

T.C.
Mersin Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı

A STUDY ON TWO DIFFERENT GRAMMAR TEACHING METHODS:
COMPARISON OF SENTENCE LEVEL AND CONTEXT-BASED
GRAMMAR TEACHING

Seval KARAKUŞ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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Mersin Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne,

Bu çalışma jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda YÜKSEK LİSANS
TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Yukarıdaki imzaların adı geçen öğretim elemanlarına ait olduklarını onaylıyorum.

Prof. Dr. Serra Durugönül

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SUMMARY

The purpose of the study is to find whether there are differences in proficiency levels in grammar and reading comprehension and whether there is a correlation between learners' success and their opinions about the sub-tests which reflect the two different methods between the groups of students who are taught the same structure in two different teaching methods- teaching grammar at the sentence level with the control group and teaching grammar in context with the experimental group. To reach that aim, the two different teaching methods are implemented by two English teachers during one unit. At the end of the treatment with the experimental group, the results of the post-test are analyzed and discussed on the basis of the methods.

Introduction presents the problems, the purpose and the significance of the study, the assumptions and the limitations of the study. The study is limited with two state schools and two English teachers in Mersin, four-period treatment in a week in the Spring Semester in 2004-2005 Academic Year, the unit "used to" as the teaching point, 92 seventh-grade students.

In Chapter I, grammar and the approaches to teaching grammar, discourse and context and their importance in teaching grammar are discussed by taking the research results into consideration.

In Chapter II, the method of the study is presented. The sample group, the research design, data collection materials, the procedure and the analysis of the study are presented in a detailed way. The SPSS 10.0 program is used to analyze the data.

In Chapter III, the research questions are answered and discussed in a detailed way. The findings in both the experimental and control groups are presented like this:

1. There is not found a difference in terms of learners' score in sentence level test items (sub-test A) and text-based test items (sub-test B) between the students who are taught the target structure in context and at the sentence level.

2. The students in the experimental group are more successful in sentence-level grammar questions than in text-based questions. ($t = -3.468$ $sd = 48$ $p < 0.001$) while there is not a difference in the control group.

3. In terms of the correlations of both the experimental and control groups, in the experimental group, findings show a tendency of a positive correlation between the learners' opinions about the sentence-level test items and their success in this test. ($r = 0.350$ $p = 0.05$)

4. In the experimental group, findings do not indicate a correlation between the learners' opinions and their success in the text-based test items (sub-test B). ($r = 0.031$ $p = 0.83$)

5. There seems to be a tendency that there is a positive and significant correlation between the learners' opinions and their success in both grammar and reading comprehension sub-tests in the control group.

Key Words: Context, grammar teaching, learner's success, learner's opinion correlation.

ÖZET

İKİ FARKLI DİLBİLGİSİ ÖĞRETİM YÖNTEMİ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA: CÜMLE DÜZEYİNDE VE BAĞLAM DÜZEYİNDE DİLBİLGİSİ ÖĞRETİMİNİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

Bu çalışmanın ana hedefi dilbilgisini bağlam düzeyinde öğrenen öğrencilerle, cümle düzeyinde öğrenen öğrenciler arasında dilbilgisi ve okuduğunu anlama becerileri arasında fark olup olmadığını ve öğrencilerin bu iki yöntemi yansıtan alt testlere ilişkin görüşleri ile başarıları arasında korelasyon olup olmadığını saptamaktır. Bu amaca ulaşabilmek için, bu iki farklı yöntem iki devlet okulunda iki İngilizce öğretmeni tarafından bir ünite boyunca uygulanmıştır. Daha sonra öğrencilere uygulanan son test sonuçlarının istatistiksel analizleri yapılmıştır. Çalışma öğrenme deneyimini içerdiğinden bir ön test uygulanmamıştır. Ancak, bir öntest uygulanmadığından öğrencilerin 2004-2005 öğretim yılı I. Dönem İngilizce karne notları kullanılarak Kovaryans Analizi yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın giriş bölümünde araştırma problemi tanıtılmış, çalışmanın amacına ve önemine değinilmiş, sayıtlar ve çalışmanın sınırlılıkları sunulmuştur. Çalışma, iki İngilizce öğretmeni ve iki devlet okulu, 92 öğrenci, bir ünite (“used to”), 4 saatlik bir uygulama süresi, iki alt testten oluşan bir son test ve bir görüş anketi ile sınırlıdır.

I. bölümde dilbilgisi, dilbilgisi öğretimine yönelik yaklaşımlar ve yöntemler, bağlam ve bağlam bilgisinin dilbilgisi öğretimindeki yeri ve öneminden bahsedilmiştir. Bu alandaki araştırma sonuçlarına yer verilmiştir.

II. bölümde, araştırmanın yöntemi sunulmuştur. Araştırma grupları, araştırma deseni, veri toplama araçları, işlem yolu ve veri analizleri hakkında ayrıntılı bilgi verilmiştir. Verilerin analizinde SPSS 10.0 programı kullanılmıştır.

III. bölümde, problem ve alt problemlere ilişkin araştırma sonuçları şu şekilde sunulmuştur:

1. Dilbilgisini bağlam içinde öğrenen öğrencilerle, cümle düzeyinde öğrenen öğrenciler arasında dilbilgisi ve okuduğunu anlama becerilerindeki başarıları açısından fark bulunamamıştır.

2. Bulgular deney grubundaki öğrencilerin cümle düzeyindeki sorulardan oluşan A alt testinde, bağlam düzeyinde sorulardan oluşan B alt testine göre daha başarılı olduklarını göstermektedir ($t = -3.468$ $sd = 48$ $p < 0.001$). Ancak, kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerde alt testlere ilişkin başarıları arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır.

3. Deney grubunda cümle düzeyinde sorulardan oluşan dilbilgisi alt testi ile bu alt teste ilişkin görüşleri arasında olumlu ve anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu yönünde bir eğilim olduğundan bahsedilebilir. ($r = 0.350$ $p = 0.05$)

4. Bulgular, deney grubunda öğrencilerin bağlam düzeyinde sorulardan oluşan B alt testine ilişkin görüşleri ile bu alt testteki başarıları arasında bir korelasyon olmadığını göstermektedir. ($r = 0.031$ $p = 0.83$)

5. Kontrol grubunda öğrencilerin cümle düzeyinde ve bağlam düzeyinde sorulardan oluşan her iki alt teste ilişkin görüş ve bu alt testlerdeki başarıları arasında olumlu ve anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu yönünde bir eğilimden bahsedilebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bağlam, dilbilgisi öğretimi, öğrenci başarısı, öğrenci görüşü, korelasyon.

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INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Grammar is usually defined as “the way words are put together to make correct sentences” (Ur, 1996: 75). Most people agree with the idea that knowing a language means making correct sentences in that language. However, “grammar does not only affect how units of language are combined in order to ‘look right’; it also affects their meaning” (Ur, 1996: 76). The role of the knowledge of grammar in using a language cannot be denied. That is why; there are various approaches to teaching grammar. In this study, the sentence level and context-based grammar teaching methods are discussed in terms of their effects for proficiency in the target language and learners’ opinions about the methods. In sentence level grammar teaching, a language is divided into eight parts of speech: nouns, verbs, participles, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs and conjunction. That is, knowing a language means knowing these eight categories and the rules for their use in translation (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 1). On the other hand, since syntax and word order have critical roles in producing grammatical function and rules have multiple exceptions; these eight categories cannot be used as effectively to analyze a language (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 1-2). In addition, a language is used for various purposes; primarily for communication. Many language learners know the grammar rules but they cannot communicate effectively in that language. The communicative pedagogy influenced by Krashen’s Natural Approach in recent years has put this problem

at the centre of language teaching. According to the communicative approach, explicit grammar teaching is not needed to communicate in the target language. However, L2 researchers and methodologists think that attaining high levels of language competence and performance require instructed learning (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 5). These conflicts about the most common approaches may be solved in a new approach to teaching L2 grammar: Context-based grammar teaching. As it is indicated by Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 8), this approach combines “the positive aspects of natural learning and authentic use with those of explicit grammar instruction”. Since grammar affects the meaning of the units of a language, it should not be seen as a context-free system as it is done in the traditional approach. Ur (1996: 76) points out:

The teaching of grammatical meaning tends, unfortunately, to be neglected in many textbooks in favour of an emphasis on accuracy of form; but it is no good knowing how to perceive or construct a new tense of a verb if you do not know exactly what difference it makes to meaning when it is used.

Since grammatical meaning is important to use a language communicatively, teachers should be aware of this new approach in order to teach the target language in a communicative way.

Learners’ beliefs are other important factors that affect learners’ progress in the target language. Second language learners are not always conscious of their learning styles, but all learners, mostly adult learners have strong feelings and opinions about which type of instruction is the best way for them to learn. These beliefs and opinions are mostly based on learners’ previous learning experience (Lightbown and Spada, 1999: 59). Students mostly have

negative opinions about studying grammar. The quotations below are taken from the learners who are learning English as a second language (Ellis and Sinclair, 1991: 45-46).

“I think it is very difficult. It is not reasonable. There are many exceptions” (Marjeta, Yugoslavia).

“I do not think grammar is the most important thing. It is necessary to learn it, but there are many others which are more important: Words, body language, culture, etc.” (Wolfgang, Austria).

“I hate grammar. I think it is too boring, but necessary” (Flippo, Italy).

In addition to the quoted opinions on studying grammar, in the research done by Carlos Yorio (Lightbown and Spada, 1999: 59) on a program in which learners received a type of highly communicative instruction exclusively focusing on meaning and spontaneous communication, the majority of students were convinced that their progress was negatively affected by an instructional approach which was not consistent with their beliefs about the best ways for them to learn. It shows that learners’ beliefs and opinions about the type of instruction strongly affect their learning process in the classroom. Although there is a need for considerably more research on the interaction between opinions and beliefs and success in second language learning, teachers should not assume that learners’ beliefs are wrong. The type of instruction or the teaching method may not be suitable for the learners’ needs as well. Although there is a little work on this area, it is clear that a particular teaching method does not suit the needs of all learners. Keeping this in mind, teachers should develop flexibility in their ways of teaching (Lightbown and Spada, 1999: 58-59). Teaching grammar in context –a new approach in language education – may be helpful to prevent negative feelings and opinions about studying grammar.

In this study, a research has been done on two grammar teaching methods- teaching grammar through context and teaching grammar at the sentence level. The research has been designed to answer the following questions about the differences in learners' success in grammar and reading comprehension and the correlations between learners' opinions and success.

Research Questions

1. Do the success and opinions of the 7th grade students in grammar and reading comprehension differ according to the methods in teaching grammar in the state schools?

a. Are there any differences in terms of grammar between the students who are taught the target structure in context and those who are taught the same structure at sentence level?

b. Are there any differences in terms of reading comprehension between the students who are taught the target structure in context and those who are taught the same structure at sentence level?

c. Are there any differences in terms of grammar and reading comprehension (total score) between the students who are taught the target structure in context and those who are taught the same structure at sentence level?

d. Are there any differences in terms of scores in the sub-tests both in the experimental and control groups?

e. Are there any differences in terms of opinions about the sub-tests between the students who are taught the target structure in context and those who are taught the same structure at sentence level?

f. Is there a correlation between the opinions about the sub-tests and success in the sub-tests in the whole group?

g. Is there a correlation between the opinions about the sub-tests and success in the sub-tests in the experimental group?

h. Is there a correlation between the opinions about the sub-tests and success in the sub-tests in the control group?

The Purpose and the Significance of the Study

The purpose of the study is to find out whether there are differences in proficiency level in grammar and reading comprehension and whether there is a relationship between the opinions about the sub-tests (grammar and reading comprehension sub-tests) which reflect the two different methods between the groups of students who are taught the same structure in two different teaching methods: sentence-based grammar teaching with the control group and context-based grammar teaching with the experimental group.

In the past 30 years, the place of grammar instruction in the second or foreign language curriculum has been strongly discussed among the linguists. The traditional method has been disregarded on the grounds that teaching grammar does not correlate with acquiring grammar (Ellis, 2002: 17). On the other hand, the communicative approach, which has been commonly discussed

since the mid-1970s, has created the question whether it is necessary to teach grammar or not. While some language teachers think that teaching grammar is useless, some others view grammar as the central component of a language. In this study, a new approach to teaching grammar will be discussed- context-based grammar teaching. This approach combines the positive aspects of most commonly used approaches: traditional and communicative approaches. In this respect, such a study on grammar teaching is important for it may solve the conflicts of these two common approaches.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited with:

1. Two state schools and two English teachers in Mersin,
2. Four-period treatment in a week in the Spring Semester in 2004-2005 Academic Year,
3. The unit “used to” as the teaching point,
4. 92 seventh-grade students; 49 students in the experimental group and 43 students in the control group,
5. A post-test and an opinion questionnaire.

Assumptions

In this study, it was assumed that the students would take the tests seriously and give sincere answers to the opinion questionnaire.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

I. 1. Grammar

There are various meanings attached to the term ‘grammar’. When it is asked to brainstorm what the term ‘grammar’ means, as it is shown in Weaver (1996: 1), teachers produce a list such as; parts of speech, syntactic structures, ‘correct’ sentence structure (subject-verb agreement), ‘correct’ punctuation, sentence sense and style, etc. Weaver (1996: 2) summarizes teachers’ definitions in the way that there are four major senses of ‘grammar’:

1. Grammar as a description of syntactic structure
2. Grammar as prescriptions for how to use structures and words
3. Grammar as rhetorically effective use of syntactic structures
4. Grammar as the functional command of sentence structure that enables us to comprehend and produce language

In addition, according to Thornbury (1999: 1), “grammar is partly the study of what forms (or structures) are possible in a language.” Also he continues that “traditionally, grammar has been concerned almost exclusively

with analysis at the level of sentence.” As he summarizes, a grammar describes the rules of a language about how sentences are formed. This means that grammar helps to identify whether a sentence is acceptable or not. For example, the following sentences are acceptable because the words are in a particular order and the formation of the words is correct.

“They were ill yesterday.”

“Yesterday they were ill.”

If one changes the order of the words or the formation of the words, the sentences cannot be acceptable. For example:

“Ill were yesterday they.”

“They was ill yesterday.”

As Thornbury (1999: 2) indicates, “grammar is conventionally seen as the study of syntax and morphology of sentences.” Syntax is the system of the rules that cover the order of the words in a sentence and morphology is the system of the rules that cover the formation of the words (Thornbury, 1999: 2).

In other words, Thornbury (1999: 2) says that “it is the study of chains and slots. That is, it is the study both of the way words are chained together in a particular order, and also of what kinds of words can slot into any one link in the chain.” In addition to this, according to Grohmann (2003: 1), when one talks about grammar, he usually means the two different, but interrelated fields of morphology and syntax. He says that although grammar is characterized by set

of rules, these rules are part of one's subconscious rather than conscious knowledge.

I. 1. 1. Grammar and Meaning

Up to now, grammar is defined to be the set of rules which help one produce correct and 'acceptable' sentences. On the other hand, sometimes producing correct sentences is not enough to achieve a communicative purpose. Widdowson (1979: 1-2) summarizes that producing correct sentences is not only the ability that learners need to acquire. Here are some examples taken from Widdowson:

"The rain destroyed the crops."

This is a correct English sentence. Anybody uttering this sentence may be thought to have a good knowledge of the language. On the other hand, anybody uttering the sentences below has an inadequate knowledge:

"The rain is destroy the crops."

"The rain destruct the crops."

What can be said if someone uses the correct sentence above in the following context?

(A approaches B, a stranger, in the street)

A: Could you tell me the way to the railway station?

B: The rain destroyed the crops.

The sentence is still correct, but on this evidence, we cannot say that B has a good knowledge of the language. “(...) when we acquire a language we do not only learn how to compose and comprehend correct sentences as isolated linguistic units of random occurrence; we also learn how to use sentences appropriately to achieve a communicative purpose. We are not just walking grammars” (Widdowson, 1979: 2).

This is another example given by Thornbury (1999: 3):

“This is 2680239. We are at home right now. Please leave a message after the beep.”

The sentence “*We are at home right now*” is an acceptable sentence. Although it is a “grammatically well-formed” sentence, it does not make sense in this context. The form chosen does not convey the exact meaning the speaker requires. According to Thornbury (1999: 3), this is another feature of grammar: “its meaning – making potential.” He indicates that grammatical forms convey at least two kinds of meaning. The first one is language’s “representational” function; that is representing the world as we experience it and the second one is

language's "interpersonal" function; that is influencing how things happen in the world. According to Thornbury (1999: 5), "the second main role –its interpersonal role- is typically reflected in the way we use grammar to ease the task getting things done." The following utterances are taken from Thornbury (1999: 6):

"Tickets!"

"Tickets, please."

"Can you show me your tickets?"

"May I see your tickets?"

"Would you mind if I had a look at your tickets?"

