

162160

**THE EFFECTS OF TASK-BASED LEARNING
ON LEARNERS' PROFICIENCY AND NOTICING,
AND LEARNERS' THOUGHTS ABOUT
GRAMMAR**

Demet YAYLI

**DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim Sınav Yönetmeliğinin
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı için Öngördüğü
DOKTORA TEZİ
Olarak Hazırlanmıştır**

İZMİR-2005

**THE EFFECTS OF TASK-BASED LEARNING
ON LEARNERS' PROFICIENCY AND NOTICING,
AND LEARNERS' THOUGHTS ABOUT
GRAMMAR**

Demet YAYLI

Danışman

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Filiz ÖZBAŞ

Danışman

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Abbas TÜRNÜKLÜ

**DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim Sınav Yönetmeliğinin
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı için Öngördüğü**

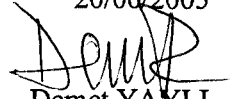
DOKTORA TEZİ

Olarak Hazırlanmıştır

İZMİR-2005

Doktora Tezi olarak sunduđum “The Effects of Task-Based Learning on Learners’ Proficiency and Noticing, and Learners’ Thoughts about Grammar” adlı alıřmanın, tarafımdan bilimsel ahlâk ve geleneklere aykırı dűşecek bir yardıma bařvurulmaksızın yazıldıđını ve yararlandıđım eserlerin kaynakada gűsterilenlerden olduđunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmıř olduđunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla dođrularım.


20/06/2005

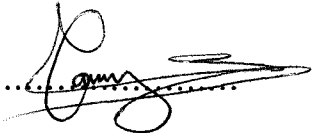

Demet YAYLI

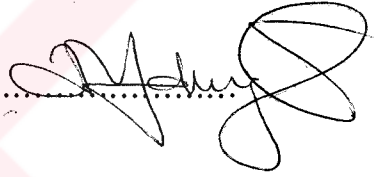


Eđitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü M¼d¼rl¼đ¼'ne


İřbu alıřma, j¼rimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili Eđitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliđi Bilim Dalı'nda DOKTORA TEZİ olarak kabul ...~~edilmiştir~~.....

Başkan.....Yrd. Doç. Dr. Fikiz ÜZBAř.....

Üye.....Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mehmet Ali YAVUZ.....

Üye.....Yrd. Doç. Dr. Nazife AYDINOđL¼.....

Üye.....Prof. Dr. Feđa AYGIN.....

Üye.....Doç. Dr. Atilla SILK¼.....

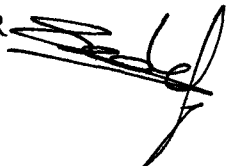
ONAY

Yukarıdaki imzaların adı geen öğretim üyelerine ait olduđunu onaylarım.

20...7...1.2005

Prof. Dr. Sedef GİDENER

Enstitü M¼d¼r¼



ABSTRACT

The Effects of Task-Based Learning on Learners' Proficiency and Noticing, and Learners' Thoughts about Grammar

This study comprises quantitative and qualitative parts and investigates the effects of Task-Based Learning (Task-Based Language Teaching; TBLT) on learners' proficiency and noticing, and learners' thoughts about grammar in a primary school setting in Turkey. It was carried out in *Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu* on the sixth grade students in the academic year 2004-2005. The Simple Present Tense was chosen as the grammar unit to be studied. For the quantitative part of the study, a proficiency test and a noticing test on the Simple Present Tense were developed as pre- and post-tests, which were based on the table of specifications. Two classes were randomly assigned as the experimental (6B) and the control (6C) groups. The lessons in both groups were delivered by the researcher, who followed the principles of TBLT in the experimental group and the principles of Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) approach in the control group. These groups were given pre- and post-tests to elicit data on learners' proficiency and noticing levels in the use of the Simple Present Tense. Apart from that, for the qualitative part of the study, the researcher prepared semi-structured interview questions to investigate the learners' thoughts on grammar instruction and practice, and on the implementation of TBLT and PPP after the treatment. The interview was delivered by another scientist in the field to attain objectivity.

SPSS program was used for the analysis of quantitative data achieved through the proficiency and the noticing tests, and for the analysis of the qualitative data, a descriptive analysis was used to summarize and comment on the data. The findings obtained at the end of the study are as follows:

1. In terms of the post-test scores of the proficiency test, the mean score of the TBLT group (38.60) is higher than that of the PPP group (35.32). The t-test analysis proved the difference to be insignificant ($p < 0.05$).

