but have difficulty communicating effectively in the relatively unpredictable world beyond the classroom" (p. 53).

In the same vein, Nunan (1999) also criticizes ALM: "Language as communication involves the active use of grammar and vocabulary to listen and read effectively and to speak with and write to other people. Language needs to be learned functionally so that learners are able to see that different forms communicate different meanings" (as cited in Ziahosseiny, 2009, p. 53).

Another improper assumption of audio-lingualism is that developing a foreign language is a linear process in which learners learn one item at a time mastering the simple items first and then moving on to more complex ones.

This is a misinterpretation of the way that foreign language grammar is acquired, which Nunan (1999) also suggests: "Learners do not acquire information, perfectly, one think at a time, they learn numerous things imperfectly at the same time. They structure and restructure their understanding of the language in complex nonlinear ways" (p. 78).

ALM is known for providing English language learners with a stock of ready-made expressions and sentences which are identified as appropriate responses in some situations, which nevertheless make them fail to use these expressions accurately in the appropriate social instances.

The method produces good speakers in terms of pronunciation and behavioral responses, but not necessarily good communicators who are able to use the foreign language creatively and appropriately in different situations.

2.1.5 COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) or the Communicative Approach gained prominence in 1980s after a couple of publications such as Widdowson's (1978b) earlier work, Breen and Candlin's (1980) seminal article, and Savignon's (1983) on the practical applications of communicative competence (as cited in Brown, 1987, p. 213).

CLT combines methodological principles with applied activities to teach English language as a means of communication. In accordance with this vision, Patel and Praveen (2008) state that "the term 'communicate' meant to expresses or convey the idea verbally or non-verbally. This approach emphasizes the communicative capability of the learners. In English language teaching, the teacher tries to develop communicative ability of learners" (p.95), which can be seen as an approach to language teaching that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of teaching a foreign language.

Another core point of CLT is communicative competence, Brown (2007) states that "this term was coined by Hymes (1972) who referred to communicative competence as that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meaning interpersonally within specific contexts" (p. 219).

In accordance with that, Savignon (1983) notes that "communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved" (as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 219).

Brown (1987) summarizes what CLT aims to achieve pointing out that "Classroom goals were focused on all of the components scopes of communicative competence issues and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence ones. Form was not seen as the primary framework for organizing and sequencing lessons.

Function represented the framework through which forms were taught. Accuracy considered as a secondary to conveying a message. Fluency would take on more importance than accuracy. The ultimate criterion for communicative success was the actual transmission and receiving of intended meaning.

In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts" (p. 213).

Richards and Rodgers (2001) also touches on some key features of CLT:

> "1- Appropriateness: language use reflects the situation of its use and must be appropriate to that situation depending on the setting, the roles of the participant and the purpose of the communication, for example. Thus learners mat need to be able to use formal as well as casual style of speaking,
> 2- Message focus: learners need to be able to create and understand messages, that is, real meaning,
> 3- Psycholinguistic processing: CLT activities seek to engage learners in the use of cognitive and other processes that are important factors n second language question,
> 4- Risk taking: learners are encouraged to make guesses and learn from their errors. By going beyond what they have been taught they are encourage to employ variety of communication strategies,
> 5- Free practice: CLT encourages the use of "holistic practice" involving the simultaneous use a verity of sub-skills, rather than practicing individual skills one piece at a time" (p. 173).

As for the presentation of grammar, Brown (1987) states that "grammatical structure might better be subsumed under various functional categories. In CLT we pay considerably less attention to the over presentation and discussion of grammatical rules

than we traditionally did. A great deal of use of authentic language is implied in CLT, as we attempt to build fluency. It is important to note, however, that fluency should never be encouraged at the expense of clear, unambiguous, direct communication" (As cited in Vossoughi, 2000, p. 96).

Similarly, Berns (1984) adds that "language is interaction; it is interpersonal activity and has a clear relationship with society. In this light,, language study has to look at the use (function) of language in context, both its linguistic context (what is uttered before and after a given piece of discourse) and its social, or situational, context (who is speaking, what their social roles are, why they have come together to speak)" (p. 5).

With these broad definitions and features, any teaching practice in CLT that helps English language learners develop their communicative competence requires authenticity. Thus, in the classroom CLT often takes the form of pair and group work requiring negotiation and cooperation among students.

Consequently, fluency-based activities encourage learners to develop and increase their confidence. Role-plays are also examples of such activities in which students practice language functions in combination with activities focusing on the use of grammar and pronunciation.

In CLT, learners are to take part in classroom activities that are based on a cooperative rather than an individualistic approach. They are also expected to become comfortable with listening to their peers in pair or group work tasks, rather than relying on the instructors as a model. In a nutshell, learners contribute as much as they gain in the classroom.

The teacher's role is also one of the different aspects of CLT from other approaches and methods. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) point out, "teacher's role is about to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, to guide learners between students activities and texts, and to get them to act as an independent participants within the learning-teaching group. So, the teacher takes the role of a facilitator or monitor rather than a model for correct speech and the one with the primary responsibility of making students produce plenty of error-free sentences.

The teacher is to develop a different view of student's errors and of his/her own role in facilitating language learning" (p-123).

In this sense, Breen and Candlin (1980) stated that, "CLT the instructor in one hand should facilitate communication process among participants in classroom and between the different activities. In the other hand, s/he acted as an independent participant. S/he has to be a guide within the classroom procedures and activities" (p. 99).

Instructional materials can be reincarnated into materials which are a means of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. In other words, they encourage or discourage communicative language use in the classroom.

In accordance with this idea, Tomlinson (2011) states that, "materials are anything which is used to help language learners to learn. Materials can be in the form, for example, of textbook, a workbook, a cassette, a CD-ROM, a video, a photocopied handout, a newspaper, a paragraph written on a whiteboard: anything which presents or informs about the language being learned" (p. xiv).

Speaking is a skill which CLT frequently puts an emphasis on. Being at the center of language learning and teaching, speaking requires a great deal of attention especially within a communicative framework such as CLT.

2.2 TEACHING SPEAKING IN ELT

The importance of teaching speaking in ELT has been emphasized many times. Ur (1996) also points out that speaking seems naturally the most important skill because "People who know a language are alluded to as speakers of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of skills, and many, if not most foreign language learners are essential intrigued by figuring out how to talk. In addition to this prominence among other skills, some authors came with this approval that, speaking in a second or foreign language has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills" (p. 46).

Furthermore, numerous language learners believed speaking capability as the measure of mastering a language. These learners characterize fluency as the capacity to have a talk with others, considerably more than the capability to read, write, or comprehended oral language.

He also add that "we need to learn how to ask the acceptable and expected questions, how to greet, console, and keep interaction moving, in a nonacademic context, these might involve basic greetings, interacting with school personnel...with adults in an academic context, authentic practice in activities and skills required in post-secondary school classrooms would be central; giving oral presentations listening to content lectures, reading academic texts, and the like" (p-47).

Wilson (1997) claims that children who can translate their thoughts and ideas into words are more likely to succeed in school whereas students who do not develop good listening and speaking skill will have life-long consequences due to of their deficit.

Jeremy Harmer (2008) sums up three main reasons for getting students to speak in the classroom.

"Firstly, speaking activities provide rehearsal opportunities- chances to practice real-life speaking in the safety of the classroom.

Secondly, speaking tasks in which students try to use any or all of the languages they know provide feedback for both teacher and students. Everyone can see how well they are doing: both how successful they are, and also what language problems they are experiencing.

Finally, the more students have opportunities to activate the various elements of language they have stored in their brains, the more automatic their use of these elements become. As a result, students gradually become autonomous language users. This means that they will be able to use words and phrases fluently without very much conscious thought" (p. 123).

Bygate (1996) also highlights the need to teach speaking in a language classroom stating that "motor-perceptive skills, which are concerned with correctly using the sounds and structures of the language, and interactional skills, which involve using motor-perceptive skills for the purposes of communication. Motor-perceptive skills are developed in the language classroom through activities such as model dialogues, pattern practice, and oral drills and so on" (p. 134).

Speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching. Today's world requires that the goal of teaching speaking should improve students' communicative skills, so that learners can express themselves and learn how to follow the social and cultural rules appropriately in each communicative circumstance.