In these examples, as Thornbury says, *please* is a lexical way to make the command soft, but this effect can be achieved by using modal verbs as it is seen in the last three sentences. Then he adds that "modality, then, is a grammatical means by which interpersonal meaning can be conveyed" (Thornbury, 1996: 6).

I. 1. 2. Grammar and Function

According to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 1-3), functional categories of language can be described under five headings. These are “personal”, “interpersonal”, “directive”, “referential” and “imaginative.” Clarifying or arranging one’s ideas and expressing one’s thoughts or feelings such as; love, joy, happiness, fear, anxiety, etc. are the personal functions of a language. Identifying oneself to others, excusing oneself and accepting excuses, making appointments, refusing invitations politely, introducing people to other, etc. are all the interpersonal functions. However, making requests and suggestions, warning someone, asking for directions or instructions, persuading someone to do something, asking for help, etc. are the directive functions of a language. This function of the language helps to influence the actions of others or accept or refuse directions. The other function of a language is the “referential” function. Identifying items or people in the classroom, the school or the community, asking for a description of someone or something, paraphrasing, summarizing, evaluating the results of an action or event, discussing possibilities and capabilities of doing something, etc. are all the referential function of a language. The fifth function is the “imaginative” one. This function can be achieved through discussing a poem, a story, a piece of music, creating rhymes, poetry, stories or plays, suggesting original beginnings or endings to dialogues or stories.

These functions can be expressed by grammatical constructions. According to Weaver (1996: 14), functional grammar is primarily concerned with how the language works to achieve various purposes. So, it focuses first on

larger grammatical components (clauses and sentences) and their functions within text, not on parts of speech.

As Thornbury (1999: 6) indicates, the relation between grammar and function became an important issue for teachers in the mid-seventies. “Writers of language teaching materials attempted to move the emphasis away from the learning of grammatical structures independent of their use, and on to learning how to function in a language, how to communicate.” It is argued that to match forms with their functions would be useful. For example, in the following dialogue, the question ‘*Do you drink?*’ has more than one meaning.

Father: Do you drink?

Young Man: No, thanks. I’m cool.

Father: I’m not offering. I’m asking IF you drink. Do you think I’d offer alcohol to teenage drivers taking my daughter out?

(from the film *Clueless* cited in Thornbury, 6)

In this context, the young man ‘misunderstood’ the function of the question. In addition to this, Thornbury (1999:7) says that “one function can be expressed by several different forms. In the same way, one form can express a variety of functions” as it is seen in the following examples. The function of “warning” can be expressed in different ways such as:

“You’d better not do that.”

“I wouldn’t do that, if I were you.”

“Mind you don’t do that.”

“If you do that, you’ll be in trouble.”

“Do that and you’ll be in trouble.”

Or one form may express several different functions as it is presented in the following utterances:

“If you do that, you’ll be in trouble.” (Warning)

“If you lie down, you’ll feel better.” (Advice)

“If it rains, we’ll take a taxi.” (Plan)

“If you pass your driving test, I’ll buy you a car.” (Promise)

(Thornbury, 1999: 7)

At this point, being aware of the contextual clues and understanding what the speaker mean make it easy to match form and function. In this case, teaching grammar in context gives opportunities to the learners to learn the contextual clues. Teaching grammar out of context leads to similar misunderstandings as it is presented in the example from the film *Clueless* (Thornbury, 1999: 7).

I. 1. 3. Teaching Grammar

II. 1. 3. 1. Grammatical Competence

As it is discussed before, according to Grohmann (2003: 2), the rules of grammar are part of one's subconscious knowledge. This knowledge is known as the grammatical competence in a speaker's native language. It is defined by Chomsky (Murphy, 2000: 2) as the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and to use them effectively in communication. According to Widdowson (1979: 3), learning of a language involves "acquiring an understanding of which sentences, or parts of sentences are appropriate in a particular context." This evidence puts out the difference between the *use* and *usage*. Widdowson (1979: 3) points out that this distinction between use and usage is related to Chomsky's similar distinction between *competence* and *performance*. He continues that "the notion of competence has to do with a language user's knowledge of abstract linguistic rules. This knowledge has to be put into effect as behaviour, it has to be revealed through performance."

According to Weaver (1996: 30), "a grammar ought to explain the unconscious but functional knowledge of grammar that enables all of us to comprehend and produce language, rather than analyze the language actually produced." As Weaver (1996: 35) indicates, one does not learn his/her native language through direct instruction. People use their native language without

knowing the exact rules of grammatical structures. She adds that “most parents and, for that matter, most teachers, do not know the rules. But we do not have to know them consciously. This is part of what we unconsciously learn as we acquire the grammatical structure of English.” It is not known how young children acquire the rules of their native language, but it is known that such rules are not directly taught to children and that children show evidence of beginning to acquire them by about the age of two or three, when they typically begin using auxiliary verbs and modifiers like *any* and *some* (Weaver, 1996: 36). Citing the experimental study done by Brown, Weaver (1996: 36) explains that three-year-olds were shown pictures of a tool, a substance, and an action. When asked which was ‘a sib’, they typically chose the tool. When asked which was ‘some sib’, they typically chose the action. She states that “the children’s incipient understanding of this use of *some* must surely be one of the prerequisites to their coming to understand subtle distinctions in the use of *some* and *any*.”

“The first evidence of children’s beginning to learn grammar comes when they begin to put two words together to form sentences, that is, utterances that have the intonation patterns of a sentence” (Weaver, 1996: 39). Children’s early two-word sentences do not illustrate all the semantic relationships, but they illustrate most of them. According to Weaver (1996: 39), several interesting observations can be made regarding such early utterances: They express a variety of relationships. They show that it is a universal fact of language acquisition that children typically go through a stage wherein they can put two words together to form a sentence, but not three or more. In addition, these

sentences do not include grammatical markers. “The grammar of such utterances, then, consists entirely of word order. Such word order follows the word order of adult utterances” (Weaver, 1996: 40).

Weaver (1996: 45) points out that, nobody speaks in grammatically complete sentences all the time, and in fact, the sentences of educated adults are often the least grammatical. As many research evidence suggests and Weaver (1996: 55) says that “basic grammatical competence is best developed through exposure to comprehensible input and through attempting to communicate in the target language, relatively unhampered by initial concerns of correctness.”

I. 1. 3. 2. The Place of Grammar Instruction in the Second/Foreign Language Curriculum

According to Ellis (2002: 17), the place of grammar instruction in the second or foreign language curriculum has been strongly discussed in the past 30 years. The teaching methods reliant on a structural syllabus – grammar translation, audiolingualism, Total Physical Response, etc. – have been disregarded on the grounds that teaching grammar does not correlate with acquiring grammar. In addition to this, Thornbury (1999: 10) says that not all the

syllabuses are designed on a grammatical basis. He adds that “(...) with the advent of the communicative approach in the mid-1970s, there was a reaction away from purely form-based syllabuses to syllabuses that were organized according to categories of meaning.” To give an example, functional syllabuses were organized around communicative purposes such as; asking for permission, describing things, advising, etc. That is to say, many language courses are designed by adapting multi-layered syllabuses which specify not only the grammatical structures to be taught, but include functional areas as well (Thornbury, 1999: 10-11). On the other hand, there are many reasons why grammar should be included in a second language curriculum. According to Ellis (2002: 18), in terms of acquisition theory, “it is now widely acknowledged that L2 learners, particularly adults, fail to achieve high levels of grammatical competence even if they have ample opportunity to learn the language naturally.” There are some possible reasons for learner’s failure to achieve high levels of grammatical competence. The first reason may be the age of the learners. Ellis says that it is widely accepted that “once learners have passed a ‘critical period’ (about the 15 years of age in the case of grammar) the acquisition of full grammatical competence is no longer possible.” However, there is growing doubt concerning the validity of the critical period hypothesis where grammar is concerned. Ellis indicates that it is becoming clear that there is a large number of learners who are successful in acquiring target language norms if they are given sufficient time and motivation even if they start learning L2 after the age of fifteen.

The second reason for learners' failure to achieve high levels of grammatical competence may be the "communicative sufficiency." According to Ellis (2002: 19), learners may be able to satisfy their communicative needs without acquiring target language norms or the linguistic environment to which learners are exposed in the classroom may indeed be limited in quite significant ways. To solve these problems, Ellis suggests two possible solutions: "One is improving the quality of interactional opportunities learners experience, for example, by ensuring that learners' communicative needs are enhanced by requiring them to produce 'pushed output'." In order to achieve this, devising a curriculum of communicative tasks that are linguistically demanding may be helpful. The other solution may be to focus learners' attention on grammatical form and the meanings they realize through some kind of grammar teaching. To summarize in terms of acquisition theory, there is clear evidence that grammar teaching can have a beneficial effect on learners' interlanguage development. It is effective in developing explicit knowledge of grammatical features (Ellis, 2002: 19-20). If the place of grammar teaching in second/foreign language curriculum is discussed from a learner's perspective, there is a strong reason for including the grammar in the L2 curriculum. Ellis (2002: 20) says that "adult learners typically view 'grammar' as the central component of language and, irrespective of the type of instruction they experience, are likely to make strenuous efforts to understand the grammatical features they notice." On the other hand, Ellis (2002: 21) states that while adults view grammar as the central point, the younger learners may be more inclined to view language functionally – as a tool for communicating – and may be less able to benefit from grammar

instruction. From a pedagogical perspective, according to Ellis, the only way to ensure a systematic coverage of the grammar of the L2, is by means of a structural syllabus. He thinks that “such a syllabus provides teachers and learners with a clear sense of progression – something that I think is missing from both notional and task-based syllabuses.” He adds that this does not mean abandonment of meaning-based syllabuses and a straight return to the structural syllabus. According to Ur (1996: 75), “there is no doubt that knowledge – implicit or explicit – of grammatical rules is essential for the mastery of language.” Thornbury (1999: 15) discusses some arguments which put grammar in the foreground in second language teaching. “The sentence-machine argument” is one of them. He thinks that one needs to learn some patterns or rules to generate new sentences; that is to say, grammar. “Grammar, after all, is a description of the regularities in a language, and knowledge of these regularities provides the learner with the means to generate a potentially enormous number of original sentences.” He says that grammar is a kind of “sentence-making machine.” The other argument is the “fine-tuning argument”. Thornbury (1999: 15) indicates that “while it is possible to get a lot of communicative mileage out of simply stringing words and phrases together, there comes a point where ‘Me Tarzan, you Jane’ type. Language fails to deliver both in terms of intelligibility and in terms of appropriacy.” For example, the following examples taken from Thornbury are likely to confuse the readers:

“Last Monday night I was boring in my house.”

“After speaking a lot of time with him I thought that him attracted me.”

“We took a wrong plane and when I saw it was very later because the plane took up.”

According to Thornbury (1999: 15), the teaching of grammar serves as a corrective rather than the kind of ambiguity represented in the examples.

The next argument is “the fossilisation argument.” Thornbury thinks that although it seems more amazing for highly motivated learners to achieve high level of proficiency without any formal study, “more often ‘pick it up as you go along’ learners reach a language plateau beyond which it is very difficult to progress.” He proves himself depending on the research evidence which suggests that “learners who receive no instruction seem to be at the risk of fossilising sooner than those who do receive instruction.” However, he says that it does not necessarily mean taking formal lessons – the grammar study can be self-directed. The other argument that Thornbury points out is “discrete item argument.” It is argued that because grammar consists of an apparently finite set of rules, it can help to reduce the apparent enormity of the language learning task for both teachers and students.” He adds that “by tidying language up and organizing it into neat categories (sometimes called **discrete items**), grammarians make language digestible.” This argument suggests that each discrete item can be isolated from the language that normally envelops it and then it can be slotted into a syllabus of other discrete items. The other argument, ‘the rule-of-law argument’, suggests that “since grammar is a system of learnable rules, it lends itself to a view of teaching and learning known as **transmission**” (Thornbury, 1999: 16-17). This view sees “the role of education

as the transfer of a body of knowledge (....).” Thornbury (1999: 17) says that learners need rules, order and discipline and grammar offers the teacher a structured system that can be taught in methodical steps. The last argument is ‘the learner expectations argument’, which is the case for grammar according to Ellis (2002) as well. Thornbury (1999: 17) thinks that many learners come to language classes with the expectations that teaching will be grammar-focused. Otherwise, they are frustrated. He adds that the teacher who ignores learner expectations is likely to frustrate and alienate them. This argument will be discussed later as a case against grammar teaching.

Although there are many reasons why formal grammar instruction should take place in second/foreign language curriculum, there are some other arguments why it should not be the central point in the curriculum. According to the Weaver (1996: 7), when people talk about “teaching grammar”, what they usually mean is teaching descriptive and prescriptive grammar: “that is, teaching sentence elements and structure, usage, sentence revision, and punctuation and mechanics via a grammar book or a workbook, or perhaps a computer program.” That is, they mean teaching grammar as a system, and teaching it directly and systematically, usually in isolation from writing or the study of literature. Indeed, what they usually mean by this is the “teaching formal grammar” or “the traditional teaching of grammar.” These thoughts about teaching grammar over the centuries create the question why teachers need to teach formal grammar. These are some reasons Weaver (1996: 7) puts out:

(i) The study of grammar is important simply because language is a supreme human achievement that deserves to be studied as such.

(ii) The study of grammar can be an important vehicle for learning to study something the way a scientist does.

(iii) The study of grammar will help form the mind by promoting “mental discipline”.

(iv) The study of grammar will help students score better on standardized tests that include grammar, usage and punctuation.

(v) The study of grammar will help people master another language more readily.

(vi) The study of grammar will help people master the socially prestigious conventions of spoken and/or written usage.

(vii) The study of grammar will help people become better users of the language, that is, more effective as listeners and speakers, and especially as readers and writers.

Unfortunately, the research done on formal grammar teaching does not say the same things. Greene and Searles, and Carlson (Weaver, 1996: 10) summarize the available research on the teaching of grammar as a system and a subject:

In short, the research apparently gave no support to the idea that teaching grammar would help students develop mental discipline,

master another language, or become better users of their native language. Indeed, further evidence indicated that training in formal grammar did not transfer to any significant extent to writing 'correct' English or even to recognizing it.

Weaver (1996: 11) indicates that some investigators hypothesized that a study of grammar from the view point of structural linguistics might prove valuable to learners than a study of traditional grammar, "with its inconsistencies and unabashed use of meaning in determining the functions of grammatical elements." Hillock's review of research (Weaver, 1996: 11), however, indicates that the structural grammar does not demonstrate that it is appreciably superior to the teaching of traditional grammar, with regard to its effects on writing. In their summaries of research on the teaching of grammar, Hillock, and Hillock and Smith (Weaver, 1996: 13) present a thorough review of the relevant research since the early 1960s, "including studies comparing the effects of teaching no grammar, and studies comparing the effects of teaching structural or transformational grammar with the effects of teaching traditional grammar." Hillock (Weaver, 1996: 13) concludes:

None of the studies reviewed for the present report provides any support for teaching grammar as a means of improving composition skills. If schools insist upon teaching the identification of parts of speech, the parsing or diagramming of sentences, or other concepts of traditional grammar (as many still do), they cannot defend it as a means of improving the quality of writing.

In addition to the research findings, Krashen (1998: 1) finds Elley, Barham, Lamb and Wyllie's research done in 1976 the most convincing one about the effects of traditional grammar, transformational grammar and no grammar. He says that after a three-year study comparing the effects of

traditional grammar, transformational grammar and no grammar on high school students in New Zealand, the findings show that traditional or transformational grammar has virtually no influence on the language growth of the secondary students.

It may be surprising to learn that “a second or additional language may be most readily acquired in much the same way as one’s native language: through immersion in oral and written language- that is, through immersion in situations where one needs and wants to listen, speak, read, and write in order to understand and be understood. This is also true for adults as well as children” (Weaver, 1996: 48). As Terrell (Weaver, 1996: 48) puts out, even when second language learners are taught the grammatical structure and rules of the second language, they may acquire these in a different way or a different order- or not acquire some of them all. Learning another language usually occurs in a school environment. As Weaver (1996: 49) says, we have memorized vocabulary, studied grammar, translated passages, perhaps rehearsed conversational phrases, but we have never listened or read in that language for any authentic purpose outside the class. This is something knowing about a language, but “it does not necessarily lead to knowing the language at the same sense as if it were truly acquired” (Weaver, 1996: 49). As it is seen with children learning their native language, language acquisition is a “subconscious” process.

In fact, rejection of the formal study of grammar is central to Krashen’s ‘Natural Approach’ (Thornbury, 1999: 19). The theoretical bases of the approach show the practical value of it for foreign or second language classes.

The first one is the “Acquisition – Learning Distinction.” As Thornbury (1999: 19) says,

Learning according to Krashen results from formal instruction, typically in grammar, and is of limited use for real communication. Acquisition, however, is a natural process: It is the process by which the first language is picked up, and by which other languages are picked up solely through contact with speakers of those languages.