2. In terms of the post-test scores of the noticing test, the mean score of the TBLT group (5.70) is higher than that of the PPP group (5.58). A t-test was applied to find out if the

difference was significant, and it was found that the difference between the groups is not significant ($p < 0.05$).

3. The variance analysis result indicates that the post-test scores for both test types (proficiency and noticing) in the TBLT and the PPP groups do not significantly differ in terms of gender [$F(35.3) = 8.61$].

4. The quantitative part of the study indicated that TBLT did not prove to be superior to PPP in the teaching of the Simple Present Tense in a public school in Turkey. Besides, gender did not play a significant role in the scores the learners achieved in the pre- and post-tests.

5. The qualitative part of this study aims to investigate the learners' thoughts on TBLT and PPP on the teaching of a grammar unit. For this purpose, the learners in the two groups were interviewed by a scientist in the field. The thoughts of the learners in the TBLT and the PPP groups were gathered to elicit data on two issues: grammar instruction and practice, and the implementation of TBLT and PPP. The thoughts of the learners were analyzed with direct quotations from the interviews.

6. In terms of the grammar instruction, the descriptive analysis of the learners' thoughts indicated that the learners in the TBLT group had positive feelings toward the methodology applied in the classroom. Many learners in the TBLT group stated that studying grammar after the task was good and no problem for them. Most of the learners in the PPP group believed that grammar should be taught first, and then the activities should be performed.

7. In terms of practice activities, the TBLT group learners stated that practice activities were fun and beneficial, and the use of worksheets of exercises was practical. Some learners found the exercises in the language focus phase beneficial. The learners in the PPP group had a lot to say about practice activities because they paid more attention on the grammar. Half of the PPP group learners believed that oral practice was good for comprehension, and they liked the worksheets of exercises they did in the classes. Oral practice seemed to be very important for the control group learners because they considered it as a kind of real language use.

8. In terms of the implementation of TBLT, the experimental group learners stated that working in groups and working with worksheets instead of textbooks were new to them. As for the positive sides of TBLT, the learners emphasized that they liked working in groups, reporting after the task, learning from friends and participating in tasks. Furthermore, the TBLT group learners complained about some problems about the implementation of TBLT. The problems raised were the lack of negotiation, fear of making mistakes in reporting, working with poor learners, working in pairs and the noise level during the tasks.

9. In terms of the implementation of PPP, the control group learners concentrated on two issues: working with worksheets and doing oral practice. The only point the learners emphasized related to the implementation of PPP was the oral practice, and the PPP group learners did not complain about any problems regarding the implementation. They only stated that some work was difficult for them.

Keywords: Task-Based Learning, Proficiency, Noticing, Learners' Thoughts, Grammar Instruction

ÖZET

Göreve Dayalı Öğrenmenin Öğrenci Başarısı ve Farkındalığı Üzerindeki Etkileri ve Öğrencilerin Dilbilgisine İlişkin Görüşleri

Bu araştırma, nicel ve nitel bölümlerden oluşmaktadır ve Göreve Dayalı Öğrenmenin (Göreve Dayalı Dil Öğretimi) öğrenci başarısı ve farkındalığı üzerindeki etkileri ve Türkiye’de bir ilköğretim okulu öğrencilerinin dilbilgisine yönelik görüşlerini ortaya koymak için yapılmıştır. Bu çalışma 2004-2005 öğretim yılında Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu 6. sınıf öğrencileriyle yürütülmüştür. İngilizce’de Geniş Zaman çalışılacak dilbilgisi birimi olarak belirlenmiştir. Çalışmanın nicel bölümü için ön ve son test olarak Geniş Zaman için hazırlanan belirtke tablosu paralelinde bir başarı ve bir farkındalık testi geliştirilmiştir. İki sınıf deney (6B) ve kontrol (6C) grupları olarak rasgele seçilmiştir. Dersler, deney grubunda Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme ilkelerine, kontrol grubunda ise Sunum-Pratik-Üretim yaklaşımının ilkelerine uymak kaydıyla araştırmacının kendisi tarafından yürütülmüştür. Öğrencilerin Geniş Zaman konusundaki başarı ve farkındalık düzeyleriyle ilgili bilgi toplamak için iki gruba da ön test ve son test verilmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra, çalışmanın nitel yönü için, araştırmacı tarafından öğrencilerin uygulama sonrasında dilbilgisi öğretimine ve pratiğine, ve Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme ve Sunum-Pratik-Üretim yaklaşımlarının uygulanmasına yönelik düşüncelerini belirlemek için yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme soruları hazırlanmıştır. Nesnelliği sağlamak için görüşme alandan bir diğer bilim adamı tarafından uygulanmıştır.

