

THE EFFECTIVITY OF TASK-BASED ACTIVITIES  
ON VOCABULARY COMPETENCE DESIGNED IN  
ACCORDANCE WITH THE COMMON EUROPEAN  
FRAMEWORK

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## ABSTRACT

It has been compulsory to know a foreign language or more languages in these days. Therefore the importance given to learning a foreign language or more languages has been increasing day by day and the studies have been carried out to supply the standards of teaching and learning of a language in the world and to determine the most effective second language teaching method.

The aim of this current study is to find out the effectiveness of the task-based language teaching by comparing it with traditional language teaching. The aim of traditional second language teaching is to teach the language in accordance with the curriculum and the course book without using any additional activity or task. On the other hand, the task-based language teaching aims to teach the language within interaction and active participation of the students into the tasks by focusing on meaning. This experimental study aims to find out the effectiveness of the TBLT on vocabulary learning and search whether there is a difference between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> graders and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities. The study was conducted to 80, sixth grade subjects in Edirne Yüksel Yeşil Elementary School in the first semester of the academic year 2005-2006. Both groups took English course for four hours a week, yet the two hours of the English courses in the experimental group were filled by the researcher. The application took 18 weeks. Both groups were given pretest just before the study in order to determine of what vocabulary knowledge the subjects had and they were given the same test at the end of the study as a posttest in order to find out how much they improved. The results were statistically analysed. According to the results, the task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grade English courses had a positive effect on the development of learners' lexical competence. Besides, both methods were found effective in vocabulary learning whereas there was a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group. That is to say, the experimental group was significantly better than the control group at vocabulary.

Key words: Task, task-based activities, task-based language teaching

## ÖZET

Günümüzde bir ya da iki yabancı dil bilmek neredeyse zorunluluk haline gelmiştir. Bu nedenle yabancı dil öğrenimine verilen önem her geçen gün artmakta, dil öğretim ve öğrenimin standardını sağlamak ve en etkili öğretim metodunu belirleyebilmek için bir çok araştırma yapılmaktadır.

Yapılan bu çalışmanın amacı, göreve dayalı dil öğrenme ile geleneksel dil öğrenme yöntemini kıyaslayarak göreve dayalı öğrenmenin etkisini bulmaya çalışmaktır. Geleneksel dil öğretim yönteminin amacı, dili müfredat ve ders kitabına uyarak herhangi bir ekstra çalışma ortamı sunmadan dili öğretmekken, göreve dayalı dil öğretim yönteminin amacı dili öğrencilerin birbirleriyle iletişim kurarak etkin katılımlarıyla ve anlama önem vererek öğretmektir. Bu deneysel çalışmanın amacı, göreve dayalı dil öğretim yönteminin kelime öğrenimine etkisini bulmak ve göreve dayalı dil öğretim yöntemiyle kelime öğrenen 6. sınıf deney grubu ile geleneksel dil öğretim yöntemiyle kelime öğrenen kontrol grubu arasında fark olup olmadığını saptamaktır. Çalışma 2005-2006 eğitim-öğretim yılının ilk yarısında Edirne Yüksel Yeşil İlköğretim Okulu'nda gerçekleştirilmiş ve çalışmaya 6. sınıflarından 80 kişi dahil edilmiştir. Her iki grup da haftada dört saat İngilizce dersi almıştır ancak deney grubunun haftada iki saati araştırmacı tarafından göreve dayalı kelime öğretimi ile doldurulmuştur. Uygulama 18 hafta sürmüştür. Her iki gruba çalışmadan önce öntest verilmiştir, bu test sayesinde öğrencelerin öğretilen kelimeler hakkında ne kadar bilgiye sahip oldukları belirlenmiştir. Yine her iki gruba uygulamadan hemen sonra sontest verilerek öğrencilerin uygulamadan ne kadar öğrenme kaydettikleri belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Test sonuçları istatistiksel olarak değerlendirilmiştir. Bu sonuçlara göre, 6. sınıf İngilizce dersi için hazırlanan göreve dayalı öğrenme etkinlikleri öğrencilerin kelime öğrenimine olumlu etki yapmıştır. Bunun yanısıra, her iki yöntemin de öğrenmede etkili olmalarına rağmen göreve dayalı öğrenmenin çok daha etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Yani, kelime başarısında deney grubunun kontrol grubundan daha iyi olduğu saptanmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Görev, göreve dayalı etkinlikler, göreve dayalı dil öğretimi

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **THE STUDY**

#### **1.0. INTRODUCTION**

The process of language learning and effective language teaching has been discussed for decades. However, there is no sufficiently strong research-based agreement on how learners learn. Some theorists believe that humans have strong enough information-processing abilities to acquire the language and be able to use it both for understanding and for production (CEF, 2001:139-140). They believe the ‘acquisition’ process can not be facilitated by conscious manipulation. According to them, the most important thing a teacher can do is to provide the richest possible linguistic environment in which learning can take place without formal teaching. Others, however, believe that in addition to exposure to comprehensible input, active participation in communicative interaction and sufficient condition for language development are necessary.

Within these arguments, the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century has been the collection of various methods in second language instruction and as Brown and Rodgers (2002:213) mentioned it has been sometimes labeled as ‘The Age of Methods’. The learners, teachers, and administrators sought to determine which of these methods was best for the typical language-teaching situation. In order to answer this question, many experimental method-comparison studies were undertaken. Among these teaching and learning methods, the task-based language teaching (TBLT) is one of the contemporary language teaching methods which emphasises the role of both conscious manipulation and active participation in language development. According to Willis (1996) the TBLT, is composed of real-life communicative activities which consist meaningful tasks and active participation in an authentic use, hence, it provides learners better understanding of the language in a meaningful context.

In this research, vocabulary is taken as a field of study since the lexical knowledge is strongly related with learners' success in second language learning. A number of recent research, dealing with vocabulary has shown that "lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words" (Allen,1983:5). As Brown and Rodgers (2002:222) stated, "throughout the educational history, vocabulary learning has been treated both fundamental and unimportant in learning a second language". After the neglect during the 1950s and 1960s, renewed attention was given to vocabulary by new methodologists that came into fashion in the 1970s. Advocates of the new methodologies such as Caleb Gattegno, Georgi Lozanov, Stephen Krashen advised language educators to re-consider the role of vocabulary in second language learning. Besides, they focused on promoting successful strategies to help students learn and retain second language vocabulary for communicative use. Therefore, vocabulary/lexical learning has become a key theme in current second language research.

As mentioned in the Common European Framework (CEF) (2001:142), the development of the learner's *linguistic competences* is a central, indispensable aspect of language learning. With this respect, it should be facilitated in relation to vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and punctuation. Learners are required to develop their vocabulary by simple exposure to words and fixed expressions used in authentic spoken and written texts by learner elicitation or look- up dictionary as needed for specific tasks and activities. Learning the new words happens by presenting words accompanied with visuals, by exploring semantic fields and constructing 'mind-maps', by a more or less systematic study of the different distribution of semantic features in L1 and L2 (contrastive semantics). In order to assess learner's language proficiency and plan language learning and teaching procedure; *size* (the number of words), *range* (the domains, themes covered) and *control* (control over vocabulary learners will need to be required to exert) of vocabulary are the major parameters of language acquisition. Besides, lexical selection is an important aspect in order to choose which words to include in testing and textbook materials. Within this respect, the TBLT which is approved by the CEF was chosen as the teaching method of this study. As a specific study area, young learners were chosen since they are at the basic level of learning English and they need to learn vocabulary better than any other language units.

The CEF planned by the European Council was established in 1949 aiming to protect democracy and human rights in the world with the collaboration of 10 European countries, and the official language is set to be English and French. Turkey is also one of the 47 members of this organization. The council wanted the CEF to be prepared with the intention to overcome the barriers and achieve greater unity among its members. Within this framework, the term plurilingualism has gained great importance in the field of communication and the council started to encourage the learning of more foreign languages as a part of its policy of tolerance towards cultural diversity. Therefore the council has started to carry out the project called European Language Dossier (ELP) in 2001 aiming to develop a linguistic repertory in which all language abilities taken into consideration. ELP is a collection of documents composed of language passport, language biography and language dossier. Language passport contains the languages a learner knows and his/her language levels. Language biography includes the learner's language process, language learning aims, language development and language learning experiences. Language dossier is a collection of documents of different kinds mostly of works produced by the learner him/herself.

In particular, the ELP provides a format in which language learning and various intercultural experiences can be recorded and formally recognised. In our study, the learners were asked to keep a dossier in which they collected their products as part of the ELP since the study was restricted with the task-based vocabulary teaching and its effect on lexical competence with young learners.

To conclude, this study was designed for highlighting the effect of TBLT on vocabulary learning while teaching young learners. As Brown and Rodgers (2002:195) mentioned "vocabulary-learning techniques have been the emphasis of some six hundred experimental reports published over the last twenty-five years". These various studies have come about because of a re-focusing of interest on the subject of second language vocabulary learning after a period of fairly prolonged neglect. In addition, our study was organised in order to find out the effectiveness of task-based vocabulary learning on young learners.

## 1.1. The Problem

The study was designed to address the following problem:

**Problem:** How can 6<sup>th</sup> graders' lexical competence in English be developed through task-based activities?

In relation to the problem the research questions are;

1. What is the level of students' lexical competence?
2. How can the student's level of lexical competence be improved?
  - 2.1. Do the task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grade English courses have an effect on the development of learner's lexical competence?
  - 2.2. Is there a significant difference between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grades and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities?

## 1. 2. The Aim

This experimental study aims to find out the effectiveness of the TBLT on vocabulary learning and search whether there is a difference between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> graders and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities. With this respect, the study aims at developing the lexical competence of 6<sup>th</sup> grades English (the experimental group) via various task-based vocabulary activities. For the design of the tasks, the CEF was taken as the guide. Besides, some criteria were taken into consideration in the design:

1. Developmental stage: 10-11 year-old-children (Brewster et. al., 2004: 27);
  - have physical energy and different emotional needs,
  - learn slowly, forget quickly,
  - have short concentration span; get bored easily,
  - are enthusiastic learners.
  
2. Diversity in learning styles: students have various learning styles.
  - Activities were prepared in the light of MIT developed by Gardner (1993).

By regarding the points mentioned above, constructivist theory for learning to learn, student-centred communicative task-based approach, criteria for language use with the principles of the CEF and the development of lexical competence were taken as basis in the design of task based vocabulary activities.

### **1. 3. The Significance of the Study**

In 1997, starting with the fourth grades, English as a foreign language was added into the primary education curriculum in Turkey. However, to our knowledge, no study to develop and assess young learners' lexical competence by using task-based activities has been carried out in our country. Therefore, this study highlights the effect of the TBLT on vocabulary in second language teaching especially in teaching English to young learners.

In our study, the learners in the experimental group were asked to keep a dossier in which they collected their products in order to develop learners' autonomy, help students see their progress and increase their confidence. By this way, they had Language Dossier which displayed their language progress. It was a part of ELP. ELP is a kind of reference which allows pupils to show what they know in other languages, which allows their teachers to see what pupils can already do in different languages and

it allows their parents to see how they are progressing. In this context, the learners' seeing their learning progress would increase learners' confidence.

Turkey is planning to be united with the European Community, so has started some projects to follow the innovations in the education system and harmonise with Europe. Because of the development of new second/foreign language teaching programmes with respect to the standards of the Community, the comparative evaluation of teaching methods have gained importance in ELT. For this reason, such a comparative study based on the effectiveness of the TBLT on vocabulary will provide contributions to the field.

#### **1. 4. Assumptions**

In the study it is assumed that;

1. both the experimental and control groups are at A1 level defined as basic user in the CEF ,
2. subjects reflected their knowledge while responding the test items.

#### **1. 5. Limitations**

This study was restricted with;

1. The first semester of the academic year 2005-2006,
2. 80, sixth grade subjects in Edirne Yüksel Yeşil Elementary School,
3. 2 hour/per week implementation,
4. The Ministry of Education, Elementary English course curriculum
5. The Ministry of Education, English coursebook and workbook (Quick Step 6)

## 1. 6. Concepts

Some specific concepts mentioned in this research are defined as follows:

**European Language Portfolio:** a Council of Europe initiative being implemented for learners at all stages of education across Europe.

([http://www.nacell.org.uk/resources/pub\\_cilt/portfolio.htm](http://www.nacell.org.uk/resources/pub_cilt/portfolio.htm))

**Learner Autonomy:** the ability developed by the learner himself to make learning easier and permanent (Harmer, 2001:335).

**Learning Strategies:** learning types used by the learners with the aim of developing communicative language abilities at the process of learning the newly taught item and remembering (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994: 6).

**Language Passport:** a collection of documents of language skill profile, language biography, dossier, certificate, diploma, other language skills, proficiency and experiences (Demirel, 2003: 164).

**Multiple Intelligence Theory:** the theory focusing that each person has not only language and mathematical intelligences but also different intelligences; and this explains people's learning styles, interests and abilities (Gardner, 1993: 6).

**Plurilingualism:** knowing more than two foreign languages or using these languages in the society for communication (Vardar, 2002: 62).

**Standardization:** process composed of language learning programmes under the title of common European language framework (Demirel, 2003: 164).

**Task:** an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome (Littlewood, 2004).

**Task-based Activities:** language activities covering language process in various situations and obstacles and related to certain domains and themes (Ellis, 2003:206).

**Task-based Language Teaching:** teaching method that is based entirely on tasks (Ellis,2003:351).

## 1. 7. Abbreviations

<b>C Group</b>	: Control Group
<b>CEF</b>	: The Common European Framework
<b>E Group</b>	: Experimental Group
<b>ELP</b>	: English Language Portfolio
<b>L1</b>	: First Language
<b>L2</b>	: Second Language
<b>M</b>	: Male
<b>MIT</b>	: Multiple Intelligence Theory
<b>R</b>	: Random
<b>SLA</b>	: Second Language Acquisition
<b>TBA</b>	: Task Based Assessment
<b>TBLL</b>	: Task Based Language Learning
<b>TBLT</b>	: Task Based Language Teaching
<b>TPR</b>	: Total Physical Response

### 1.8. Literature Review

There are many researches examining the TBLT from different aspects. Ellis in his book (2003:21-35) reviews some researches done by different researchers from different countries under the headings of tasks in SLA research and tasks in language teaching. This part includes the summary of these studies and some more researches done in our country.

Ellis (2003:21) mentions that the use of tasks in second language acquisition is related with developments in the study of SLA. The primary concern of the early year research described how learners acquired a second language. However, in recent years the main goal has been to examine how learners acquire a second language naturalistically. The crucial data for this type of research is spontaneous speech that learners use during second language learning. However, such data was often difficult to collect for the researchers. So, learners were asked to perform various kinds of tasks.



These tasks were intended to elicit communicative samples of learner language. The researches mainly emphasised the role of *meaning negotiation* in second language learning.

Another branch of SLA research in the eighties focused on *the input* to which learners were exposed. In this respect, Krashen (1981,1985,1994) and Long (1981,1983,1996) investigated the impact of input and the kinds of interaction learners participated in. Krashen put forward *the Input Hypothesis* and Long advanced *the Interaction Hypothesis*. Long's Interaction Hypothesis places a similar emphasis on the role of input but claims that the 'best' input for language acquisition is that which arises when learners have the opportunity to negotiate meaning in exchanges. These theories have led to research that utilises tasks to investigate which kind of input works best for comprehension (Pica et. al. 1987); which kind of input works best for language acquisition (Doughty 1991; Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki 1994; Loschky 1994).

With respect to interaction hypothesis, Ellis, et. al. (1994) searched for the effects of the interactionally modified input based on the necessity of comprehensible input. The main results were: (a) interactionally modified input resulted in better comprehension than premodified input. Thus, it proved that interactionally modified input facilitates acquisition, and access to modified input promotes acquisition.

On the other hand, a number of recent studies have drawn on Vygotskian theory which focuses on the social effects on learning. This theory also emphasises how learners shape the goals of any activity to suit their own purposes. Recently this theory has led to several task-based studies (Donate 1994; Swain and Lapkin 1998).

More recently, researchers have turned their attention to how participants in a task temporarily pay attention to meaning in order to focus on form (Swain 1985). Therefore, many tasks have been designed to balance both meaning and form.

The research done on tasks have influenced the following pedagogical research. Like researchers, many language teachers, material writers and course designers

recognised the value of tasks to make language teaching more communicative and effective and they tried to answer the question of how tasks can be used in language pedagogy.

One of the attractions of a task-based approach is that it shapes the traditional distinction between syllabus and methodology. Prabhu (1987) proposed a very different approach to task-based teaching which is embodied in the '*procedural syllabus*'. Prabhu instituted an innovative curriculum project in secondary schools in southern India whereby the structural-oral-situational method, which was the predominant method at that time, was replaced by a task-based method. Breen and Candlin (1987) advocated '*process syllabus*' which is constructed through negotiation between the teacher and students. Finally, Ellis and Sinclair (1989) offered a number of tasks aimed at making learners more effective and self-directed in their approach to learning second language. Tasks have also been used in communicative language testing. More recently, the use of tasks in performance-testing has been advocated by McNamara (1996). Proposals for the development of task-based tests for assessing specific purpose language ability have been advanced (Bachman and Palmer 1996 and Douglas 2000). Skehan (1998a, 2001) has also discussed how tasks might be used in tests of general language proficiency.

Furthermore, there are some projects designed for the search of TBLL. For instance, Monash University in Australia held a project supervised by Zhang (1994). In the project, it was assumed that the task-based methodology was beneficial to students learning at the beginning level of Chinese. Learners were able to easily identify what the performance focus is and they could evaluate their own task in the process of performing a task. Self-direction was fostered by selecting tasks in class which were enough to be easily staged by the learners themselves. At the end of project, the learners gained considerable insights into the processes of learning and teaching through their active involvement in the overall curriculum design of the course. The project carried out successfully and met the goals it set out. Learners also developed communication strategies in order to use with Chinese.

(<http://www.carrickinstitute.edu.au/carrick/webdav/site/carricksite/users/siteadmin/public/88.pdf>).

Likewise, McLaughlin, in his project called “A Task-Based Program in Korea: A Case Analysis”, assessed the English program in Andong National University in Korea with respect to the task-based learning criteria (2001:85-88). The questionnaires were applied to teachers and students about the program and the results were analysed. In conclusion, it was found that the Andong program let students analyse the target language. Adequate pre-tasks and post-tasks were designed in order to use second language. The program provided meaningful and appropriate tasks in accordance with students’ level. The students attended the courses regularly. The balance between accuracy and fluency was supplied. The final exam of the term was prepared by considering the task based learning criteria.