Thornbury (2004) emphasizes the significance of teaching speaking in a language classroom stating "the teaching of speaking depends on there being a classroom culture of speaking, and that classrooms need to become 'talking classrooms'. In other words, students will be much more confident speakers (and their speaking abilities will improve) if this kind of speaking activation is a regular feature of lessons" (p. 67).

As for what is the end result of teaching speaking, Nunan (1996) comes up with certain characteristics of a successful oral communication, which are:

- "The ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly,
- Mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns; an acceptable degree of fluency,
- Transactional and interpersonal skills,
- Skills in taking short and long speaking turns,
- Skills in the management of the interaction,
- Skills in negotiating meaning,
- Conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers),
- Skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations,
- Using appropriate conversational formula and fillers" (p.67).

In order to map the territory regarding speaking as a skill and teaching it, one has to take a closer look at what it really is in detail.

2.2.1 DEFINITION OF SPEAKING

Speaking is "the process of building through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney, 1998, p. 13).

Other researchers have provided definitions, too. One of them is Ziahosseiny (2009), who suggest that speaking can be seen as an interactive skill which includes negotiation or decoding of meaning or social relationship between participants. So, speaking skill is considered as the art of communication that must be comprehended in learning foreign language.

Speaking well is the demonstration of creating words that could be understood by language receiver. Speaking is not always easy to be achieved especially in a foreign language.

Brown (2007) comes up with several reasons for that: "A number of the characteristics of speaking lead to this complexity. These include clustering (i.e., speech is segmented into thought groups rather than single words, and even single words be contracted); hesitation markers and pausing; colloquial language, including slang and idioms; and suprasegmental features including stress, rhythm, and intonation" (as cited in Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Snow, 2014, p. 106).

Chastain (1971) also suggest that "speaking involves expressing ideas, expressing a desire to do something, negotiating meaning and establishing social relationships and friendship, and as such it is generally an interactive skill unless an uninterrupted oral presentation is being given and he calls one-way speech"(as cited in Ziahosseiny, 2009, p. 136).

Taylor (1983) mentions some features of communication in real-language situations:

"1- Participants must be able to comprehended meaning that is conveyed at a level beyond that of the sentence.

2- They have a purpose, which is to bridge some information gap.

3- They always have the choice of what to say and how to say it.

4- They have an objective in mind while they are talking.

5- They have to attend to many factors at the same time" (as cited in Chastain, 1988, p. 277).

It can be said that there are two basic language functions as Brown and Yule (1983) outline. These are the transactional function, which is primarily concerned with the transfer of information, and the interactional function, in which the primarily purpose of speech is the maintenance of social relationships.

As they go on to explain further, "When communication involves factual or propositional information, such as when a policeman gives direction to a driver, it is referred to as transactional. However, when spoken communication is concerned with establishing and maintaining social roles, it is termed interactional/ interpersonal communication.

Here, usually the content of the conversation may not be as important as the ability of the participants to establish and maintain relationship; the objective is to develop the learner's ability to point at which they can concentrate on the message rather than on the code. This is a skill which L2 learners need to learn and practice in length" (p. 132).

Speaking is not limited to these two functions, though. As Bygate (2002) states, speaking as a productive skill in a second language involves and entails the development of a particular type of communication skills. Because of its circumstances of production, oral language tends to be varied from written language in its typical grammar, lexical and discourse patterns. In addition, some of the processing skills needed in speaking differ from those enrolled in reading and writing.

In addition to the aforementioned differences, there are also four autonomous processing stages in speech production identified by Levelt (1989), which are conceptualizing the message, formulating the language representation, articulating the message and self-monitoring (as cited in Carter and Nunan, 2002, p. 16).

When regarded as a whole, speaking requires that English language learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but also they comprehend when, why and in what ways to produce language (sociolinguistic competence) as Cunningham (1999) correctly puts.

2.2.2 TYPES OF SPEECH

Spoken language can be seen as a vast subject in the field of (ELT), and a little is known as a hard statistical term of the distribution of different types of speech in people's everyday lives.

Here, to enlist a number of different types of speech and consider how much of each day or week we spent to be engaged in each one, we can only roughly guess at some types of frequency ranking, other than to state that the rest will depend on our daily occupation and what kinds of contacts we have with other. Some different types of speech might be:

- Telephone calls (business and private)

- Service encounters (shops, ticket office)

- Interviews (jobs, journalistic, in official settings)

- Classroom (classes, seminars, lectures, tutorials)

- Monologues (speeches, stories, jokes)

- Rituals (church prayers, sermons, wedding)

- Casual conversation (strangers, friends, intimates) (McCarthy, 2005, 118).

Meyer (2009) details the aforementioned categories further in the following figure:
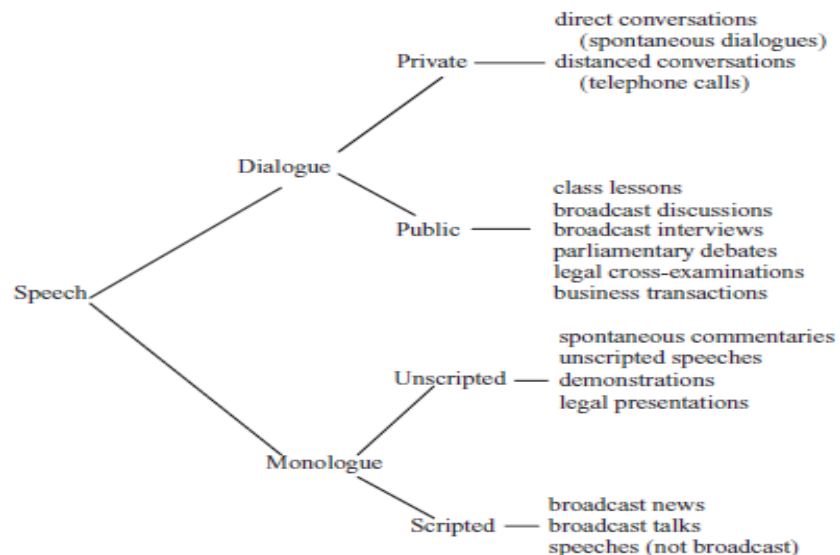
Figure 1: Speech (p. 85)

As shown above, "if speech is dialogic, this would include two or more speakers engaged in conversation privately for example, over dinner in someone's home or publicly such taking part in an interview on a radio program or TV show broadcast.

If speech is monologic it will include a single individual speaking extemporaneously or from prepared documents, such as an advocate who gives a final statement at the end of a court trail, may work from notes but on the whole speak spontaneously. On the other side, when someone address a formal speech s/he will read from a prepared scribed then may produce that text in a little different way form that written scribed" (p. 86).

Since in CLT authenticity is important, these samples of speech can easily be utilized in the classroom, too.

2.3 TEACHING SPEAKING IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHNG

Communicative Language Teaching is based on real-life situations that require communication. Using this method in ESL classes, students will have the opportunity of communicating with each other in the target language in order to have a good chance of raising their level of fluency.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that, "the range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require to use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing" (p. 165).

In accordance with that, H.D. Brown (2007) mentions some principles for teaching speaking skills.

"1-focus on both fluency and accuracy.

2-provide intrinsically motivating techniques.

3-encourage the use of authentic language.

4-provide appropriate feedback and correction.

5-capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening.

6-give students opportunities to initiate oral communication.

7-encourage the development of speaking strategies" (p. 145).

2.3.1 ACCURACY AND FLUENCY

It is evident that accuracy refers to the use of correct forms where utterance do not contain errors affecting the phonological, syntactic, semantic or discourse features of a language (Bryne, 1988, p. 131). It also refers to the correctness of the language being produced by the speaker, and refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. There are some details that are concerned with the accuracy such as clear and articulate speaking or writing, language free from grammar mistakes, words spelled and pronounced correctly, and language appropriate for the situation and the context.

On the other hand the fluency is devoted "to the ability to get across communicative intent without too much hesitation and too many pauses to cause barriers or a breakdown in communication" (Crystal, 1977, p-134).

In a nutshell, fluency is the ability to produce written and spoken language with ease, speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation, vocabulary and grammar, communicate ideas effectively, and produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown in communication.

In the light of the information on accuracy and fluency, the development of speaking should be touched upon in two separate sections: pre-communicative and communicative. At the level of pre-communicative framework, the aim is to present students with a functioning language system, and to give them practice in the various functions so that when they wish to express something, they can concentrate on what they want to say rather than on how to say it.