Başarı ve farkındalık testleri ile elde edilen nicel verilerin analizi için SPSS programı, nitel verilerin analizi içinse özetleme ve yorumda bulunmaya yönelik betimsel analiz yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonunda elde edilen bulgular şöyle sıralanmaktadır:

1. Başarı testinde elde edilen son test değerleri açısından bakıldığında, deney grubu öğrencilerinin son test puan ortalamaları (38.60) kontrol grubu öğrencilerinin aldıkları son test puan ortalamalarından (35.32) yüksektir. Uygulanan t-testi farkın anlamlı olmadığını göstermektedir ($p < 0.05$).

2. Farkındalık testinden elde edilen son test değerleri açısından bakıldığında, deney grubu öğrencilerinin son test puan ortalamaları (5.70) kontrol grubu öğrencilerine (5.58) göre yüksektir. Farkın anlamlı olup olmadığını görmek için t-testi yapılmış ve farkın anlamlı olmadığı görülmüştür ($p < 0.05$).

3. Varyans analizi sonucu, deney ve kontrol grubu öğrencilerinin iki tür sınavda (başarı ve farkındalık) da elde ettiği son test değerlerinin cinsiyet açısından anlamlı bir farklılık göstermediğini ortaya koymaktadır [F (35.3) =8.61].

4. Bu çalışmanın nicel yönü, Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme yaklaşımının Sunum-Pratik-Üretim yaklaşımına İngilizce'deki Geniş Zamanın öğretilmesi açısından Türkiye'deki bir devlet ilköğretim okulu ortamında üstünlük taşımadığını göstermiştir. Bunun yanı sıra, cinsiyet öğrencilerin ön ve son testte elde ettiği değerlerde anlamlı bir fark yaratmamıştır.

5. Bu çalışmanın nitel yönü, bir dilbilgisi konusunun öğretilmesinde Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme ve Sunum-Pratik-Üretim yaklaşımlarının öğrenci görüşleri üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu amaçla, iki gruptaki öğrencilerle alandan bir bilim adamı görüşme yapmıştır. İki gruptaki öğrencilerin görüşleri iki konu üzerinde bilgi edinmek için bir araya getirilmiştir: dilbilgisi öğretimi ve pratiği, Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme ve Sunum-Pratik-Üretim yaklaşımlarının uygulanması. Görüşmeden yapılan alıntılarla öğrenci görüşleri betimlenmiştir.

6. Dilbilgisi öğretimi bakımından, deney grubu öğrencilerinin düşüncelerinin betimsel yöntemle analizi bu öğrencilerin sınıfta uygulanan yaklaşıma yönelik olumlu düşünceler taşıdığını göstermektedir. Bu gruptaki birçok öğrenci, dilbilgisini görevden sonra öğrenmenin iyi olduğunu ve sorun yaratmadığını belirtmişlerdir. Kontrol grubu öğrencilerinin çoğu önce dilbilgisinin öğretilmesi ve daha sonra alıştırmaların yapılmasının doğruluğu yönünde görüş belirtmişlerdir.

7. Pratik alıştırmaları bakımından, deney grubu öğrencileri pratik alıştırmalarının eğlenceli ve yararlı olduğunu ve alıştırmaya kağıtları kullanımının kullanışlı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bazı öğrenciler dile odaklanma basamağındaki alıştırmaları çok yararlı bulmuşlardır. Kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerin pratik alıştırmaları hakkında fazlaca düşünce belirtmelerinin nedeni onların dilbilgisine daha fazla odaklanan dersler yapmış olmalarıdır. Bu öğrencilerin yarısı sözlü pratiğin anlamaya yararlı olduğunu ve sınıfta yaptıkları alıştırmaya kağıtlarını beğendiklerini belirtmişlerdir. Sözlü pratik kontrol grubu öğrencileri için çok önem taşımaktadır, çünkü bunu gerçek dil kullanımı fırsatı olarak değerlendirmektedirler.

8. Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme yaklaşımının uygulanması açısından, deney grubu öğrencileri grupla çalışmanın ve ders kitabı yerine alıştırmaya kağıdı kullanmanın kendileri için

yeni unsurlar olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme yaklaşımının olumlu yönleri olarak, öğrenciler, grup içinde çalışmayı, görevden sonra sunum yapmayı, arkadaşlarından öğrenmeyi ve görevlere katılmayı beğendiklerini vurgulamışlardır. Öte yandan, bu öğrenciler Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme yaklaşımının uygulanmasıyla ilgili bazı sorunları dile getirmişlerdir. Bahsettikleri sorunlar; grup içi anlaşmazlık, sunumda hata yapma korkusu, zayıf öğrencilerle birlikte çalışma, çiftler halinde çalışma ve görev sırasında oluşan gürültüdür.

9. Sunum-Pratik-Üretim yaklaşımının uygulanması açısından, kontrol grubu öğrencileri iki noktaya vurgu yapmışlardır: çalışma kağıtları kullanmak ve sözlü pratik yapmak. Bu yaklaşımın uygulanmasına yönelik öğrencilerin vurguladığı tek nokta sözlü pratiktir ve kontrol grubu öğrencileri bu yaklaşımın uygulanması ile ilgili herhangi bir sorundan şikayetçi olmamışlardır. Sadece bazı noktaların kendilerine zor geldiğini belirtmişlerdir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme, Başarı, Farkındalık, Öğrenci Görüşleri, Dilbilgisi Öğretimi

PREFACE

This study comprises quantitative and qualitative parts and investigates the effects of Task-Based Learning (Task-Based Language Teaching; TBLT) on learners' proficiency and noticing, and learners' thoughts about grammar in a primary school setting in Turkey.

The study consists of five chapters:

The first chapter is the introduction. In this chapter, background of the problem, development of syllabi from PPP to TBLT, a detailed description of TBLT and the task framework, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, the research questions, and definitions are introduced.

In the second chapter, the literature review on TBLT is presented.

The third chapter is the methodology, which consists of the research model, the sample, data collection, the procedure and the data analysis techniques.

In the fourth chapter, the findings from the research are presented with respect to the research questions of the study.

In the fifth chapter, conclusions are drawn as a result of the findings of the study, discussions are made on the conclusions, and some suggestions are presented for scientists, teachers, institutions and further study.

Many people have made valuable contributions to this study. First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my advisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Filiz ÖZBAŞ, who has contributed to my education since the year I started my B.A. She has sincerely shared her thoughts, opinions and comments which I have always made use of for the better. Without her help and support, it would have been more difficult to come to an end in this study.

I am grateful to Assist. Prof. Dr. Mehmet Ali YAVUZ, whose invaluable ideas and comments have always helped me to push forward. I am also grateful to Prof. Dr. Ferda AYSAN, Prof. Dr. Reşide KABADAYI, Assist. Prof. Dr. Abbas Türnüklü, Assist. Prof. Dr. Uğur ALTUNAY, Assist. Prof. Dr. İrfan YURDABAKAN, Assist. Prof. Dr. Oğuz Serin, Assist.

Prof. Dr. Neşe ÖZKAL, Dr. Arzu Güngör KILIÇ and Dr. Murat ELLEZ. I owe special thanks to the teachers and the students of Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu, who helped me to accomplish the study.

I also owe special thanks to my dear husband Dr. Derya YAYLI, whose caring help and tender love have increased my motivation. I am grateful to him for the time and energy he spent so that I would be able to achieve the desired outcome.