Similar research was held by İnözü, İlin and Yumru (2005) in Turkey attempting to find out pupils’ interpretations of the tasks done in the classroom and discover the similarities and differences that exist between the teacher’s and students’ views of tasks. It is found that the teacher was aware of what task-based language teaching means and considered tasks more suitable for revising vocabulary and structure learned. Yet, students’ conscious attention was on form rather than meaning while fulfilling the tasks.

Newton (2001) examined data from a number of classroom tasks where learners had to deal with new words during task performance without access to a dictionary or teacher's intervention. The results suggested not only that rich language use resulted from negotiating new words, but also that the meaning of many of these words was retained in the days after the task performance. The paper concluded by considering a number of post-task options for reinforcing vocabulary learning.

Carless (2003) in his qualitative case study data tried to explore the implementation of task-based teaching in three primary school classrooms in Hong Kong. It reviewed six issues which were found to impact on how teachers approached the implementation of communicative tasks in their classroom. The themes were teacher beliefs; teacher understandings; the syllabus time available; the textbook and the topic; preparation and the available resources; and the language proficiency of the students. It was argued that the complex interplay between these factors influenced the extent of implementation of task-based teaching in the classroom. It was suggested that the paper

might also shed light on the prospects for the implementation of communicative or task-based approaches in a variety of other contexts.

Mutlu (2001) in his study compared traditional teaching method and task-based teaching method and tried to find out the effectiveness of task-based teaching on students' achievement in learning grammar. Two grammar units were taught both groups during twenty-hour application. Both groups were given a test just before and after two-month period in order to find out the effectiveness in the short term and long term. It was found that the task-based grammar teaching in the first unit was more effective in long term. Whereas in the second grammar unit, the task-based grammar teaching was more effective in the short term.

Davut (2003) in his comparative study tried to find out the effectiveness of task-based teaching on students' learning of "English relative clauses". The experimental group had the task-based grammar teaching whereas the control group had traditional grammar teaching. After six-hour application, statistical analysis indicated that both methods were effective on learning of relative clauses in short term. Yet, the task-based teaching was more effective than traditional grammar teaching. In long term, both methods were found effective whereas in the questions based on meaning the task-based teaching was more effective.

Yaylı (2004) implemented task-based learning to the teaching of Turkish as a foreign language and investigate the learners' thoughts on this implementation. The study was carried out at Vilnius University Faculty of Philology Lithuanian Philology-Turkish Language Program with ten students. The subjects were observed, were asked to keep a diary during the implementation and were interviewed individually just after the implementation. The findings of the study indicated that in general, subjects had positive thoughts on the task phases. Almost all the subjects thought that warm-up activities such as vocabulary support were highly useful activities to achieve the task. Subjects enjoyed the framework since it was interesting for them, it served real-life situations, helped learners think in the target language and associate structure and meaning.

These various studies done in the field contribute to the implementation of the task-based teaching. Besides, they reflect the prominent issues in current discussions of language pedagogy such as the role of meaning-based activity, the need for more learner-centred curricula, the importance of affective factors...etc. Task-based pedagogy provides a way of addressing these various concerns and for this reason alone takes increasing attention.

## CHAPTER 2:

### **A BRIEF HISTORY of SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING and TEACHING**

This chapter in brief provides the historical background of second language teaching and learning. Besides, it reviews language theories and learning theories.

In the world of globalisation, the importance of knowing a foreign language can not be denied. Both from a contemporary and a historical perspective, bilingualism or multilingualism is the norm rather than an exception. The paradigm shift in eighteenth century in different fields of study had also effect on the field of language learning. Thus linguists and language specialists tried to find a way of improving the quality of language teaching and they referred to general principles and theories concerning how languages are learned, how knowledge of language is represented and organised in memory, or how language itself is structured (Skinner 1957; Chomsky 1966; Widowson 1975; Brumfit 1984). Thus, there have been many changes in the language teaching methods throughout the history because of learner needs, such as a move toward oral proficiency as the goal of language study rather than reading comprehension.

When the historical development of second language learning and teaching is considered, it is seen that some theories gave primary importance to learners' innate characteristics; some emphasized the essential role of the environment in shaping language learning. Whereas, the others tried to integrate learner characteristics and environmental factors for better second language learning and teaching. In this context, many approaches and methods have been proposed to teaching and learning a foreign language. But they were inadequate in some aspects. Hence, subsequent approach consistently tried to fulfil the inadequate parts of the previous ones. The researches on second language learning and teaching (Kelly, 1969; Johnson, 2001) have also shown that there is nothing different over language teaching at all but some changes and variations over the previous ones (Kelly, 1969; Johnson, 2001). That is, as Johnson states "there is nothing new under the sun" (2001:45). Each approach has criticised the former one in some aspects and add some contributions to it. Hence, three perspectives

which are the theory of language, the theory of language learning and teaching techniques and methods were categorized by considering the development of language teaching and learning period. Mentioning some of these will have a cross-like effect between the past and present and provide a background for the discussion of contemporary methods.

## **2.1. Language Theories**

Up to the 1970s, including the 1960s, language was generally seen as a unified system. The linguists viewed language as a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning and tried to describe the components of language one by one. This formed the basis of the structural view. For structuralism, units and rules were the milestones of the language system and all the parts were related to each other. Thus, all the units and rules were necessary for constructing a system. The main idea of structuralists' was the belief that the starting point for language analysis should be 'the observable'. Thus, structuralists mainly observed the surface structure of a sentence and get the meaning.

However, during the 1970s, a different view toward the study of languages began to emerge. Language was seen as a system for the expression of meaning and linguists began to analyze language as a system for the expression of meaning rather than as a system of abstract syntactic rules. Linguists viewed language as vehicle for expression of functional meaning, started to heavily criticize the former view, structuralism, because of not concentrating on meaningful communication. Chomsky, known as generative linguists, was the forrunner of this new school and together with his followers differentiated the deep structure from the surface structure. The generative linguists claimed that in order to get the real meaning of the utterance, one has to go beyond to observable. Hence, they proposed generative rules that were used to make that deep structure.

However, Chomsky's perspective about linguistic competence was considered as incomplete by some defenders of communicative view. Because nativists did not

emphasize the role of environment in language learning. Yet, the main focus of communicative view is on how to convey the meaning and the language in interaction.

A further step was taken in the twentieth century by the Interactionalists who viewed language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social interaction between the individuals. Therefore, since they considered language as a tool for interaction, they focused on the role of environment in language learning. In other words, as Lightbrown and Spada (1999) state “Interactional view focuses on the role of the linguistic environment in interaction with the child’s innate capacities in determining language development” (22). Thus, interactionalists gave more importance to the environment than innatists do. Besides, Vygotsky who held the sociocultural theory concluded that language develops entirely from social interaction. Here the issue is communication by interacting with each other considering meaning and context. Therefore, the target of language learning in the interactional view is learning to initiate and maintain conversations with other people. According to this view, language teaching content may be specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction.

## **2.2. Learning Theories**

Psychological views on second language learning are Behaviouristic, Cognitivist and Humanistic:

Behaviourists account for learning in terms of imitation, practice, reinforcement and habit formation. According to the behaviourist, all learning whether verbal or non-verbal, takes place through the same underlying processes. Learners receive linguistic input from speakers and form associations between words and objects or events. These associations become stronger when experiences are repeated. Learners receive encouragement for their correct imitation and corrective feedback on their errors. Language development was seen as the formation of habits. As Spada states “it is assumed that a person learning a second language starts off with the habits formed in the first language and these habits interfere with the new ones needed for the second language” (1999:9). Behaviourism was often linked to the Contrastive Analysis



Hypothesis (CAH), which was developed by structural linguists in Europe and North America. The CAH predicts that where there are similarities between the first language and the target language, the learner will acquire target language structures with ease; where there are differences, the learner will have difficulty. However, later on it was seen that learners have reluctance to the second language. That is to say, the influence of the learner's first language may not simply be a matter of transfer of habits but a more complex process.

This incomplete explanation for language learning and ignorance of the role of mind and cognitive process caused psychologists propose a new and a more complex theory of learning. As Celce-Murcia state "the emphasis on human cognition in the late twentieth century led to the establishment of the Cognitive Approach. Rather than simple being responsive to stimuli in the environment, learners were seen to be much more actively responsible for their own learning, engaged in formulating hypotheses in order to discover the rules of the target language" (1991:85). The cognitivist approach emphasized the cognitive structure which the learner forms in memory. Unlike behaviourist, cognitivists treated learner errors as inevitable and considered errors as signs showing that learners are actively testing their hypothesis.

Krashen emphasizes that language learning comes about through using language communicatively, not through practicing language skills. He made the distinction between acquisition and learning. According to Krashen "acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication whereas learning is the conscious process of getting the grammatical knowledge via instruction (qtd. in. Richards and Rodgers, 2001:162)".

In the early 1970s there was great interest in applying this new approach to language teaching and materials were developed with deductive and inductive grammar exercises. However, no language teaching method ever really developed directly from the Cognitive Approach; instead, a number of 'innovative methods' such as the Silent Way, Community Language Learning emerged.

Humanism as it can be inferred from its name is based on human being. Humanism takes the mankind as a whole with all his qualities, such as emotions, attitudes, needs etc. and pays attention to the total person and not simply the intellect. According to Rogers who analysed human behaviour in general, “the focus shifts away from “teaching” and toward “learning” with Humanistic Approach. Rogers’s humanistic psychology has more of an affective focus than a cognitive one (qtd. in Brown 1994:85)”. Humanistic approach on language learning assumes that all cognitive development, including language development, arises as a result of social interaction between people. The learners’ emotions, feelings are to be taken into consideration in the process of learning. The goal of education is the facilitation of change and learning (Brown 1987:71). In a sense, all approaches to teaching are humanistic or at least contain humanistic elements. However, the approaches which are generally referred to humanistic view are those which place particular emphasis on the personal nature of learning and see the teacher’s role as secondary and supportive. That is to say, the teacher’s role is just being a facilitator in Humanistic Approach where the focus is on learner. The learner is encouraged to take responsibility within the learning process. Thus, the terms like *learner autonomy* and *discovery learning* emerged with the Humanistic Approach. The teacher and students may negotiate and agree the contents of the syllabus, the weekly schedule and the method. Unlike the other approaches, the Humanistic Approach has produced the learner-generated syllabuses. Humanistic education insists that students have feelings, attitudes, and opinions as well as a mind. With this approach, the main focus was turned to the learner, and the question of “How languages are taught?” was replaced by “How languages are learned?”.

The knowledge of language learning theories helps to expand the repertoire of teaching methods and techniques. However, there have been criticisms over methods. Under the light of views introduced so far, some second language teaching methods such as “The Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the Direct Method, Oral Approach-Situational Language Teaching, the Audio-lingual Method (ALM), the Communicative Approach (CA), the Natural Approach (NA), Task-based Language Learning (TBLT)” will be examined in terms of their main principles.

### 2.3. Second Language Teaching

“Modern” languages began to enter the European schools curriculum in the eighteenth century. But they were taught by using the same basic procedures that were used for teaching Latin. Textbooks included the statements of abstract grammar rules, lists of vocabulary, and sentences for translation. The aim was not speaking the foreign language, and oral practice was composed of just reading aloud the translated sentences. These sentences in deed had no relation to the real communication.

By the nineteenth century, this approach had become the standard way of studying foreign languages in schools. A typical textbook in the mid-nineteenth century consisted of chapters or lessons organized around grammar points. Each grammar point was listed, rules on its use were explained, and it was illustrated by sample sentences. This approach to foreign language teaching became known as the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM). Reading and writing were the major focus. Besides, vocabulary selection was based solely on the reading text used, and words were taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorization. The basic unit in the text was the sentence. Because the translation of the text will be completed by translating the sentences one by one (Richard and Rodgers 2001:6).

Grammar was taught deductively and while teaching grammar mother tongue was used. As accuracy was more important than fluency, speaking in the target language was not regarded as necessary. Although GTM dominated European countries and foreign language teaching from 1840s to the 1940s, a gradual opposition developed in several European countries in the mid and late nineteenth centuries. Many authorities started to reject the approach since it force the students struggle with the inadequate use of grammar and useless word lists (Richard and Rodgers, 2001).

The criticism on GTM led the methodologist turn their attention to language use. Increased opportunities for communication among Europeans created a demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages. This demand paved the way to a new method which was called the Direct Method. The basic principle was the natural usage of language.

The way language used in real life became popular in teaching second language. This method argued that a foreign language could be taught without analysing grammar rules. Learners were expected to induce rules of grammar. Speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words, miming, demonstration and pictures were used to teach new vocabulary and only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught. Although the Direct Method offered innovations at the level of teaching produces, it lacked through methodological basis. Because the Direct Method forbade the use of mother tongue in the classroom and it regarded second language teachers as native speakers. This made a problem in the methodology of the Direct Method.

Richards and Rodgers state “in 1920-1930s, the work of British applied linguists formed the basis of principled approach to methodology of language teaching. They attempted to develop a more scientific foundation for an oral approach to teaching English which was not seen in the Direct Method (2001:46)”. This attempt formed the basis of the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching. The major focus was on teaching vocabulary. Besides, the problems of grammar for the learners were emphasized. The theory of language underlying Situational Language Teaching can be characterized as structuralism. Speech was regarded as the basis of language and structure was viewed as being at the heart of speaking ability. Therefore the knowledge of structure must be linked to situations in which they could be used. The main objective of Situational Language Teaching method was to teach a practical command of the four basic skills of language. Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar was regarded as crucial and errors were not accepted. In the mid- 1960s, however, the view of language learning and language teaching underlying Situational Language Teaching was questioned. Although Situational Language Teaching relies on structuralism, it continues to be widely used in many parts of the world, particularly when materials are based on grammatical syllabus. Generally, it can be said that Situational Language Teaching formed the basis of Communicative Language Teaching with its strong emphasis on oral practice. (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:47)

In the turn of the second half of the twentieth century, there had been a significant change on language teaching in America with the entry into the World War

II. Linguists and applied linguists were involved in the teaching of English as a foreign language. The methods they developed during this period emphasised on structure. Language was identified with speech, and speech was approached through structure. This approach influenced the way languages were taught throughout the 1950s. Language teaching specialists combined the structural theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures and behaviourist psychology, and this combination led to Audiolingual Method. Basically the structural theory of language and behaviourist theory of learning constituted its backbone. Brown (1987) mentions that “foreign language learning was basically considered as a process of mechanical habit formation of true language uses. Error correction is considered important to prevent the formation of bad habits. In this respect, Audio-lingual method regards students as parrots who always keep on imitating what they hear and get from environment, which is mainly based on a behaviouristic point of view (95-96).”

To sum up, the Grammar Translation Method could not prepare learners to use the target language appropriately. Therefore the Direct Method focused on communication and aimed to create native-like speech without the contribution of the mother tongue. Moreover, at that period there were some other exciting new ideas about language and learning which were brought into discussion by other disciplines. One of them was the behaviouristic philosophy which contributed to the formation of the Audio-lingual Method. Although some of the principles of Audio-lingual Method seemed similar to those of the Direct Method, indeed many were different in the procedure (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:31). Audio-lingual Method showed that it was difficult to use the target language in communication aspect through repetition of unrelated sentences and memorization of dialogues and drills. Thus, this method did not meet the students’ needs. Besides, some students found studying with this method as a boring process, which made Audio-lingual Method, lost its popularity.

With these arguments, it was inevitable to question audiolingualism and its underlying theory. Richard and Rodgers (2001:66) mention that “in 1960s, Chomsky refused and aimed to refute the structuralist approach to language description and behaviourist theory of language learning. He argued that such a learning theory could not answer obviously how humans learn languages. According to Chomsky, human

language use is not a product of imitated behaviour but it is created underlying knowledge of abstract rules”.

As opposed to audiolingualism, it was suggested that practice activities should involve meaningful learning and language use. Learners should be encouraged to use their innate capacities and creative abilities. In the light of these issues, several alternative methods has been proposed after 1970s, such as Total Physical Response (TPR), Silent Way, Counselling Learning, Suggestopedia.

The period between 1970s and 1980s witnessed a major paradigm shift in language teaching. Since 1980s, however, the attention was directed to contemporary theories of language and second language acquisition. The Lexical Approach, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the Natural Approach, Content-based Teaching (CBT) and Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) are the representatives of this last group. Communicative approach changed the focus from grammar to communication. This has brought together a different view of language, language learning, teacher and learner roles and classroom procedures with specific emphasis on communication.

Communicative Approach appeared at a time when many parts of the world needed paradigm shift in language teaching in the twentieth century. With the development of Humanistic Approach to teaching, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged and gained importance.

CLT starts from a theory focusing on communication. It sees language as a system for the expression of meaning. Therefore, interaction plays an important role where the structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses. When the theory of learning underlying CLT is considered, it is possible to mention the principles which are communication principle, task principle and meaningfulness principle. That is to say, learning activities and tasks are selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use. These activities form the basis of learning procedures where the focus is on the process. That is to say, CLT

focuses on practice as a way of developing communication skills. Communicative Approach has unlimited exercise types and activities which enable the learners engage in communication. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks. These tasks necessitate information sharing, negotiation with the friend and interaction. With this regard, the emphasis turned to processes of communication rather than mastery of language forms. Littlewood distinguishes between “functional communication activities” and “social interaction activities” as major activity types in CLT (qtd. Richards and Rodgers,2001:166). Functional communication activities include such tasks as learners comparing sets of pictures and finding similarities and differences; discovering missing features in a map or picture, a learner giving order to the other on how to complete a map. Social interaction activities include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role-plays and debates. This distinction among communication activities played a great role to emerge the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). As Richards and Rodgers (2001:151) state “TBLT can be regarded as a recent version of communicative methodology and seeks to relate methodology with current theories of second language acquisition.” It is known that communicative approach sees second language learning as meaningful use in the classroom. In this context, task-based learning uses the idea of communication as a dynamic process to stimulate communication in the classroom through task based activities. When the procedures in CLT are considered, it is seen that learners have different roles. Students are expected to interact with each other rather than with the teacher. The learner is encouraged to join the class as much as possible; the primary role of the learner is seen as a negotiator. The teacher role is regarded as the facilitator; the teacher organizes the class and procedures, yet he merely guides the classroom.