To develop this ability, learners are expected to respond to teacher prompts by using instances of language which are usually predictable; that is far more control of the form of language. Language activities are designed to foster accuracy that is, speaking skills, at this stage, are accuracy- focused to a large extent. In other words, the development of the speaking skill proceeds from reproduction to production, from stress on pronunciation to manipulation of structural forms to expression of ideas.

At the level of communication, the objective will be to help students use the language in the performance of tasks that is negotiation of meaning. Here, Harmer (2009) states that "the interaction is far less teacher-centered and focuses on learners speaking to each other a specific reason in order to achieve a specific outcome. Language activities are designed to foster fluency rather than accuracy. The emphasis is far more open-ended with the whole target language being an instrument for communication, rather than an object of study. Thus, activities are designed to development shall be further examined in the following section" (pp. 137-138).

3.3.2 TYPES OF SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

In order to get students to speak both accurately and fluently, there are certain activities and tasks a teacher can provide them with because it is widely known that students will not learn to speak fluently merely by hearing speech in class or reading, although hearing and reading are important for familiarizing them with accepted forms and the flow of authentic speech and text and that they need to be provided with opportunities to practice speaking and use the language in the expression of their own meaning. This must be encouraged even when they have very limited resources on which to draw.

In this case, to develop the ability of fluent conversation, it is essential for English language learners to have a practice in the supra-segmental features of the new language, such as stress, intonation, and juncture phenomena (elisions, liaisons, release of final consonants). This is the area where interference from native language is the strongest effect. They need to be practiced frequently in the context of appropriate utterance.

Practice can be seen that, as an essential on the characteristic features of every day spoken language. Candidates may be able to talk fluently about books, school, faculty member, but be quite unable to ask for air to be put in the tires of their car or the price of a pair of gloves, or a new movie. The learners should not only learn to speak the language fluently by practice in question and answer on a reading or listening passage. This common procedure does not provide adequate preparation for informal conversation.

Students should practice important features of conversations such as leave–taking, greeting, expressions of impatience, surprise; expression of agreement forms of question and noncommittal answer, and appropriate levels of language for specific situations and relationships. The clichés of the language must be presented as embedded in typical acts of communication affairs, rather than being learned artificially or mechanically in lists as isolated phrases.

While in discussion of listening and reading, "students are mostly presented in the third person; they must now learn to speak in the first and second person. They learn to ask questions as well as answer them, to speak in short sentences and to reply in incomplete sentences which do not repeat all the elements of the question. As a result, practice should involve classroom learning activities that ensure that students understand the situational context, that is, the place, the time of day, and the type of activity involved. They should also ensure that students understand the relationships among the participants in conversation, that is, their appropriate age, sex, occupation, and authority patterns, as well as the emotional overtones of their conversation, such as friendly, hostile, teaching, etc. …All these factors affect the level of language used and the choice of utterance and vocabulary" (Ziahosseiny, 2009, pp. 143-144).

Bearing all these in mind, it is possible to say that classroom speaking tasks play critical rule in the development student's communicative competence. This mission includes different components such as interpretation, expression, and negotiation or decoding of meaning encouraging interaction process among language learners through achieving classroom activities. In accordance with this English language instructors face many challenges to further this process as Chastain (1988) very well puts:

> "One of the greatest challenges facing language teachers is that of creating new and more productive ways to help students develop communication skills. On the one hand, language students have much to learn. They have to learn about how the language functions, either consciously or subconsciously, and they have to develop fluency in activating that knowledge to communicate. On the other hand, they have only a small amount of time to absorb the knowledge and to develop the necessary skills. Class time is an extremely limited resource. Even students who have studied language in high school for four years have probably had no more than 700 hours of interaction, an amazingly small number of hours compared to the experiences and practice of native speakers. Considering the even smaller number of hours spent participating in communication

activities causes one to be much more appreciative of how well many students do learn to communicate. Consequently, teachers have to model and find suitable activities to enhance and support language learners to take active part to achieve the assigned tasks integrally   in order to be able to integrate productive speaking activities into their classroom sequence, instructors should assist or guide students to develop the prerequisite attitudes, expectations, ideas, and skills" (pp. 284-288).

This technique can be considered as a process and a skill that reflected language learner's inner most potential abilities of language learning over time. These abilities of knowledge can be progressed or developed in practice of this mode of activity over time for solving or dealing with immediate problems so as to achieve a goal which is assigned to groups work more than individual ones. English language learners in groups would find out the easiest way in terms of treating with such activities to get right solutions of problem-solving tasks. There were many tasks can be assigned to students, especially the course book includes variable techniques to deal with.

There are many communicative activities, all of which aim to get students talking as quickly and fluently as possible. Harmer (2009) mentions that, "there are many games depend on an information gap: one student has to talk to a partner in order to solve a puzzle, draw a picture (describe and draw), put things in the right order (describe and arrange) or finds similarities and differences between pictures" (349-p).

Moreover, we speak to give our opinion or to hear other people's opinions. This kind of activity is called an opinion gap activity. Lindsay and Knight (2006) state that "discussion activities give learners the chance to speak freely and express themselves. It is helpful to structure a discussion activity by giving learners enough information about what they will be talking about, and giving them enough time to think about what they want to say" (p-66).

Problem-solving and role-play can be said to be two examples of activities that can improve language learners' speaking performance in terms of accuracy and fluency. As Brown (2000) suggests, "problem solving group techniques focus on the group's solutions of a specified problem. They might or might not involve jigsaw characteristics, and the problem itself might be relatively simple (such as giving direction on a map), moderately complex (such as working out and initially from a train,

plane, and bus schedules), or quite complex (such as solving mystery in a 'crime story' or dealing with a political or moral dilemma). Once again, problem solving techniques center student's attention on meaningful cognitive challenges and not so much on grammatical or phonological forms" (pp: 185-186).

An example for a problem-solving activity would be as in the following: "Learners are given the characters profiles of four different people, each of whom wishes to be elected as a local leader. It can be seen from the contains of the material provided that each processes some negative qualities and learners have to discuses and decide in pairs or small groups, whom they would wish to elect, giving their reasons in their case" (Donough and Shaw, 2003, p. 145).

This kind of activity can help and further student's language knowledge through their interaction as well as exchange information with each other in achieving classroom activities. They interact with each other and try their best to find solution.

Ziahosseiny (2009) also emphasizes the usefulness of problem-solving activities pointing out Duff's (1986) findings: "convergent tasks such as problem- solving, in which the views of all learners must converge to provide the answer, produce more comprehensible input than divergent tasks, such as debates which end up with divergent views and arguments" (p. 151).