İzmir, June 2005

Demet YAYLI



LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: The Distribution of Participants into the Groups in the Quantitative Study.....	109
Table 3.2: The Distribution of Participants into the Groups in the Qualitative Study.....	110
Table 4.1: Mean, Standard Deviation and Dependant t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in Terms of Pre-Test Scores of The Proficiency Test.....	121
Table 4.2 : Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in terms of Post-Test Scores of The Proficiency Test.....	121
Table 4.3 : Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in terms of Pre-Test Scores of The Noticing Test.....	122
Table 4.4 : Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in terms of Post-Test Scores of The Noticing Test.....	122
Table 4.5: Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Scores of the Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Pre-test and Post-test Scores.....	123
Table 4.6: Mean, Standard Deviation Scores the Female and Male Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Pre-test and Post-test Scores	124
Table 4.7: Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Female and Male Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Pre-test Scores.....	125
Table 4.8: Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Female and Male Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Post-test Scores.....	126
Table 4.9: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on Grammar Instruction.....	130
Table 4.10: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on Grammar Instruction.....	132
Table 4.11: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on Grammar Practice.....	134
Table 4.12: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on Grammar Practice.....	138
Table 4.13: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on the Novelty the Method Introduced.....	141
Table 4.14: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on the Novelty the Method Introduced.....	143
Table 4.15: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on the Positive Sides of the Method.....	146

Table 4.16: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on the Negative Sides of the Method.....	149
Table 4.17: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on the Positive Sides of the Method.....	151



TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ÖZET	iv
PREFACE	vii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background of the Problem.....	1
1.2. Grammar and Syllabus Types.....	1
1.2.1. The Grammar-Translation Method.....	2
1.2.2. The Direct Method.....	2
1.2.3. The Audiolingual Method.....	2
1.2.4. The Natural Approach.....	3
1.2.5. The Communicative Language Teaching.....	3
1.3. Task-Based Language Teaching.....	4
1.3.1. From Structural to Communicative Syllabus Types.....	5
1.3.2. From Communicative to Task-Based Syllabus.....	11
1.3.3. Traditional Instruction versus Task-Focused Instruction.....	14
1.3.3.1. The PPP Approach.....	14
1.3.3.2. From PPP Instruction to Task-Based Instruction.....	14
1.3.4. Theoretical Aspects of Task-Based Language Teaching.....	19
1.3.4.1. Definitions of Task.....	20
1.3.4.2. Theory of Language.....	21
1.3.4.3. Theory of Learning.....	22

1.3.4.4. The Syllabus.....	24
1.3.4.5. Learner and Teacher Roles.....	27
1.3.5. Common Features of Tasks.....	28
1.3.5.1. The Language Use in Tasks.....	29
1.3.5.2. Sequencing Tasks.....	31
1.3.5.3. Four Skills in Tasks.....	32
1.3.5.4. Task Types.....	32
1.3.5.5. The Advantages of Learning through Tasks.....	35
1.3.6. The Framework of Task-Based Language Teaching.....	36
1.3.6.1. The Pre-Task Phase.....	38
1.3.6.2. The Task Cycle Phase.....	40
1.3.6.3. The Language Focus Phase.....	44
1.3.7. Discussions on TBLT.....	46
1.3.7.1. Discussions on Noticing and Consciousness-Raising.....	47
1.3.7.2. Discussions on the Weak Points of TBLT and Focus on Form.....	52
1.4. Purpose of the Study.....	55
1.5. Significance of the Study.....	59
1.6. Research Questions.....	59
1.7. Assumptions of the Study.....	60
1.8. Limitations of the Study.....	60
1.9. Definitions.....	60
1.10 Abbreviations.....	64
CHAPTER TWO.....	65
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	65
2.1. Quantitative Studies on TBLT.....	65
2.2. Qualitative Studies on TBLT.....	87

CHAPTER THREE	109
METHODOLOGY	109
3.1. Research Model.....	109
3.2. The Universe and the Sample.....	109
3.3. Data Collection.....	110
3.3.1. The Quantitative Study.....	110
3.3.1.1. The Proficiency Test.....	110
3.3.1.2. The Noticing Test.....	111
3.3.2. The Qualitative Study.....	112
3.4. The Procedure.....	112
3.4.1. Activities of Preparation.....	112
3.4.2. The Pre-Tests.....	113
3.4.3. Activities of Introduction.....	113
3.4.4. The Treatment.....	114
3.4.5. The Post-Tests.....	116
3.4.6. The Preparation of the Interview Questions.....	116
3.4.7. The Interview.....	116
3.4.8. The Validity and the Reliability of the Qualitative Study.....	117
3.5. Data Analysis Techniques.....	119
CHAPTER FOUR	120
FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS	120
4.1. The Quantitative Study.....	120
4.1.1. The Effects of TBLT and PPP Instruction on the Proficiency and Noticing in the Use of the Simple Present Tense.....	120
4.1.2. The Effects of TBLT and PPP Instruction on the Proficiency and Noticing Levels with regard to Gender.....	124
4.2. The Qualitative Study.....	126