That is why, according to Kıymazarslan (1995: 1), this hypothesis tells that class time should be balanced between acquisition activities and learning exercises. He adds that “it is important to realize students or any human being cannot both learn and acquire at the same time because one can focus on only one thing at a time, either on form or on meaning”. According to this hypothesis, a teacher should not expect students to have acquired a specific grammar point at the end of a particular course. Instead, s/he expects them to display their comprehension. Contrary to Ellis (2002), who finds the acquisition theory as a case for grammar, Krashen and Terrell (1983: 2) say that “one acquires or ‘picks up’ a second language in much the same way as one acquired L1, by using it. Formal instruction is distinct from acquisition and may be helpful, but is not essential to learning a second language.”

The second theoretical base of the ‘Natural Approach’ is the “The Monitor Hypothesis.” Krashen and Terrell (1983: 3) indicate that “as the learner develops skills and competence in L2 s/he begins to correct and modify his/her speech to conform to the model speech and written language of native speakers of the target language.”

Kıymazarslan (1995: 1) says that students may monitor during written tasks (e.g., homework assignments) and preplanned speech, or to some extent during speech. According to the hypothesis, learned knowledge enables students to read and listen more so they acquire more.

“The Input Hypothesis” is another base of the approach. Citing Krashen, Weaver (1996: 49) points out that what is minimally required for first and second language acquisition is “comprehensible input” from others in the environment: “Language that is comprehensible enough that the language learner can unconsciously abstract the patterns and rules from the language heard and/or read.” As Snow (Weaver, 1996: 49) says, to be comprehensible, language input must be rich enough to provide raw data for the abstraction of patterns and the construction of rules. “On the other hand, the language input must be sufficiently comprehensible for the language learner to connect meaning and form.” As for the application of the Input Hypothesis, the instructor should provide input that is “roughly-tuned.” According to Kıymazarslan (1995: 1-2), “the teacher should always send meaningful messages and ‘must’ create opportunities for students to access $i+1$ structure to understand and express meaning.” Krashen and Terrell (1983: 4) indicate that although input must be comprehensible, language that contains forms one level of linguistic complexity beyond the learner’s level provides a challenge to develop L2 proficiency (The $i+1$ formula).

The fourth hypothesis is the “The Natural Order Hypothesis.” Thornbury (1999: 19) says that “Krashen’s acquisition/learning hypothesis drew

heavily on studies that suggest there is a natural order of acquisition of grammatical items, irrespective of the order in which they are taught (...).” Therefore, the Natural Approach teacher should be tolerant against errors. The approach suggests that a semantic syllabus for acquisition activities and grammatical syllabus for grammar lessons should be used (Kıymazarslan, 1995: 2). He adds that “the grammatical syllabus assumes that we know the correct natural order of presentation and acquisition, we don’t: what we have is information about a few structures in a few languages.”

The last hypothesis is the “Affective Filter Hypothesis.” According to Kıymazarslan (1995: 2), the application of this hypothesis would be that acquisition should be achieved in a low-anxiety environment. A comfortable atmosphere should be created in the class by lowering the affective filter. There is no demand for early production speech and no ‘radical concern’ for correctness in early stages of acquisition. As Weaver (1996: 50) defines, “a low affective filter means that the person is relatively open to learning from the comprehensible input, which includes being relatively unafraid of taking risks and making mistakes.” In this respect, Elley’s (Weaver, 1996: 52) studies provide strong evidence for the hypothesis that comprehensible input and a low affective filter facilitate language acquisition more readily than direct teaching of grammar and vocabulary. The research evidence suggests that “direct teaching of grammar is not necessary for acquiring the basic structure of a second language, anymore than for acquiring one’s native language.”

To summarize, the syllabus underlying the Natural Approach is topical and situational rather than structural. The focus of each classroom activity is organized by topic, not grammatical structures (Kıymazarslan, 1995: 2). In addition to this, Kıymazarslan (1995: 2) says that it is a semantic or notional syllabus, simply “a series of topics that students will find interesting and the teacher can discuss in a comprehensible way.” On the other hand, there can be no guarantee that the teaching activities that are based on such syllabuses provide a full and systematic coverage of the grammar of the L2. If production tasks are concerned, there are limits on the extent to which the use of some grammatical structures is essential in performing the task. In this case there is a need for both types of syllabuses: notional and structural syllabuses (Ellis, 2002: 20-21). Furthermore, in Lightbown and Spada (1999: 40) it is indicated that Krashen’s theory has been seriously criticized because it fails to propose hypothesis which can be tested by empirical research. They add that “some classroom-centred research shows that attention to language form may become more important than Krashen acknowledges.” In spite of this fact, there is no doubt that focusing on using language for meaningful interaction rather than on learning rules is supported by many teachers and learners (Lightbown and Spada: 1999: 40).

Up to now, Krashen’s Natural Approach is discussed as a case against formal grammar teaching in second/foreign language curriculum. The other argument is the “the knowledge – how argument.” According to Thornbury (1999: 18), one may know what is involved in riding a bike: keeping balance, pedalling, etc., but this does not mean to say that s/he knows how to ride a bike.

If a language is viewed as a skill, one learns it by doing it, not by studying it. Thornbury defines learning-by-doing as “experiential” learning. He continues that “much of the bad press associated with intellectual approaches to language learning - through the learning of copious grammar rules, for example – stems from the failure on the part of the learner to translate rules into skills” (18).

The other argument is the “the communication argument.” Thornbury (1999: 18) indicates that “from the 1970s on, theorists have been arguing that grammatical knowledge (linguistic competence) is merely one component of what they call **communicative competence.**” He adds that communicative competence involves how to use or apply the grammar rules and vocabulary of the language for communicative purposes and “knowing how to do this in socially appropriate way.” There are two approaches which placed “a high premium on putting the language to communicative use” (Thornbury, 1999: 18). The first one – shallow-end approach – says that one learns a language to use it. The second one – deep-end approach – suggests that one learns to communicate by communicating. This is an experiential view of learning (Thornbury, 1999: 18). In short, by means of activities which give chance to learners to use the language for communicative purposes, the grammar will be acquired virtually unconsciously. That is to say, “studying the rules of grammar is simply a waste of valuable time” (Thornbury, 1999: 18-19).

As it is stated before, the ‘learner expectation argument’ is also discussed as a case against grammar by Thornbury. Although some learners, especially adults come to language classes in the expectation that they will study

the grammar of language, there are many others who may already have studied grammar for many years and are in need of putting their knowledge in work. To respond to these both different expectations of the learners, the teacher should provide a balance in the syllabus (Thornbury, 1999: 20).

In addition to this, according to Widdowson (1990: 130-131) what learners need eventually to do with the language once they have learned should be the main consideration while designing a syllabus. He says that until recently, “the units for teaching grammar were assumed to be the same as the units of grammar. Latterly, in accordance with a different orthodoxy, characterization has been in reference to the concepts and actions (notions and functions) which these formal elements most commonly realize when language knowledge is put to use”.

Widdowson agrees with the idea that it is needs or goal oriented rationale which is expressed by Wilkins (Widdowson, 1990: 131) in the following way: “The process of deciding what to teach is based on consideration of what the learner should most usefully be able to communicate in the foreign language.”

Widdowson (1990: 131) indicates that “this goal-oriented rehearsal assumption runs directly counter to that which informs the characterization of syllabus content structural terms.” He makes it clear that the structural syllabus does not deny the eventual communicative purpose of learning, but it implies different ways to achieve this goal. The difference between notional/functional

syllabus and the structural syllabus lies in what ways they achieve this goal.

Widdowson (1990: 130-131) says:

Structural syllabuses are designed on the assumption that it is the internalization of grammar coupled with the exercise of linguistic skills in motor-perceptive manipulations (usage) which affords the most effective preparation for the reality of communicative encounters (use).

To summarize the general points of the two types of the syllabuses, structural syllabus says that the form is to be taught as units of linguistic competence and the notional/functional syllabus says that it is to be taught as units of communicative performance.

I. 1. 3. 3. Approaches to Grammar Teaching

I. 1. 3. 3. 1. Traditional Grammar Teaching

The teaching of grammar dates back to Greece in the second century B.C. Weaver (1996: 3) says that during previous centuries, traditional grammar

seems to have had two primary aims: disciplining and training the mind and teaching grammatical forms and word usages that were considered correct and socially prestigious. As Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 1) indicate, “for more than 2000 years, studying a second language primarily consisted of grammatical analysis and translation of written forms.” This approach divides the target language into eight parts of speech: nouns, verbs, participles, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs and conjunction; and learning the language requires study of the eight categories in written text and the development of rules for their use in translation. However, it is seen through the 18th century that the eight parts of speech could not be used as effectively to analyze a language in which word order and syntax produced grammatical function and where rules often had multiple exceptions (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 1-2).

In spite of this fact, Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 2) say that “this traditional approach remained the basis of instructional pedagogy in the United States and England until recently, (...) and is still being used in a number of countries as the primary method of English instruction.” However, Widdowson (1990: 95) indicates that “what is crucial for learners to know is how grammar functions in alliance with words and contexts for the achievement of meaning.” He adds that the traditional teaching of grammar does not produce such an alliance. He contradicts the traditional approach in the following view:

Teaching which gives primacy to form and uses words simply as a means of exemplification actually denies the nature of grammar as a construct for the mediation of meaning. I would suggest that a more natural and more effective approach would be to reverse this traditional

pedagogic dependency, begin with lexical items and show how they need to be communicatively effective.

On the other hand, Larsen-Freeman (1991: 280) says that teaching grammar does not require a focus on form or structure alone and teaching explicit rules is really irrelevant to what it means to teach grammar. She adds that communicative competence should not be replaced with linguistic competence. It must just be seen to subsume linguistic competence, because it is “as much a part of communicative competence as being able to get one’s meaning across or to communicate in a socio-linguistically appropriate manner.” Contrary to Widdowson, Larsen-Freeman thinks that formal grammar teaching should be done to achieve a communicative purpose.

I. 1. 3. 3. 2. Structural Grammar

The rise of structural linguistics in the 1950s and early 1960s attempted to describe languages more consistently, without recourse to meaning or previous grammars, and therefore it was seen more objective and scientific than traditional grammarians had done. “Structural linguists based their grammatical descriptions on careful analysis of English as it was actually spoken in their time, not on hand-me-down rules from Latin and from English grammars of earlier centuries” (Weaver, 1996: 11). Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 2) find it not appropriate to use the eight parts of speech as an organizational framework. With the structural linguists languages came to be analyzed through three

subsystems: the sound system (phonology); the discrete units of meaning produced by sound combinations (morphology); and the system of combining units of meaning for communication (syntax) (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 2). They say that “when the structural view of language was combined with the stimulus-response principles of behaviourist psychology, the audio-lingual and direct approaches to second language learning emerged.” These approaches were also a reaction to the traditional approach, for example; grammar translation methodology, which produced learners who could not use the language communicatively even though they had considerable knowledge of grammar rules (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 2). Since the pedagogy in this approach is based on drills and repetition for accurate production of the target language, grammar is not taught explicitly and deductively as in a grammar translation class.

I. 1. 3. 3. 3. Functional Grammar

As Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 3) indicate, in the 1960s, British linguists developed a system of categories according to the communicative needs of the learner, and proposed a syllabus based on communicative functions. According to this syllabus, grammar content was organized on the basis of the forms which were required for particular communicative or situational activities such as “asking for permission” or “at the hospital”. Although at first glance it was seen to be the opposite of the structural approach, there was a structural basis to functional grammar instruction because certain forms and structures were often

associated with specific functions. In this respect, Weaver (1996:14) points out that functional grammar is primarily concerned how the language works to achieve various purposes and it focuses on larger grammatical components (clauses and sentences) and their functions within text, not on parts of speech as in traditional grammar. In recent years, many textbooks are organized on both functional and structural base. “ (...) They present rules or drills for specific grammatical or functional aspects of a language in a linear sequence from ‘easy’ to ‘difficult’ and stress immediate production of correct forms” (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 3). Skehan (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 3) labels the stages of grammar teaching as “Ps”: Presentation, practice and production. First, teacher presents a single grammar point, and students practise the rule within a controlled framework and then, in the final stage, students produce the form more spontaneously.

I. 1. 3. 3. 4. Cognitive Approach

With the development of Chomskian theories of ‘Universal Grammar’ and syntax, explicit grammar received renewed emphasis (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 4). According to this approach, grammar teaching and classroom curricula are designed to give learners opportunities to construct new meanings by taking into consideration what they already know. It is believed that grammar is too complex to be learned naturally; however, it requires mental processing for learners to be able to attain linguistic competence (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 4).

According to this approach, which was developed as a reaction to the behaviourist features of the audio-lingual approach, language learning is rule acquisition, not habit formation. That is, grammar must be taught, but it can be done either deductively or inductively (Celce-Murcia, 1991: 7). In addition, to Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 4), “the cognitive method of L2 (second language) teaching was based on cognitive approaches to human psychology and language acquisition and relied on transformational and generative theories.”

I. 1. 3. 3. 5. Communicative Approach

Krashen’s Natural Approach and related Input Hypothesis have a great deal of influence on the rise of communicative pedagogy. This approach was developed in response to the greatly increased number of ESL learners. Many of those learners knew grammar rules but could not use the target language communicatively (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 4). According to the approach, the aim of language course is to facilitate language acquisition by giving learners positive feelings towards the instructional process and lowering the affective filter in the classroom. There is no formal grammar instruction but meaning-focused input containing target forms and vocabulary. The learners acquire the forms and vocabulary naturally, during the process of comprehending the input, which is a similar way a child learns the first language (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 4). In spite of the popularity of this approach in recent years, there are many opposing ideas to communicative approach. According to Brown and Larsen-

Freeman (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 5), although the approach says that explicit grammar teaching is not needed for communication, L2 researchers and methodologists comment that grammatical competence is essential for communication. For example, as certain types of language knowledge (such as academic speaking or writing) are difficult to attain in the process of naturalistic learning, so Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 5) think that attaining high levels of language competence and performance may require instructed learning. Skehan (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 5) says that “communicative syllabuses are suggested to be equally inadequate because of their neglect of grammar instruction, tending to produce fossilization and classroom pidgins and lower levels of accuracy than would be the case under formal instruction.” In this case, many methodologists suggest integrating grammar instruction with communicative language learning. In that way, learners are able to recognize the properties of target structure in context and develop accuracy in use (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 6).

I. 1. 3. 3. 6. Discourse-Based Approach

As mentioned before, both explicit grammar instruction and communicative methodology have some effective features and disadvantages on second language teaching and learning. Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 8) indicate that effective features of the two approaches result in a new approach to teaching L2 grammar. This approach combines “the positive aspects of natural learning and

authentic use with those of explicit grammar instruction.” In addition to focus on form, learners are provided with authentic language uses and structures and their meanings in discourse and text (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 8).

I. 2. Discourse and Context

I. 2. 1. Discourse

Cook (1989: 6) implies that there are two kinds of language as “potential objects” for study: “one abstracted in order to teach a language or literacy, or to study how the rules of language work, and another which has been used to communicate something and is felt to be coherent (....).” The second kind – language in use, for communication – is called discourse. Cook (1989: 7) says that “discourse may be composed of one or more well-formed grammatical sentences – and indeed it often is – but it does not have to be.” He adds that what matters with the discourse is not its conformity to rules, but its coherence and whether it communicates or not. It should communicate and be recognized by its receivers as coherent. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 4) indicate that “when language is used for communication, the co participants typically employ one or more skills simultaneously: listening, reading, speaking or writing.” They define ‘discourse’ as “the language produced interactively by such co participants (i.e., language in use).” In addition to this, McCarthy (1991: 5) says that discourse

analysis is concerned with the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used.

There are many different ways of classifying discourse. As it is expressed by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 5), one dimension is the written/spoken distinction; which is called as written or spoken texts. Some discourse may be “monologic” and “dialogic” in nature. That is to say, the entire discourse may be produced with little or no interaction - monologic – or it may be produced with two or more participants’ interaction – dialogic or multiparty. Discourse may also be distinguished as “planned” or “unplanned.” Unplanned discourse includes informal notes and letters, conversations, etc., whereas planned discourse includes prepared speeches (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 5).

In addition to this, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain classify discourse as “context-embedded” or “context-reduced.” They say that when “the interlocutors rely heavily on social convention and contextual information,” this type of discourse is considered context-embedded. Context-reduced type of discourse is often planned discourse because “users of such discourse need to rely more heavily on their knowledge of language code and genre types (...)” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 6).

Discourse has also been described as “transactional” and “interactional” by Brown and Yule (1983: 1-2). They point out that the transactional discourse is used to convey ‘factual or propositional information.’ That is, “language used in such a situation is ‘message oriented’.” On the other

hand, interactional discourse is used “to establish and maintain social relationships” (Brown and Yule: 1983: 3). Similarly, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 6) say that “where transactional discourse involves primarily the transmission of information or the exchange of goods and services, and interactional discourse is those instances of language use that shape and maintain social relations and identities and express the speaker’s/writer’s attitude toward the topic or toward the interlocutor(s).”

As Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 6) point out, “discourse is frequently studied from the perspective of register and genre.” According to them, “discourse registers usually reflect the level of formality or informality of an instance of discourse or its degree of technical specificity versus general usage.” On the other hand, a genre is a “culturally and linguistically distinct form of discourse such as narrative (e.g., a recipe), and so on.” Leckie-Tarry (1995: 6) indicates that “a theory of register aims to propose relationships between language function, determined by situational or social factors, and language form.” Citing Halliday, Leckie-Tarry (1995: 6) says that while register may be recognized by its formal (i.e. linguistic) characteristics, its structure is semantic.

In short, both situational and linguistic variables are essential parts of the process of register characterization. Moreover, situational variables determine the function of the utterance and thus specify register as a variety according to use: that is, “function is a product of interrelating situational variables, and register is the product of functional variables” (Leckie-Tarry,

1995: 6-7). According to Leckie-Tarry, for some functional theorists, the concept of register is not sufficient to capture this mediating phenomenon. These theorists have found the category of “genre” more effective in representing the theoretical construct which intervenes between language function and language form. For these genre theorists, “the value of genre as a functional, social semiotic, category is that it offers an interface between the socio-cultural world and textual form” (Leckie-Tarry, 1995: 7). On the other hand, there are many others who employ “genre” in a more limited sense. Citing Halliday, Leckie-Tarry (1995: 7), for example, sees “generic structure not as the embodiment of the text as social process, but a single characteristic of a text, its organizational structure ‘outside the linguistic system’.” She further points out that “genre is a lower order concept register the higher order concept, subsuming genre. The genre of a text contributes to its register.” On the other hand, according to some genre theorists, register is considered as a theory of language as text, rather than as a theory of discourse whereas “genre theory” is a theory of language use, that is, a theory of discourse (Leckie-Tarry, 1995: 8). As it is seen, there is an apparent conflict in terminology and conceptualization between register and genre among the theorists. Citing Martin, Leckie-Tarry (1995: 13) made an attempt to resolve this conflict. She accepts the Hallidayan concept of register as ‘the study of the systematic relation between language and its context’; however she argues that there are two aspects of knowledge of register: Firstly, it entails understanding how language use is influenced by the context of situation, and secondly, it involves knowledge of a description of English. “Distinguishing register from genre, and placing register as a semiotic system intervening

between genre above and language below, where language is treated as the phonology of register and register the phonology of genre” (Leckie-Tarry, 1995: 13).

In spite of the continuing conflict in the terms, it is clear that “discourse genre and register is a conventional institution: a normative codification of different levels of meaning appropriate to a type of situation” (Leckie-Tarry, 1995: 14). According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 6), the most important feature related to ‘genre’ is the communicative purpose of the text which gives ‘genre’ internal structure. That is why, by theorizing of ‘text’ as a finished linguistic product, as Leckie-Tarry (1995: 13) suggests, teachers “have to teach the interpersonal and textual characteristic of genres, the probabilistic, dynamic aspects of their performance as well as their schematic structures.”

I. 2. 2. Context

As it is stated by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000:11), context refers to “all the factors and elements that are nonlinguistic and nontextual but which affect spoken or written communicative interaction.” According to Leckie-Tarry (1995: 17), all meaning is made by contextualization; that is, “the actual occurrence-meaning, use-meaning or text-meaning of a word or phrase depends entirely on its contextualization.” Cook (1989: 10) indicates that between the

1930s and 1960s, there have been several schools of thought who believe that context should be studied out of language analysis as far as possible. “In this way, it is believed, linguistics will be able to make discoveries about the language itself, and its system of rules which exists quite independently of particular circumstances.” Sentence linguists, in this approach, have two alternatives: “They either invent their examples for analysis using their own intuitive knowledge as native speakers (their *linguistic competence*) as a yardstick or they take language which people have actually used and remove all the features which they believe to be irrelevant to their purposes” (Cook, 1989: 10).

Cook argues that removing the features –hesitations, false starts, dialects, interferences, what people are doing and who they are- results in ‘idealized’ language. On the other hand, it is important to understand the meaning of what is said, and the reason why the order of sentences proceeds in the way that it does. In addition, a language learner “needs to be able to handle language which is not idealized- language in use” (Cook, 1989: 11). According to Gabriellatos (2002: 2), language out of context has only “potential” for meaning. In other words, the same sentence/utterance can have different meanings in different context. For example; the question “What do you think?” conveys two different meanings in different contexts. For example; in context (A), two friends are shopping. One of them tries on a pair of shoes, looks at the other and asks: *What do you think?* (= Do you think they suit me? or should I buy it?). On the other hand, in context (B), wife comes into the house all wet. Husband asks: *Is it raining?* Wife answers: *What do you think?* (= Of course it

is!). In context (A), while the speaker is asking a question, in context (B), the speaker does not expect a response.

According to Leckie-Tarry (1995: 17), there are three levels of context: context of culture (or social institutions), context of situation and context of text. “The context of culture is a large and complex knowledge system spread between the various members of a particular culture, and hence consisting of many sets of knowledge, including, in particular, the institutional and ideological” (Leckie-Tarry, 1995: 20). She adds that “the context of culture is accessed by means of the knowledge systems which the various participants bring to bear on the situation, where the knowledge is triggered by aspects of the context of situation.” Bloor (2004: 9) says that every situation is located in a cultural context. “The context of culture is an intricate complex of various social phenomena involving historical and geographical setting but also more general aspects like the field of the activity: education, medicine, provision of goods and services in exchange for money.” In addition to Bloor, Thornbury (1999: 71) points out that if someone is not familiar with the features of the culture, she/he may have serious problems in understanding.

The context of situation includes the immediate and wider environment in which the text actually occurs such as the classroom in the case of a teaching discourse, the shop or market in a sales transaction (Gabrielatos, 2002: 8). In the context of situation, the interactants play a part. Their ages, nationalities, gender and especially their social roles on the occasion (e.g. Teacher and student, mechanic and car owner, friends or strangers) may all be significant (Gabrielatos, 2002: 9). In addition, Thornbury (1999: 70) indicates that “factors

in the context of situation that are important to consider when interpreting the meaning of a language item are the roles and relationships of the speakers and the mode of communication (is it a public notice, a letter, a recorded message etc?).”

The third kind of context is the context of text; that is, co-text. Thornbury (1999: 70) defines co-text as “the rest of the text that surrounds and provides meaning to be the individual language items in the text.” In addition, the interpretation of individual lexical items and of utterances within a discourse is constrained by co-text (Brown and Yule, 1983: 47). Bloor (2004: 8) defines co-text as “the surrounding text.” “The sense of a chunk of language – a few words or a paragraph – is in part dependent on words and paragraphs around it; these constitute the co-text of the bit in focus.” According to Celce-Murcia (2002: 123), the knowledge of cotext is essential in contextual analysis. Contextual analysis gives important clues about how grammar functions at the discourse level. Within a context complete with contextual information and cotext, many target forms or structures are used. Contextual analysis helps to “make useful generalizations about where the target form occurs (or does not occur), what it means, and why it is used (or not used) by a given speaker/writer in a given piece of discourse” (Celce-Murcia, 2002: 123).

I. 2. 3. The Discourse Theory

“The Discourse Theory” is one of the theories resulted from a theory of language use. According to Kıymazarslan (2001: 7), this theory emphasizes that

language development should be viewed within the framework of how the learners discover the meaning capacity of language by taking part in communication. He gives it as an example that Del Hymes' description of communicative competence reflects the principles of the Discourse Theory. Kiyamazarslan (2001: 7) adds that "communicative competence includes knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary, knowledge of rules of speaking, knowledge of how to use and respond to different types of speech acts and social conventions, and knowledge of how to use language appropriately." According to discourse theorists, it is believed that language acquisition will successfully take place when learners 'know' how and when to use the language in various settings and when they have successfully 'cognized' various forms of competence such as grammatical competence (lexis, morphology, syntax and phonology) and pragmatic competence (e.g., speech acts).

According to discourse theorists, teaching L2 grammar combines the positive aspects of natural learning and authentic use with those of explicit grammar instruction (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002: 8). They say that "in addition to focus on form, another direction of research deals with authentic language uses and structures and their meanings in discourse and text." According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 54-55), there are two approaches: Macropragmatic approach and microanalytic approach. In a macropragmatic approach, language teacher starts with "definable speech event" or a "written or oral genre" (such as a narration). This approach relates to top-down language processing. "A top-down approach to language regards all levels of language as a whole, working together (....)" (Cook, 1989: 82). In a microanalytic approach, as Celce-Murcia

and Olshtain (2000: 55) point out, language teacher begins with forms or structures. They indicate that “most functional grammarians follow some version of microanalytic approach and have uncovered much useful information that contributes to our understanding of the interaction of grammar and discourse.” They relate this approach to bottom-up language processing. According to Cook (1989: 82), “bottom-up approach divides communication into discrete levels which can be dealt with separately.” However, this separation of levels plays an important role in the study and the teaching of discourse; that is why; its role should be taken into consideration in language teaching as well (Cook, 1989: 82). According to Cook, “a good deal of language teaching has followed a bottom-up approach, in that it has considered only the formal language system, often in isolated sentences, without demonstrating or developing the way that system operates in context” (83).

I. 2. 4. Discourse and Language Teaching

As it is stated before, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 16) point out that the major goal of teaching a foreign language is to enable students to develop communicative competence. As cited in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 16), Dell Hymes and his colleagues are the first who argued that “language competence consists not only Chomsky’s (1957, 1965) grammatical competence but also of sociolinguistic or pragmatic competence, which covers all situated aspects of language use and related issues of appropriacy (...).”

Hymes' argument –communicative competence- had an important role on language methodologists who contributed to the development of Communicative Language Teaching (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 16). As it is indicated by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, a pedagogical framework based explicitly on the notion of communicative competence was first proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983). They argued that communicative competence consists of at least four components: Linguistic or grammatical competence (knowledge of sentence patterns, lexical resources, etc.), sociolinguistic competence (social and cultural knowledge to use a language appropriately, etc.), strategic competence (knowledge of the strategies and procedures related to language learning, language processing and production) and discourse competence (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 16).

According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, the central competency in Canale and Swain's framework is discourse competence because everything related to other competencies comes together in it. Citing Canale and Swain, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 16) state that it “involves the selection, sequencing and arrangement of words, structures, and sentences/utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written whole with reference to a particular message and context.”

Cook (1989: 11) points out that “the language learner needs to be able to handle language which is not idealized – language in use. The language teacher needs, therefore, to decide on the extent to which idealized language may help the development of disability.” He further claims that there are two

approaches to language: sentence linguistics and discourse analysis. In sentence linguistics data, there are isolated sentences which are grammatically well-formed. They are either invented or idealized without a context. On the other hand, discourse analysis data consists of any stretch of unified language which achieves meaning in context (Cook, 1989: 12). He suggests that “we cannot communicate with *only* the rules of semantics and grammar, so we just as surely cannot communicate very well without them.”

I. 2. 4. 1. Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4) define the concept of cohesion as a semantic one and indicate that “cohesion refers to relations of meaning that exist within text and that define it as a text.” Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some sentences are dependent on another sentences in the discourse. That is, “the one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4). Trujillo (2004: 1) further indicates that a speaker of a language can easily distinguish between a text and a collection of sentences because texts have ‘texture’, that is the quality of functioning as a unity.

Widdowson (1979: 26) says that:

The notion of cohesion, (...), refers to the way sentences and parts of sentences combine so as to ensure that there is propositional development. Usually sentences used communicatively in discourse do

not in themselves express independent propositions: they take on value in relation to other propositions expressed through other sentences.

So as to be “cohesive”, a discourse must allow for effective propositional development and the sentences must be appropriate in the form to allow this development (Widdowson, 1979: 27). As McCarthy and Carter (1995: 89) indicate, cohesion has become central to the discursal components of the syllabus in applied linguistics and language teaching. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 29-30) point out that if a systematic analysis of cohesion is done, with respect to consideration relevant to grammar teaching in this study, cohesion should be discussed referring to non-structural components of it – the cohesive ties. There are different types of cohesive ties: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions and lexical cohesion.

Reference items in English, as McCarthy (1991: 35) points out, include pronouns, demonstratives, the article *the*, and items like *such a*. Reference items have a “pointing” function in a given discourse. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 31) state that “the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular or class of things that is being referred to; and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time.” According to Hatch (1992: 223), to establish ‘reference’, lexical items may be used. For example, ‘John’ can be used to refer to a person named John. Once the referent is established, ‘John’ can be referred as ‘he’. It is a cohesive tie to the noun ‘John’. In addition to lexical items, for grammatical reference, pronouns, demonstratives and comparatives are used. McCarthy and Carter (1995: 91) point out that “in a conventional grammar, pronouns and

demonstratives partake of different systems; in a discourse grammar, there is every reason to bring them together.” McCarthy and Carter (1995: 91) indicate that in the discourse-based syllabus “it will be studied not only alongside *he* and *she* but also alongside *this* and *that*, in terms of the basic functions of topic focus that operate in all discourses.” They add that “in constructing extended texts the learner will have to be sensitive to constraints that require a return to a full noun phrase when topicalization changes, or when new discourse segments begin” (McCarthy and Carter, 1995: 91).

A second major type of cohesive ties is that of substitution. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 88) define substitution as a process in the text, that is, as “the replacement of one item one another.” Hatch (1992: 224) says that “in contrast to reference, substitution refers not to a specific entity but a class of items.” It can be made for nominals, verb groups, and clauses as it is shown in the following examples taken from Hatch (1992: 225):

Nominal: Do you want the blankets? Yes, I’ll take *one*.

(“One” substituted for “blankets”)

Verbal: Did you sing? Yes, I *did*.

(“Did” substituted for “sang”)

Clausal: The blankets needed to be cleaned. Yes, they *did*.

(“Did” substituted for “needed to be cleaned”)

In many language classes, although it is not easy to translate them into other languages, these items are practised in sentence-level grammar exercises. Whereas, it is easy to formulate basic rules for substitution (McCarthy, 1991: 45).

With the help of substitution, we do not need to answer a question like “Do you like elephants?” with a sentence like “Yes, I like elephants” instead of “Yes, I do”. However, Cook (1989: 20) says that “unfortunately, much traditional language teaching in its zeal for practising verb tenses and using new vocabulary, has concentrated exclusively on longer forms (Answer with a full sentence please!) and deprived students of briefer, more authentic options.”

The third major type is ellipsis which is defined as the omission of an item by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 88). As Cook (1989: 20) indicates, “omitting part of sentences on the assumption that an earlier sentence or the context will make the meaning clear is known as ellipsis.” McCarthy (1991: 44) says that it is not easy for language learners to learn what structural omissions are permissible. Yet, “it does not seem to be readily used even by proficient learners in situations where native speakers naturally resort to it.”

The fourth type of cohesive tie is conjunction. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 226) indicate that conjunction is different in nature from the other cohesive ties because “conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse.”

Hatch (1992: 225) adds that the conjunction helps one to interpret the relation between the clauses. There are several conjunctive relations: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. Cook (1989: 21) indicates that “language learners need to know both how and when to use them. Their presence or absence in discourse often contributes to style, and some conjunctions can sound very pompous when used inappropriately.”

To conclude, it is suggested by McCarthy and Carter (1995: 92) that there is a need to look at traditional categories from a new perspective. Cohesion and cohesive ties suggest “powerful links between the higher order choices (such as paragraphing and realizing elements of textual patterns) and the lower order features such as pronoun and demonstrative reference.” They further claim that this is what a discourse grammar is meant by and “how the grammatical inventory of the discourse syllabus would differ from the conventional, sentence-based grammatical inventory” (McCarthy and Carter, 1995: 92).

I. 2. 4. 2. Coherence

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 8) claim that an effective discourse also requires coherence as well as cohesion. “Coherence contributes to the unity of a piece of discourse such that the individual sentences and utterances hang together and relate to each other.” They add that coherence may be viewed as part of ‘top-down’ planning and organization. According to Yule (1985: 106),

coherence is “not something which exists in the language, but something which exists in people. It is people who ‘make sense’ of what they read and hear.” The following is a good example which is taken from Widdowson (Yule, 1985: 107):

Nancy: That’s the telephone.

Ron: I’m in the bath.

Nancy: O.K.

Although there are no cohesive ties within this fragment of discourse, one may easily interpret the message. It is clear that “language users must have a lot of knowledge of how conversational interaction works which is not simply ‘linguistic’ knowledge” (Yule, 1985: 107).

Cook (1989: 28) indicates that depending on who says the sentence, to whom and in what situations, one can understand the function of the utterance. The same utterances may function as an order, an apologize or an interpretation. In this case, just by knowing the structure or the rules of a language is not enough to react the utterances used without formal links.