Another group of activities that prove to be useful is role-play. One of the important points when one uses role-plays in the classroom is that students need to completely understand what they are expected to do in the activity with the help of the detailed information the teacher provides them with. Otherwise, the aims of the activity cannot be realized. Below is how a typical role-play activity rolls in the classroom:

```
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                         Oral fluency activity                              │
│           Reaching a consensus about five objects to take into space.      │
│                                   ↓                                        │
│                    Students read about a space station                     │
│   Predicting the content based on the title; reading to confirm predictions; reading again for detail. │
│                                   ↓                                        │
│                  Students devise an ending for the story                   │
│                                   ↓                                        │
│                            Language study                                  │
│   Using the space station situation to make sentences about what people should/shouldn't have done. │
│                                   ↓                                        │
│                   Immediate creativity/personalisation                     │
│              Students talk about things they should/shouldn't have done.   │
│                                   ↓                                        │
│                           Interview role-play                              │
│      Students plan and role-play interviews for jobs as members of a space station crew. │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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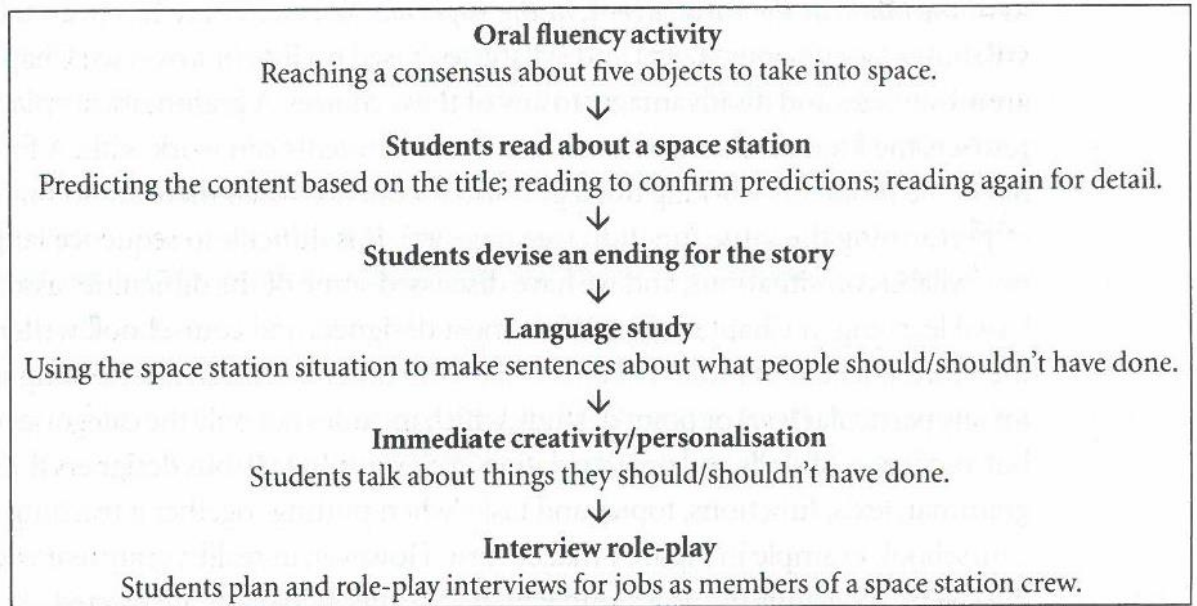
Figure 2: A lesson sequence (Harmer, 2009, p.370)

Harmer (2009) highlights three advantages of simulation and role-play activities as in the following: "In the first place, they can be good fun and are thus motivating. Secondly, they allow hesitant students to be more forthright in their opinions and behavior without having to take responsibility for what they say in the way that they do when they are speaking for themselves. Thirdly, by broadening the world of the classroom to include the world outside, they allow students to use a much wider range of language than some more task-centred activities may do" (p. 353).

Despite the well-known uses of communicative activities in teaching speaking, being familiar with the procedure behind them is also important, which makes it a necessity to mention classroom procedures at the next stage.

2.3.3 CLASSROOM PROCEDURES

There are certain ways to teach speaking when the teacher has the goals and objectives in mind as well as the activities and the tasks to go with them.

Nunan (1996) proposes two distinct ways to teach speaking: "One can apply the bottom-up/top- down distinction to speaking. The bottom up approach to speaking suggests that speakers start with the smallest unit of language, i.e. individual sounds, and move through mastery of words and sentences to discourse.

The top down view, on the other hand, suggests that speakers start with the larger chunks of language, which are embedded in meaningful contexts, and use their knowledge of these contexts to comprehend and use correctly the smaller elements of language" (p. 98).

The input-output relationship is another significant aspect in the classroom procedure, which is why Harmer (2007) brings it up stating that "Students get input especially in relation to their own output. When a student produces a piece of language and sees how it turns out, that information is fed back into the acquisition process. Output -and the students' response to their own output – becomes input" (p. 266). and illustrating it in Figure 3.
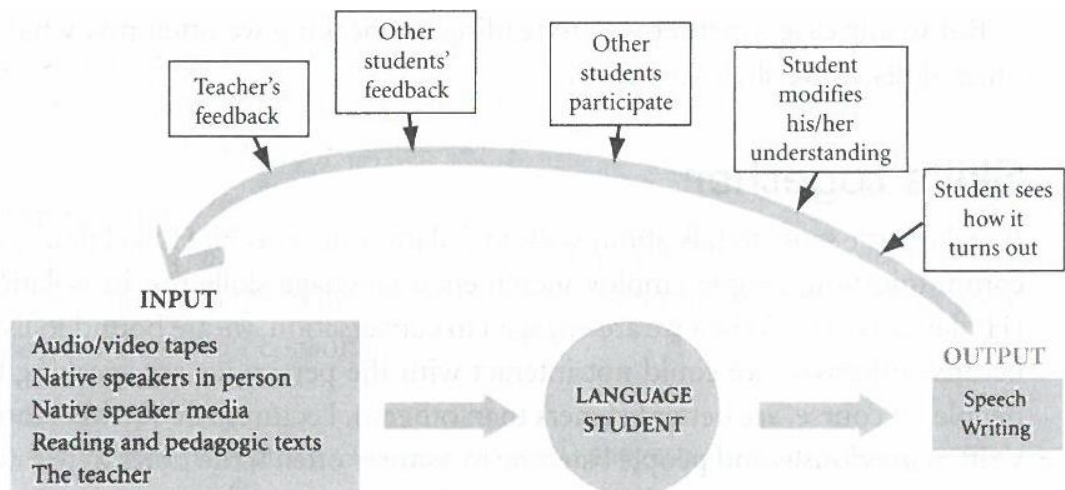
FIGURE 1: The circle of input and output

Figure 3: The circle of input and output (Harmer, 2007, p. 266).

Classroom interaction also plays an essential role in speaking classes. Interaction, as a standalone concept, occurs when two or more people have a talk to each other about things that they think are mutually interesting and relevant in the daily life situation. In such a case the speaker's aim can be to pass the time, to share opinions or to get something done, or they can aim to do variable actions of these and other things at once.

The point in their interaction is that they do these things together. For these interactions it is possible to say "each participant is both a speaker and a listener; they construct the event together and share the right to influence the out-comes-which can be both shared and individual" (Louoma, 2008, p. 20).

Classroom interaction carries the same qualities as interaction itself; it refers to "the interaction between the teacher and learners, and amongst the learners, in the classroom. Earlier studies of second language classroom interaction focused on the language used by the teacher and learners, the interaction generated, and their effect on L2 learning. More recent studies have begun to investigate the underlying factors which shape interaction in the classroom e.g. teacher and learner beliefs, social and cultural background of the teacher and learners, and the psychological aspects of second and foreign language learning- providing further insights into the complexities of classroom interaction" (Carter and Nunan, 2002, p. 120).

How students' mistakes are corrected and how they get feedback is especially important since learners' anxiety is usually at its highest in speaking.

Many English teachers are concerned about learners' errors because they do not want them to become fossilized, that is, to become so ingrained in the students' linguistic system that they are not subject to do correction.

This is a legitimate concern and one that all language teachers must address. Chastain (1988) comes up with an idea to resolve the dilemma suggesting "to do so they should ask themselves the following questions:

1-Is the goal of the course to learn correct grammatical forms, to develop functional communication skills, or both?

2- How important to communication is the ability to use correct grammatical forms?

3-What is the effect on students' attitudes and classroom participation of being constantly corrected by the teacher?

4-What is the effect of correction on students' ability to use correct language forms in the future?" (p. 280).

Types of errors are also important in error correction. Valero, Fernandez, and Clarkson (2008) classify errors as global and local errors and propose that "global errors cause an utterance to be difficult to understand, while local errors do not" (p. 23).

It should be borne in mind that when learners have to be engaged in a speaking task, instant and intrusive correction is often not appropriate since it can intermix with the flow of the activity and inhibit students just at the moment when they should be trying harder to enhance their language knowledge. But through study sessions, correction is supposed to be used more as it helps to clarify the language in students' minds.

Similarly, Harmer (2009) states that "because correction involves pointing out people's mistakes, we have to tread carefully. If we do it in an intensive way, we can upset our students and dent their confidence. Moreover, what is appropriate for one student may be quite wrong for another? In general, the teacher's job is to point out when something has gone wrong- and see if the students can correct themselves. Maybe what they said or wrote was just a slip and they are able to put it right straightaway" (p. 97).

Like everything in teaching, error correction is highly contextual; that is, how and when it is conveyed is heavily dependent on the setting, the teacher, the learners and the relationship between them as Harmer (2009), too, suggests: "A supportive vision in terms of correcting learners therefore, the best kind of correction is gentle one. There are no hard and fast rules about correcting. Some teachers who have a good relationship with their students can intervene appropriately during a speaking activity if they do it in a quite non-obtrusive way. This kind of gentle correction might take the form of reformulation where the teacher repeats what the student has said, but correctly this time, and does not ask for students' repetition of the corrected form. Some students do prefer to be told at exactly the moment they make a mistake; but we always have to be careful to make sure that our actions do not compromise the activity in question" (p. 131).

As for feedback, it is possible to say that giving feedback is just as contextual as error correction; taking decisions about how to react to performance will depend upon the stage level of the lesson, the activity, the type of mistake made and the particular student who is committing that mistakes or errors.

To enhance learning feedback can be considered as a technique which assisted students to improve their language skills effectively. Ongoing feedback can support learners in terms of their educational process.