In 1977s, a new philosophy of language teaching was proposed by Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen which was called The Natural Approach (NA). It is a communicative-based approach which claims that the acquisition of a second language is similar to the acquisition of one’s mother tongue. The NA facilitates the acquisition of a second language in a natural way. It has been a wide influence in the field of language teaching around the world. The NA shares many similarities with the CLT like view of language emphasising meaningful activities. Language is regarded as a vehicle for understanding meaning and messages in the NA. It is aimed to give basic

communication skills such as daily conversations, shopping, listening to the radio, telephoning, booking. The syllabus for the NA is a communicative syllabus. It is designed according to learner needs. Activity types and group techniques are similar to CLT. Unlike CLT, the teacher's role is to provide comprehensible input. Comprehensible input is presented in the target language, using techniques such as TPR, mime and gesture. Unlike CLT, the NA requires learners speak when they feel they are ready. This *silent period* which delays oral production is an argumentative aspect of the approach since it regards the language as a means of communication and use of daily language.



## 2.4. The Task-Based Language Teaching

The Communicative Approach, though aims to improve the learners' using communication skills through activities such as problem-solving, interactive activities or creative activities, has been criticised for focusing on communication and fluency too much and disregarding grammatical accuracy. A response to these criticisms has emerged as TBLT. According to Skehan "TBLT is an attempt to improve on the Communicative Approach by trying to balance accuracy with fluency and by encouraging more authentic output (speaking and writing) from learners" (qtd. in Brewster and Ellis,2004:45). This method is accepted as a logical development of the CLT, but in TBLT communicative learning is supported with meaningful tasks. The key assumptions of task-based instruction are summarized by Feez as (qtd. in Richards and Rodgers,2001:224):

1. The focus is on process rather than product.
2. Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.
3. Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in the activities and tasks.
4. Activities and tasks can be either those that learners might need to achieve in real life and those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.
5. Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus are sequenced according to difficulty.
6. The difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors including the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to undertake the task, and the degree of support available.

TBLT explores how natural learning processes can enhance learning in the classroom. "TBLT refers to an approach based on the use of the tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:223). According to Willis (1996:5) TBLT brings the real-life communicative activities into

the classroom. But these communicative activities are composed of meaningful tasks. Tasks encourage pupils to personalise language and use it in a creative way. Tasks can be done individually, in pairs or in groups. Learners present the task to audience which may be his or her class, another class or parents (qtd in Brewster et al: 2004:16).

Long (qtd in Nunan 1989:5) makes discrimination between real-world or target tasks and pedagogical tasks with these definitions:

“Task is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form... etc.”

The tasks Long mentions in this definition are target tasks. They are the sorts of things that individuals typically do outside the classroom. The classroom procedures include the rehearsal of making reservation, writing letters, finding the way, and so on. Apart from rehearsals for performance outside of the classroom, learners should also do many things within the class-time:

“Tasks such as listening to a tape and repeating, doing a jigsaw, solving a problem in small groups are to be undertaken. It is not because learners will do them outside of the classroom, but because they facilitate the development of a learner’s general language proficiency” (Nunan,1999:25).

In this second definition, task is defined in terms of what the learner will do in the classroom rather than in the outside world. However, the two definitions have a common point; they both imply that tasks involve communicative language use in which the user’s attention is focused on meaning rather than linguistic structure. Nunan also defines task, in a general sense, as a classroom work “which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is mainly focused on meaning rather form” (1989:10). According to these last two definitions, examples of classroom tasks can be listening to a weather forecast and deciding what to wear, responding to a party invitation, completing a banking application form, describing a photograph of one’s family, weighing a patient and

deciding the illness, telephoning and booking for a room, doing shopping and deciding what to buy.

Task, then, appears as the key concept of the TBLT. At this point, a definition of *task* should be made. As it can be seen from the previous definitions task has been defined by many researchers and pedagogists in a variety of ways (Breen 1989, Long 1985, Richards et al 1985) which makes a widely recognized definition seems to be problematic. This is mainly resulting from the fact that in literature there is no complete agreement as to what constitutes a task. For example, while Long (1985:15) sees task as a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Richards and Platt and Weber (1985:7) define task as “an activity or action which is carried out as a result of processing on understanding language”. Similar to Richards et al (1987); Crookes (1986), Skehan (1996), Prabhu (1987), though they use different terms, see task as a piece of structured work undertaken as a part of educational course. On the other hand, the definitions of Breen (1989), Nunan (1989), Lee (2000) and Bygate, Shake and Swain (2001) emphasize interactive meaning exchange in the target language. The difference in these definitions, as mentioned by Ellis, are resulting from six different dimensions they address; the scope, the perspective, the authenticity, the linguistic skill, the psychological processes and the outcome of a task (2003:2-9). Of these six dimensions, *the scope* of a task helps us distinguish two different kinds; task that requires language and task that can be performed without using language. The second dimension, *the perspective*, refers to whether a task is seen from the task designer’s or the participants’ point of view. *The authenticity* distinguishes tasks as situationally-authentic and internationally-authentic. As for the fourth dimension, none of the definitions explicitly address a single specific *language skill*. However, as Ellis (2003:45) states the literature on task mostly focuses on oral skills due to taking interaction among participants as the basis. Yet, the tasks may involve the other language skills since in real-life situations language skills can not be separated from each other. For the reason that insufficient attention has been paid to *the cognitive processes* in second language acquisition research, the fifth dimension has been underestimated in the definitions. If tasks are to be used in second language classrooms, cognitive processes should be taken into consideration while designing a task. The final

dimension, *the outcome*, refers to what the learners arrive at when they have completed a task and it can be judged in terms of content.

Under the light of the points mentioned so far, we suggest the following definition that can serve to display the essential components of the tasks we design for the study:

“task is a structured activity in which; meaning is primary, there is a relation to the real-world; learners require to attain a specific objective, and task completion is necessary for the assessment of task performance (learners outcomes)”

In accordance with our definition for the tasks designed in the study, the following criterial features were used:

1. A task is a structured activity: A task constitutes a plan for learner activity which includes the form of teaching material.
2. The primary focus is on meaning: A task requires learners to use language pragmatically. Thus, it tries to develop second language proficiency through communication.
3. There is a relationship to the real-world: A task corresponds to some real world activities and tries to achieve situational authenticity.
4. A task may involve any of four language skills: A task may require learners to listen or read a text and display their understanding, and produce an oral or written text. Therefore, learners need to employ a combination of receptive and productive skills.
5. Cognitive processes influence the design of the task: In order to carry out the task, a task requires learners to use cognitive processes such as selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating information.

After defining “task”, the TBLT as being a core approach of the current experimental study, will be discussed further under three subheadings: approach, design and procedure.

The theory of language and theory of learning are the important components of any approach. However, it should be stated that the TBLT has not developed another theory of language. It shares the same language theory of the CLT and sees language as a means of communication. In relation to theory of language, TBLT has several assumptions (Richards and Rodgers 2001:226)

- Language is primarily a means of making meaning
- Multiple models of language inform task based instruction
- Lexical units are central in language use and language learning
- Conversation is the central focus

These assumptions indicate that rather than language product, meaningful language use is emphasised within structural, functional and interactional models of language. It is because TBLT is not linked to a single model of language which makes it more flexible in terms of implementation. Considerable importance is given to lexical units. Vocabulary is not used as a means of linguistics units only; it is used to include consideration of lexical phrases, sentences, and collocations. The emphasis on lexical units is resulting from the fact that conversation and the real interaction is the central focus.

As for the theory of learning, it can be said that TBLT shares the general theory about the nature of language learning underlying the CLT. CLT sees comprehensible input as a necessary criterion for successful language acquisition. However, some researchers like Ellis (1990), Lightbown (1984), Mitchell and Myles (1998), Gregg (1984), McLaughlin (1987), Ellis (1985) have criticised Krashen's comprehensible input and argued that productive output is also crucial. In other words, input is not enough for adequate second language development; a balance between input and output should be established. They claimed that tasks provide both the input and output processing necessary for language acquisition. The balance between input and output offers learners a better context for the activation of learning process, better opportunities for language learning to take place. Furthermore, task activity and achievement are also motivational, since tasks require the learners to use authentic language and they have

well-defined dimensions and closure. Additionally, they are varied in format and operation which gives a chance to physical activity within partnership and collaboration. What is more, tasks may as well activate the learner's past experience and tolerate and encourage a variety of communication styles.

In traditional approaches, course design addresses the 'what' of teaching and is concerned with the selection and sequencing of content and it contrasts with methodology which addresses the question of 'how' of teaching. They together form the language curriculum. However, in TBLT, the distinction between the design and methodology is seen irrelevant by Nunan (1989:70). He argued that in this kind of teaching the focus is shift from 'the outcomes of the instruction' towards 'the processes of learning'. This means that for Nunan the 'what' and the 'how' of teaching are merged in the TBLT.

As mentioned by Ellis (2003:243) the design of a task-based of lesson involves components of a lesson that has a task as its principle components. Though various designs have been proposed by SLA researchers and educators, we will explain the frame design proposed by Nunan (1989:47). According to Nunan, the definition of a language learning task requires specification of four components: the goals, the input (linguistic or otherwise), the activities derived from this input, and finally the roles implied for teachers and learners.

Goals are the general representatives behind any given learning task. They provide a relation between the task and the broader curriculum. Besides, goals may relate to a range of general outcomes which can be communicative, affective or cognitive. They may directly describe teacher or learner behaviour. Goals which provide a contact between the task and the syllabus ideally be stated according to the learners' real-life needs. Their cognitive development, situation, classroom atmosphere are to be taken into consideration while designing the tasks. That is, at the beginning of designing the syllabus, what the learners want to learn and in what part they need teaching is analysed. Consequently, syllabus is designed with the contribution of students. Another point to be mentioned is that goals are not always mentioned

explicitly. Because a task may cover both communicative and socio-cultural aspects. Besides, there may not be a relationship between objectives and tasks all the time. In some situations a complex task involving a variety of activities might achieve many goals simultaneously. There may be tasks which cover more than one goal (Nunan,1989:49).

The second component is input which can be described as verbal or non-verbal information supplied by the task. Input is needed for composing the data of the task. Input for communicative tasks can be derived from a wide range of sources. Different list of authentic input materials have also been supported by Hover (qtd in Nunan 1989:53).

Yet, data could be gathered from the sources all around. Such materials provide authentic use of language which is not created for the purpose of teaching. In this context, learners meet a variety of real-life materials and real usage of the target language. Because the language used in authentic materials is natural and they provide learners meaningful and complete messages. Some data such as pictures, flashcards, colours, symbols, shapes provide learners with the opportunity to make use of non-linguistic clues. Therefore, learners get the meaning easier than the printed ones and the meaning becomes conceptualised within the visual materials. The input actually shows the way to the activities since activities identify what learners will do with the input.

Language learning and teaching activities have also been the topic of discussion for task types. As a result of this, there are many competing descriptions of basic task types and appropriate classroom activities in TBLT. Activities specify what learners will actually do with the input which forms the point of departure for the learning task (Nunan, 1989:59). The definitions of a task mentioned so far reveals that an activity requires a specified objective(s), real-life use and harmony of fluency and accuracy. So, the activities derived from each language skill should consist of real life meaningful message. That is to say, not only the materials but also type of activity should be authentic.

Many kinds of tasks which are similar have been proposed, but the survey of the research literature on tasks has shown a confusing collection of task types which are variously categorized. Task can be named according to the type of discourse they are intended to elicit. Ellis explains the reasons of task classification (2003:211). “First, it provides a basis for ensuring variety. Syllabus designers can refer to the classification to ensure what range of task types to integrate into the course. Second, it identifies the task types that match the specific needs or preferences of particular groups of learners. Third, it offers teachers a framework for experimenting with tasks in their classrooms.” They can systematically try out different types of tasks to find out which type is appropriate for his students. Ellis in his book mentions (2003:213) four approaches to classifying tasks; pedagogic, rhetorical, cognitive, and psycholinguistic. A *pedagogical classification* offers a number of ‘recipes’ for tasks directed at learner training, the traditional four language skills, two areas of linguistic knowledge (vocabulary and grammar) and paralinguistics. However, a *rhetorical classification* is often linked to the specific language functions that figure in academic written discourse. A *cognitive classification*, on the other hand, is based on the kind of cognitive operations different types of tasks involve. The last one which is *psycholinguistic classification* of tasks design to create a typology of tasks in relation to learners potential for language learning. The following figure displays these four approaches to classifying tasks and the types of tasks of which they belong to (see Figure 1).



a pedagogical classification	a rhetorical classification	a cognitive classification	psycholinguistic classification
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• listing</li> <li>• ordering and sorting</li> <li>• comparing</li> <li>• problem solving</li> <li>• sharing personal experiences</li> <li>• creative tasks</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• definitions</li> <li>• classifications</li> <li>• narrative</li> <li>• instructions</li> <li>• description</li> <li>• reports</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• information gap activity</li> <li>• reasoning-gap activity</li> <li>• opinion-gap activity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• interactant relationship</li> <li>• interaction requirement</li> <li>• goal oriented</li> <li>• outcome options</li> </ul>
Willis (1996)	Arnaudet (1984) (qtd. in Ellis:2003)	Prabhu (1987)	Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993)

**Figure 1:** Approaches to classifying tasks and the types of tasks

Another issue to consider is developing accuracy and fluency via learning activities. Willis (1996:12) states language use for evaluation necessitates some basic units such as accuracy, grammar rules, explicit knowledge, problem solving. In contrast, language use requires fluency, implicit knowledge and automatic performance. On the other hand, Brumfit (1984:51) in his book argues that accuracy and fluency are not opposites but they are supplementary.

“An accuracy-oriented activity such as pattern drills is usually used in the teaching of a new target item; a fluency-oriented activity such as extensive reading and information gap aims to develop the students’ spontaneous communication skills in using what they have already learned. An activity may be largely accuracy-oriented but also has some features of a fluency activity at the same time”.

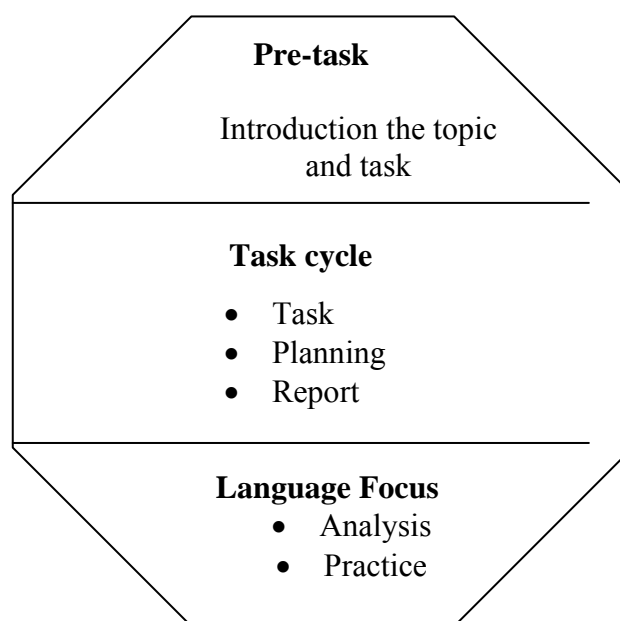
It can not be denied that both accuracy and fluency are essential in language learning. It is believed that once errors are formed, it is difficult to break them. Moreover, the learners, learning in a non-English speaking country, do not have a chance to learn an acceptable usage of English outside the classroom. Therefore, in order to achieve accuracy, students need exact language training in the classroom. Additionally, the learner of second language is not only expected to read English well, but also speak it fluently in case of communicating with the others. After mastering the language forms students are given fluency practice. The focus is not on the control. Thus, students feel themselves free. Teachers assess the students' performances and become more and more conscious of their errors. In this way, accuracy and fluency are regarded as complementary units of the learning activity. That is to say, they are interrelated. With this regard, many activity types have been proposed by many educationalists. With this belief, classroom activities should promote interactive language use and support learning a language. Nunan (1989:64) mentions small-group and two-way information tasks which are suitable for stimulating language use. Small group task involves participants who are supposed to complete a particular task in collaboration. On the other hand, a two-way task consists of two participants who are given a set of tasks and they complete it by sharing their knowledge.

The last component is the roles of teachers and learners. Learner roles in TBLT are not different from CLT. Primary role that task requires from the learner is being a group participant. Many tasks are done in pairs or small groups. Besides, in TBLT, tasks are not completed for just finishing but as a means of facilitating learning. Thus, secondary role of a learner is monitoring the class activities to notice how language is used in communication. Last and the most crucial role of the learner is to take risk where possible while completing the task. Many tasks encourage learners to create and interpret messages or guess from linguistic and contextual clues. Besides, the learners are encouraged to ask for clarification. Therefore, learners are regarded as innovators.

With respect to teacher role, though we see overlap with the CLT, there are additional roles for teachers in TBLT. The central role of the teacher is selecting, adapting or creating tasks, then adapting these into the instruction. While doing so, the

teacher should take learner needs, interests and level of language skill into consideration. The second role of the teacher is to prepare the students for the task so as to encourage and motivate the learners. In addition, while students are completing a task, teacher is not expected to teach any form beforehand, but instead s/he is to employ a variety of form-focusing techniques in order to take the students' attention on the new form and form-meaning relation. Furthermore, during the task, the teacher undertakes the role of observer that is he is not supposed to correct any mistakes.

For the procedure, various designs of task-based lesson have been proposed by many SLA researchers (Prabhu 1987; Estaire and Zanon 1994; Skehan 1996; Lee 2000). However, they all have three principal phases in common: pre-task, during task, post-task. Willis (1996) also recommends a similar sequence of phases such as pre-task, the task cycle and the language focus which have sub-components (see figure 2). These phases reflect the framework of the TBLT.



**Figure 2:** The Willis TBLT framework (1996:38)

The basic procedures of these three phases will be clarified and then analysed thoroughly with their sub-component.

In the pre-task which is the shortest stage in the framework, the teacher explores the topic with the class and may highlight useful words and phrases that the students need in completing the task. The students may hear a recording of other people doing the same task, watch a movie about the topic, see picture of related topic or listen to the other students' ideas. In this step, both activating their words and introducing the new topic-related words and phrases are taken into account simultaneously. Pre-task language activities for exploring topic language should involve all learners, give them relevant exposure and create interest in doing a task on this topic. Students should better know why they are dealing with pre-task activities and how these may help them in doing the main task. A selection of pre-task activities offered by Willis (1996:43) are:

- Classifying words and phrases
- Odd one out
- Matching phrases to pictures
- Memory challenge
- Brainstorming and min-maps
- Thinking of questions to ask
- Teacher recounting a similar experience

The important step in this stage is that the learners should understand what the task involves. They want to know how to begin the task, how much time they have and what will happen when they finish. Therefore, giving task instructions is an important part of clarifying the task which is going to be taken.