I. 2. 4. 3. Information Structure

As it is stated by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 8), “**information structure** is the presentation of ‘old’ (known) information versus ‘new’ (unknown) information.” Cook (1989: 64) indicates that “the ordering of information is determined by the sender’s hypothesis about what the receiver does and does not know.” That is, information can be divided into two types – given (which the sender thinks the receiver already knows) and new information (which the sender thinks the receiver does not know) (Cook, 1989: 64). Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 8) say that “basic principle for information structure is that *themes/topics (old information)* generally precede *rhymes/comments (new information)* in order of presentation.” They define the terms that “a topic is a discourse entity that connects one part of the discourse to other parts through continuity in given information (i.e., old or known information) that runs through the entire discourse and helps us understand what is being discussed.” On the other hand, the comment is “what is said about the topic and that is generally new or added information” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 9). McCarthy (1991: 52) points out that “the relationship of the theme to the rest of the sentence is viewed as part of *communicative dynamism* (...).” In addition to this, Cook (1989: 67) indicates that one’s assumptions about the world and the people with whom s/he communicates give unity to his/her discourse and success to his/her communication. What reveals one’s assumptions about the world and people is the choice one makes about the order of information in discourse. Since the information structure illustrates textual features of a discourse and therefore has a great role in an effective communication, it must be an important part of language teaching. According to Cook (1989: 51),

“grammar teaching may have to reorient some of its structural descriptions (...).” He adds that since traditional teaching includes sentence-level exercises, it should be adjusted to discourse-oriented approaches.

I. 2. 4. 4. Critical Discourse Analysis

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 10) say that although discourse is neutral for some critical discourse analysts, it is never neutral. That is why, “it must thus be analyzed in terms of political ideology, social history, and power structures that it embodies and expresses, explicitly or indirectly.” According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 10-11), many critical discourse analysts believe that education is political and ideological to some extent although many teachers are not aware of this. Critical discourse analysts think that discourse in classroom may avoid the social inequality to some extent if the discourse in the language classrooms and the discourse of the textbooks are examined critically. That is why, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 11) suggest that teachers must be aware of this fact to be ready to the potential reactions to the discourse created in the classroom. Critical discourse analysis may avoid the misunderstanding of a discourse.

In conclusion, there is a strong relationship between discourse and language teaching. As Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 17) indicate, “language resources and discourse processing are presented in an interactive and integrated

manner that encourages both principled use of authentic discourse samples and simulation of natural language processing.” Widdowson (1979: 52) shows the relationship between discourse and language teaching in the way that “language use has to do with propositions and the acts they are used to perform. But these do not occur in isolation: They combine to form discourse.” He further claims that when a child learns a language, he learns how it works at the same time. He does not acquire a formal system. At first, the child learns what it is to ask for something, to explain, so on. Then he becomes aware of the formal elements in the business social interactions. He learns certain common patterns of discourse development with the understanding of basic conversational routines, “like question/answer sequences.” In addition to this, the sense of appropriacy is established not through formal education but through acquiring knowledge of communicative conventions in a natural process (Widdowson, 1979: 52-53). So an important part of the purpose in language teaching is to extend the range of learner’s knowledge of communicative conventions in his own language and then the target language. According to Widdowson (1979: 54), these conventions are not specific to any particular language. Discourse differences are essentially cultural rather than linguistic. That is why, he suggests that teachers should teach text recognition and production in cultural isolation without reference to any particular uses of language. However discourse can only be taught in relation to actual areas of use.

It is clearly seen that “knowing” a language “involves a good deal more than the ability to speak, hear, read and write correct sentences” (Widdowson, 1979: 54). As Cook (1989: 43) indicates:

We need to help learners integrate the components of communication one with another. It's no good teaching them as discrete units and hoping that the learner, suddenly faced with a communicative situation, will be able to integrate them all with immediate success.

I. 2. 5. Teaching Grammar in Context

The reason why it makes sense to teach grammar in context is that “all naturalistic learning of first and second languages takes place in context and at the level of discourse rather than the abstract sentence level” (Celce-Murcia, 2002: 119). Similarly, McCarthy (1991: 62) says that “a discourse-oriented approach to grammar would suggest not only a greater emphasis on context larger than the sentence, but also a reassessment of priorities in terms of what is taught about such things as word order, articles, ellipsis, tense and aspect, and some of the other categories.”

Celce-Murcia (2002: 119) further indicates that “knowing the literal decontextualized meaning of utterance and being able to produce it with grammatical accuracy are only a part (...) of being able to use the utterance appropriately in a variety of communicative context,” but also one needs contextual knowledge such as pragmatic knowledge, purpose, topic in addition to the knowledge of grammar and lexis. The contextual knowledge interacts with discourse knowledge in the way that what has already been mentioned and

what is most likely to be mentioned next. For example, in the use of “articles” in English, knowledge of discourse interacts with contextual knowledge.

However, Celce-Murcia (2002: 120) points out that in formal linguistics grammar is described and studied as “context-free knowledge” which fits well Chomsky’s “innateness hypothesis.” On the other hand, “language socialization hypothesis” says that one acquires grammar and uses it when s/he develops cognitively and socially. According to the hypothesis, Celce-Murcia (2002: 121) indicates:

Grammar in first or second language is acquired through the learner’s repeated and meaningful experience with contextualized discourse, in which grammar is a structural resource that may or may not get explicitly analyzed by the learner as she or he observes and/or engages in meaningful interaction.

In addition to this, what is convincing about teaching grammar in context is that there are few “rules” of English grammar which are context-free. According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 52), determiner-noun agreement, use of gerunds after prepositions, reflexive pronominalizations within the clause and some-any suppletion in negation are the only the context-free, that is sentence-level rules. As it is seen, although there are few context-free rules in English grammar, there are many other rules which are meaning dependent, therefore, not context-free: Use of passive versus active voice, indirect object alternation, pronominalization (across clauses), article/determiner choice, position of adverbials (phrases, clauses), use of existential *there* versus its non-use, tense-aspect-modality choice, right/left dislocation of constituents,

choice of logical connector, use versus non-use of *it* clefts and *wh*-clefts (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 52).

Because of this case, teachers of English as a second/foreign language should deal with grammatical rules not in isolated sentences but in context. Celce-Murcia (2002: 122) says that “context-free knowledge is of less value than contextualized knowledge.” She further claims that teaching grammar in context means teaching grammar through context-embedded discourse rather than through abstract, context-free sentences.

According to Thornbury (1999: 69), since language is context-sensitive, without context, it is very difficult to recover the intended meaning of a single word or phrase. For example, the following sentences taken from Thornbury are almost meaningless out of context:

- a. The ones that don't, seem to think so.
- b. It's a drink.

When the sentence (a) is uttered in the specific context given, the meaning of it depends on the sentence immediately preceding it: “Is it important a gin comes from London? *The one that don't, seem to think so*. Because, though they all have ‘London Dry Gin’ on their labels, only one premium gin is actually distilled in London, the city of great gin making” (Thornbury, 1999: 70).

In addition, the meaning of the sentence (b) depends on people's expectations about the answer to the question in the following context (from Theroux cited in Thornbury, 1999: 70):

‘Are you going to that Hodders party?’

‘I said that I didn’t know anything about it.’

‘It’s for that boring woman who writes picture books about Nash terraces. Every twit in London will be there.’

‘So are you going?’

‘It is a drink’ (...).

In this case, the expected answer to the question “Are you going?” is yes or no. In the context, it is clear that the answer ‘It is a drink’ means ‘yes’ rather than ‘no’. Nevertheless, the sentences are either ambiguous or meaningless out of the context.

Thornbury (1999: 71) says that “although language has traditionally been analyzed and taught at the level of the sentence, real language use seldom consists of sentences in isolation, but of groups of sentences (...) that form coherent texts.” Thornbury finds it easy to look at grammar taken out of context just as it is easier to examine a fish out of water than in its natural habitat.

In conclusion, the study of grammar and teaching grammar cannot be restricted to the sentence-level. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 68) suggest that “there will always be a few local and fairly mechanical grammatical rules that learners need to practise, such as basic word order, making sure determiners and their nouns agree, selecting the correct reflexive pronoun object, and using

gerunds after prepositions.” They add that after practising such rules, they must be extended to automatic use in discourse-level contexts.

I. 2. 5. 1. The Grammatical Rules and Constructions in Discourse-Based Approach

I. 2. 5. 1. 1. Subject-Verb Agreement

Although subject-verb agreement in English is seen as a sentence-level rule according to traditional grammarians, it is argued by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 55) that “especially in the case of collective noun subjects, subject-verb agreement in English can often be flexible depending on the perspective of the speaker/writer, i.e., the speaker or writer has a choice.” The following examples taken from Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 55) show the flexibility discussed above:

- a. The gang was plotting a takeover.
- b. The gang were plotting a takeover.

In this case, if the speaker or writer views “the gang” as a unit, the singular verb form as in (a) is selected. However, if the speaker or writer views “the gang” as several individuals, then the plural verb form in (b) may be selected (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 55). It shows that subject-verb agreement is not a context-free rule and thus it is well understood in discourse-based approach.

I. 2. 5. 1. 2. Word-Order Choices

Although there are some languages which have a flexible word order such as Chinese, Czech and Latin, there are some others whose word order differences have a pragmatic basis. Even in English, “there are many word-order variations that are pragmatically motivated and depend on context for their explanation and interpretation” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 56).

Dative alternation is one of the variations in word order in English. While there are two equivalent ways of expressing a proposition in a *sentence-level* approach to grammar, they may not be seen as equivalent in *discourse-sensitive* approach to grammar. The following examples are taken from Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 56):

1. Sid gave the car to Jim.
2. Sid gave Jim the car.

According to the discourse-sensitive approach to grammar, these two sentences are *nonequivalent* because they occur in different discourse contexts while they are equivalent in sentence-level approach to grammar. Since discourse is sensitive to the ordering of old and new information, one can easily interpret that while “Jim” is the new information in the sentence (1), “Jim” is old

information and “the car” is the new information in the sentence (2) (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 56).

There may be “two possible word orders in constructions composed of separable phrasal verbs and lexical (rather than pronominal) direct objects” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 56):

1. Edward gave up his reward.
2. Edward gave his reward up.

These sentences are, again, equivalent according to the sentence-level approach to grammar. However, they are not equivalent since “the degree of newness” or “the importance of the direct object” plays a role in determining the word order (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 56).

The choices in word order should be taught through discourse because the difference between two sentences which seem to be equivalent cannot be explained in a sentence-level approach. In order to communicate effectively, learners of a second/foreign language should know the word order variations in the target language and thus interpret the sentences and utterances correctly.

I. 2. 5. 1. 3. Tense and Aspect

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 58) point out that “the use of tense, aspect and modality system as a source of coherence in discourse has become an

increasingly prominent topic in applied linguistics (...).” Citing Schiffrin’s study on the use of the historical present tense and its variation with the simple past tense, McCarthy and Carter (1995: 94) point out that the study has become a good example of the approach that combines grammar and discourse since it “compares the use of past tenses and historical present tenses in spoken narrative data, and finds that historical presents tend to cluster in the *complicating event* segments of narratives (...).”

Many discourse analysts agree with the fact that there is a close relationship between patterns of grammatical choice and contextual features relating to types of discourse (McCarthy and Carter, 1995: 97). They point out that “tense and aspect are basically conceived of as creating the temporal framework within which actions, events and processes are to be interpreted. Thus labels commonly used in teaching, for example, *present continuous* and *past perfect*, serve to capture notions such as ‘events happening now’ or ‘actions occurring in the past prior to another past’”(McCarthy and Carter, 1995: 94). They further claim that these labels are useful and give the learner a systematic resource with which to communicate effectively.

However, these commonly used labels are very much oriented towards the ‘objective’ representation of time as an *ideational* elements of the message, whereas we have argued consistently that language as discourse involves participants whose linguistic choices also reflect their relationships with one another (interpersonal functions) as well as the overriding concern of using the language to the participants’ communicative goal (textual functions).

In addition to the verb tense which realizes the elements of discourse structures in narratives, choice of aspect in the verb phrase is also relevant. McCarthy and Carter (1995: 95) point out that “speakers will often change from the simple form of historical present tense to continuous aspect to give particular forms to selected actions and events.”

As it is clearly seen, the choice of tense and aspect has a discourse dimension since “the choices are not determined purely by semantic factors relating to ‘objective’ time” (McCarthy and Carter, 1995: 96).

Since teaching tenses is a recurring item in English language teaching syllabuses, it is important to deal with the studies done by discourse analysts. According to McCarthy and Carter (1995: 97), tenses are often handled only in the form of isolated sentences. They may be helpful, but natural texts can be as a follow -on at the earlier stages of learning. Moreover, with the advanced levels, in order to focus on the interpersonal and textual functions of tense choice, natural texts are preferable to sentences since the aim is to recycle the tense contrast. Therefore, McCarthy and Carter (1995: 97) suggest that the language teaching syllabus should be designed in the way that they provide guidance as to the discourse genres as well as the grammatical contrasts.

I. 2. 5. 1. 4. Modality

As McCarthy and Carter (1995: 102-103) indicate, modality is undoubtedly important in any language course according to the traditional “syntactico -semantic” approach. However, “at the discourse level, a broader view of the devices available for expressing the modal functions of certainty, doubt, commitment, detachment, necessity, obligatoriness, etc, is necessary, along with a consideration of how modality relates to genres and patterns.” For language teachers, as McCarthy and Carter point out, knowing where to find rich textual sources for teaching grammar points is one of the main problems, therefore, they choose to work on “made-up” examples. On the other hand, McCarthy and Carter (1995: 103) point out that “data studies (...) can provide just a sort of information needed concerning the best sources; this is one of the most useful contributions that discourse analysis makes to applied linguistics.”

I. 2. 5. 1. 5. Marked Constructions

There are some constructions which languages develop “to accommodate the flow of information in discourse or for special rhetorical effect in certain contexts” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 59). *Wh*-clefts, *it*-clefts and existential *there* are examples of such constructions. Although they exist to accommodate the flow of information in discourse, most pedagogical approaches treat such constructions at the sentence level only rather than at the discourse level (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 59).

McCarthy and Carter (1995: 93) claim that cleft construction is one of discourse management features which must be dealt with in a discourse grammar. They say that “not only do they represent a particular type of thematizing strategy, but also, it seems, they have longer-range influence well beyond the sentence they occur in, within textual environment.” Cleft constructions have also an important role in the discourse functions. Citing Jones and Jones, and Hudson, McCarthy and Carter (1995: 93) state that they may signal the topic of a paragraph or may be used to function as advice-giving.

In addition to cleft constructions, the functions of existential *there* construction is “to introduce for subsequent development a specific subtopic something more general than has already been established along with the assumption that this subtopic will be further developed in subsequent discourse” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 60).

I. 2. 5. 2. How to Teach Grammar through Discourse and Context

According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 17), in this new perspective to grammar teaching, teachers are no longer strict, but they are flexible. “Teachers, however, have a new and very important role to play by becoming personal mentors for individual students, coaching and guiding them to become autonomous learners.” They indicate that “teachers are expected to become reflective researchers who evaluate and rethink their approaches, attitudes, and methods of presenting new subject matter to students, at every

stage in the teaching/learning process” (17). On the other hand, learners are not expected to be “passive recipients” of the teaching/learning process. They are independent in their choices. In addition to that, they are responsible for their own learning and developing themselves. “They are also often encouraged to carry out self-evaluation in order to further their learning and to develop metacognitive awareness in order to plan and regulate their language learning and language using skills”(Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 17). In addition to the teacher and the learner, materials used in the teaching/learning environment have also critical role in developing the language skills. As Celce-Murcia and Olshtain point out, materials should allow the learners to make choices and consider alternatives to fulfil their needs in learning a second/foreign language. Since “the language classroom becomes a special type of discourse community, (...) instructional materials should ideally offer choices to teachers and learners; they should be flexible and allow for adaptation to specific learner needs and contexts” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 231).

Although it is stated through this chapter that in order to make sense of grammar taught and use the target language communicatively, learners need to be exposed to text and to be encouraged to produce not just isolated sentences but whole text in the language, it is not without problems (Thornbury, 1999: 72). According to Thornbury, these problems relate to the choice of texts. Teachers may use course books and authentic sources (newspaper, songs, literary texts, etc.).The students and teachers themselves may be the source of texts.

By focusing on discourse in language teaching, not only the materials and the role of teachers and students change, but also the way language is taught

shows important changes. Citing McCarthy and Carter, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 230) propose - instead of traditional language teaching methodology which includes “presentation-practice-production” sequence-illustration, interaction, and induction sequence. By “illustration”, they mean using real data (authentic materials). By “interaction”, they mean discourse-sensitive activities that focus on uses of language and negotiation of meaning. By “induction”, they mean “getting learners to draw conclusions about the functions of different “lexico-grammatical” options, thereby developing a skill for noticing critical features of form.” As quoted in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 230), McCarthy and Carter say that “such a teaching approach has considerable potential for a more rapid acquisition by learners of fluent, accurate, and naturalistic (...) communicative skills.”