As Askew (2007) states: "In everyday use, positive feedback refers to judgments implying satisfaction with the learner's performance and negative feedback implies criticism and the need for changes. The recipient is assumed to welcome the former and the fear the latter. Our experience of killer feedback points to different conceptions of 'positive' and 'negative' feedback. We suggest that 'positive' feedback is only positive if it helps learning. The impact of positive feedback may be to motivate, for example, by increasing confidence, making new meaning, increasing understanding, helping to make links and connections. Negative feedback demotivates, for example, by discouraging, being overly judgmental, critical, giving unclear or contradictory messages and encouraging dependence on others for assessing progress. It is the experience of the recipient of the feedback which determines whether the gift is positive or negative" (2000, p. 7).

In a nutshell, feedback can be seen as a completed action which includes the instructor's overall assessment of the process, usually this contains the grade. Most teachers also, provide advice and behavior to modify or improve students' performance, to further their educational career forwardly.

2. 3. 4 TEACHER AND LEARNER ROLES

The roles teachers and learners play in the classroom procedures while the activities are being carried out are another component of successful learning and teaching processes.

In terms of the teacher's role in the speaking lesson, teacher talk almost always carries a risk in that some teachers get to be involved with their students during a speaking activity and they even want to participate in the activity themselves. They may argue forcefully in a discussion or get fascinated by role-play and start 'playing' themselves.

There's nothing wrong with teachers getting involved of course as long as they do not 'dominate' the activities. Although it is probably better to stand back so that you can watch and listen to what is going on, students can also appreciate teacher participation at the appropriate level- in other words not too much.

In CLT, teachers are supposed to intervene in some way "if the activity is not going smoothly. If someone in a role-play cannot think of what to say, or if a discussion beings to dry up, the teacher will have to decide if the activity should be stopped – because the topic has run out of steam-or if careful prompting can get it going again. That's where the teacher may make a point in a discussion or quickly take on a role to push a role- play forward. Prompting is often necessary but, as with correction, teacher should do it sympathetically and sensitivity" (Harmer, 2009, p. 132).

In order to conduct speaking tasks and activities properly, the teacher is in charge of modeling and providing his/her students with most suitable tasks, these tasks should meet students' ability to master the language in terms of proficiency levels.

Fulcher (2012) can be said to be in agreement here: "Teachers are required to create a curriculum that covers all the necessary skills and abilities within each standard at the class level" (p. 2830).

Chastain (1988) sums it up stating "the students' role during speaking activities involves affective, social, and cognitive factors. Interaction in small groups is productive only if students have the confidence and interest to participate actively. These factors are also dependent on social relationships and a classroom atmosphere in which students are willing to cooperate with the teacher and each other. It is also important that students think about the topic during the pre-speaking activities and homework preparation so that they have ideas to contribute to the classroom interchange. During speaking activities, the teacher's responsibility is classroom management. The student's task is to create a comprehensible exchange of idea to

accomplish the communication goals while the teacher's is to supervise and assist, to encourage and stimulate. He establishes the context and the task" (p. 288).

2. 4 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter briefly focused on previous methods and approaches in teaching English so far. It also provided an outlook on how speaking is taught in language classrooms where Communicative Language Teaching is adopted.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

3. 0 PRESENTATION

This chapter includes the information how the study is designed, who participated in it, and how the data was collected and analyzed.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study a descriptive design is used in order to "describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually and accurately" (Isaac & Michael, 1997, p. 18).

The study is of an experimental nature which entails the selection of two groups randomly of both genders to administer the pre-test and post-test. After the administration of the post-test, the results of both groups were compared to see if there is a significant difference between them. As Good (1973) explains, "the design of the experiment includes the selection of two groups randomly. Both groups of subjects are submitted to per-test, and then the dependence variable is administered only to the experimental group. The scores of both groups on the dependent variable are compared to see if there is a significant difference between the two groups" (p. 384).

In the case of this study, the experimental group was taught speaking more communicatively while the control group received instruction conventionally with no intervention or change at all. The goal was to find out if the experimental group would yield a significant speaking difference as compared with control group in terms of fluency.

3.2 PARTICIPANTS

The tested groups of this study were students from Iraqi intermediate schools in Governorate of Dhi-Qar. These participants were chosen randomly from AL-Ghad Elmubarek and AL-Nesoor intermediate schools with the co-operation of the General

Directorate of Education in Dhi-Qar Province and the data was collected in the second semester of the 2013-2014 academic year.

The demographic information of the participants can be seen in Tables 1 and 2.

Table (1) Demographics of the experimental group (A):

Name of the school	Number of participants	Gender
AL-Ghad Elmubarek	15	Male
AL-Nesoor	15	Female
Total	30	

Table (2) Demographics of the control group (B):

Name of the school	Number of participants	Gender
AL-Ghad Elmubarek	15	Male
AL-Nesoor	15	Female
Total	30	

The total number of the participants in the study was 60, which was divided into two groups to achieve the predetermined goal of the research, namely experimental and control group. The experimental group was composed of 30 participants of 15 male students and 15 female participants. Similarly, the control group was consisted of 30 participants, 15 of which was male and 15 of which was female.

3.3 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

In the study it was decided that written questionnaires should be administered to the target teachers and students before proceeding with the instructional experience. The questions that were asked to the English language teachers of experimental and control groups were:

- Did you follow the strategy of group work as an instructional tactic regarding productive classroom tasks like speaking?

- As a school teacher, do you have sufficient information on managing classroom activities that meet the criteria the Communicative Approach provides?

- Do your students have the ability to express themselves during real life-like activities like oral interaction among themselves?

- Do you pay attention to some nonlinguistic factors such as oral or written feedback or motivation over the instructional processes with your students?

- Do you adapt extra activities inside the classroom to enhance students' level of fluency while recycling productive skills?

- Why is there negative washback inside the scholastic environment?

Teachers' responses were analyzed as a part of the experimental study. In terms of the first question, most of the teachers did not follow group work to cover productive activities. This was due to lack of experience in addition to the fact that they adopt classical strategies to deal with these skills. The teachers explain that they do not have enough theoretical information about how to maneuver or how to use effective tactics to manage such activities.

Moreover, the students do not have the ability to express themselves or how to deal with the speaking part practically. It is clear that the students are already demotivated. The type of feedback that the learners were exposed to was incidental and that is due to a teacher being under-skilled. Additionally, there were no extra activities to enhance students' communicative competence. Therefore, the classroom environment is ill-equipped. It is worth noting that students in such scholastic situations could not recycle or find and opportunity to increase their fluency levels, so the backwash was clearly negative for both parties, i.e. teachers and learners.

The questions that were answered by English language learners in the experimental and control groups were:

- How do you find the instructional conditions inside your classroom; were they good or bad? Why?
- Do you find classroom activities interesting? Why?
- What do you think about the way the teacher deals with speaking activities? Is it helpful or not? Why?
- Do you try to mime the speaking classroom activities inside and outside the school?
- Do you find classroom tasks and materials helpful enough to understand and recycle the language comprehensibly?