The second phase, the task cycle, has three components: task, planning and report.

**1. Task:** Students do the task, in pairs or small groups. Teacher monitors the class and encourages the learners to achieve the task. When most of the class have finished, the teacher stops the task and makes a comment on content. As the teacher just monitors the students doing task, s/he lets the students complete the task on their own.

The role of the teacher is not active in the class however, s/he controls the groups or pairs whether they are doing right task or not. By doing so, s/he tries to encourage all the students to take part, interrupts when necessary, notices which students seem to do more talking in case changing the participant of the group for the next time and act as a time keeper.

**2. Planning:** The teacher mentions about some important points which are heard or seen while monitoring. Besides, positive comments of the teacher on the way students carried out the task increase the students' motivation and build self-esteem. But, it is vital not to commend in detail or summarise since it will be done by the students in the following phases. The students normally feel themselves curious about the others' task and how they achieved it. This makes report phase important since in the report phase students try to present their task in a well-organised way.

**3. Report:** The report stage, then, gives students a natural stimulus to upgrade and improve their language. It can be said that, report stage challenges the accuracy to communicate clearly. Therefore, planning stage which they plan their reports effectively provides students think over the sentences they produce and give the meaning through grammatically correct sentences. While they are planning, the teacher's role is to control the class and act as a language advisor. The teacher should check all the students whether they understand what they are going to do and encourage students to help each other, listen to each other's rehearsal and edit each other's drafts. During this phase, time has a crucial role. Thus, it is better to remind them how much time they have left. If the time finishes but the students are still working on planning then it will better to postpone it until the beginning of the next lesson in case of thinking more over it.

Throughout the task cycle, the emphasis has been on the students understanding and expressing meanings in order to achieve task outcomes and report their findings. The last phase, language focus, provides a closer study of specific features of the language occurred during the task cycle. The students are expected to work with the language which is contextualised through the task itself. The language focus phase consists of two sub phases; analysis and practice. Their aim is to get

students to identify and think about particular features of language form and language use in their own time and their own level.

With language analysis activities, language form is explicitly focused. However, this is not done through decontextualised presentation and practice of language items in isolation. The learners gain time to systematise and build on the grammar they already know. They test their hypothesis about the grammar and increase their repertoire of useful lexical items. Willis (1996:103) proposed three kinds of language analysis activities, setting up analysis activities, monitoring analysis and reviewing analysis activities which the teachers can apply in the classroom. Before beginning to the task, the purpose of the activity should be clarified. While the learners are doing the analysis activity in pairs or individually, the teacher takes the role of observer and go around the class. If they need any help, the teacher should demonstrate how to handle the task but avoid the temptation of doing it for them. In the last type of activities which are reviewing analysis activities, the teacher again takes the role of leading. Once most learners have finished the activity, the others also are stopped and they are asked to tell their examples.

In the practice activities, the common language items are focused. These items will occur in the future exposure and the learners get the chance to think about them and practice them. Willis (1996:111) mentions some language practice activities such as repetition, listen and complete, gapped examples, progressive deletion, unpacking a sentence, repacking a sentence, memory challenge, concordances for common words, dictionary exercises, personal recordings, computer games. These kinds of activities may not give learners deeper insights to the meaning, but provide confidence and a sense of security. They can be based on features of language that have already occurred in previous texts. Some of them focus on specifically a unique language skill such as speaking or writing. They can be done individually, in pairs or in groups as team competitions.

## 2.5. Task-Based Assessment (TBA)

As Ellis states (2003:279) language-teaching methodologists have argued in recent years that tasks promote acquisition of an L2. Therefore, language testers have increasingly recognized the value of tasks for assessing learners' capacity to communicate in an L2. Language testers use the term 'task' as variably as language teaching methodologists. The term 'task' usually refers to any device for carrying out an assessment. In this context, a multiple choice grammar item or cloze passage can be regarded as 'task'. In the narrower meaning, assessment tasks refer to devices which elicit and evaluate communicative performances of learners in the context of language use. Therefore, the task is meaning-focused and directed towards some specific goals.

In order to understand TBA in a broader sense, a brief consideration of different language assessment paradigms is needed. There are three main language assessment paradigms; (Ellis, 2003:280)

1. The psychometric tradition
2. Integrative language tests
3. Communicative language testing

The psychometric tradition in language testing draws on the methods used in psychological testing and structural linguistics in the first half of twentieth century. Psychological testing was characterized by questions of the closed type; for example multiple choice. Test scores were calculated by various statistical procedures. Structural linguistics was used to identify the content of the tests. Knowledge of the different language elements such as phonemes, vocabulary items, grammatical patterns, and morphemes was tested in relation to the four language skills. One of the examples of this tradition is the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL).

“In this sense, psychometric language tests emphasized *reliability*, and *validity* in order to provide objectivity and consistency besides a clear relationship between performance and some theory of language proficiency” (Gipps, 1994:14)

Integrative language tests, like psychometric tests, employ the same battery of statistical procedures to ensure reliability and validity. They differ from psychometric tests in view of language proficiency. Integrative language tests regard language proficiency as unitary in nature not as multidimensional. That is to say, there is coherence between the scores taken from two separate tests. This claim shows that language proficiency is not composed of discrete elements.

Unlike the previous two, communicative language testing rejects the role of reliability, validity and statistical procedures. It emphasized the centrality of human subject of the test. Communicative tests then provide scores for overall task fulfilment rather than for linguistics knowledge or language skills. The other difference is that communicative tests have three important features of which the other paradigms did not focus. “First, communicative tests involve *performance* in order to match test tasks with target language use tasks. Second, they include *authenticity* which help the testee understand the communicative purpose of a task. Third, communicative tests are scored on *real-life outcomes*” (Ellis, 2003:283). The testee then performs the task successfully by achieving a satisfactory outcome. As it can be understood from these three features mentioned below, communicative language testing shares the same characteristics based on TBLT. It can be said that these three characteristics then constitute the form of TBA.

In order to mention the essential characteristics of TBA, it's better to mention the types of language tests in a broader framework. The types of language tests are divided into two as *system-referenced tests* and *performance referenced tests*.

“System referenced tests assess knowledge of language as a system and try to provide information about language proficiency without referring to any particular use. On the other hand, performance referenced tests assess the ability to use language in specific contexts.”(Ellis, 2003:285). These tests can both be more or less direct/indirect. Direct tests are based on a direct sampling of criterion performance and they try to get a contextualised sample of the testee's use of language whereas indirect tests are less contextualised and based on an analysis of the criterion performance in order to obtain measures of the specific features.



In order to determine of which category one test fits in, Baker's types of assessment can be used (Table 1).

	<b>Direct (holistic)</b>	<b>Indirect (analytic)</b>
System-referenced	Traditional tests of general language ability: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- free composition</li> <li>- oral interview</li> </ul> Information transfer tests: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- information-gap</li> <li>- opinion-gap</li> <li>- reasoning-gap</li> </ul>	Discrete-item tests of linguistic knowledge: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- multiple-choice grammar or vocabulary tests</li> <li>- elicited imitation of specific linguistic features</li> <li>- error-identification tests</li> </ul> Integrative tests: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- cloze</li> <li>- dictation</li> </ul>
Performance-referenced	Specific purpose tests: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- tests based on observing real-world tasks</li> <li>- simulations of real-world tasks</li> </ul>	Tests that seek to measure specific aspects of communicative proficiency discretely: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- tests of specific academic sub-skills, e.g. the ability to cite from a published work</li> <li>- tests of the ability to perform specific functions or strategies, e.g. the ability to write a definition of a technical term.</li> </ul>

**Table 1:** Types of language assessment (qtd. in Ellis 203:285)

As it can be understood from the table, direct performance-referenced tests constitute a form of TBA. However, direct system-referenced tests also employ tasks.

On the other hand, Baker emphasizes a relation between system-referenced and performance-referenced and between direct and indirect methods of assessment. Ellis gives the example of listening-comprehension test where testees are asked to listen to a mini lecture and then answer a number of multiple-choice questions. This kind of test is performance-referenced but it is not definite whether it is of direct or indirect. Since listening to a lecture is an activity of the real-world kind then it is direct, though, the testee's performance is measured indirectly by scoring the answers to the questions. This means that the testee's performance is not taken into consideration although it should be assessed separately through observation or analysis of the performance itself. In this respect, TBA should be discussed in terms of its *summative* and *formative* roles. Summative role serves as a basis for making decisions about testees; for example regarding certification, or admission to university. This is an important purpose of being assessed yet it is not sufficient for TBA. Thus, to decide appropriately about teaching procedures and learning activities teachers need formative assessment.

There are two kinds of formative assessment which are *planned* and *incidental*. Both have contribution to the goals of monitoring progress and guiding instruction. Planned formative TBA requires the classroom use of direct tests of the system-referenced and performance-referenced kinds. Since formative assessment is based on curriculum, the test-tasks have to match with those in the instructional programme. However, in planned formative assessment, tasks will need to be supplemented with some method for measuring the students' performance which might raise problems. Brindley though, claims that there is a need for the planned formative assessment since it provides information which is explicit and systematic (Ellis: 2003, 315).

Incidental formative assessment refers to special assessment that is carried out by teachers and students as part of the process of performing a task that has been selected for instructional rather than assessment purpose. That is to say, it is a part of online decision that appears in the course while performing a task in the classroom.

To conclude, formative assessment of both planned and incidental kinds constitutes a common and important form of TBA. There is need for both types. But

TBA has to be seen as a long-term rather than short-term investment. Also TBA should not be used by itself but rather in combination with indirect methods of assessment.

In this study, two assessment types were used. One is the vocabulary test designed as pre-test and post-test. This test does not involve performance in order to match the task with target language use tasks. However, it includes authenticity which makes the testee understand the test task easily; such as filling in the identity card and family tree. Besides, the test consists of pictures of real objects which provide visualisation and clear understanding. The test is not considered as performance-referenced test where the testee perform the test task by observing or doing the real-world task. Therefore, the test used in the study can be regarded as system-referenced which tries to assess the students' lexical competence in a general sense without referring to any particular use. This test can be then considered as indirect since it is not holistic in nature and does not aim to obtain a contextualised sample of the testee's use of language. It is a vocabulary test which is less contextualised and based on an analysis of the criterion performance in order to obtain measures of the specific features (see Table 1).

Secondly, planned formative assessment type was also used. The tasks based on curriculum were designed beforehand by the researcher and performed during the task phase or in the language focus phase. The students were asked to keep a language dossier as one of the units of ELP in which the output of each task, the products of the students, were collected. The introduction of 'ELP has been started in 2001 and practices of it has been started in 2002; It's planned to continue its pilot applications till 2004 and become widespread around Europe after 2004-2005 academic year. The main aim of this project is to make each citizen of Europe have a language passport covering the language/s levels, certificates, and studies. In this way, each European citizen is encouraged to learn first foreign language in the primary school, second foreign language in secondary school, and third foreign language in the university in the context of plurilingualism and multiculturalism (Demirel, 2004: 18).

ELP includes language passport, language biography and language dossier. Language passport contains the languages student knows and his language levels. Language biography includes the learner's language process, language learning aims, language development and language learning experiences. Language dossier is a collection of documents of different kinds- mostly works produced by the learner him/herself. Furthermore, European Language Portfolio has two basic functions. First one is to inform, since it includes all the data about the learner. Second one is educational function since it facilitates learners have their own learning autonomy. In this context, the learner's feeling free and assessing himself in the learning process becomes a matter of importance (Morrow, 2004: 22-23).

ELP provides learners more responsibility to reflect themselves, assess themselves and provide their self-learning. That is to say, this portfolio supports learner autonomy. Language use and language learning has been defined in Common European Portfolio which supports the task-based approach to develop learner autonomy (CEF,2001:9):

“Each learner uses his own abilities in many contexts such as joining the language activities in different situations and different obstacles and by using most appropriate strategy to compose or absorb texts related to the themes.”

## **2.6. Vocabulary in Second Language Teaching**

Words are the significant units of language to compose the meaning and send the message to the receiver for providing communication. Fromkin and Rodman (1993:275) state that “every speaker of every language knows thousands, even tens of thousands of words. When we know a word that means we know both its pronunciation and its meaning. Therefore the form (sounds or pronunciation) and the meaning of a word are inseparable.” For example, the word ‘crab’ as a noun means a kind of animal whereas as a verb it has different meaning which is ‘to complain’. This issue was pointed out and discussed by Ferdinand de Saussure who is the nineteenth century Swiss linguist.

According to him, there is an arbitrary union between the sound (form) and meaning (concept) of linguistic sign or word. "Vocabulary then can be defined as the words taught in foreign language classes" (Ur: 1996, 60). In the frame of communication in second language, it is nearly impossible to send the right message without knowing the correct words. However, learning vocabulary was neglected in teaching language for many reasons during the 1950s and 1960s when audio-lingualism had an influence on methodology. It was believed that vocabulary was already being given too much time in language classrooms. Therefore, grammar was emphasised in many language classes. Additionally, it was thought that learning too many words before the basic grammar would cause mistakes in sentence construction. In a sense, these beliefs about vocabulary are true to a certain extent. It is never enough to learn only the words and their meanings. In class where too little emphasis is put on grammar, the students fail to learn how words are used in a sentence. They then need to learn the grammar which includes the uses of words. As Wilkins in his book puts forward "without grammar very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (1972:111). Likewise, Harmer claims (1991:153) "if language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh". These two claims are well-made explanations towards the conflict of language structure and vocabulary. Therefore, in 1970s, with the influence of communicative language teaching, vocabulary teaching gained importance.

When literature reviewed, two important questions can be observed. The first one is what needs to be taught and second one how it is taught. With respects to the first questions, Harmer (1991:153) lists the main units as meaning, word use, word formation and word grammar. Likewise, Ur lists what is needed as form, grammar, collocation, aspects of meaning and word formation (1996:60-62).

*Form:* The learner has to know what a word sounds like and look like. When presenting the new item, at least one of these aspects is perceived by the learner in order to conceptualise it in mind.

*Grammar:* While presenting a new item, the grammar of it needs to be taught if it is not certainly covered by general grammatical rules. For example, when teaching singular and plural forms of nouns, it's better to encounter the irregular forms such as "mouse-mice".

*Collocation:* Particular items have collocations and this makes them sound "right" or "wrong" in a given context. Thus, it's better to mention the uses of the words in context.

*Aspects of meaning (denotation, connotation, appropriateness):* Denotation means the primary meaning of a word and what it refers to in the real world. Connotation is less obvious component of the meaning of an item. Another aspect is appropriateness which means a particular item is appropriate to use in a certain context or not. These three are vital in order to create a definite meaning in the sentence.

*Aspects of meaning (meaning relationships):* How the meaning of one item relates to the meaning of others is also useful in teaching. There are various relationships like synonyms (items that mean the same), antonyms (items that mean the opposite), co-hyponyms or co-ordinates (other items that are the same kind of thing), superordinates (general concept that cover specific items), translation (words or expressions in the mother tongue).

*Word formation:* Vocabulary items can often be broken down into their component bits. How these bits are put together is another important issue to be taught, perhaps for more advanced learners. Another type for word formation is combining two words such as bookcase or swimming pool.

All of these can be applied in teaching in order to clarify the meaning of a new item or for practice. The units are chosen according to teaching item and the level of the learners.

Since learning the word meanings requires more than the use of dictionary, vocabulary acquisition is a complex process. Allen states that researchers have dealt with lexical problems and they have found that “lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words” (1983:5). This situation happens in the classroom setting as well. Communication stops when the learners lack the necessary words. Therefore, in class, many vocabulary-teaching techniques can be applied and many can be adopted according to the level of the learners. Explicitly, understanding the meaning is only the first step in learning a word. Much more emphasis then should be given to various kinds of activities which require students to use the new words for real communication. After introducing the new words, the students are encouraged to be engaged in experiences in which they use the new words they have learned. While teaching vocabulary, teachers help the learner connect the form of a word with its meaning by presenting the form and meaning together. Nation mentions various techniques for introducing the new words are designed for better understanding such as demonstration, pictures, and explanations (qtd. in Byrne 1981:188). Frost also mentions some ways of getting across the meaning of a lexical word as “illustration, mime, synonyms/antonyms, definition, translation, and context” [[http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/vocabulary/present\\_vocab.shtml](http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/vocabulary/present_vocab.shtml)]. Some of these techniques are more suitable for particular words. Combination of techniques can be more helpful and memorable. The teaching techniques are to increase the learners’ interest and challenge them for learning these words. Therefore, vocabulary techniques used in the class should be designed in accordance with the level and interest of the learners. For instance, in order to add challenge and interest into teaching, the word meaning isn’t given directly; instead, the learners are forced to guess the meaning during the task.

In TBLT, lexical units are central in language use and language learning. Vocabulary in TBLT is used to include the consideration of lexical phrases, sentence stems, prefabricated routines, and collocations, and not only words as significant units of linguistic lexical analysis and language pedagogy. Many task-based proposals include this point of view. Skehan comments (qtd. in Richards and Rodgers, 2001:227):

“... fluency concerns the learner’s capacity to produce language in real time without too much pausing for hesitation. It is likely to rely upon more lexicalised modes of communication, as the pressures of real-time speech production met only by avoiding excessive rule-based computation.”

Besides, Newton also (2001:30) emphasizes communicative tasks in teaching vocabulary. In TBLL, learners are encouraged to participate in communicative tasks where they often meet new vocabulary incidentally. It is almost inevitable for language learners to encounter with unfamiliar vocabulary in language classroom. Thus, the teacher should design different kinds of vocabulary tasks in order to have them understand the meaning of the new words. Otherwise, the learners will feel themselves under pressure during the instruction in the classroom where the teacher controls the instruction of a new vocabulary carefully. When there are the difficult words, rather than removing them, the teacher should use many ways to expose learners to these difficult words during the task-based instruction. Newton states, “ a task-based approach, while not excluding the option of pre-reaching and pre-learning, addresses the challenge more directly by providing classroom experiences that approximate the demand of authentic language use” (2001:30). With the help of authenticity in tasks, the learners easily figure out the meaning of the new words. In this sense, task-based approach enables learners to develop strategies for managing new vocabulary and maintaining a communicative focus. These strategies include guessing with the use of context, negotiating meaning with others and attending to new items under communicative pressure. This approach also requires teacher’s careful management to prevent the struggle with new words. Otherwise, learners lose their concentration to the task while searching for the word meaning in dictionaries. The teacher encourages learners for not sticking to their bilingual dictionaries and increases learners’ courage to seek help through cooperation with each other. Newton (2001:35) mentions some options for vocabulary learning within a three-stage task framework involving pre-task options, in-task options and post-task options.