According to Weaver (1996: 141-147), teachers should follow the following guidelines in discourse-based approach: They should engage students in writing and reading more including literature that is particularly interesting and challenging syntactically. They should teach relevant aspects of grammar within the context of either student’s writing or any authentic text as they become useful in the context of what the students are trying to do. She suggests that to become a “teacher-researcher”, teachers should determine the effects or their teaching of selected items of grammar or their students’ study of grammar as an object of inquiry and discovery. As risk taking and error have an effective role in learning, teachers should encourage students to experience the language in use. Instead of insisting that there is always one right answer to a question, students should appreciate the alternatives and ambiguities in grammar.

I. 2. 5. 2. 1. Teaching Young Learners

As it is stated before as a case against formal grammar instruction, younger learners do not benefit from formal grammar instruction, yet some focus on form may be helpful (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 61). They suggest focusing on form in “painless manner”, by which they mean “using meaningful exchanges that highlight useful grammatical forms.” Students have chance to use language in a meaningful way, that is, combining form and context. Students may become aware of the target structure by talking or writing about themselves by using the target structure. As Thornbury (1999: 76) suggests, a scripted dialogue may be used; for instance to teach present simple. However, just giving the students a dialogue does not mean that all the students will be able to understand the form and use it. In this case, macropragmatic approach is helpful. The tasks during the lesson should first focus on the meaning and then the form.

I. 2. 5. 2. 2. Teaching Beginners

As Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 61) point out, beginners are the most challenging groups to use the discourse-based grammar teaching because they have very limited knowledge in the target language. Teachers may sometimes have to teach some vocabulary to make it easy to comprehend the

discourse. The activities used in the Total Physical Response technique can be more suitable in most cases for the beginners. To present grammar and to practice the comprehension of the meaning conveyed by a specific grammar rule, listening and responding actively to the commands may be used at this level. The commands must include coherent sentences for listening and responding. This type of activity is suggested to prepare the learners for the comprehension and production of related narrative discourse (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 61-62). Similarly, citing Celce-Murcia and Hilles, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 62) suggest “listen-and-colour” exercises. By this way, students are exposed to meaningful context which may ask to distinguish the pronouns, positive or negative instructions, etc.

Since beginners’ knowledge of target language is limited, vocabulary related to a particular topic is one of the most important teaching points to spend time so that learners’ wordstore may be used to practice grammar points and to perform related activities.

Depending on the age and needs of the beginner learners, the topic of the activities and so the discourse may be varied such as; “things I like to do when I have time” and “things I do every day.” By using these headings, learners will be made aware of some related vocabulary such as; leisure activities (play football, go swimming... etc.) At the end of this kind of activity, learners may produce their own texts about the headings. By using their own texts, the teacher may present the structure “Simple Present Tense” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 62-63).

I. 2. 5. 2. 3. Teaching Intermediate Learners

Since the language input is larger in this level, it is easier to find authentic contexts to teach some grammatical structures. In this level, it is also possible to use students' own writing as a context or stories in the classroom. The lyrics of songs may be helpful in practising the language in discourse (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 63-64). Thornbury (1999: 85) suggests using "genre analysis" to teach some grammatical structures. As it is discussed in the previous parts, he says that "a genre is a type of text whose overall structure and grammatical and lexical features have been determined by the contexts in which it is used (...)." Students first get the meaning by paying attention to the communicative function of the form used.

I. 2. 5. 2. 4. Teaching Advanced Learners

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 66-67) suggest using an "inductive-analytic approach" to teaching grammar in discourse. Students are expected to give a description to the use of the forms and structures in the target language. As presented in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, the students may be given three authentic texts using *would* and *used to* and asked to describe the use of these forms in the three texts. They may be guided by some questions like "Which form establishes a frame or topic?" According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 67):

Learners who do such activities can remember and apply reasonably well the grammar they learn this way since they have discovered how

grammar is a resource for telling a story or creating text rather than grammar simply existing as a set of abstract sentence-level rules.

The place of grammar instruction in the second/foreign language curriculum has been strongly discussed in recent years. In this chapter, the reasons why it should be included in a second/foreign language curriculum and the reasons why it is seen unnecessary to include in the curriculum are discussed. While the traditional approach views grammar as the central component of a language, the communicative approach says that grammar teaching is useless because it does not correlate with acquiring grammar. Both approaches have some deficiencies in language teaching. The new approach - teaching grammar in context - combines the positive aspects of the two approaches. That is, the method teaching grammar in context includes both acquisition activities and learning exercises. The lesson plans implemented in this study have been prepared on the basis that they include both acquisition activities and learning exercises.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

In this chapter, the research model, the sample group, data collection materials, development of the teaching materials, procedure and analysis of the data will be presented.

II. 1. Research Model

Since the research is an experimental study, there are two groups in the research: Experimental group and control group. They were not given a pre-test

because this study is a “learning experiment”. Both groups were given a post-test. There was a treatment for the experimental group as it is shown in the research design:

Groups	Pre-test	Treatment	Post-test
E	—	X	T1
C	—	—	T2

II. 2. Sample Group

The experimental and control groups were chosen from the seventh grades at state schools in Mersin. While choosing the schools and classes, the age and the flexibility of the English teachers, the time-table of the English courses and the number of the students in each class were taken into consideration by the researcher. The teachers in two different schools are 8-year experienced in teaching young learners. The time-table of those teachers was also taken into consideration because the courses were observed by the researcher.

There are forty-nine students in the experimental group: thirty-one girls and eighteen boys. In the control group, there are forty-three students: twenty-two girls and twenty-one boys. The experimental group is from Mustafa Kayışođlu Primary School and the control group is from Batıkent Primary School in Mersin.

II. 3. Data Collection Materials

Two different types of materials were used in the research: A post-test and an opinion questionnaire.

II. 3. 1. Development of the Material used as the Post-Test

In order to develop the post-test material, a test consisting of two sub-tests on the structure “used to” was designed by the researcher (Appendix 1). The first sub-test, which is called as “A”, consists of twenty multiple choice items. The other sub-test, which is called “B” consists of twenty multiple choice items. While there are sentence level items on usage of the target structure “used to” in the sub-test A, in the sub-test B, there are four reading passages written in the target structure “used to” and reading comprehension questions. The reading passages are called as Ba, Bb, Bc and Bd. The items in the sub-test A are sentence level test items which reflect the traditional method. The focus is on form rather than function. The items in the sub-test B are context-based questions which reflect the context-based method. The focus is on the function of the form “used to”. The test was given to 205 students at private and state schools in Mersin who had been taught the structure “used to” before.

The data were analyzed by using the SPSS program. Item-total correlations were analyzed to investigate item validities by using biserial correlation (rb) technique. According to the results, one item from each sub-test was omitted. The ninth item from the part A, and the eleventh item (Bc1) from

the part B were omitted. Then the items in each sub-test were ordered again from the easiest to the most difficult one. The results of item difficulty index (p) are shown in the last column of each Table.

Table 1. Item-Total Correlation for the Sub-test A.

Item Number	Rb	p
A1	0.756	.512
A2	0.861	.376
A3	0.825	.424
A4	0.563	.459
A5	0.696	.376
A6	0.896	.512
A7	0.887	.532
A8	0.887	.585
A9	0.241	.415
A10	0.880	.537
A11	0.728	.449
A12	0.780	.576
A13	0.771	.537
A14	0.940	.512
A15	0.809	.561
A16	0.779	.654
A17	0.754	.273
A18	0.771	.605
A19	0.808	.478
A20	0.898	.694

Table 2. Item-Total Correlation for the Sub-test B.

Item Number	Rb	p
Ba1	0.569	.380
Ba2	0.462	.815
Ba3	0.928	.229
Ba4	0.736	.741
Ba5	.0.764	.737
Bb1	0.731	.673
Bb2	0.467	.571
Bb3	0.952	.541
Bb4	0.715	.663
Bb5	0.789	.678
Bc1	0.326	.312
Bc2	0.587	.444
Bc3	0.736	.780

Bc4	0.584	.698
Bd1	0.394	.439
Bd2	0.510	.259
Bd3	0.656	.751
Bd4	0.340	.766
Bd5	0.438	.439
Bd6	0.530	.327

To investigate the reliability of the test, Kuder-Richardson 20 was calculated before and after omitting the two items. The first Kuder-Richardson 20 results and the last results after omitting the two items are shown in the following Table. As it is seen in Table 3, the reliability of the sub-tests A and B and the whole test is at the adequate level. The post-test material is included thirty-eight items, nineteen in the sub-test A and nineteen in the sub-test B (Appendix 2).

Table 3. Kuder-Richardson 20 before and after omitting the items.

	KR-20 A	KR-20 B	KR-20 A+B
Before	0.913	0.812	0.919
After	0.920	0.800	0.920

II. 3. 2. Development of the Opinion Questionnaire

The opinion questionnaire consists of two questions which are asking students' opinions about the sub-test A and the sub-test B (Appendix 3). The questionnaire was attached to the end of the test which was given to those 205 students at private and state schools in Mersin.

II. 4. Development of the Teaching Materials

Teaching materials were prepared by the researcher (Appendix 4). According to the yearly plan prepared by the English teachers of the experimental and control groups, the teaching unit was determined as “used to.” In the yearly plan, time given for the unit is four-period English course. For the experimental group, the lesson plans of a-four-period English course on the structure “used to” were prepared by the researcher on the basis of context-based grammar teaching. The materials and handouts were made ready for the teacher of the experimental group.

II. 5. Procedure

II. 5. 1. Treatment

Before the treatment, the teachers were told that they would be observed during the lessons. The teacher of the experimental group was educated for the implementation of the experimental method. The teacher of the control group went on teaching as she used to before, but she was observed that she did not use the context-based grammar teaching method and techniques during the teaching periods. With the experimental group, the teacher applied the lesson plans just as the method suggests. With the control group, the teacher just used the course book. She did not use extra materials.

II. 5. 2. Data Collection

At the end of one-week treatment, each group was given the same test in their own classrooms and by their own English teachers. The post-test included the sub-test A, the sub-test B and an opinion questionnaire. There were nineteen questions in each sub-test and two questions in the opinion questionnaire. In order to control order effect, the sub-tests were given after reordering the items according to the results of the item difficulty index.

II. 6. Analysis of the Data

To analyze the data, t-test for Paired Samples and t-test for Independent Samples, Pearson Moments Product Correlation, Biserial Correlation Coefficient and ANCOVA were calculated by using SPSS 10.0. Analysing the correlations between the learners' opinions and their scores in the tests, learners' opinions are assumed to be continued variable.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results are discussed in the order that the research questions flow.

1. a. Are there any differences in terms of grammar between the students who are taught the target structure in context and those who are taught the same structure at the sentence level?

Table 4. The Results of t-test for Independent Samples for the Sub-test A.

	N	$\bar{\mathbf{X}}$	S	t	p
E	49	14.1837	3.7731	3.751	0.000
C	43	10.7907	4.8871		

Table 4 shows that there is a clear difference in terms of grammar between the experimental and control groups. However, since the groups are not given a first test, this difference cannot be attributed to the treatment in the experimental group. Because of this, the English course grades of the students participated in the research are taken as a covariate variable and the data are analyzed again by ANCOVA.

Table 5. Analysis of Covariance for the Sub-test A.

Source of Change	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	p
E/C	1.014	1	1.014	.068	.795

English Grades	362.173	1	362.173	24.240	.000
EC * Eng. Grades	9.699	1	9.699	.649	.423
Error	1.314.803	88	14.941		

As can be seen in Table 5, the experimental group is more successful than the control group before the experiment ($p = .000$) in terms of their success in English. The results of the ANCOVA show that after covariating the English course grades of the students, there is not a difference between the groups in terms of grammar, which means that the manipulation is not proved.

1. b. Are there any differences in terms of reading comprehension between the students who are taught the target structure in context and those who are taught the same structure at the sentence level?

Table 6. The Results of t-test for Independent Samples for the Sub-test B.

	N	$\bar{\mathbf{X}}$	S	t	p
E	49	12.3061	2.8078	3.262	0.002
C	43	10.3488	2.9430		

It is shown in Table 6 that there is a clear difference in terms of reading comprehension between the experimental and control groups. However, since the groups are not given a first test, this difference cannot be attributed to the treatment in the experimental group. Because of this, the English course grades of the students participated in the research are taken as a covariate variable and the data are analyzed again by ANCOVA.

Table 7. Analysis of Covariance for the Sub-test B.

Source of Change	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
E/C	16.769	1	16.769	2.919	.091
English Grades	236.581	1	236.581	41.178	.000
EC * Eng. Grades	24.419	1	24.419	4.250	.042
Error	505.590	88	5.745		

In Table 7, it can be seen that the experimental group is more successful than the control group before the experiment ($p = .000$) in terms of their success in English. The results of the Analysis of Covariance show that after covariating the English grades of the students, there is not a difference between the groups in terms of reading comprehension, which means that the manipulation is not proved.

1.c. Are there any differences in terms of grammar and reading comprehension (total score) between the students who are taught the target structure in context and those who are taught the same structure at the sentence level?

Table 8. The Results of t-test for Independent Samples for the Whole Test.

	N	\bar{X}	S	t	p
E	49	26.4898	5.4663	4.380	0.000
C	43	21.1395	6.2510		

Table 8 shows that there is a clear difference in terms of both grammar and reading comprehension between the experimental and control groups. However, since the groups are not given a first test, this difference cannot be attributed to the manipulation. Because of this, the English course grades of the students participated in the research are taken as a covariate variable and the data are analyzed again by ANCOVA.

Table 9. Analysis of Covariance for the Whole Test.

Source of Change	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
E/C	26.032	1	26.032	1.217	.273
English Grades	1.184.188	1	1.184.188	55.367	.000
EC * Eng. Grades	64.896	1	64.896	3.034	.085
Error	1.882.141	88	21.388		

In Table 9, it can be seen that the experimental group is more successful than the control group before the experiment ($p = .000$) in terms of their success in English. The results of the ANCOVA show that after covarying the English course grades of the students, there is not a difference between the groups in terms of both grammar and reading comprehension, which means that the manipulation is not proved.

1d. Are there any differences in terms of scores in the sub-tests both in the experimental and control groups?

The results of t-test for Paired Samples show that the experimental group is more successful in the sub-test A than the sub-test B. ($t = -3.468$ $sd = 48$ $p < 0.001$). It can be said that while the experimental group seems to be more successful in sentence-level test items (sub-test A) than the text-level test items (sub-test B), findings do not indicate this kind of difference in the control group. That is to say, in the control group there is not a significant difference in terms of the scores both in the sentence-level test and text-level test. However, since a pre-test was not implemented, whether this difference is due to the treatment or not is questionable.

1. e. Are there any differences in terms of opinions about the sub-tests between the students who are taught in context and the students who are taught at the sentence level?

The result of t-test for Independent Samples indicates that there is not found a difference between the groups in terms of opinions about the sub-test A and the sub-test B ($p > 0.05$).

1. f. Is there a correlation between the opinions about the sub-tests and success in the sub-tests in the whole group?

Table 10. The Correlation in the Whole Group

Groups		R	p
E+C	Opinion A – A total	0.334	0.01
	Opinion A- A+B total	0.232	0.01

	Opinion B – B Total	0.196	0.06
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It is shown in Table 10 that there is a positive and significant (0.01) correlation between the learners' opinions about the sub-test A (grammar) and their success in the sub-test A. On the other hand, there is not a significant correlation between the opinions about the sub-test B (reading comprehension) and students' score in the sub-test B.

1. g. Is there a correlation between the opinions about the sub-tests and success in the sub-tests in the experimental group?

Table 11. The Correlation in the Experimental Group.

Groups		R	p
E	Opinion A-Opinion B	- 0.360	0.05
	Opinion A -- A total	0.350	0.05
	Opinion A--A+B total	0.315	0.05
	Opinion B -- B Total	0.031	0.83

It is shown in Table 11 that there is a negative and significant correlation (0.05) between the opinions about the sub-test A and the sub-test B. Then there is a tendency that if the students like the sub-test A, they do not like the sub-test B or if they like the sub-test B, they do not like the sub-test A. There is a positive and meaningful correlation between the opinions about the sub-test A and the scores in the sub-test A and the whole test. There is not a significant correlation between the learners' opinions and their scores in the sub-test B in the experimental group.

1. h. Is there a correlation between the opinions about the sub-tests and success in the sub-tests in the control group?

Table 12. The Correlation in the Control Group.

Groups		R	p
C	Opinion A – A total	0.316	0.05
	Opinion B – B total	0.443	0.01

The results show that (Table 12) for the control group, there is a positive and meaningful correlation between the opinions and scores in the sub-test A and B.