Analysis of students' responses revealed that instructional conditions were not good because the learners found themselves dealing with mechanical styles of teaching such as listing words with their translations to L1. Therefore, the classroom environment was not supportive and the management of tasks were poor, which resulted in students' lacking opportunities to use English language and being exposed to an overdose of structuralism.

The teachers stuff students with a lot of concentration on syntax. The teachers are making use of audio lingual strategies instead of the principles of communicative approach. The students were not given a chance to develop their speaking skills inside or outside the school. Speaking activities were arranged classically without a positive classroom environment in mind. The input was incomprehensible causing students' affective filter to be high.

English language teachers' views after the experimental process

The same questions were assigned only to the experimental teachers in order to explore their attitudes after dealing with the experimental process in terms of adapting communicative strategies. In accordance with this, the teachers stated that, their strategies to deal with curricular speaking activities changed effectively. They managed speaking tasks by adopting pair and group work because they explored their effective outcomes in students' performances.

In addition, they discovered the practicality of verbal feedback as well as the ways to motivate students. English language teachers also understood the benefits of exposing students to authentic materials by employing technological equipment to enhance and develop students' speaking performances. For instance, they adopted visual and audio materials.

These communicative strategies and possibilities were clearly helpful for both parties, i.e. teachers and students. Thus, it is clear to find that, the washback impact changed to be positive in terms of speaking activities as well as students' attitude toward following their instructors' lead.

English language learners' views after the experimental process.

The experimental group explain that they were excited about taking part in this experience, which reflected a positive environment. They also stated that they were not bored because the instructional conditions were clearly different when compared to classical and outdated methods that they were previously exposed to. The students found themselves in a challenging pedagogical situation that triggered their speaking abilities to use language communicatively with self-confidence.

The speaking tasks were managed by the teachers comprehensively because the instructors modeled their strategic techniques and used them to motivate their learners as well as to encourage them to interact orally by using the target language.

The teachers as monitors gave feedback to students from time to time regarding their performance in oral activities. They attracted students' attention by employing

some extra game activities in order to decrease students' affective filter and make the tasks interestingly flexible.

Adopting such kind of good strategic planning and effective practices helped teachers to pave the way for students' development of their fluency levels. They tried to use the target language inside and outside the school. This reflected that their attitudes were promising and that their affective filters were low enough to improve their speaking skills in terms of fluency.

The data for the study was collected with speaking activities such as role-play and problem-solving functioning as pre- and post-tests. These tests were administered on both groups while they were studying Units 1, 5 and 6 of their course book, Iraqi Opportunities7.

3.3.1 PRE- TEST

The pre-test was administered in the second scholastic semester 2013-2014 of April to both the experimental and the control group. It functioned as a means of finding out how fluent the participants are at the very beginning of the study.

The pre-test was designed in accordance with the activities and tasks in the fifth unit of Iraqi Opportunities. Students were supposed to use basic patterns and vocabulary items or strategic procedures of speaking concerns that they had already learnt. The title of the assigned activity was called 'talk about an event' (see Appendix 4).

Here, the assigned task was about to get the students to interact with an imaginary event. The students were provided with questions as cues to help them to construct such an event. This task can tell us about students' ability to deal with this type of productive speaking activity (role- play).

3.3.2 POST- TEST

Participants took the post-test which was similar to the design of the pre-test. It was based on three tasks that were chosen from units one, two, and six of the course book 'Iraq Opportunities.7'. The post-test was administered in May 2013-2014.

According to these activities students had to use their own vocabulary to express their thought in a fluent way (see Appendices 4,5 and 6).

The first assigned task was titled ' giving directions', where the students had to work as group to adapt the scenario stating like "Where are you in the hotel? Your partner gives you direction to another place." The second task was titled 'preparing a menu' Where the students had to interact to create an imaginary conversation between a waiter and a customer. The third task was an extra activity titled 'Question- Answer Ball Throw'. It entailed the participants to interact with each other to exchange questions and answers.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

First, two groups of participants with the aforementioned qualities were selected for the study. After they were grouped into two as the control group and the experimental group with the help of the teachers contributing to the study at the Al-Ghed Al-Mobark Intermediate School and the Al-Nossore Secondary School, the pre-test was administered.

Following the collection of first group of data, the treatment stage followed, which lasted for two months. During the treatment, the experimental group was taught the same language content with the same course materials with a communicative approach, whereas the control group received instruction in a traditional manner, in other words with no change in teaching speaking.

As soon as the treatment ended with the experimental group, the post-test was administered. Finally, both tests were graded by the contributing teachers.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

The first stage of the data analysis was to grade the participants' performances in the pre- and the post-test. It was done with the criteria Doff (1990) provides as in the following:

CONTENT	1	2	3	4	5
FLUENCY	1	2	3	4	5

Table (3): Evaluation of speaking performance (Doff, 1990, p. 267)

In this table, number 1 represents the worst level of performance, while grade 5 reflects the best performance. The final top score is 10 for the candidate who expresses herself / himself fluently without any difficulty in terms of accuracy.

But in case of some problematic pronunciation and with a limit of two to three sentences, we would grade her / him with 7 (3+4).

After the grading of the performances, the grades were transferred to SPSS and analyzed by adopting t.test formula so as to determine whether significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and the control group. Total grade of the participants cross the speaking activities tasks "T.test is used to compare to population means where we have two symbols in which observations in one sample can be paired with observations in the other sample" (Shier, 2004, p. 1).

T. test as an instrument was adopted so as to analyze the mean scores that derived from the speaking task so as to measure participants speaking outcomes. Participants' scores of the pre-and the post-test were gathered and compared at the end of the experiment. The dependent variables of participant's outcomes were revealed the significant different between the experimental and the control group in the assigned test so, the distribution of grading scale was 10 points for both pre and post-test.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 PRESENTATION

This chapter includes the results of the study as well as their discussion in reference to the research questions of this study.

4. 1 RESULT OF PRE- TEST

The populations of the study were selected randomly from Al-Ghed al-mobark intermediate school and Al-Nossore secondary school. The groups were selected from a large number from the aforementioned school we followed this technique to assigned the experiential and control group. Therefore, the selection was done by chance of the participants of this study so as to provide students an equal chance to join this study.

The total number of the participants was 60, divided as 30 in each sample. There were 15 female participants and 15 male participants. This process was administered and supervised by Directorate of Education in Dhi-Qar province.

It is important to equalize the experimental and control group according to their previous knowledge. The aim of this process (pre-knowledge) of the two tested groups was to gate a good idea of understanding about the students' level of speaking English, fluently. To achieve this purpose the assistance teachers address the participants some oral activities such as simulation ' doctor- patient situation'. So the obtained scores were displayed in the following table.

Table 4: Results of the tested groups' equalization