***Pre-task options:*** Pre-teaching gives learners a first chance to meet new words. Learners are equipped with the necessary words they need. If the task contains important words for the learners, they need to understand the meaning of the words in order to perform the task. Predicting, cooperative dictionary search, words and definitions are listed under the pre-task options.

***In-task options:*** In order to have an effective learning, learners should pay attention to the form of the language. They need to understand the meaning for comprehension and search for the meaning. Besides, they need to compare one word with other words and use it in communication. That is to say, when learners pay attention to new words, they are encountered during the task performance. Three options for meeting new words during task performance can be as glossary, interactive glossary and negotiation.

***Post-task options:*** Using newly learnt words more than once and in different contexts is highly facilitative for learning. In order to supply regular tasks for, various kinds of ways can be applied such as revision tests, quizzes, group activities involving review and analysis of new vocabulary. Learners can keep vocabulary logs as a record of the new words which help them reinforce their own learning. Moreover vocabulary logs encourage learners to take responsibility for their learning. They choose the words they will revise.

Tasks provide teachers a number of options for enhancing attention to vocabulary. Learners then will have a chance to see the uses of unfamiliar words in different contexts. That is, through task, learners are given opportunities to meet and explore new vocabulary without direct teacher assistance and to use this vocabulary to meet meaningful task goals.

In this study, the learners chosen as subjects are regarded as young learners. Much teaching has been based on the idea that the most frequently used words in the target language should be taught first (Cook, 2001:58). Therefore beginners' books restrict the vocabulary they introduce to the most frequent items. Tasks for teaching

vocabulary during this study were designed by taking characteristics of young learners, frequency of words, curriculum and coursebook into consideration.

## CHAPTER 3

### THE RESEARCH

#### 3.1 Research Method

In this study, quasi-experimental method, aiming to examine the manipulation of independent variables to dependent variables and to make changes under control and collect the changes, was applied. The study was a quantitative research type. Therefore, the data gathered from pretest and posttest results and results were statistically analysed.

#### 3.2. Research Model

In this study *the pretest-posttest control group model*.

In the light of this design, the research design of our study is shown in Table 2.

	<b>Groups</b>	<b>Tests</b>	<b>Procedure</b>	<b>Tests</b>
<b>R1</b>	E Group	Pretest	Vocabulary teaching/ TBLT	Posttest
<b>R2</b>	C Group	Pretest	Traditional vocabulary activities	Posttest

**Table 2:** Study Design

R1 and R2 indicate that both groups were assigned randomly as experimental and control group. E Group, assigned as the experimental group, received treatment of task-based vocabulary teaching, whereas C Group 2, assigned as the control group, did not receive any treatment. Both groups were given pretest and posttest.

### 3. 3. Population and Sampling

The population of this study included 6th graders who took English course at Edirne Yüksel Yeşil Elementary School.

The sampling of this study was composed of the two 6th grader classes (6-B/6-C) in Edirne Yüksel Yeşil Elementary School.

#### *Subjects*

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Mean Age</b>
<b>E Group</b>	24	18	42	12
<b>C Group</b>	25	13	38	12

**Table 3:** The gender and the mean age of the experimental and control groups

80 subjects contributed in the study (E Group: 42, C Group: 38) and the groups were assigned randomly.

### 3. 4. Data Collection Procedures

In order to answer the research questions, the following data collection procedures were applied. For determining the subjects' level of vocabulary, pretest results were used as data. Before the study, without any implementation, both groups were given a vocabulary test as the pretest and results were analysed using *paired simple t-test* analysis. No significant difference was found between the groups ( $p = .132$   $p > .05$ ). Thus, two groups were determined to be equivalent and they were assigned as experimental and control randomly.

	<b>n</b>	$\bar{X}$	<b>sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>E Group</b>	42	62.90	13.97	36	-1.54	.132
<b>C Group</b>	38	56.36	14.91			

**Table 4:** Pretest results of the experimental group an the control group

After the statistical analysis of pretest, the language level of both groups was determined as A1. Common reference levels mentioned in the CEF and according to this global scale (CEF, 2001:26);

“A1 of Basic User can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at satisfaction of needs of concrete type, can introduce himself, and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he /she has, can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.”

The subjects in the experimental group were asked to keep a language dossier to find whether the task-based activities designed in accordance with the CEF for 6<sup>th</sup> graders have an effect on the development of learner’s lexical competence or not (*see Appendix 1*).

At the end of the implementation, both groups were given the same test as a post-test in order to assess their success and determine the difference between the experimental and control groups.

According to the curriculum applied in the school, four units of the course book “Quick Step 6” have to be completed till the end of the first semester. Vocabulary tasks were designed beforehand. In the design of the tasks, the topics in the course book “Quick Step 6” published by the Ministry of Education were taken into consideration. The research was completed within Fall semester in 2005-2006 Academic Year.

### 3.4.1. Materials

The instrument used for data collection was developed by the researcher in order to assess the learners' level of lexical competence and to find the difference between the control and experimental group. The study was based on the effectiveness of TBLT on vocabulary learning. Therefore, the instrument was designed in the light of TBA (*see Appendix 2*).

In order to carry out the tasks and activities within communicative situations, learners need to use a number of competences. All human competences have a valuable contribution to communicative competence. These competences are divided into two in the CEF as *general competences* and *communicative language competences*. "General competences are declarative knowledge, skills and know-how, existential competence, ability to learn" (2001: 36). However, communicative language competences are more specifically language-related competences. Communicative competence within this narrower sense has three components:

- Linguistic competences
- Sociolinguistic competences
- Pragmatic competences

Linguistic competence is divided into categories as lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, orthoepic competences. Our study is restricted with only the assessment of lexical competence of the learners. With this respect, the instrument was designed in order to assess only the lexical competence.

When illustrative scales of the *range* of vocabulary knowledge and the ability to *control* that knowledge is examined, it is found that A1 has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations. However, there is no descriptor available for vocabulary control. With this respect, four

units of the English course book of 6<sup>th</sup> graders were analyzed in terms of active vocabulary they include. The test items covered this active vocabulary.

The instrument as a vocabulary test was designed in accordance with CEF and the common reference levels (2000: 22-26). It aimed to assess the students' lexical competence on the level of word recognition and correct word spelling. As mentioned in Chapter 2 in detail, the test used in this study can be regarded as system-referenced which tries to assess the students' lexical competence in a general sense without referring to any particular use. It is a vocabulary test which is less contextualized and based on an analysis of the criterion performance in order to obtain measures of the specific features.

The instrument included eight parts (A-H) with different types of test items. It covered 50 items in total.

Part A aimed to assess the learners' ability in filling in forms with their personal details and the students were asked to fill in their personal information on an ID card. Part B aimed to assess learners' knowledge of basic words related to jobs and professions. They were asked to match the jobs with the pictures. Part C aimed to assess learners' recognition of numbers and they were asked to write the missing numbers from 1 to 20. Part D aimed to assess learners' knowledge of correct spelling of words related to clothes, and they were asked to write the correct words by using the letters given. Part E aimed to assess the learners' ability of recognizing related vocabulary and the students were asked to fill in the blanks on a family tree given with photos. Part F aimed to assess learners' ability in expressing the amounts of foods and they were asked to complete the sentences by using the information given. Part G aimed to assess the learners' knowledge of words related to seasons and they were asked to look at the pictures and write the names of the seasons. Part H, the last part, aimed to assess the learners' knowledge of words related to countries and nationalities and they were given the chart with nationalities. They were asked to write the countries.

Table 5 illustrates the parts, the number of items, the types of the items and points. In each part, there was an example done for the students. The researcher checked the answers of the learners. Each item was evaluated out of two points and the test was 100 point in total.

<b>Parts</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Types</b>	<b>Points</b>
Part A	12 items	Fill-in	12x2=24
Part B	5 items	Matching	5x2=10
Part C	9 items	Fill-in	9x2=18
Part D	4 items	Reorganisation	4x2=8
Part E	5 items	Fill-in	5x2=10
Part F	5 items	Completion	5x2=10
Part G	3 items	Fill-in	3x2=6
Part H	7 items	Fill-in	7x2=14
<b>Total</b>	8	-	100

**Table 5:** Parts, items, types and points of the test



### 3.4.2. Research Procedure

This study was implemented 18 weeks in the first semester of 2005-2006 Academic Year. Table 6 displays the research procedure of the study. The vocabulary and portfolio tasks designed for each unit were given in *Appendix 3*.

<b>Date</b>	<b>Units</b>	<b>Subjects</b>
29.09.2005		<i>pretest</i>
06.10.2005	Unit1; Lesson 2	Nationalities : neighbour countries
13.10.2005	Unit 1; Lesson 3	Cardinal numbers:1-20
20.10.2005	Unit 2; Lesson 1	Nouns: Classroom objects
27.10.2005	Unit 2; Lesson 2	Singular and plural nouns: objects
03.11.2005	Unit 2; Lesson 2	Regular/irregular nouns: animals
17.11.2005	Unit 2; Lesson 4	Hours: time
24.11.2005	Unit 2;Lesson 6	Seasons
01.12.2005	Unit 2;Lesson 6	Seasons, months
08.12.2005	Unit 2;Lesson 6	Seasons, months, clothes
15.12.2005	Unit 3; Lesson 1	Family relationships
22.12.2005	Unit 3; Lesson 1	Family relationships
29.12.2005	Unit 4;Lesson 2	Quantity of things: some
05.012006	Unit 4;Lesson 2	Quantity of things: some/any
12.01.2006	Unit 4;Lesson 2	Quantity of things, containers:
19.01.2006	Unit 4;Lesson 2	Quantity of things: shopping list
26.01.2006	Unit 4;Lesson 3	Song (Ten Bottles of Juice)
02.02.2006		<i>posttest</i>

**Table 6:** The Implementation Procedure

Both groups took English course for four hours a week, yet the two hours of the experimental group were filled by the researcher. The teachers of both groups were not the same teachers. The teacher of the control group was blinded to the study. Therefore, the control group did not have the chance of seeing the tasks, activities and procedure of the experimental group. The English teacher of the control group was interviewed during the study in order to learn what they did in the classroom. It was understood after the interview that the teacher used just the coursebook and did not prepare any extra language activities.

### **3. 5. Data Analysis**

For the statistical analysis of the data gathered from the pretest and posttest, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 11.0 for Windows was used.

In relation to research questions, following statistical analysis types were used:

1. Before the implementation, in order to measure the lexical knowledge of both groups, pretest was assigned to both groups and analyzed by using *paired simple t-test*.
2. In order to determine the difference between the experimental group learning the vocabulary by task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grades English courses and the control group learning the vocabulary by traditional vocabulary teaching, pretest and posttest results were analyzed statistically by using *paired simple t-test*.
3. To assess the success and determine the significance between the experimental and control group the posttest results were analyzed by using *paired simple t-test*.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS and DISCUSSION

This chapter includes the results in relation to the research questions which were found after statistical analysis and the interpretation of them. Besides, these findings will be discussed with respect to the previous researches done on this field.

#### 4. 1. Results

##### 4.1.2. Findings of the First Question

The first question of the study was determined as “What is the level of students’ lexical competence?”

In order to answer this question, both groups were given a vocabulary test as a pretest before the implementation. The test results were analyzed using *simple paired-t test*. The findings of both groups were shown in Table 7.

	<b>n</b>	$\bar{X}$	<b>sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>E Group</b>	42	62.90	13.97	36	-1.54	.132
<b>C Group</b>	38	56.36	14.91			

**Table 7:** Pretest results of the experimental and control groups

The experimental group had a mean of 62.90, while the control group averaged 56.36. The standard deviation (measuring the spread of individual test scores) of the experimental group was 13.97, while the standard deviation of the control group was 14.91. As shown in the table 7, there is difference between the two means. Actually, it would be strange if the means of the two groups were exactly the same since the

number of subjects in the experimental group is higher. Therefore, there is a difference between the means. However,  $p = .132$  value indicates that there is not significant difference between the groups before the implementation ( $p > .05$ ). That is, both groups were equal with respect to lexical knowledge before the implementation. This is a prerequisite for *the pretest-posttest control group model*.

#### 4.1.3. Findings of the Second Question

The second question of the study was determined as “How can the students’ level of lexical competence be improved?”. In order to answer this question, two questions were to be answered. The first question was “Do the task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grade English courses have an effect on the development of learners’ lexical competence?”. In order to answer this question, the results of pretest and posttest of the experimental group were analyzed by using *simple paired-t test*. The findings were shown in Table 8.

	<b>n</b>	$\bar{X}$	<b>sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Pretest</b>	42	62.90	13.97	41	14.18	.000
<b>Posttest</b>	42	84.80	14.91			

**Table 8:** Pretest-Posttest results of the experimental group

Before the implementation, the experimental group had a mean of 62.90 (sd=13.97) in the pretest. However, after the implementation, the experimental group had a mean of 84.80 (sd=14.91) in the posttest. When compared with the mean value of the pretest, a highly significant raise was found in the mean value of the posttest. This result means that the difference between pretest and posttest of the experimental group did not happen accidentally. There is only 1 chance in 100 (.01) that the difference in mean scores between pretest and posttest occurred by chance (*df*: 41). A *t*-test analysis

of the differences between means yielded a  $t$  of 14.18. In the confidence intervals of %95,  $p = .001$  that means  $p < .05$ . This indicates that there is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the experimental group.

The sub-question of the second study question was determined as “Is there a significant difference between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grades and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities?”

In order to answer this question, the results of the posttest of both groups were analyzed by using *simple paired-t test*. The findings were shown in Table 9.

	<b>n</b>	$\bar{X}$	<b>sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>E Group</b>	42	84.80	14.91	38	-3.62	.001
<b>C Group</b>	38	75.68	18.79			

**Table 9:** Posttest results of the experimental and control groups

The findings indicate that there is a significant difference between the posttest results of both groups. The mean value of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group (84.80 (sd= 14.91) and 75.68 (sd=18.79), respectively). The *simple paired t-test* analysis of the differences between the means yielded a  $t$  of -3.62. This was significant at the  $p < .05$  level ( $df=38$ ). A significant difference was found between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grades and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities.

#### **4.2. Discussion**

Before the implementation, in order to determine the lexical level of both groups, subjects were given pretest and the results were analysed. As displayed in Table 4,  $p = .132$  value indicated that there was not significant difference between the groups

before the implementation. This was one of the requirements of the research model that we conducted in the study. Therefore, both groups were determined suitable for the application of the study.

In order to improve the students' level of lexical competence, task-based activities, which were designed in accordance with the CEF and by considering the learners' developmental characteristics, were used with the experimental group during the implementation period.

To see the effect of task-based activities on learners' lexical competence, the results of pretest and posttest of the experimental group were compared using *simple paired t-test*. The statistical analysis of the findings yielded a significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the experimental group (see Table 7). Our findings were in concordance with the results of the project supervised by Zhang (1994) and the study of Newton (2001). In his project Zhang found that the task-based methodology is beneficial to students learning at the beginning level of Chinese. Likewise the subjects in our study, though were from a different age group, were also at the beginning level of English and they were able to easily identify what the performance focus is and they could evaluate their own task in the process of performing a task. In his study Newton (2001) examined data from a number of classroom tasks where learners had to deal with new words during task performance without access to a dictionary or teacher's intervention. The results suggested that rich language use resulted from negotiating new words and the meaning of many of these words was retained in the days after the task performance. Similar to that study, in the implementation phase of our study the subjects were not given any Turkish explanation of the words. The phases of the tasks helped them understand the meaning of the vocabulary and enhance their lexical competence. From the results it can be concluded that the task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grade English courses had a positive effect on the development of learners' lexical competence.

In order to see the difference between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities, the results of the posttest of both groups were analyzed. With

respect to the mean values, we found an increase in both groups. This was an inevitable result and the opposite would have been strange because the control group also had English courses for four hours a week. Yet, when compared to the control group the increase in the mean value of the experimental group was higher. The difference between the groups was statistically significant for the experimental group (see Table 10). Similar results were found in two previous studies. Mor-Mutlu (2001) and Davut (2003) in their studies comparing traditional teaching method and task-based teaching method found that the task-based teaching method was more effective traditional teaching method. Thus we concluded that task-based vocabulary activities were more effective than traditional activities.

This positive effect may be resulting from the nature of the input and the design of the task. In their study, Ellis et. al. (1994) searched for the effect of the interactionally modified input and found that interactionally modified resulted in better comprehension than pre-modified input. Similarly, in our study the researcher tried to design the tasks which could enhance the interaction between the students. During the task design phase of our study, great importance was given on the developmental stage. Likewise, McLaughlin (2001) in his project found that appropriate tasks supplied the balance between accuracy and fluency.

The second question of the study on how the students' level of lexical competence can be improved will be discussed in the light of the findings discussed above. In our study, we found that the task-based teaching method was more effective than the traditional teaching method and that the tasks had a positive effect on young learners' lexical competence. This positive effect might be resulted from the nature of task. The subjects in the experimental group enjoyed the activities and liked the tasks they were involved. The tasks enabled students interact with each other. The findings of Yaylı (2004) also support this finding. In her study, she found that subjects developed positive attitudes towards tasks, they enjoyed the framework and that tasks helped learners think in the target language and associate structure and meaning.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter includes the conclusion based on the findings and interpretations of the study and some suggestions will be proposed.

#### 5. 1. Conclusion

The main findings that emerged from the study aiming to find out the effectiveness of the TBLT on vocabulary and search for the difference between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> graders and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities are;

1. The findings indicate that the task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grade English courses had a positive effect on the development of learners' lexical competence. The subjects enjoyed the activities they participated and were willing to use English in tasks. The tasks enabled them to play with the language. They showed responsibility in completing tasks. Keeping an English dossier encouraged them since they saw their progress. The CEF states that keeping a dossier has a strong positive influence on language learning (2001:17).
2. The other finding of the study is on the difference between the experimental group learning vocabulary through task-based activities designed for 6<sup>th</sup> grades and the control group learning vocabulary through traditional activities. The experimental group had four-hour of English course per week and two hours were filled by the researcher with task-based vocabulary activities. Yet, the control group had four-hour English course through traditional activities. The findings indicate that there is a significant difference on lexical competence between the experimental group and control group according to curriculum and course book. The experimental group had activities reflecting real life and the



learners focused on meaning and they were free to use any language they want. There was no force to use only English during the lesson. The activities were composed of relevant and authentic tasks.