CONCLUSION

With the rise of the communicative approach in the mid-1970s, teaching methods reliant on a structural syllabus were disregarded on the grounds that acquiring grammar is not totally parallel to learning grammar. The communicative approach suggests a functional syllabus which is organized according to categories of meaning. According to Widdowson (1979: 3), learning of a language involves not learning the rules of a language but acquiring and understanding of which sentences and structures are appropriate in a particular context. Among the language methodologists and linguists, there is a discussion whether grammar teaching must be done explicitly or implicitly. According to Thornbury (1999: 16), for instance, “learners who receive no instruction seem to be at the risk of fossilising sooner than those who do receive instruction.” On the other hand, the studies done on formal grammar teaching show that a second/foreign language may be most readily acquired in much the same way as one’s native language (Weaver, 1996: 48). According to Krashen, for instance, learning results from formal instruction but acquisition is a natural process by which is picked up through contact with speakers of those languages (Thornbury, 1999: 19). That is why, grammar courses should be designed with both acquisition activities and learning exercises.

Teaching grammar in context combines both acquisition activities and learning exercises in the way that learners are aware of the structure and the meaning in a given context and learning activities are designed as post-reading or post-writing activities on the basis that one uses a language effectively when

s/he discovers the meaning of a language by taking part in communication. According to discourse theorists, language acquisition successfully takes place when learners know how and when to use the language in various contexts. The aim of teaching a structure must be teaching the function of that structure in different situations. Through the method – teaching grammar in context – learners have the opportunity to focus on the form and its authentic use and its various meanings in discourse and text. That is to say, learners develop discourse competence by learning through this method. Discourse competence is seen as the central competency because it is related to other competencies which are linguistic or grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 16).

The main problem of the language education especially in Turkey is that many language learners know the grammar rules of the target second/foreign language, but they cannot communicate effectively or they cannot comprehend what they read in that language. In addition, most of the learners are not aware of their learning styles or they have some beliefs about the type of instruction that suits themselves. Some others have negative opinions about studying grammar. This study is done to examine whether there is a difference in the proficiency of the students both in sentence-based test items and text-based test items who are taught the same structure with the two different approaches. The study also considers whether there is a correlation between the students' opinions about the sentence-based test items and text-based test items and their success in these sub-tests.

The results show that there is not a difference in the proficiency level in grammar and reading comprehension between the learners who are taught the target structure in context and at the sentence level. However, the group who are taught in the contextual way is more successful in grammar than in reading comprehension when they are tested by the sentence-level questions. There are not any differences in the level of proficiency in grammar and reading comprehension with the learners who are taught the target structure at the sentence level.

In addition, the results show that in the control and the experimental groups there is not a difference between the opinions about the sub-tests reflecting the methods – teaching grammar in context and teaching grammar at the sentence level. On the other hand, in terms of the correlations of both the experimental and control groups, in the experimental group, findings show a tendency of a positive correlation between the learners' opinions about the sentence-level test items and their success in this test. However, in the control group, there seems to be a tendency that there is a positive and significant correlation between the learners' opinions and their success in both grammar and reading comprehension sub-tests.

Suggestions

Unfortunately, this study is limited to 92 students and the unit “used to” and the treatment process is limited to four-period teaching time. The suggestion is that such a study should be done during at least a semester, so it

may include more than one unit to be taught. It was a disadvantage that the proficiency level of the experimental and control groups were not equal at the beginning of the study, so it has affected the results of the study. Our suggestion is that a pre-test post-test experimental design will give more meaningful results in the long-run. So this study may give insights for the further studies comparing and contrasting the effects of sentence-based grammar teaching and context-based grammar teaching at various levels of learners in Turkey.

It is assumed that this study will be helpful for English teachers about thinking about the conflicts of grammar teaching methods and changing themselves and their teaching methods according to the needs of the learners.

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APPENDIX 1

Name: Grade:
School:.....

In the test, there are two parts called A and B and twenty multiple choice items in each part. At the end of the test, there is an attitude questionnaire. You have 40 minutes to complete the test. GOOD LUCK!

PART A. USE OF ENGLISH

I. Circle the appropriate answers to complete the sentences . You do not need to write the answers in the blanks shown.

1. I to school by bus when I was a child.
a. don't go b. used to go c. used go d. go

2. Which subject at school when you were a student?
a. did you use to like c. you used to like
b. you used like d. you don't like

3. We a computer when we were young, but we have a computer now.
a. have c. didn't use to have
b. don't use to have d. won't have

4. We used to live near a big park, so we in that park.
a. play c. are playing
b. used to play d. will play

5. When he was young he Maths and Science, but he used to like Art and Music.
a. don't like c. didn't use to like
b. won't like d. used to like

6. Ann plays the piano very well now, but she the flute in the past.
a. used to play c. plays
b. will play d. is playing

7. I a Citroen in the past, but I have a Porche now.
a. have c. won't
b. used to have d. will have

8. She in a small flat in the past, but she lives in a big house now.
a. lives c. used to live
b. will live d. is living

9. They used to work in a restaurant in the past. They in a hotel now.
a. used to work c. work
b. worked d. didn't work

10. I stamps in the past, but now I collect gold coins.
a. collect
b. used to collect
c. will collect
d. am collecting
11. He football in the past because he didn't like football.
a. didn't use to play
b. plays
c. will play
d. used to play
12. When he was young, Jim his grandparents once a week.
a. visit
b. will visit
c. used to visit
d. is visiting
13. When Sue was thirteen years old, she short hair.
a. has
b. is having
c. will have
d. used to have
14. We live in London now. We in Turkey ten years ago.
a. have lived
b. used to live
c. are living
d. live
15. I never wear glasses now, but I glasses twenty years ago.
a. used to wear
b. am wearing
c. wear
d. will wear
16. My grandmother bread and cheese in the past, but now she buys them at the supermarket.
a. makes
b. is making
c. will make
d. used to make
17. They didn't have television in the past, so they TV.
a. didn't use to watch
b. watch
c. watched
d. used to watch
18. The houses cheap in Mersin in the past, they are expensive now.
a. are
b. used to be
c. will be
d. have been
19. We have internet cafes now, but we libraries in the past.
a. won't have
b. used to have
c. are having
d. have
20. your mother when you were a child?
a. Did you use to help
b. Will you help
c. Are you helping
d. Do you help

PART B. READING COMPREHENSION

I. Read the passage carefully and circle the appropriate answer that best completes the sentences.

Rose is Paul's grandmother. She lives in a small town near the sea. Paul's house is next door. Rose hasn't always lived there. She used to live in London. While she was growing up, they didn't use to go away on holiday, but her mother sometimes used to take her on day trips. When she was nine, she went to the seaside with some friends. They went by train and they only stayed there for a day, but Rose still remembers that day very clearly. She left London twenty years ago. Now she can go to the seaside every day.

1. Now she can go to the seaside
 - a. once a week
 - b. every day
 - c. every month
 - d. once a year

2. Rose used to live
 - a. in a small town
 - b. in London
 - c. next to Paul's house
 - d. in a country near the sea

3. Her mother used to take her
 - a. on day trips
 - b. to the seaside
 - c. to a small town
 - d. to holiday away from home

4. They went to the seaside
 - a. by train
 - b. by bus
 - c. by car
 - d. on horse

5. When she was nine, she went to the seaside with
 - a. her parents
 - b. Paul
 - c. her friends
 - d. her mother

II. Read the passage carefully and circle the answer that best completes the sentences.

Football was always Sue Robert's favourite sport. She used to play in her garden every day and she used to stick posters of her favourite players on the wall of her bedroom. When Sue was thirteen, she played for her Youth Club girls' team and a year later she became captain. She was the best goal scorer and she hoped to play for her country.

Sue always used to practise in the park with the team on Sundays. One day in January there was a match. The weather was cold and the wind was blowing. Suddenly, Sue fell into the river. The other girls could not get her out. Then 20 minutes later a police officer pulled her out. She was cold. They took her to hospital. Sue was very lucky. Sue got better quickly. Then she decided to be a swimmer. She doesn't play football now.

1. When she was thirteen, she
 - a. used to play in the garden
 - b. used to play for her Youth Club
 - c. became a captain
 - d. had an accident

2. She used to play football. After the accident, she decided to be
 - a. a tennis player
 - b. a swimmer
 - c. a basketballer
 - d. the captain of the team

3. While practising in the park, Sue
 - a. fell into the river
 - b. took her friends to the hospital
 - c. left her friends
 - d. saw a police officer

4. Sue Robert's favourite sport was
 - a. basketball
 - b. football
 - c. volleyball
 - d. tennis

5. pulled Sue out that day.
 - a. her friends
 - b. her parents
 - c. a police officer
 - d. her teacher

III. Read the passage carefully and circle the correct statement according to the passage.

In Turkey today, children watch an average of three hours of television a day. Before the 1950s children didn't have television but they were never bored. They used to go to the cinema once a week but usually they made their own games. For example, in the evenings the family used to have music and games at home. Only rich people used to go to the theatre. Most people didn't use to leave the area they lived in.

1. a. Only rich people used to make their own games.
b. Only rich people used to go to the theatre.
c. Only rich people used to watch television a lot.
d. Only rich people used to have music at home.

2. a. Children watch television a lot today.
b. Children used to watch television a lot in the past.
c. Children used to have television before the 1950s.
d. Children were bored in the past.

3. a. They used to go to the cinema once a month.
b. They used to go to the cinema every day.
c. They used to go to the cinema once a year.
d. They used to go to the cinema once a week.

4. a. They used to go to the seaside in the evenings.
b. They used to go to the theatre in the evenings.
c. They used to have music and games at home.
d. They used to go to the disco in the evenings.

IV. Read the passage carefully and circle the appropriate answer that best completes the sentences.

Mersin is a very busy town nowadays. It used to be quiet, but it is very crowded now. We used to swim every weekend in summer, but the sea is not very clean today. Çamlıbel is the main shopping street in town. There are lots of shops there and it is very dirty now. It used to be clean in the past. In the past we didn't use to shop there, but we used to walk in that street in the evenings. In the past, we didn't use to see many cars around, but now there are a lot of cars. There used to be lots of authentic restaurants in the past, but now we have lots of fast food restaurants. Anyway, Mersin is a good place to live.

1. We

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a. used to have fast food restaurants | c. used to see many cars around |
| b. used to have authentic restaurants | d. used to have many shops |

2. Mersin

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. used to be crowded | c. used to be very quiet |
| b. used to be very noisy | d. used to be busy |

3. Çamlıbel

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| a. used to be crowded | c. was full of shops |
| b. is the main shopping street | d. used to be dirty |

4. We used to swim

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| a. every day | c. every Tuesday |
| b. every weekend | d. on weekdays |

5. The sea

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------------|
| a. used to be clean | c. was dirty |
| b. is clean | d. didn't use to be clean |

6. In the past, we

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a. used to shop in Çamlıbel | c. used to see many cars around |
| b. used to have many shops | d. used to walk in the evenings |

APPENDIX 2

Name:

Grade:

School:.....

In the test, there are two parts called A and B and nineteen multiple choice items in each part. At the end of the test, there is an attitude questionnaire. You have 40 minutes to complete the test. GOOD LUCK!

PART A. USE OF ENGLISH

I. Circle the appropriate answers to complete the sentences . You do not need to write the answers in the blanks shown.

1. your mother when you were a child?
c. Did you use to help c. Are you helping
d. Will you help d. Do you help

2. My grandmother bread and cheese in the past, but now she buys them at the supermarket.
c. makes c. will make
d. is making d. used to make

3. The houses cheap in Mersin in the past, they are expensive now.
c. are c. will be
d. used to be d. have been

4. She in a small flat in the past, but she lives in a big house now.
c. lives c. used to live
d. will live d. is living

5. When he was young, Jim his grandparents once a week.
c. visit c. used to visit
d. will visit d. is visiting

6. I never wear glasses now, but I glasses twenty years ago.
c. used to wear c. wear
d. am wearing d. will wear

7. I stamps in the past, but now I collect gold coins.
c. collect c. will collect
d. used to collect d. am collecting

8. When Sue was thirteen years old, she short hair.
c. has c. will have
d. is having d. used to have

9. I a Citroen in the past, but I have a Porche now.
c. have c. won't
d. used to have d. will have

PART B. READING COMPREHENSION

I. Read the passage carefully and circle the correct statement according to the passage.

In Turkey today, children watch an average of three hours of television a day. Before the 1950s children didn't have television but they were never bored. They used to go to the cinema once a week but usually they made their own games. For example, in the evenings the family used to have music and games at home. Only rich people used to go to the theatre. Most people didn't use to leave the area they lived in.

1. a. They used to go to the cinema once a month.
b. They used to go to the cinema every day.
c. They used to go to the cinema once a year.
d. They used to go to the cinema once a week.

2. a. They used to go to the seaside in the evenings.
b. They used to go to the theatre in the evenings.
c. They used to have music and games at home.
d. They used to go to the disco in the evenings.

3. a. Children watch television a lot today.
b. Children used to watch television a lot in the past.
c. Children used to have television before the 1950s.
d. Children were bored in the past.

II. Read the passage carefully and circle the appropriate answer that best completes the sentences.

Rose is Paul's grandmother. She lives in a small town near the sea. Paul's house is next door. Rose hasn't always lived there. She used to live in London. While she was growing up, they didn't use to go away on holiday, but her mother sometimes used to take her on day trips. When she was nine, she went to the seaside with some friends. They went by train and they only stayed there for a day, but Rose still remembers that day very clearly. She left London twenty years ago. Now she can go to the seaside every day.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| a. Rose used to live | |
| c. in a small town | c. next to Paul's house |
| d. in London | d. in a country near the sea |
| | |
| b. They went to the seaside | |
| c. by train | c. by car |
| d. by bus | d. on horse |
| | |
| c. When she was nine, she went to the seaside with | |
| c. her parents | c. her friends |
| d. Paul | d. her mother |
| | |
| d. Now she can go to the seaside | |
| c. once a week | c. every month |
| d. every day | d. once a year |
| | |
| e. Her mother used to take her | |
| c. on day trips | c. to a small town |
| d. to the seaside | d. to holiday away from home |

III. Read the passage carefully and circle the answer that best completes the sentences.

Football was always Sue Robert's favourite sport. She used to play in her garden every day and she used to stick posters of her favourite players on the wall of her bedroom. When Sue was thirteen, she played for her Youth Club girls' team and a year later she became captain. She was the best goal scorer and she hoped to play for her country. Sue always used to practise in the park with the team on Sundays. One day in January there was a match. The weather was cold and the wind was blowing. Suddenly, Sue fell into the river. The other girls could not get her out. Then 20 minutes later a police officer pulled her out. She was cold. They took her to hospital. Sue was very lucky. Sue got better quickly. Then she decided to be a swimmer. She doesn't play football now.

1. pulled Sue out that day.
 - c. her friends
 - c. a police officer
 - d. her parents
 - d. her teacher

2. When she was thirteen, she
 - c. used to play in the garden
 - c. became a captain
 - d. used to play for her Youth Club
 - d. had an accident

3. Sue Robert's favourite sport was
 - c. basketball
 - c. volleyball
 - d. football
 - d. tennis

4. She used to play football. After the accident, she decided to be
 - c. a tennis player
 - c. a basketballer
 - d. a swimmer
 - d. the captain of the team

5. While practising in the park, Sue
 - c. fell into the river
 - c. left her friends
 - d. took her friends to the hospital
 - d. saw a police officer

IV. Read the passage carefully and circle the appropriate answer that best completes the sentences.

Mersin is a very busy town nowadays. It used to be quiet, but it is very crowded now. We used to swim every weekend in summer, but the sea is not very clean today. Çamlıbel is the main shopping street in town. There are lots of shops there and it is very dirty now. It used to be clean in the past. In the past we didn't use to shop there, but we used to walk in that street in the evenings. In the past, we didn't use to see many cars around, but now there are a lot of cars. There used to be lots of authentic restaurants in the past, but now we have lots of fast food restaurants. Anyway, Mersin is a good place to live.

1. We used to swim

- a. every day
- b. every weekend
- c. every Tuesday
- d. on weekdays

2. Mersin

- a. used to be crowded
- b. used to be very noisy
- c. used to be very quiet
- d. used to be busy

3. The sea

- a. used to be clean
- b. is clean
- c. was dirty
- d. didn't use to be clean

4. We

- a. used to have fast food restaurants
- b. used to have authentic restaurants
- c. used to see many cars around
- d. used to have many shops

5. In the past, we

- a. used to shop in Çamlıbel
- b. used to have many shops
- c. used to see many cars around
- d. used to walk in the evenings

6. . Çamlıbel

- a. used to be crowded
- b. is the main shopping street
- c. was full of shops
- d. used to be dirty

APPENDIX 3

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

A ve B şeklinde iki ayrı bölümden oluşan bir test aldınız. Bir kısmınız A, bir kısmınız da B bölümünü önce aldı. Sizin de farkettiğiniz gibi, B bölümü okuma parçaları ve ona bağlı sorulardan, A bölümü de doğrudan sorulardan oluşmaktadır. Şimdi her iki bölümü kendi içinde bir bütün olarak düşünüp, bu bölümler hakkındaki düşünce ve duygularınızı belirtiniz.