Group	N	X	SD	DF	CV	Result
Group (A)	30	55.9333	14.5482	58	2.0003	0.9611
Group (B)	30	51.1676	15.7832	58	2.0003	

In this table, group A was not significantly different from group B, T(58) =0.9611,p> .05. It was a clear that there was not statistically difference between the groups prior to the treatment.

The table below reveals that prior to the treatment both groups yielded the same results in the oral screen test of the pre-test.

Table 5: Result of the pre-test in the role play activity

Group	N	X	SD	DF	CV	Result
Group (A)	30	66.9333	14.2215	58	2.0003	1.1502
Group (B)	30	62.1676	14.7832	58	2.0003	

The teachers hang a poster on the board and started to explain some points related to the topic and ask students to use their imagination to cover the required interaction. However, the input was not enough to trigger students' imagination to interact and complete the task.

In this table, it is shown that, group (A) was not significantly different from group (B), t (58) = 1.1402, p> .05. So, participants' mean scores provides a clear picture that there was no meaningful difference between the two tested groups in achieving the role-play activity. It is also clear that the statistical outcome showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental group (A) and the control group (B).

4. 2 RESULTS OF POST- TEST

In the assigned task, 'customer and shop assistant', the participants were exposed to a conversation between a shop assistant and a customer in order to prepare the students to specific authentic situations. The students were exposed to target vocabulary items so that they would use them covering the task. In accordance with such a situation, the teacher brought a PC, cell phone, a football T-shirt and a watch in order to make the input visually comprehensible. The stages below were followed to conduct the task effectively.

Stage1: Half of the class is the customer and the other half is the shop assistant.

Customers:

You have 200,000 IQD to spend. Imagine you want to buy some of the things below. Think about details, e.g. a football t-shirt, a tennis poster, some gold earrings, etc.

Shop assistants:

Decide the price of the things.

A computer game, some earrings, a football shirt, a mobile phone, a poster, a sport bag, a T-shirt, a watch.

It is clear in table 6 that group (A) was significantly different from group (B), t (58) = 3.0566, p < .05. The t-test formula was 97% confident that the meant difference laid between 1.4936 and 16.3603. It was recognized after the treatment with the experimental group that there was an increased level of fluency in speaking as compared to the control group, which showed no clear progress in terms of using the productive skill in the desired manner.

Table 6: Results of post-test in terms of role-play

Group	N	X	SD	DF	CV	Result
Group (A)	30	67.9333	11.5482	58	2.0003	2.9611
Group (B)	30	60.1676	8.7832	58	2.0003	

On the other hand, it was preferred that the experimental group should be provided with an extra activity. It was an interesting game which can motivate students to interact effectively and express themselves freely. The teacher adopted the following procedure to manage the task:

The teacher is supposed to throw the ball to one student while asking him/her a question like "What is your name?". It is expected that the students interact with the teacher and return the ball with an answer to the teacher like "My name is Sami". The same procedure was repeated twice. Then the students had to cover this activity in pairs. This activity is supposed to be developed into more exchange of questions. For example,

T: What is the color of your eyes?

S: My eyes are blue. What is the color of your eyes?

T: My eyes are green.

Then the task is supposed to be extended as in the following:

T: What are warning today?

S: I am wearing a blue T-shirt. What are you wearing today?

T: I am wearing green suit.

Table 7: Results of post-test in terms of question-answer ball throw.

Group	N	X	SD	DF	CV	Result
Group (A)	30	68.6676	9.9491	58	2.0003	3.5797
Group (B)	30	58.2332	12.4946	58	2.0003	

As seen in table 7, group A was significantly different from group B, t (58) = 3.2091, p < . 05. Furthermore, the t.test was 96% confident that the meant difference laid between – 0.8468 and 13.1134. It means that there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group, which can be interpreted as a result of the treatment process.

In the last task the researcher planned to find to which extent the ongoing instruction and good planning increase students' fluency level according to the following task. It was about 'a hotel map' the experimental group was expected to use the target language outside the classroom communicatively.

The instructor adopted the following tactic to manage this activity properly. He hang the map chart on the board, then he asked the students about some targeted vocabulary items that were available in the chart in order to check their lexical background knowledge. If they could not recognize the meaning, students were supposed to check their meanings by using the attached mini- dictionary of their course book.

After that two students were expected to cover the task where one student had to ask for a specific location in the hotel, whereas the other student guided him giving specific directions.

Consequently, the whole instructional process helped the students improve their speaking performances. They liked the strategy of the task management as well as the fairness of the whole process. The best evidence reflected in the high grade of the last task.

Table 8: Results of post-test in terms of role play task of speaking.

Group	N	X	SD	DF	CV	Result
Group (A)	30	71.1336	9.766	58	2.0003	
Group (B)	30	61.2766	9.82206	58	2.0003	3.9293

As seen in table 8, group A was significantly different from group B, t (58) = 3.9139, p < . 05. The t.test formula was 96% confident that the mean difference between 1.1313 and 18.4020. It was clearly seen that the increasing development of the speaking skill was related to the experimental group, which received treatment.

The experimental group was clearly exposed to positive classroom environment like interaction and feedback, which resulted in students' taking active part in this activity. Students took their opportunity to interact with each other positively. On the other hand, the control group were not exposed to the same instructional environment. So, the outcomes were not promising. It was clear that group (A) improved their performance while learning English, whereas group (B) was not able to do that.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5. 0 PRESENTATION

In this chapter, the conclusions drawn as a result of the results of the study will be stated. In addition, some suggestions for all shareholders in ELT will be made.

5. 1 CONCLUSION

This present study, set out to investigate the use of communicative speaking activities on raising learners' fluency. The t-test that was administered showed the significance of the experiment's results. This helped to establish the relationship between the hypotheses' independent and dependent variable.

In other words, it was clear that, the prediction was confirmed with the results yielded from the tested groups. It was claimed that the use of communicative speaking activities could raise the learners' level of English language fluency. Hence, teachers are invited to recognize the importance of the adoption of CLT practices especially in speaking.

CLT can be considered as much effective method as compared with others. This method aims to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and provide English language learners opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes. It also focuses on the role of the teacher in classroom as a motivator in classroom to conduct procedures and activities, and as an independent participant in the same time.

Language skills are of the same importance as the teaching methods in enhancing learners' level. Obviously, problems in enhancing the level of learners' proficiency will continue to exist, which means research and investigation will continue to be done.

5.2 SUGGESTION

Communicative approach is still playing an important role in developing learners' academic careers. In the findings of this study, it has been proven that the English language teachers and learners of intermediate schools who are exposed to communicative approach in reference to the applications of the 'Iraq opportunities' public course benefited from communicative speaking activities in terms of fluency to a great extent. The following suggestions are provided to enhance the process of teaching English as a foreign language in Iraqi secondary schools.

5. 2. 1   FOR LEARNERS

Learners have to develop their productive skills like speaking in terms of conduct the negotiation issues inside and outside classroom. Therefore, there are important roles that should be adopted from the learner's perspective:

- Students have to share each other's knowledge, experience, and instructional reactions in order to find solutions to the assigned educational activities.
- Students have to be aware of the language use to describe functional situations of life.
- They have to take an active part in classroom interactive activities in terms of a achieving the oral activities and make use of educational material inside and outside classroom.
- They should expose themselves to many related books which improve speaking in terms of fluency.