3. During the study, the researcher experienced some problems with respect to implementation which can be considered as crucial factors.

The first one was the large class size of the experimental group. Average class size was 42 which sometimes caused problems in groups-work tasks. Besides, the large class size caused noise and some discipline problems which made it hard for fulfilling the tasks in the classroom.

During the application, researcher observed that some of the students in the experimental group did not want to participate and complete some tasks due to individual differences. There are a number of studies carried out in order to testify the variability in learners' performance by taking into consideration the relationship between tasks, language use, and second language. (Beebe 1980; Ellis 1987; Tarone and Parrish 1988). Likewise, some students did not like some of the tasks whereas the others liked them. It is because of the differences in the interest of the students. Ellis and Heimbach (1997) reported on the effects of meaning negotiation on young children's acquisition of English-as-a-Second-Language word meanings. They tried to find out the difference between the students while they listened individually and in small groups to directions which contained words unknown to them. The results showed that children varied in their ability or willingness to negotiate.

4. As a result, it can be concluded that when compared to the traditional method, task-based teaching is more effective and the study was successfully carried out.

## 5.2. Suggestions

With respect to the findings of the study mentioned so far, these suggestions can be given to the academicians, researchers, program designers and teachers dealing with teaching foreign language.

1. The study should be repeated with different age group, with larger subject groups and for longer periods and the findings should be confirmed. The present study was conducted to 6<sup>th</sup> grades in the state elementary school. There should be further research projects on TBLT considering the students of different age or a further research may seek the effectiveness of task-based vocabulary activities in 6<sup>th</sup> grades in the private schools. This study was a small scale empirical study which was carried out within 18 weeks. Therefore, further study is needed in order to see the effects of task-based language teaching in long-term period.
2. Further comparative studies to see the effect of task-based language teaching are also required. TBLT should be compared with other teaching methods on the one hand. On the other hand, in order to see the effect of age in TBLT, the application of it should be compared with different age groups such as young learners versus adults.
3. Program designers should implement various tasks according to learners' developmental stages in order to take their attention.
4. In task-based lessons, since the main aim is to create a need to learn and use language, focus should be taken away from form and structure. That is not to say that there will be no attention paid to accuracy in task-based language teaching, work on language is included in each task and feedback and language focus have their places in lesson plans. The teacher should design tasks by considering the students and what they need to learn. They should keep in mind that the learners should understand what they are dealing and they should enjoy what they are doing. Students should be given opportunity to use English in the classroom as

they use their own languages in everyday life. It is beneficial for them to take responsibility in the tasks and actively carry out the tasks. The tasks should be clear enough for the students and real-like authentic for them. Carless (2003) in his qualitative case study data found some themes on how teachers approached the implementation of communicative tasks in their classroom. The syllabus time available, the textbook and the topic preparation, the available resources, the language proficiency of the students and also the size of the classroom are the common themes with Carless' study which influenced the task-based teaching during our study.

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<http://www.auburn.edu/~nunnath/engl6240/accuracy.html>-14.03.2006

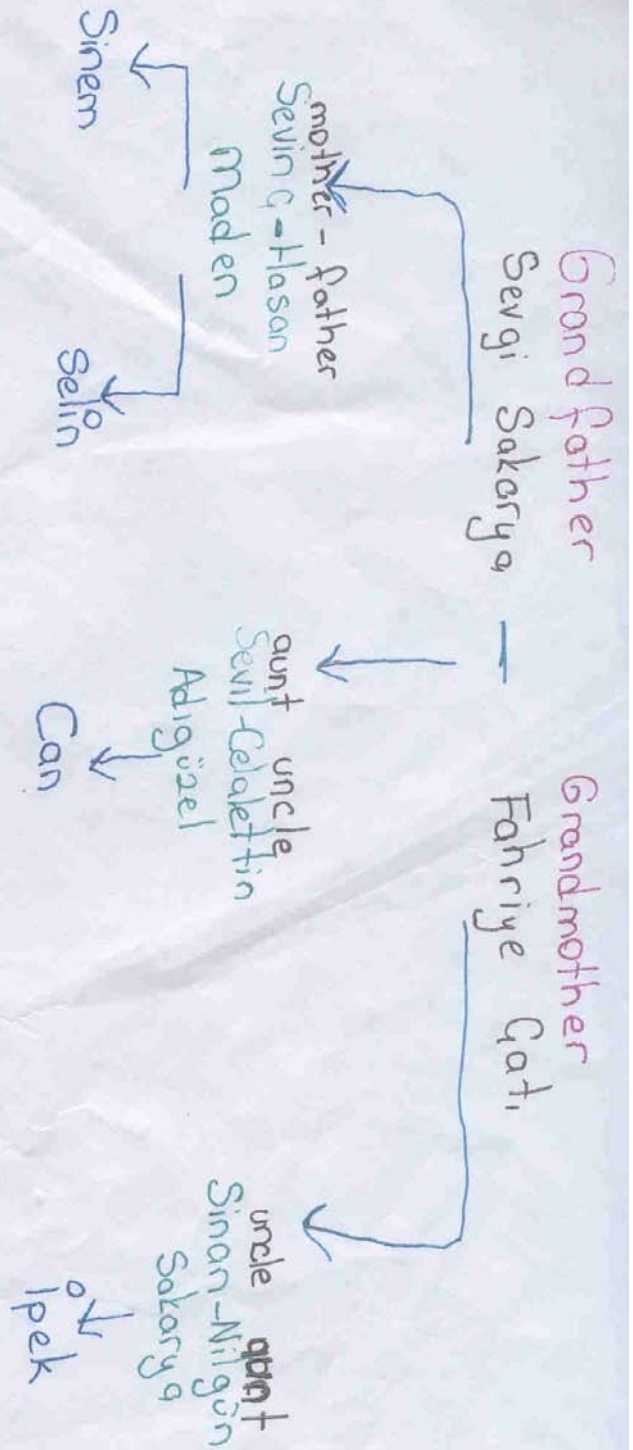
[http://www.sdkrashen.com/SL\\_Acquisition\\_and\\_Learning/index.html](http://www.sdkrashen.com/SL_Acquisition_and_Learning/index.html):15.04.2006



# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1



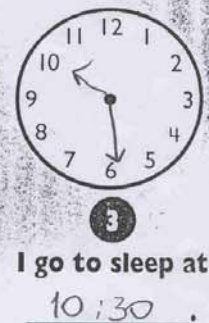
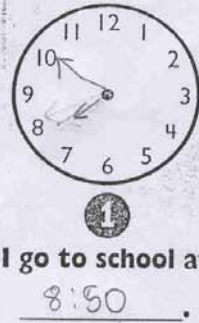


Selin Maden



### Draw and write.

Draw hands on the clocks. Write the time for each activity.



### Write TV shows you like.

Why do you like them? Tell a friend.

Adı

saati

kanal

gesidi

Title	Time	Channel	Type of Show	Characters
1. Aliye	9:45	atv	Soapopera	Sanem Celik
2. Hayat Bilgisi	8:30	stv	Soapopera	Perran Kutman
3. İlk Göz Ağrısı	9:45	atv	Soapopera	Ebru Akel



### Read. Draw Alan and the seasons.

It's summer.

Today it's hot and sunny.

Alan's playing soccer in the park.

He's wearing a T-shirt and shorts.

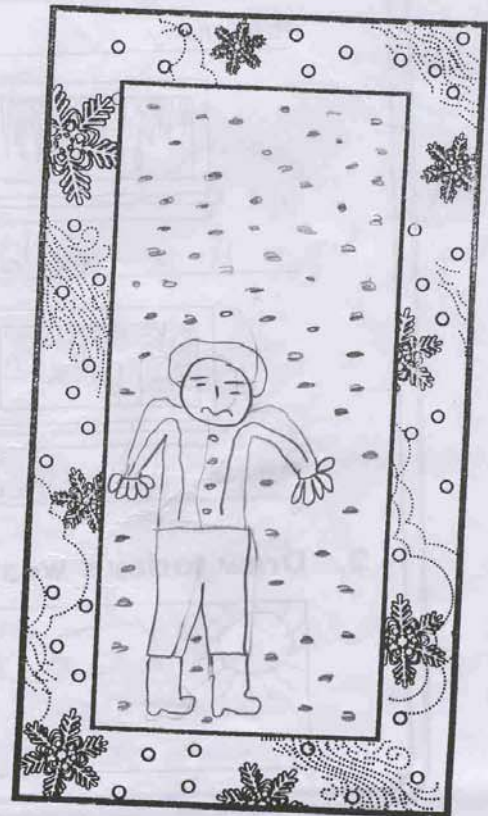


It's winter.

Today it's cold and snowy.

Alan's wearing a hat, coat, and boots.

He's wearing gloves too.



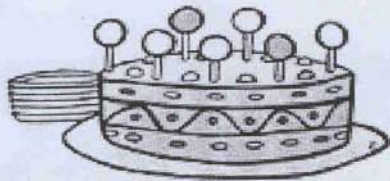
♡ MY ♡ \* ☺  
 FLOWER \* FLOWER  
 FAMILY PHOTO



My Family Birthday chart:

- \* My birthday: My birthday is 21<sup>st</sup> of April <sup>→ twenty-first</sup>
- \* Father's birthday: My father's birthday is 31<sup>st</sup> of Decem
- \* Mother's birthday: My mother's birthday is 10<sup>th</sup> of December
- \* Sister's birthday: My sister's birthday is 4<sup>th</sup> of December
- \* Brother's birthday: —
- ♡ Funda . . . . . ; Funda birthday is 17<sup>th</sup> of Novemb
- ♡ Ipek . . . . . ; Ipek birthday is 16<sup>th</sup> of June
- ♡ . . . . .
- ♡ . . . . .

My name is Selina Madden  
My birthday is on the  
twentyone or April  
twenty first of April

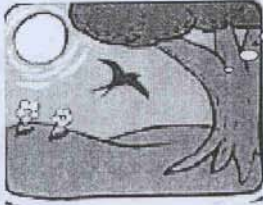


Ne  
7

### SEASONS AND MONTHS OF A YEAR

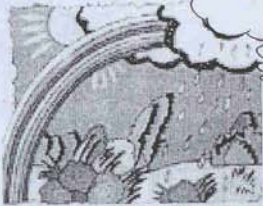
WRITE THE MONTHS FOR EACH SEASON:

SPRING



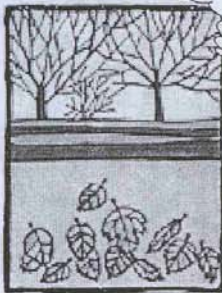
..... May .....  
..... April .....  
..... March .....

SUMMER



..... July .....  
..... June .....  
..... August .....

AUTUMN



..... October .....  
..... November .....  
..... September .....

WINTER



.....  
.....  
.....



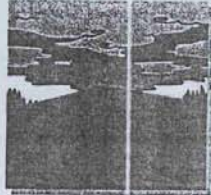
# The Weather I Like

Selin Maden

Use the letters to write the correct word under each picture.



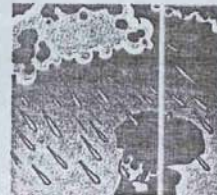
dinwy  
windy



lydocu  
cloudy



synun  
sunny



ariny  
rainy



wonys  
snowy

Draw your favourite kind of weather.  
Complete the sentence.



I like sunny weather.



# Me and My Clothes

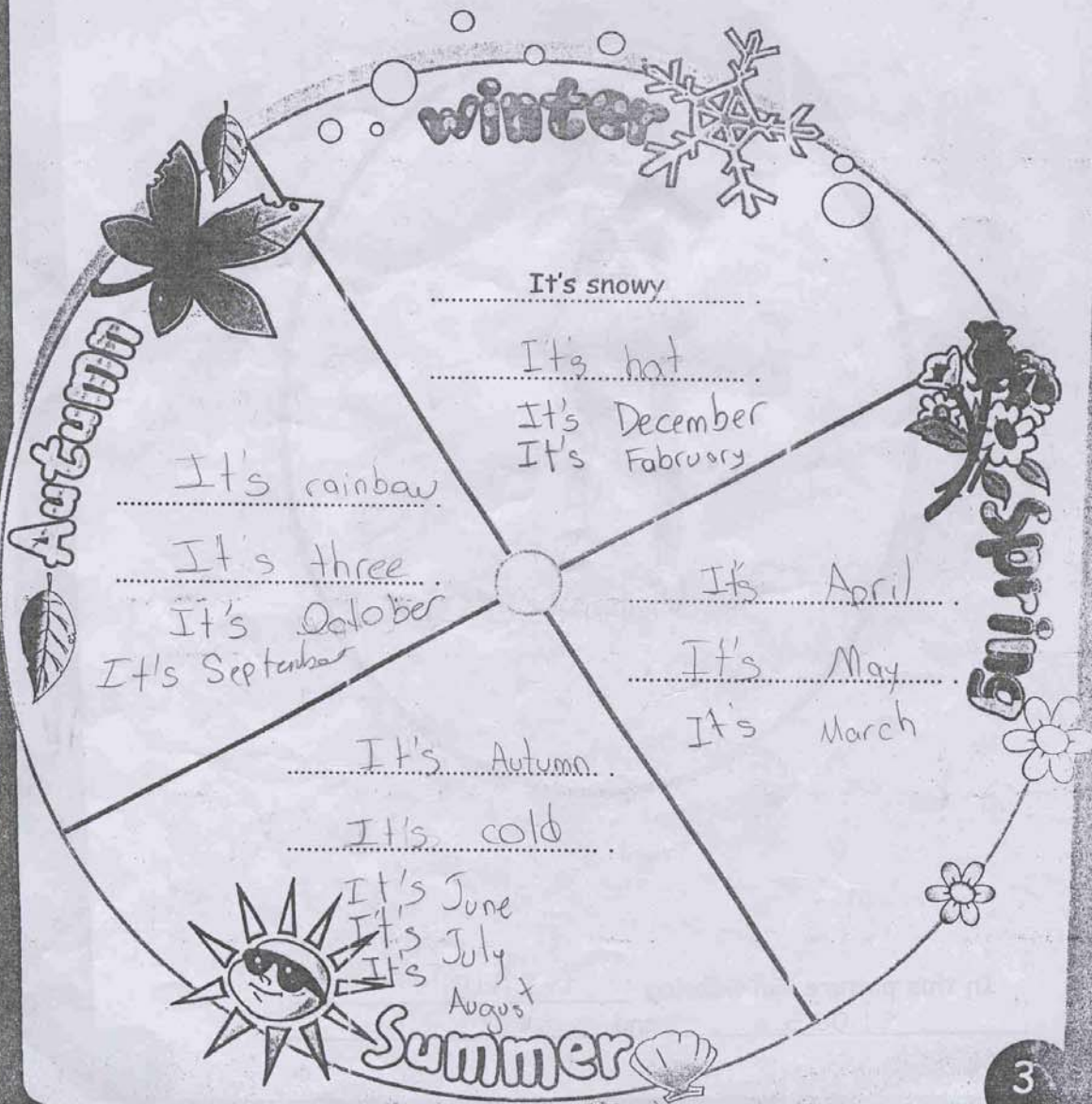
Draw, colour and write.



In this picture I'm wearing t-shirt,  
shoes, and skirt.

# Seasons of the Year

Look at the seasons of the year. Under each season, write sentences about the weather.



**Look, read, and match.**



a. It's winter. It's cold and snowy today. It's windy too. Agnes is wearing a coat, hat, scarf, gloves, and boots.

bot

b. It's fall. It's cool and cloudy today. Agnes is wearing jeans and a jacket. She's wearing sneakers on her feet.

ciyme

c. It's spring. It's rainy today. Agnes is carrying an umbrella. She's wearing a raincoat and boots.

yağmurluk

d. It's summer. It's hot and sunny today. Agnes is wearing shorts and a T-shirt. She's wearing sandals on her feet. She's wearing sunglasses too.

**Ask four friends. Write.**



The Clothes My Friends Wear

Name	1. selin	2. Öykü	3. Gökem	4. Murat
Spring	skirt	shoes	jeans	short
Summer	t-shirt	T-shirt	short	T-shirt
Fall - Autumn	raincoat	hat	jacket	raincoat
Winter	boot	boot	boot	sandals



Word Bank			
cold	cloudy	boots	sandals
cool	snowy	coat	T-shirt
hot	sunny	gloves	shorts
warm	rainy	hat	sweater
windy	jeans	jacket	sunglasses

**Write the words in the boxes.**

	Summer	Winter
What's the weather like?	hot	snowy
	sunny	rainy
	warm	cool
	cold	<del>cold</del>
		windy

	Summer	Winter
What do you wear?	t-shirt	hat
	sandals	gloves
	shorts	coat
	sunglasses	boots
	jacket	jeans

**I can do this.**

1. I can tell what the weather is like today.
2. I can tell what the weather was like yesterday.
3. I can talk about clothes and seasons.

# What's the Number?

Look at the pictures and write the words. Then, write four sentences.



trees



star

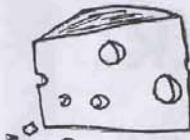


apples

There are two trees in the garden.

I can see a star.

I like apples.



cheese



sweater



horse



balls



jacket



books



car

Four sets of horizontal lines for writing sentences, each consisting of a solid top line, a dashed middle line, and a solid bottom line.



nurse



bed



clock



ice-cream



hats



onions

# My Portrait

Draw and colour your hair. Then, colour your eyes and your mouth. Complete the sentences.

This is hair.....  
My hair is.....  
yellow.....  
I've got .....