4.2.1. Learner Thoughts on Grammar Instruction and Practice.....	127
4.2.2. Learner Thoughts on the Implementation of TBLT and PPP.....	138
CHAPTER FIVE.....	152
CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS.....	152
5.1. Conclusions and Discussions.....	152
5.2. Suggestions	156
BIIBLIOGRAPHY.....	160
APPENDICES.....	168



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Problem

The term “grammar” has several meanings. “*It is used to refer both to language users’ subconscious internal system and to linguists’ attempts explicitly to codify – or describe – that system*” (Larsen-Freeman, 2001:34). Its scope is very broad with regard to the latter; it refers to the abstract system underlying all languages (i.e. a universal grammar) or to the system underlying a particular language (i.e. the grammar of Turkish). It is also used to refer to a specific school of linguistic thought (i.e. formal grammar) or to a particular collection of facts for a general audience (i.e. *A Practical English Grammar*; A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet, 1986) or to a specific audience (i.e. a comparative grammar for Turkish learners of English).

These uses differ in purpose and scope; however, they minimally try to explain how words are formed (morphology) and how sentences are formed (syntax). Although some grammarians are inclined to include phonology and semantics in this definition, the usual interpretation of grammar is limited to the structural organization of a language.

1.2. Grammar and Syllabus Types

Linguists make a classification between two types of descriptive grammars. According to Larsen-Freeman (2001), *formal* grammars take the form or structure of a language as their starting point. Little or no attention is paid to meaning (semantics) or language use (pragmatics). *Functional* grammars, on the other hand, perceive language as social interaction. They try to explain why one linguistic form is better than the others for a specific purpose in a communicative context. The syllabus type is similarly classified as structural syllabus for formal grammars and communicative (notional and functional) syllabus for functional grammars (Widdowson, 1990). The syllabus type is important because all approaches or methods are closely interrelated to a syllabus type. The differences in attitudes towards the exact role of grammar in language education stem from the differences between the syllabi used by teachers and learners; therefore, it would be better if the syllabus types of methods and approaches are listed one by one:

1.2.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

As its name suggests, *Grammar-Translation*, for instance, takes grammar as the starting point and a strict grammar syllabus is followed (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Harmer, 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Laersen-Freeman, 2001). Lessons start with explicit rule giving, and the rules are practiced through translation into and out of the mother tongue. The reading and understanding of literature constitutes the main aim of language learning (Hanauer, 2001). Language learning is viewed as studying and memorizing bilingual vocabulary lists and explicit grammar rules (Ellis, 1997)

1.2.2. The Direct Method

In the late nineteenth century, the *Direct Method* emerged as a challenge to grammar-translation. It mainly emphasizes oral skills (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Harmer, 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Laersen-Freeman, 2001). While a syllabus of grammar structures is followed, explicit grammar teaching is completely rejected and replaced by language use (Woods, 1995). *"The learners, it was supposed, picked up the grammar in much the same way as children pick up the grammar of their mother tongue, simply by being immersed in language"* (Thornbury, 1999:21).

1.2.3. The Audiolingual Method

According to Larsen-Freeman (2001), the dominant school of psychology in the US in the mid-twentieth century was behaviourism, and learning was viewed as a form of conditioning. *"Audiolingualism derived its theoretical base from behaviourist psychology, which considered language as simply a form of behaviour, to be learned through the formation of correct habits"* (Thornbury, 1999:21). *Audiolingualism* is faithful to the Direct Method belief in the primacy of speech, but supports a stronger rejection of grammar teaching. Audiolingualism presents a structure-based, anti-mentalist approach to language teaching. Drills and pattern practice are used to form correct habits of structures. Language learning is based on three important elements: stimulus, response and reinforcement. The Audiolingual syllabus, which is also a structural syllabus, includes a graded list of sentence patterns, which are grammatical in origin and arranged according to their order of presentation.