- They should take the role of negotiation to make suggestions about the classroom activities, tasks, and method of teaching.
- They have to appreciate their instructors' or peers' feedback and motivation as well as interaction in order to make full use of it.

5. 2. 2 FOR TEACHERS

Teachers should play an effective role in conducting classroom activities and in organizing an instructional material; they are in charge of facilitating the process. Therefore, English language teachers should be aware of students needs in the classroom. In this sense, they should change their strategic vision and modify update their own role in conducting classroom activities in order to meet the positive outcomes of applying communicative approach to cover classroom activities like role plays.

In addition, they have to provide learners with realistic language situation and expose students to a wide range of language in use. As a result, teachers should create opportunities for students to take an active role in the classroom, try to motivate them and give proper feedback to them.

5. 2. 3   FOR MATERIALS AND COURSEBOOK WRITERS

The educational materials should be authentic and related to real life situations to so that they will give the learners the chance to use the target language.

Teaching materials are variable in order to cover the skills and sub-skills of English language. This can be seen through the modeling of techniques and tasks. Coursebooks should be related to learners' language abilities in the form of authentic speaking activities.

Materials in the course book should be described and organized well enough to help teachers make use of them with no confusions or obstacles. Many factors have to be taken into account while designing materials for classroom use:

1- "Language is functional and must be contextualized,

2- Language development requires learner engagement in purposeful use of language,

3- Language use should be realistic and authentic,

4- Classroom materials will usefully seek to include an audiovisual component,

5- Learners need to develop the ability to deal with written as well as spoken genres,

6- Effective teaching materials foster learner autonomy,

7- Materials need to be flexible enough to allow for individual and contextual differences,

8-Learning needs to engage learners both affectively and cognitively" (Richards and Renandya, 2002, p.67).

5. 2. 4 FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In accordance with the research findings of this study, further research can be conducted to find out what sparks fluency more in the classroom. The aim should always be to improve English productive skills with a realistic language use.

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List of Appendices

Appendix 1

Outlines of unit (5) and tasks of Iraq Opportunities Course book 7.

UNIT TOPIC	LANGUAGE	SKILLS
5 VOLUNTEERS (page 43)	**Vocabulary**: voluntary activities; good causes; collection	**Reading**: newspaper article
	Grammar: future intentions- going to	**Listening**: dialogues; phone call
	Function: phone calls	**Speaking Strategies**: checking
	Preposition: duration- for	**Writing**: a leaflet (linking-purpose: to; for)

Appendix 2

Outlines of unite (6) and tasks of Iraq opportunities course book 7.

UNIT TOPIC	LANGUAGE	SKILLS
6 SHOPPING (page 49)	**Vocabulary**: shops and prices; clothes and size; singular / plural nouns	**Reading**: magazine article; website
	Grammar: prediction-will/won't	**Listening**: dialogues
	Function: shopping for clothes	**Speaking :** role plays
	Preposition: with verbs	**Writing**: an e-mail

Appendix 3

Language Proficiency Tests

Pre-test Section

Speaking: Role-Play

48-hour FOOTBALL MARATHON

Sponsored Football 17-19 March at Ashgrove Comprehensive

We are looking for volunteers (1) **to/for** help us. We are going to play football from 10 a.m. on Friday until 10 a.m. on Sunday!!! You can have fun and raise money (2) **to/for** cancer research at the same time. We've got drinks and sandwiches (3) **to/for** tired footballers. And we've got a really cool floodlit pitch (4) **to/for** play on!

What you have to do:

- Register your name and the times of the sessions.
- Volunteers play for 90-minute sessions. You can do ten sessions!! (but a maximum of only four per day).
- Find people (5) **to/for** sponsor you for each game that you play (e.g. £3 a game). Ask your family, friends and neighbours.
- Come to the match at the right time. Wear comfortable clothes and get ready (6) **to/for** a good time!

For more information, see Alan Coates (Form 6C), Tim Hanton (Form 6C) or Jimmy Evans (Form 6B). The objective of the Football Marathon is to raise over £1,000 (7) **to/for** cancer research.

Find out the other events. Follow the stages below.

Stage 1: think of the answers to these questions about your event.

When is it? What is it? Where is it? What cause is it for? How much money is it going to raise?

What do I have to do? Who do I contact?

Stage 2: Read the Speaking Strategies box.

Speaking Strategies : Checking

1-When you don't understand or hear something important. Ask the other person to repeat it (e.g. sorry, can you spell that, please?)

2-Ask people to spell names of people and places (e.g. sorry, can you spell that, please?)

3-Repeat important information to make sure it is correct (e.g. do, it's a sponsored talk.)

Work in groups. Talk about your event and find out about the others.

Stage 3: show the people in your group your leaflet. Which is the most interesting event in your group? Tell the class.

Appendix 4

Language Proficiency Tests

Post-test Section

Speaking : A role play

Before you Start

Listen to the dialogue between a customer and shop assistant. Follow the stages below.

Stage 1:

Half of the class are customers and half are shop assistants.

Customers

You have 200,000 IQD to spend, Imagine you want to buy some of the things below. Think about details, e.g. a football shirt, a tennis poster, some gold earrings, etc.

Shop assistants

Decide the price of the things.

A computer game, some earrings, a football shirt, a mobile phone, a poster, a poster bag, a T-shirt, a watch.

Stage 2

Work in pairs. Act out a dialogue in a shop. Use the expressions in the Function File in lesson 12.

Stage 3

Who bought the most things? Who spent the least money? Tell the class.

Appendix 5

Language Proficiency Tests

Post-test Section

Speaking : Question- Answer Ball Throw.

The teacher is supposed to throw the ball to one student while he asking him/her a question like What is your name? expecting the students to interact with the teacher and returning the ball with answer to a teacher like my name is Sami. The same procedure repeated twice. Then the students have to cover this activity as pair work. Then this activity is supposed to be developed in to more exchange questions. Like:

T: What is the color of your eyes?

S: My eyes are blue. What is the color of your eyes?

T: My eyes are green.

Then the task is supposed to be extended like,

T: What are warning today?

S: I am wearing a blue T-shirt. What are you wearing today?

T: I am wearing green suit.

Then the task is supposed to be extended like,

T: Do you like football?

S: Yes I do. What is your favorite food?

T: My favorite food is fish.

Appendix 6

Language Proficiency Tests

Post-test Section

Speaking : A role play
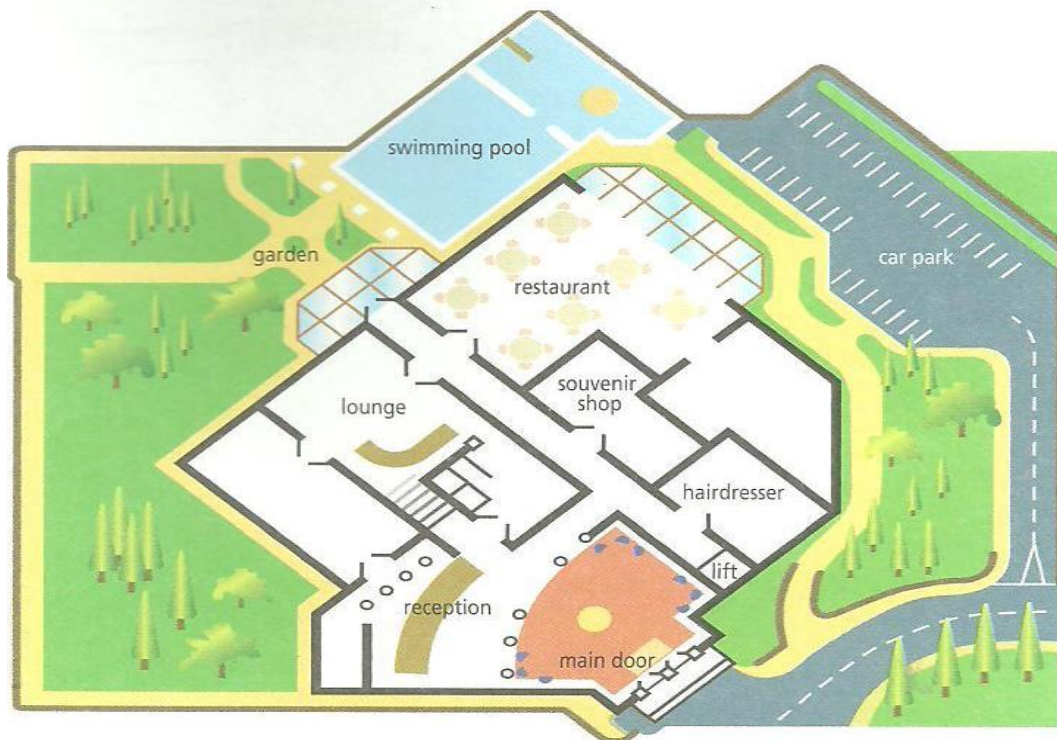
Stage 1: Read this vocabulary then try to find them on the map.

(restaurant, on, swimming pool, reception, next to, down, lift, right, through).

Stage 2: Work in pairs. Say where you are in the hotel map, then let your partner gives you directions and say the new place.

Example

A: I am in the left.

B: Go out of the lift, down the corridor and turn right.

A: I am now in the restaurant.

B: Correct.

Appendix 7

Results of the pre-test of role-play

Experimental group			Control group		
No.	Gender	X_1	No.	Gender	X_2
1	Male	5	1	Male	5
2	Male	6	2	Male	5
3	Male	5	3	Male	6
4	Male	6	4	Male	5
5	Male	7	5	Male	3
6	Male	4	6	Male	7
7	Male	6	7	Male	6
8	Male	5	8	Male	4
9	Male	5	9	Male	5
10	Male	4	10	Male	4
11	Male	3	11	Male	6
12	Male	8	12	Male	5
13	Male	7	13	Male	6
14	Male	5	14	Male	5
15	Male	6	15	Male	4

Experimental group (A)			Control group (B)		
No.	Gender	X_1	No.	Gender	X_2
16	Female	6	16	Female	4
17	Female	5	17	Female	5
18	Female	4	18	Female	7
19	Female	7	19	Female	3
20	Female	3	20	Female	6
21	Female	8	21	Female	4
22	Female	7	22	Female	5
23	Female	3	23	Female	7
24	Female	9	24	Female	8
25	Female	7	25	Female	8
26	Female	4	26	Female	6
27	Female	8	27	Female	8
28	Female	4	28	Female	4
29	Female	4	29	Female	7
30	Female	7	30	Female	6

Appendix 8

Results of the post-test of role-play

Experimental group			Control group		
No.	Gender	X_1	No.	Gender	X_2
1	Male	6	1	Male	6
2	Male	5	2	Male	7
3	Male	7	3	Male	6
4	Male	6	4	Male	5
5	Male	7	5	Male	7
6	Male	4	6	Male	7
7	Male	6	7	Male	6
8	Male	6	8	Male	7
9	Male	5	9	Male	5
10	Male	6	10	Male	6
11	Male	3	11	Male	6
12	Male	8	12	Male	5
13	Male	7	13	Male	6
14	Male	8	14	Male	5
15	Male	6	15	Male	8

Experimental group (A)			Control group (B)		
No.	**Gender**	**X_1**	**No.**	**Gender**	**X_2**
16	Female	5	16	Female	6
17	Female	6	17	Female	5
18	Female	7	18	Female	8
19	Female	7	19	Female	3
20	Female	5	20	Female	6
21	Female	8	21	Female	4
22	Female	7	22	Female	5
23	Female	5	23	Female	7
24	Female	9	24	Female	7
25	Female	7	25	Female	8
26	Female	4	26	Female	6
27	Female	7	27	Female	8
28	Female	5	28	Female	6
29	Female	4	29	Female	7
30	Female	7	30	Female	5

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Tarih: 12 . 01. 2015