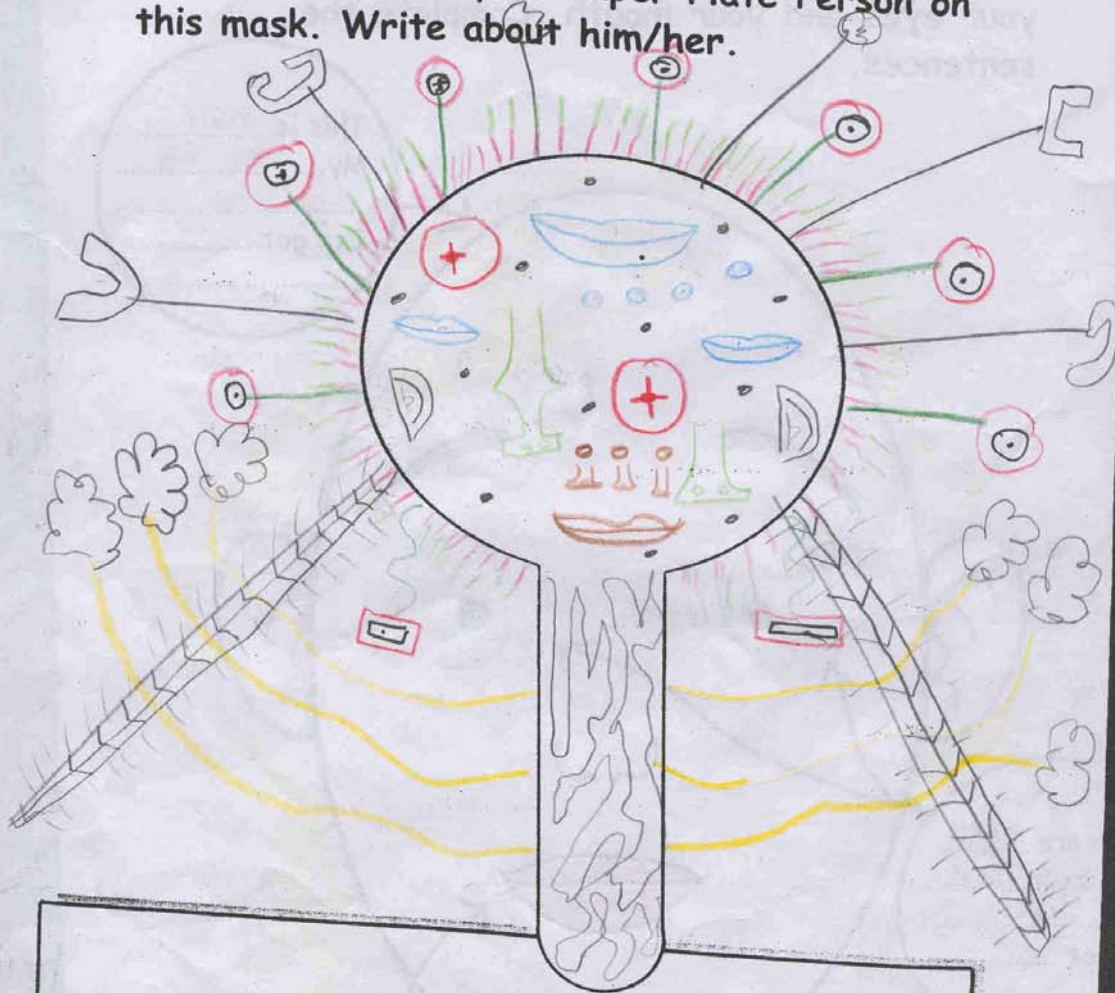
These are eyes.....  
my eyes are.....  
green.....  
I've got .....

This is mouth.....  
My mouth is.....  
red.....  
I've got .....



# My Paper Plate Person

Draw the face of your Paper Plate Person on this mask. Write about him/her.



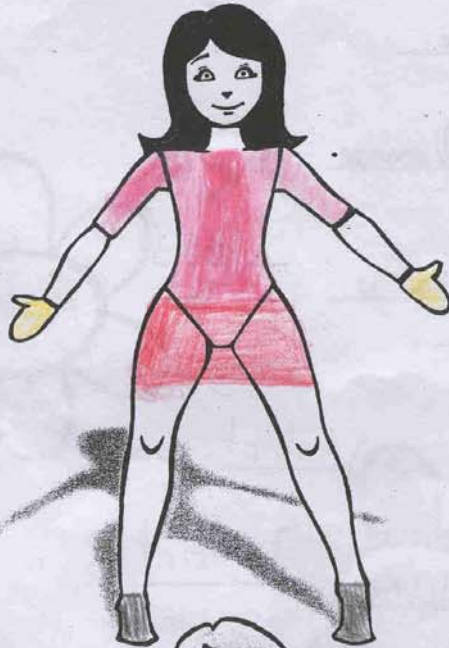
ex'c'l'a'm'a't' o'

It has got seven big eyes. It has got four small blue eyes  
 It has got three small brown eyes. It has got two small blue  
 mouth and one big blue mouth. It has got one big brown  
 mouth. It has got two big green nose. It has got three small  
 brown nose. It has got two huge red eyes. It has got two ears. It has  
 got twelve mole.

he  
she  
his  
her  
it

# My Fashion Models

Draw clothes on the two dolls. Write the words for these clothes. Then, match your words to the correct piece of clothing.



t-shirt

shoes

skirt

glove

.....

.....



shoes

jeans

shirt

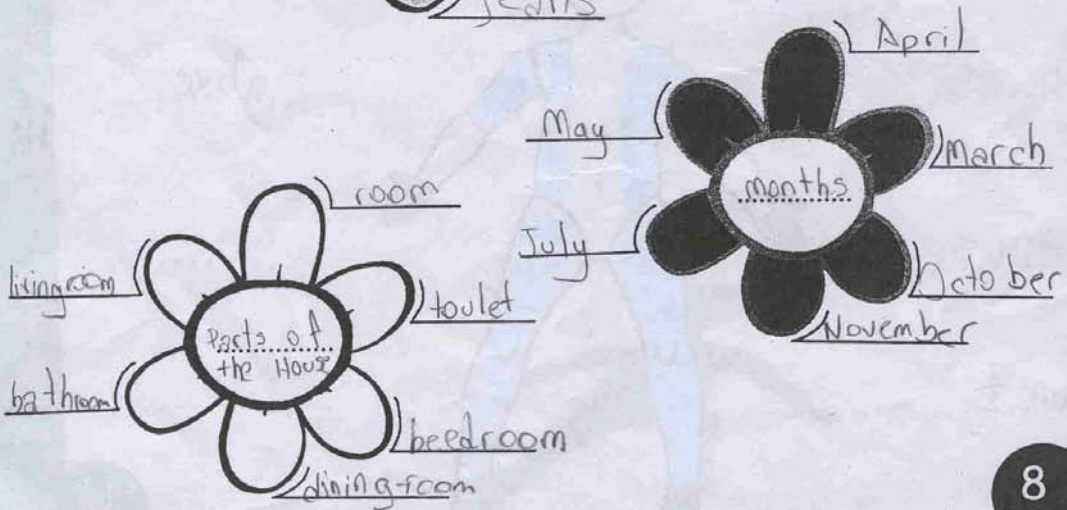
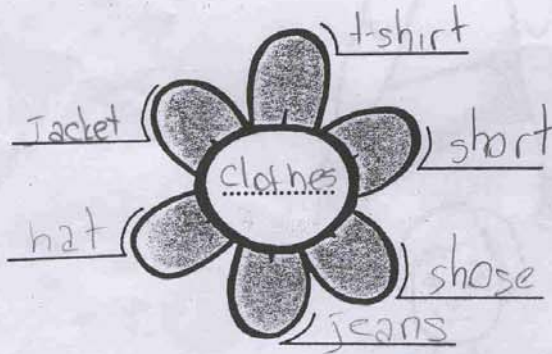
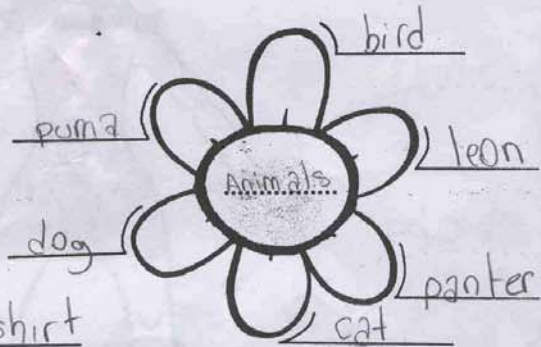
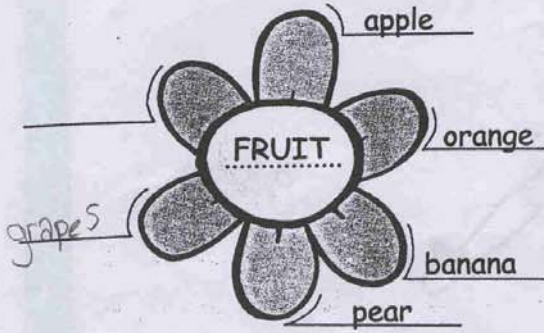
glove

.....

.....

# My Word Flowers

Choose four topic words and write them in the centre of each flower. Then write six words for each topic word on the line.





# DECEMBER

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
				1 -one-	2 two	3 three
4 four	5 five	6 six	7 seven	8 eight	9 nine	10 ten
11 eleven	12 twelve	13 thirteen	14 fourteen	15 fifteen	16 sixteen	17 seven teen
18 eighteen	19 nineteen	20 twenty	21 twenty one	22 twenty two	23 twenty three	24 twenty four
25 twenty five	26 twenty six	27 twenty seven	28 twenty eight	29 twenty nine	30 thirty	31 thirty one

Sinem's birthday

Savin's birthday

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long night  
Ataturk

Adem's birthday  
came Edirne

Hasan's birthday  
New Year

# My Shopping List

Draw some fruit and vegetables.  
Then, write your shopping list.

A bar of chocolate,  
two bottles of milk,  
a kilo of cheese,  
three jars of jam,  
a tube of toothpaste.

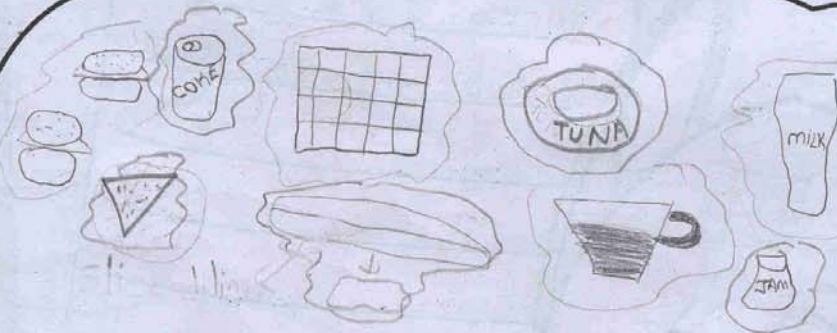


# Going on a Picnic

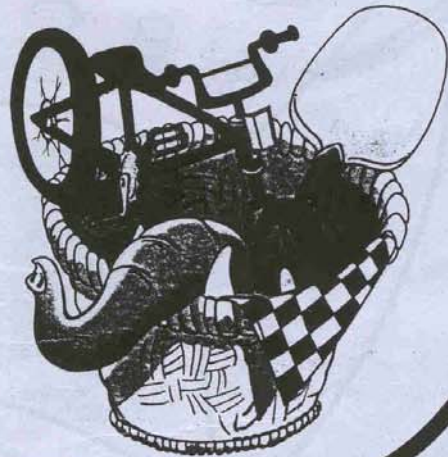
You're going on a picnic.

Draw fruits and vegetables.

I have got two hamburgers, one glass of milk,  
a packet of chocolate, a cup of coffee,  
a slice of pizza, a slice of bread,  
a can of tuna, a jar of jam, a  
can of coke.



slice idilim  
Tuna ton balığı



MIGROS



four packets of chocolate bars



starking elma  
YTL/kg.

two kilos of apples



four bottles of cola



a bottle of milk



two bowls of yogurt



two tubes of toothpaste

selina  
moden

What do you see in the picture? Tell a friend.



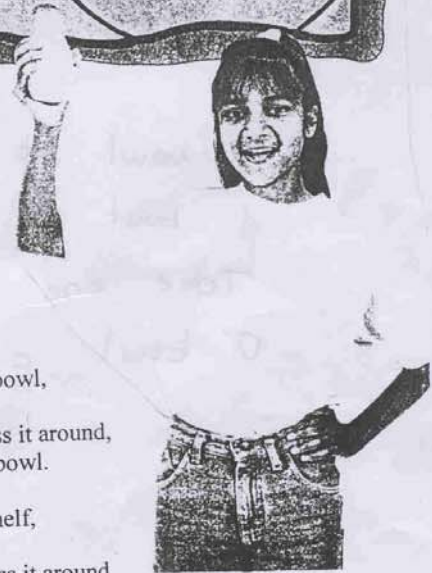
Listen and Sing

10 bottles of juice on the shelf, <sup>roof</sup>  
 10 bottles of juice,  
 Take one down and pass it around,  
~~10~~ bottles of juice on the shelf.  
 9  
 9 bottles of rice on the shelf,  
 9 bottles of rice,  
 Take one down and pass it around,  
 8 bottles of rice on the shelf.  
  
 8 pieces of cake on a plate  
 8 pieces of cake,  
 Take one down and pass it around,  
 7 pieces of cake on a plate.

7 pieces of fruit in the bowl,  
 7 pieces of fruit,  
 Take one down and pass it around,  
 6 pieces of fruit in the bowl.

6 jar of olives on the shelf,  
 6 jar of olives,  
 Take one down and pass it around,  
 5 jars of olives on the shelf.

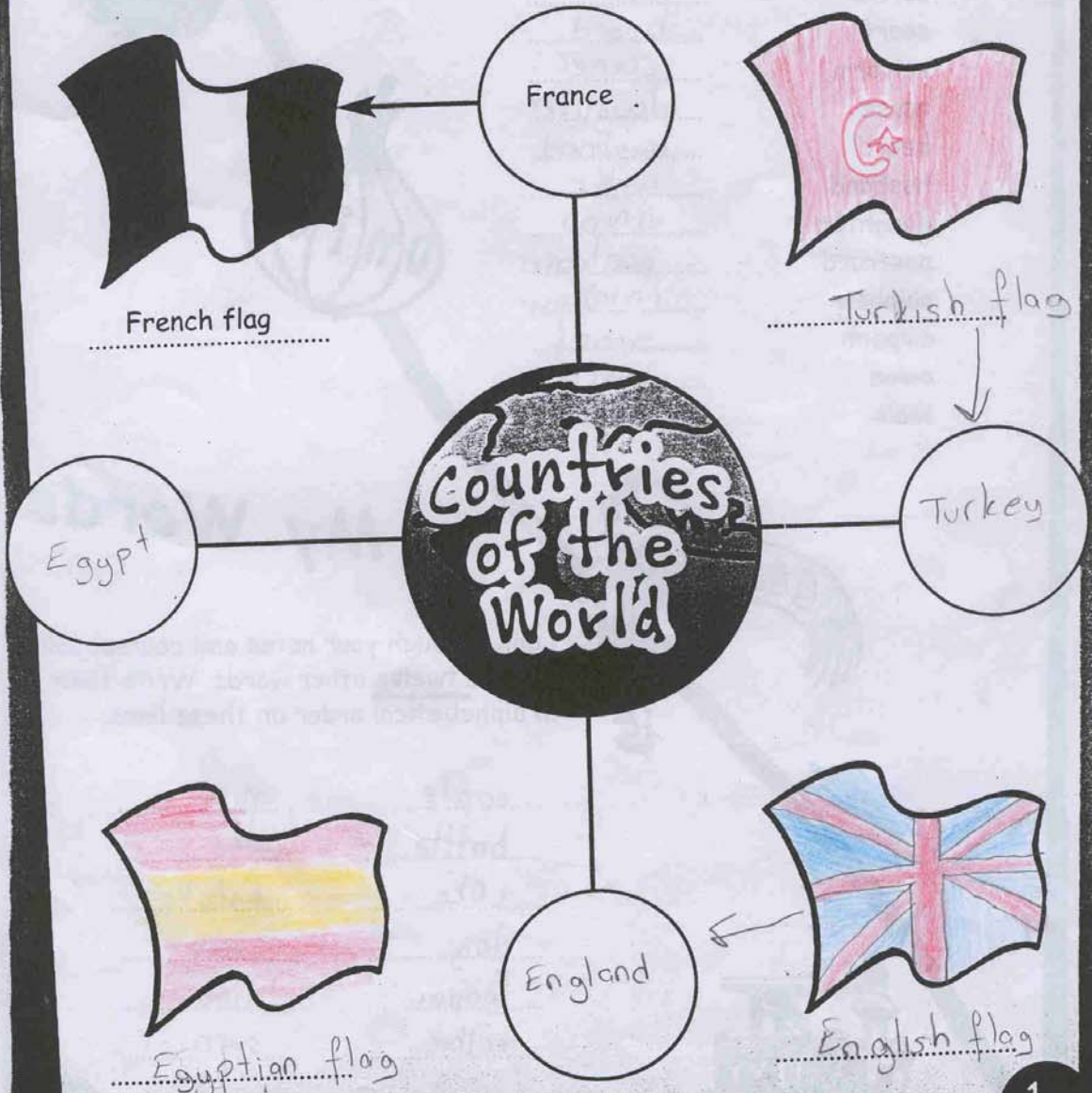
5 jars of jam on the shelf,  
 5 jars of jam,  
 Take one down and pass it around,  
 4 jars of jam on the shelf.





# My Network

How many countries do you know? Write three in the circles. Draw and colour their flags.



# Alphabet Lists

Write these twelve words in alphabetical order on the lines below.

corner  
 scarf  
 uniform  
 nurse  
 beard  
 husband  
 daughter  
 postcard  
 rainbow  
 airport  
 onion  
 train

airport  
 beard  
 corner  
 daughter  
 husband  
 nurse  
 onion  
 postcard  
 rainbow  
 scarf  
 train  
 uniform



## My Words

Look through your notes and coursebook. Choose twelve other words. Write them in alphabetical order on these lines.

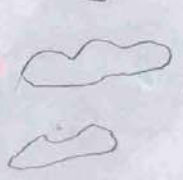
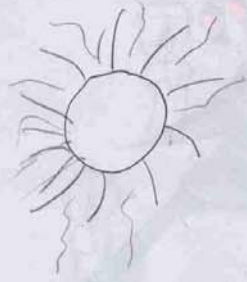
...apple.....	...nine.....
...bottle.....	...one.....
...coke.....	...potato.....
...dog.....	...seven.....
...leopard.....	...two.....
...mother.....	...zero.....



# A My Favourite Words Y

Look through your Portfolio. Choose the words you like and write them. Draw or stick a picture next to your favourite words.