1.2.4. The Natural Approach

In the late 1950s, Chomsky claimed that language ability is not habituated behaviour but an innate human capacity. This view has led Krashen (1981, 1982) to claim that formal instruction is unnecessary. His *Natural Approach* does not give any place for a grammar syllabus or explicit rulegiving. Instead of these, learners are exposed to a large amount of comprehensible input. Similar to the Direct Method, the Natural Approach tries to create the conditions of first language acquisition. The aim is to develop learners' basic communication skills through the use of topics, situations and functions, and learners' needs are taken as the purpose of a language course. Since it is not possible to specify communicative goals which may fit the needs of all learners, any list of topics and situations can serve as syllabus suggestions. Therefore, the Natural Approach cannot be said to have a specific type of syllabus (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

1.2.5. The Communicative Language Teaching

In the 1970s, however, the developments in sociolinguistics caused the developments in *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT henceforth). Language is defined as communication between people rather than grammar rules or texts (Cook, 1991). The belief is that communicative competence consists of more than a knowledge of the rules of grammar.

“Nevertheless, CLT, in its shallow-end version at least, did not reject grammar teaching out of hand. In fact, grammar was still the main component of the syllabus of CLT courses, even if it was dressed up in functional labels: asking the way, talking about yourself, making future plans, etc” (Thornbury, 1999:22).

The syllabus is designed around notions (meanings such as spatial location, age, degree) and functions (social interactions such as giving advice), and grammar and vocabulary help express the notions and functions which are in focus (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Chomsky claimed that language is rule governed, and this suggests that explicit rulegiving may have a place in courses after all. This belief was highly acceptable while CLT was being developed; therefore, grammar rules reappear in course books at the expense of communicative practice.

1.3. Task-Based Language Teaching

Deep-end CLT, on the other hand, strongly rejects the use of both grammar-based syllabi and grammar instruction. Prabhu (1987), a teacher of English in southern India, is a leading proponent of this view. According to Thornbury (1999), Prabhu uses natural acquisition processes in his Bangalore Project. He has learners work through a syllabus of tasks for which no formal grammar instruction is needed or provided. Nunan (1988) states that a task-based syllabus is organized around tasks rather than in terms of grammar or vocabulary. The objective of a lesson is the successful completion of a task such as following a map, rather than the application of a rule of grammar. The Bangalore Project is the predecessor of *task-based learning*. According to Prabhu (1987), there have been attempts to systematize inputs to the learner and to maximize the practice of particular parts of language structure through activities deliberately planned for that purpose. Task-based learning has relaxed the strict approach to grammar through the recognition of the value of focus on form. Researchers suggest that without some attention to form, learners may have the risk of fossilization. However, this kind of focusing does not mean the use of drill-and-repeat type of teaching. It simply means correcting a mistake or giving feedback. In fact, the real purpose is to help learners to notice the gap between the new features in a target language and how they differ from their interlanguage.

To summarize, the actual content of the syllabus differs from method to method being followed. Syllabi were mainly grammar-based until some organizing categories such as functions or tasks were introduced. The adherents of formal grammar support practicing grammatical structures and lexical patterns until they are internalized. However, there has been a shift from grammatical competence to communicative competence owing to the observations of learners' difficulties in transferring the grammatical structures studied in class to communicative contexts outside. According to Finney (2002), the communicative approach has shown the shortcomings and lack of relevance of grammar-based models of language teaching. Language is viewed as communication, and teachers must develop in learners the ability to communicate effectively in different contexts.

All methods and approaches include overt and covert decisions about the selection of language items of the target language which are used within the language courses. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that decisions about the choice of language content depend on both the subject matter and the linguistic matter. The subject matter involves the decisions about what to say, and the linguistic matter involves the decisions about how to say the subject matter. It is

certain that ESP courses are subject-matter focused; however, structurally-based methods such as the Audiolingual method and the Situational Language Teaching are linguistically-focused. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 25), *“Methods typically differ in what they see as the relevant language and subject matter around which language teaching should be organized and the principles used in sequencing content within a course.”* Sequencing and the gradation of language items in grammar-based courses are based on the difficulty of the items and their frequency. Sequencing of the items in communicative courses, however, is based on mainly the needs of learners.

The definition of the term syllabus is given by Richards and Rodgers (2001: 25) as follows: *“Traditionally, the term syllabus has been used to refer to the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method.”* Syllabus and syllabus principles have a stronger role in methods which hold a product-centered view rather than a process-centered view. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), Situational and Audiolingual methods include a list of grammatical items together with a list of related vocabulary items. Notional-Functional syllabi, on the other hand, specify the communicative content of the course divided into notions, functions, topics, tasks, grammar and vocabulary.