1. A Bölümündeki sorulardan ne kadar hoşlandınız?

çok	biraz	çok az	hiç
3	2	1	0

2. B Bölümündeki sorulardan ne kadar hoşlandınız?

çok	biraz	çok az	hiç
3	2	1	0

APPENDIX 4
LESSON PLAN I

Language Level of Presentation: 7th Grade (Intermediate)

Time: 80 minutes

Teaching Point: “used to” – affirmative form

Materials: Posters, picture cards, tape-recorder, handouts, board, OHP.

Behavioral Objectives: 1. Students will be able to get the meaning by the help of the posters.

2. Students will be able to use “used to” in a given context.
3. Students will be able to get the difference between “Simple Past Tense” and “used to” in meaning.
4. Students will be able to fill in the blanks by using “used to” in affirmative form.
5. Students will be able to complete a paragraph by using “used to” by the help of the pictures.

PROCEDURES

1. Warm-up (3 minutes): The teacher greets the students and says the topic of the lesson.

She asks: “What does a rich man have?”

(In this stage, the teacher tries to get the students’ attention to the topic by brainstorming.)

2. Lead-in Stage (10 minutes): The teacher introduces the context by the help of the poster which gives clues about “Habib” in the past. She sticks the poster on the board.

In the past



The teacher asks:

-Was he rich?

-Did he travel around the world?

-What did Habib have in the past?

...

Students work in pairs to talk about Habib. Then the teacher writes what comes out from the pairs under the poster.

on the board:

He had money.

He travelled around the world.

He was rich.

....

Then the teacher sticks the second poster which introduces Habib today.

Today



Role-play: One of the students is asked to be Habib. The teacher gives the student some materials (a bottle, a white headscarf). She plays the tape-recorder (There is a slow Arabic music which helps to visualize Habib's tragic situation).

Then the students are asked to talk about Habib today. She writes the answers on the board under the second poster.

on the board:

He hasn't got money now.

He is poor now.

He is sad now.

The teacher gets the attention to what Habib had in the past and what he hasn't today and writes a sentence on the board:

Habib used to have a lot of money in the past. But now he hasn't got any money.

Then she underlines the new structure to help them use it for the other statements.

(The context is introduced in this stage. The meaning and the use of the new structure are demonstrated. The students will see and hear some language and will become aware of the some key concepts. These key concepts are pieces of information about the context and thus the function and the use of the new structure).

3. Elicitation Stage (7 minutes): She guides the students by asking some questions to help them produce sentences using “used to”. (e.g. “Is he rich now?”)

After making them use the new structure, the teacher asks “Which structure shows that he was happy in the past?” to understand whether the students get the meaning of the new structure or not.

(In this stage, the teacher tries to see if the students can produce the new language in a meaningful way. If they perform badly, the teacher should go to the explanation stage. If the students produce the language with minor mistakes, the teacher may move to the “Accurate Reproduction Stage” to clear up the problems).

4. Explanation Stage (if needed) (5 minutes): The teacher shows how the new language is formed by using the same context.

on the board:

Habib used to travel around the world.

The teacher: Is he travelling around the world now?

Students: No.

The teacher: Did he travel around the world in the past?

Students: Yes.

Then the teacher makes a formal explanation about the new structure “used to”. “We use ‘used to’ for completed actions in the past and to indicate past habits” The teacher shows some other examples about Habib to make it clear for both meaning and the use of the new structure.

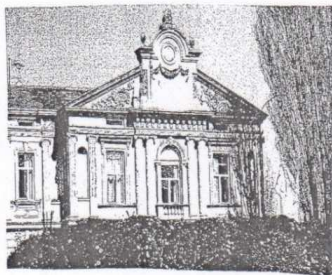
5. Accurate Reproduction Stage (25 minutes): The teacher sticks a pair of picture cards showing a person in the past and now. She wants students to produce sentences about the person by using the new structure (There are five pairs of picture cards). (Meaningful drill)

(If the students have problems in producing the new language, a mechanical drill is needed).

Mechanical drill: The students are given a handout. The students work individually and then the answers are checked orally.

(In the mechanical drill, the students are provided with a fill-in-the-blanks exercise in which they are given the verbs in brackets).

6. Immediate Creativity Stage (30 minutes): Students are shown an incomplete paragraph on the OHP. First the teacher helps students understand what the paragraph is about. Then they are given a handout including the paragraph and some pictures on it. Each student writes their own ending to the paragraph. Then they read their stories loudly to the class.

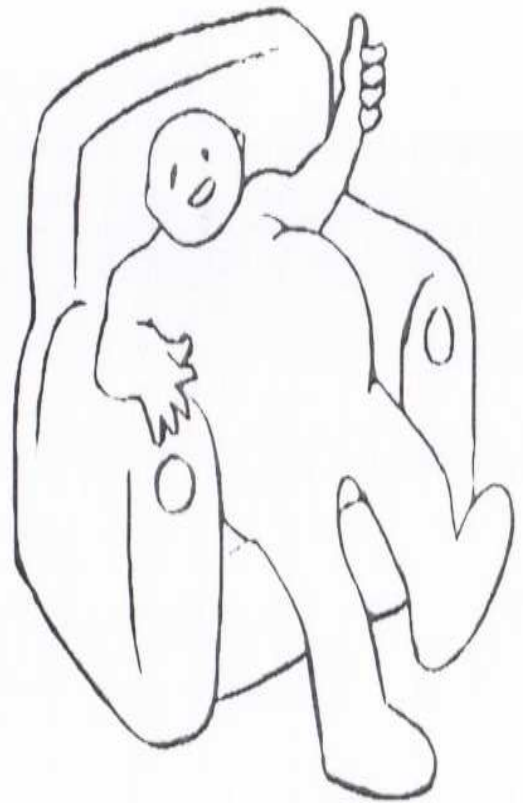




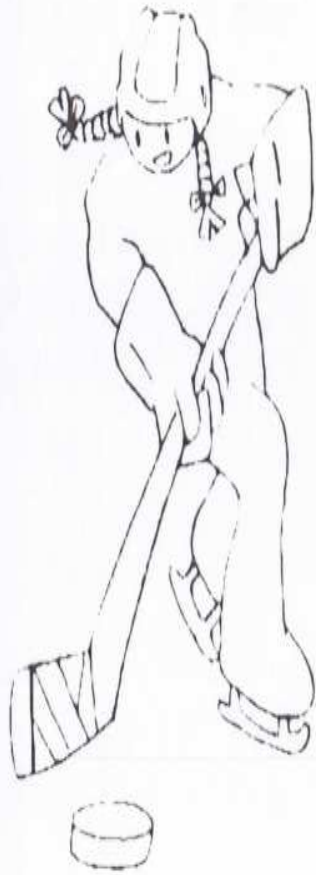
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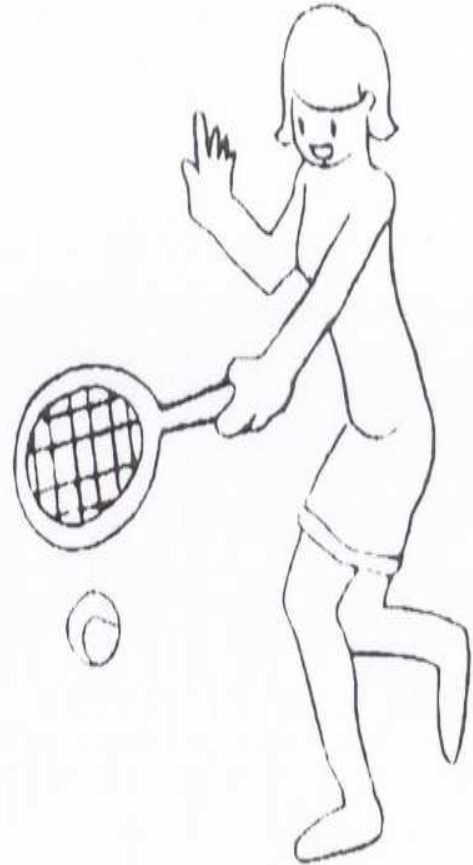
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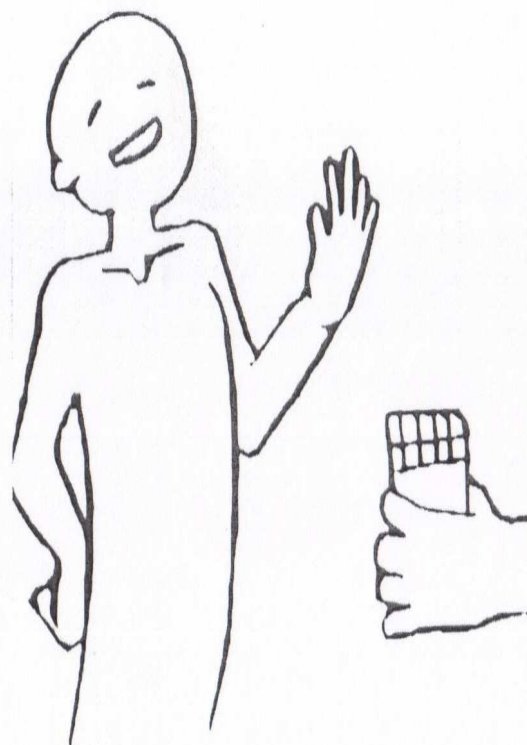
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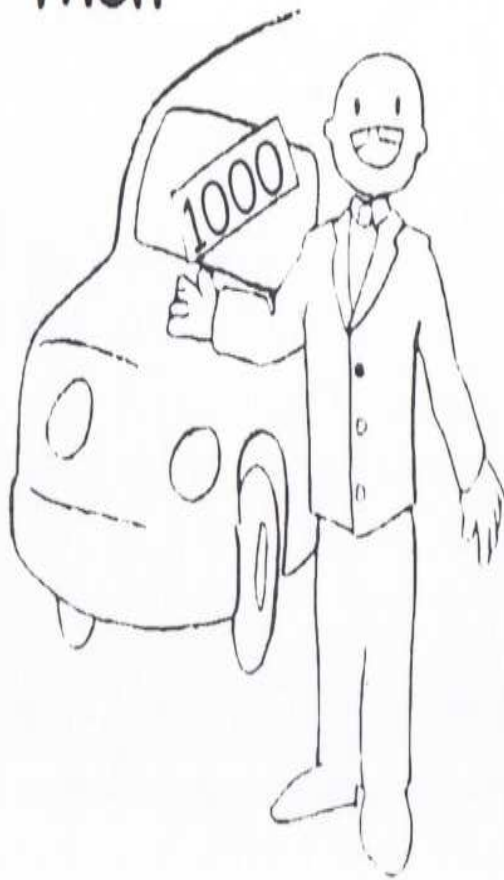
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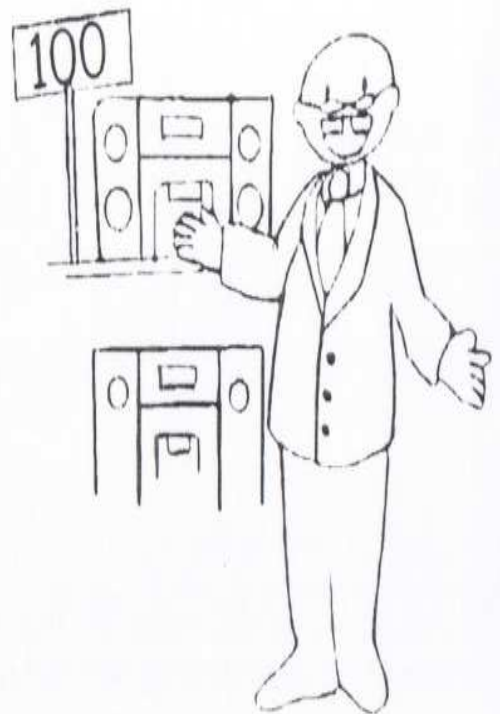
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NICK'S GRANDMOTHER



In 1925 my family moved to a new house in the country. Life in the country was very difficult in those days. We used to carry water in buckets from the village pump. There was no electricity so

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LESSON PLAN 2

Language Level of Presentation: 7th Grade (Intermediate)

Time: 80 minutes

Teaching Point: “used to” – negative and question forms

Materials: Picture cards, hand-outs, board, OHP.

Behavioral Objectives: 1. Students will be able to get the meaning in a given context written in all forms of ‘used to’.

2. Students will be able to use “didn’t use to” in a given context.

3. Students will be able to get the difference between “used to” and “didn’t use to” in meaning.

4. Students will be able to fill in the blanks by using “did not use to”.

5. Students will be able to complete a paragraph with “didn’t use to” and “did you use to...”.

PROCEDURES

1. **Warm-up (5 minutes):** The teacher greets the students and says the topic of the lesson. She asks: “Have you ever seen a famous film star or an artist?”

(In this stage, the teacher tries to get the students’ attention to the topic by brainstorming.)

2. **Lead-in Stage (20 minutes):** The teacher introduces the context: “Today our subject is Yılmaz Erdoğan. Do you know him? Do you know his famous film Vizontele? Or his famous play ‘Bana Bir Şeyler Oluyor?’”

After making students talk about what they know about Yılmaz Erdoğan, the teacher asks about his childhood. “Can you guess how he was as a student?”

Then the teacher distributes the script of an interview with Yılmaz Erdoğan about his childhood. The students read the interview silently.

Then to check understanding the teacher asks some comprehension questions.

Was he a successful student at school?

Did his mother and father help him with his homework?

Did he play jokes on his mother?

Did his teachers punish him?

Role-play: Two volunteer students read the interview as if they were Ali and Yılmaz Erdoğan. They act it out as an interviewer and an actor.

Then the teacher puts the interview on the OHP and she underlines the structure “didn’t use to”.

(The context is introduced in this stage. The meaning and the use of the new structure are demonstrated. The students will see and hear some language and will become aware of the some key concepts. These key concepts are pieces of information about the context and thus the meaning and use of the new structure).

3. Elicitation Stage: (5 minutes) She guides the students by asking some questions to help them produce sentences using “did not use to”. (e.g. “Did his mother help him with his homework?”) The teacher makes the students aware the use of the target structure.

(In this stage, the teacher tries to see if the students can produce the new language in a meaningful way. If they perform badly, the teacher should go to the explanation stage. If the students produce the language with minor mistakes, the teacher may move to the ‘Accurate Reproduction Stage’ to clear up the problems).

4. Explanation Stage (if needed) (10 minutes): The teacher shows how the new language is formed by using the utterances in the interview students have read.

on the board:

Yılmaz used to play lots of jokes, but his friends did not use to complain about him.

The teacher: “Did Yılmaz play a lot of jokes in the past?”

Students: “Yes”.

The teacher : “Did his friends complain about Yılmaz’s jokes?”

Students: “No”.

The the teacher makes a formal explanation about the new structure “did not use to”.

The teacher shows some other examples from the interview to make it clear for both meaning and the production of the new structure.

5. Accurate Reproduction Stage (20 minutes): The students as wanted to write a list of their present habits and talk about them whether they used to do them in the pas tor not. Then they ask to their classmates about their habits (Meaningful drill).

(If the students have problems in producing the new language, a mechanical drill is needed.)

Mechanical drill: The students are given a hand-out in which they fill in the blanks by using “did not use to” and “did you use to”. They work individually and then the answers are checked orally.

6. Immediate Creativity Stage (20 minutes): In this stage, students write their own interviews in pairs as if one of them were an interviewer and the other a famous star. Then they read it aloud to the class.

NAUGHTY YILMAZ

This week Yılmaz Erdoğan talks about some of the things he used to do when he was a child.

Ali : Did your friends use to love you at school?

Yılmaz: Oh, yes. I used to play lots of jokes, but they didn't use to complain about me. But now I don't play too much jokes.

Ali: What kind of jokes were they?

Yılmaz: Silly ones. I used to put drawing-pins on people's seats and powder in people's clothes. Everyone used to laugh, so the teachers didn't use to punish me.

Ali: Were you a good student?

Yılmaz: No, not really. I didn't use to get high marks.

Ali: What did your mother think? Did she know you were naughty?

Yılmaz: Oh no. I didn't use to play jokes on her, but now she is the only person that I play jokes on.

Ali: Did you use to go to school with your mum?

Yılmaz: No, not always. My mum used to come with me when it was rainy. But generally I used to go to school alone.

Ali: Did you use to go to school by bus?

Yılmaz: No, I didn't use to go to school by bus because the school wasn't far away. I used to walk to school, but unfortunately I go everywhere by car. I do not walk too much. It's a pity, I know.

Ali: What about your father? Did he use to help you with your homework?

Yılmaz: No, he didn't. He used to read newspaper in the evening ,but now he helps me with the plays. He reads and makes comments on them.

Ali: What about your mum? Did she use to help you?

Yılmaz: No, she didn't use to read newspaper like dad, but she used to work in the kitchen in the evenings. They didn't use to help me with my homework. That's why, I didn't use to be a successful student, but a film star.