English - sunny - windy - star - milk - hamburger



k

c

x

w

x

e

b

A. Fill in the chart below

**My Identity Card**

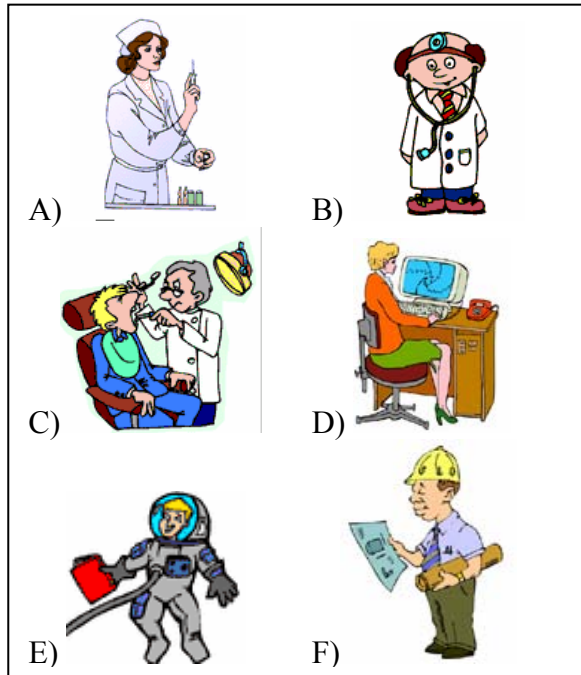
Name:.....  
 Surname:.....  
 Age:.....  
 School:.....  
 Class:.....  
 English Teacher's Name:.....  
 Father's Name:.....  
 Mother's Name:.....  
 Colour of your hair:.....  
 Colour of your eyes:.....  
 Favourite sports:.....  
 City/Country: .....

*you*

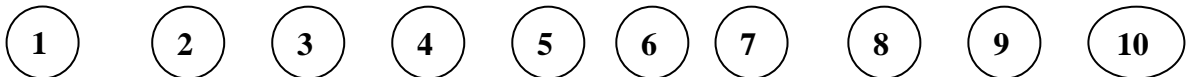
B. Match the jobs with the pictures

Example: doctor ...B.....

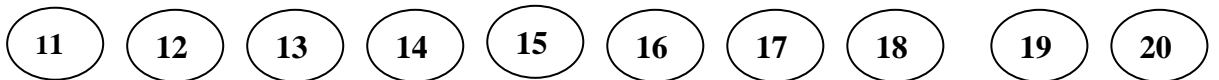
- 1. secretary .....
- 2. engineer .....
- 3. dentist .....
- 4. astronaut .....
- 5. nurse .....



C. Fill in the missing numbers




one ..... three ..... five six seven ..... ten



eleven ..... fourteen ..... sixteen seventeen ..... nineteen .....


D. Look at the pictures and look at the letters. Write the words.

11.        PULLOVER       u l p  
l o v e

12.        -----       c e a  
m r

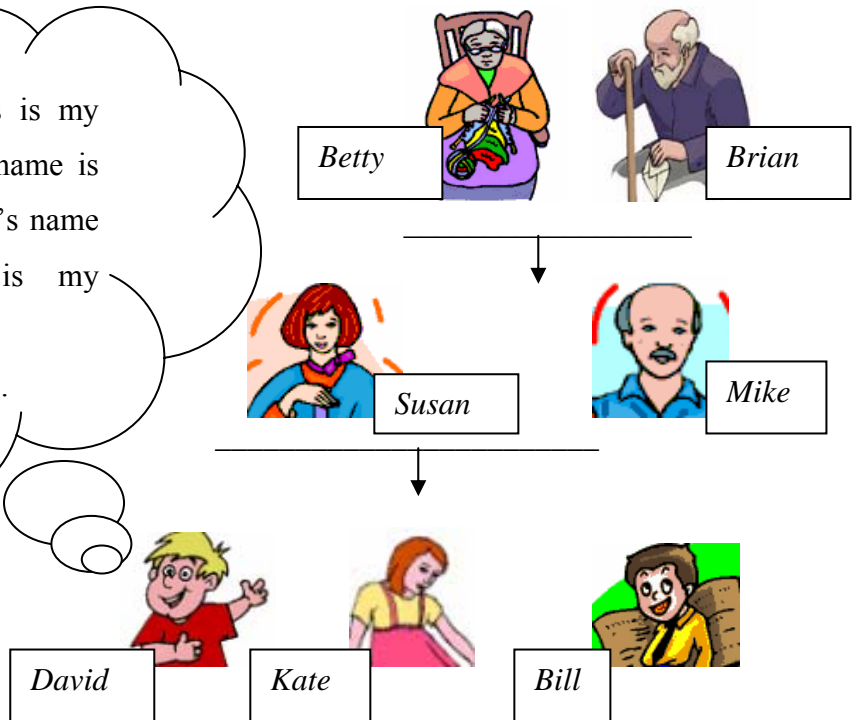
13.        -----       s w e  
a t r e

14.        -----       s i r  
t k

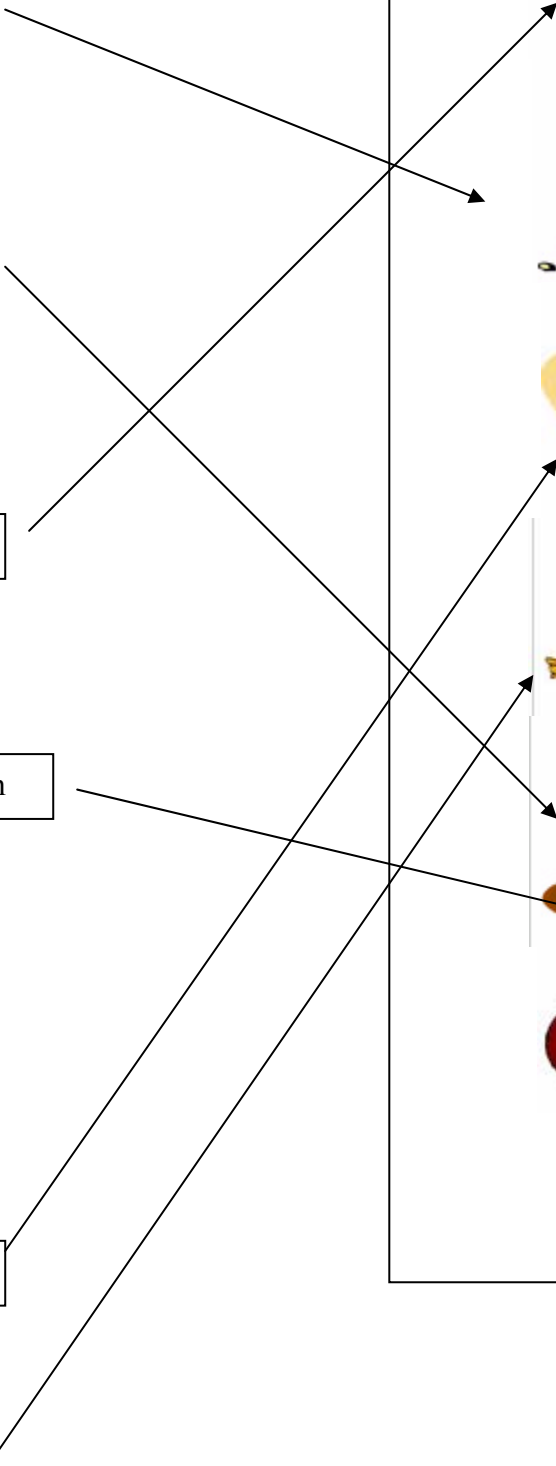
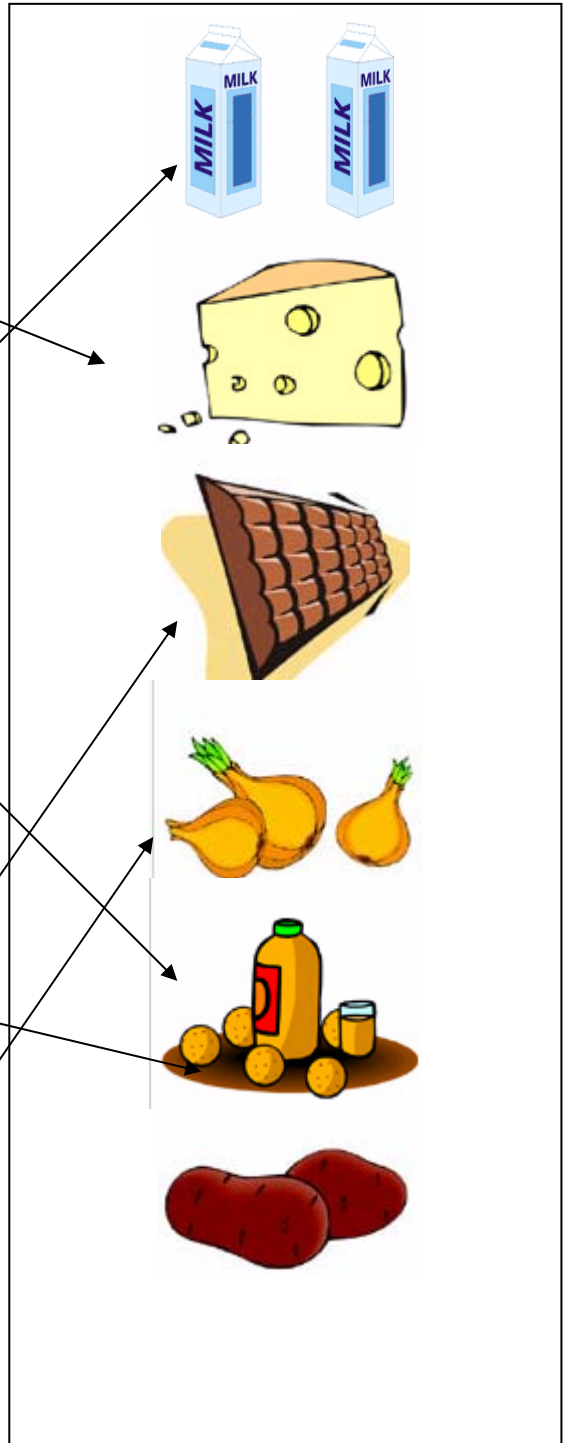
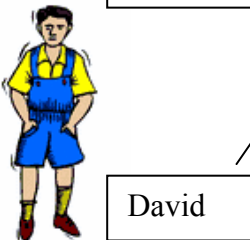
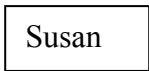
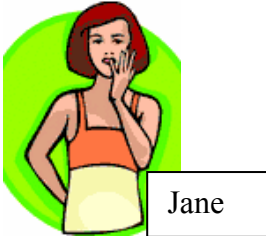
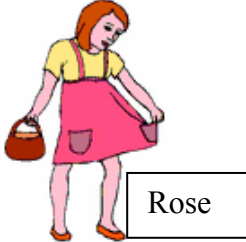
15.        -----       h s o  
e s

E. Look at David's Family tree and fill in the text.

Hi! I'm David and this is my family tree. My father's name is ..... and my mother's name is ..... Betty is my .....  
My sister's name is .....

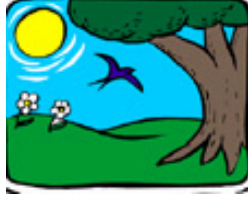


F. Find and write



- 16. Rose has got *a bottle of orange juice*.
- 17. Mike has got .....
- 18. Jane has got .....
- 19. Susan has got .....
- 20. David has got .....
- 21. Sarah has got .....

**G. Write the seasons under the pictures.**



.....Spring.....                      .....

**H. Complete the table with the names of the countries.**

Country	Nationality
	Turkish
	English
France	French
	Bulgarian
	Greek
	German
Syria	Syrian
	Iraqi
	Iranian
America	American

*Good Luck*

**Appendix 3:**

## TASK 1

Subject: Cardinal numbers

Aim: to teach the cardinal numbers

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- The teacher started lesson with a game. The teacher had number cards reversed on his hand and asked the students randomly to choose one of them and tell what it was. The one who knew the number and told correctly had the chance to choose the student for the next number. They enjoyed the task since it was competitive and enjoyable game.
- The students were given a hand-out which showed the days of the month December without dates. Firstly, they were asked to fill-in the blanks with numbers in pairs. Then they were asked to write the written form of the numbers. When they finished, they were asked to circle the days which were important for them such as birthday of a friend, new year, bayram... etc.
- The students were given a birthday ID card and asked to fill-in the blanks. In this way, they would learn at least their birthday and the date in English. The teacher asked some of them their birthdays then students were given a chance to ask their friends' birthdays. They with the teacher grouped the ones who were born in the same month. They liked the activity since it was related with their life.
- After the tasks, they put the hand-outs in their language dossier.



## TASK 2

Subject: Singular/Plural nouns

Aim: to teach the words in the text (occupations)

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- The teacher started the lesson with a game. The words were stuck on the board and the class was divided into two. Both groups formed a line in front of the board and the first runner had fly-swatter. The teacher read the text in the book and they listened very carefully. The one who hit the word when the teacher uttered got the point. Since the game enabled students be kinaesthetic during the game, they enjoyed it.
- The words were explained by miming or describing in English. Some words were explained in mother tongue.
- The students listened to a song “What’s this? What’s that?” and sang it all together. Later on, they adopted and created verses, asked their friend like a song.

## TASK 3

Subject: Singular, plural nouns

Aim: to teach some words and plural forms

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- Some pictures covering regular and irregular nouns were stuck on the board. They were grouped as singular and plural. They were revised. Later on, the teacher mixed the pictures. The game fly-swatter was played and they liked it. In a competitive atmosphere, they were eager to learn and did not want to make a mistake.
- After the game, the teacher asked the students write five singular, five plural nouns they like best on their note-book. If possible, they drew their pictures and told what they were.
- The students were given a hand-out to fill in and put their language dossier. The hand-out included some words; the students were asked to put them the alphabetical order. When they finished, they were told to search through their coursebooks and choose words they like and put them in the alphabetical order.

## TASK 4

Subject: Time; hours

Aim: to teach time and practise numbers. During the task, the students will interact with each other and actively participate the task.

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- The students told the time and asked to draw a clock. They drew a clock and then the teacher drew the correct one on the board. They checked whether theirs were right or not.
- They were given a hand-out in which the clocks were empty. They were asked to write the time according to the given statement and draw the time.
- In the same hand-out, they were asked to fill-in the table on TV shows they like best. It included title, time, channel, type of show and characters. After they finished theirs, they were told to ask their three friends and fill in the table according to their answers.

## TASK 5

Subject: Seasons

Aim: to teach the seasons: spring, summer, autumn, winter.

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- To introduce the seasons, the chart on the wall of the classroom was used. Since it was in Turkish and from their daily life they would easily recognise and associate the seasons in English.
- The teacher stuck the names of the months on the board and grouped them according to the season they belong to. They practiced the months and tried to reinforce them by using pictures.
- Then, the class was divided into four groups. Each group represented one of the seasons and they were given the flashcards of the months. Once the teacher started telling the months in order, the members in the season groups continued telling the months loudly. It was just like a game.
- They were given hand-out with pictures and seasons, and they were asked to write the months of the seasons. After finishing the task, they kept the file in their dossier.
- Another hand-out on key words of the seasons. The students were asked to write the name of the season on the correct picture which was a representative of it and they were free to write any word related to that season. The teacher kept time to measure who wrote more words in time-limit, thus they forced themselves to remember words.

## TASK 6

Subject: Seasons

Aim: to teach the seasons and the clothes.

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- Before the class, the class was divided into four groups and the groups were called spring, summer, and autumn, winter. For the preparation to the topic, the students were asked to bring the clothes of their season.
- One volunteer from each group presented their season with clothes. In this way, they learned basic clothes and the names of the season.
- Then, they were given hand-out. They were asked to read and draw what Allan wear.
- When they finished, they talked about their picture.
- In the end, the teacher gave the students a project. They were asked to fill in the questionnaire and ask at least four peers what they wore in different seasons. They were asked to use “what do you wear in winter/summer/spring/autumn?” while asking to their friends.
- The task provided students asking and answering in target language.

## TASK 7

Subject: Seasons

Aim: to teach the seasons and the clothes.

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- In order to remind the students some of the clothes, the teacher mentioned about her clothes which she wore that day.
- Before the class, the teacher asked the class to bring some magazines and some pictures of singers or actresses they like most. One of the students who brought picture of a singer asked to talk about the singer's clothes and the other one drew on the board what the peer said.
- Then they were given a hand-out on fashion models. They were asked to draw clothes on the dolls and write what they wear.
- They put the project in their file.

## TASK 8

Subject: Family

Aim: to practise the family members and relationships. The learners will have an idea of nuclear family and will talk about family relationship.

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- The students were given hand-out which was a family tree and the girl introduced her family members. In the box, the family relationships were given. They asked to fill the blanks with appropriate words. They coloured the pictures and counted the family members.
- In the class, the students were asked to draw their family tree and write the names of the members.
- Before the class, the students were asked to bring their family photo. They stuck the photo on a paper and wrote their family members' birthdays. With this respect, they practised numbers and months.
- They asked their best friend or partner's birthday and fill in the hand out. They interacted with each other.
- The teacher checked each student's project and corrected their spelling mistakes. They put their project in their language dossier.

## TASK 9

Subject: Family

Aim: to teach some words related with vegetables and fruits

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- The teacher introduced the topic “a bottle of, a kilo of, jar of, a packet of...” with vegetables and fruits. She matched the pictures with the flashcards. They practised the new learnt items.
- Before the class, the students were asked to bring shopping catalogue taken from supermarkets. They were asked to cut the pictures of vegetables and fruits and stick on their papers. They were asked to write what and how much they were.
- Then they were asked to prepare a shopping list. They drew what they wanted and filled their list. Then some of them talked about their shopping list. The class tried to find out the common items with theirs.



## TASK 10

Subject: vegetables and fruits

Aim: to practise some words related with vegetables and fruits

Time: 40' + 40'

Procedure:

- The students were given a situation. They were told that they were going on picnic and asked to write what they had in their picnic basket. They drew on the paper what they thought to bring with them to picnic and wrote what they were.
- The task provided students practise the vegetables and fruits. They felt themselves free to choose any word and free to the language.
- Then they were given a hand-out including some pictures of vegetables and objects in order to measure the effect of the previous task on short term memory. Besides, students were asked to compose sentences related to the pictures. They felt themselves free about writing their sentences.
- In the end, they were distributed a hand-out and firstly they talked about the picture. They were asked to tell what they saw in the picture, how much they were. After talking about the picture they listened to the song and they circled the item when it was mentioned. In the second listening, they listened and sang the song. They listened one more time in order to contextualise the items and places in detail.