Different taxonomies of task types have been proposed by Yalden (1987, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), Long and Crookes (1992, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) and Brown (1995, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), but mainly there are three task types which can be linked to specific methods; the structural syllabus type in Audiolingual and Situational Language Teaching, the communicative syllabus type in Communicative Language Teaching and the task-based syllabus type in Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT henceforth). It can be concluded that there has been a gradual movement from structurally-based syllabus to task-based syllabus.

1.3.1. From Structural to Communicative Syllabus Types

The Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method and the Audio-lingual Method all employ a structural syllabus which includes a list of grammatical structures to be studied in the classroom. Situational Language Teaching also employs a structural syllabus with a word list; however, this method has a distinctive quality because it closely follows the PPP (presentation, practice and production) model (PPP henceforth), which has been taken up by many language teachers as a traditional way of instruction.

The term Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching is used to refer to an approach developed by British applied linguists from 1930s to the 1960s. The two leaders of this movement are Palmer and Hornby, who were the most important figures in British twentieth-century language teaching. They closely followed the works of Jespersen and Jones, and they were under the influence of the Direct Method, but they wanted to develop a more scientific system than the one used in the Direct Method.

For Palmer, vocabulary is one of the most important parts of foreign language learning. The emphasis on reading skills increases. Vocabulary is indispensable for reading proficiency; therefore, the principles of vocabulary control are developed. Palmer, West and other specialists have produced a guide containing the most frequently words in texts, *The Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* (Faucet, West, Palmer and Thorndike, 1936, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Efforts to develop rational principles for vocabulary selection have also been made for the grammatical content of language courses. Palmer, Hornby and other British applied linguists have analyzed the English language and classified its main grammatical structures into sentence patterns in order to help learners to internalize the rules of the English sentence structure. Pittman, one of the powerful proponents of this approach, has developed a set of teaching materials based on the Situational Approach, which have been commonly used in Australia, New Guinea and the Pacific territories.

“Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists from the 1920s onward developed an approach to methodology that involved systematic principles of selection (the procedures by which lexical and grammatical content was chosen), gradation (principles by which the organization and sequencing of content were determined), and presentation (techniques used for presentation and practice of items in a course)” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 38).

The theory underlying Situational Language Teaching (SLT) can be considered to be a kind of British structuralism. The basis of language is speech, and structure is a necessary aspect for the speaking ability. British theoreticians, however, have a different kind of structuralism because of the importance they give to the notion of situation. According to Pittman (1963, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), the principal activity of the structure is the oral practice which should be given in situations for real practice of the language. Many British linguists such as Firth and Halliday have emphasized the relationship between structures and the situations in which they are used. There is an inductive approach to teaching, which means that explanation is avoided, and the learner is expected to deduce the meaning of a structure or a vocabulary item from the situation in which it is used. There is the use of structural syllabus

with word lists. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), this structural syllabus includes a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns of English with content and structure words, arranged in terms of their order of presentation. New structures are always given in sentences, and vocabulary items are chosen according to how well they enable the sentence patterns to be studied. Accuracy is essential in both pronunciation and grammar, and errors are avoided at all costs. Learners are expected to have an automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns, and speech work is the only way to gain reading and writing skills. The theory of learning is a behaviouristic habit-formation theory (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Harmer, 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 2001). Correct speech habits are fundamental in this teacher-centered method, and drill-based activities such as guided repetition, substitution activities, dictation, controlled oral-based reading and writing activities are commonly used. The movement is from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, writing and reading.

According to Willis and Willis (1996a) the essential features of SLT are seen in the PPP lesson model that thousands of teachers who studied for the RSA/Cambridge Certificate in TEFL were required to master in the 1980s and early 1990s. Lessons have three phases: presentation (introduction of a new teaching item in context), practice (controlled practice of the item), and production (a freer practice phase). SLT continues to be commonly used in most parts of the world because of its emphasis on oral practice, grammar and sentence patterns. It is especially suitable for countries where the syllabi continue to be grammatically based.

In the late 1960s, Communicative Language Teaching emerged as a result of the changes in the British language teaching tradition. Until then, Situational Language Teaching was the main British approach to teach English as a foreign language. Rather than a mastery of structures, communicative competence has started to gain importance. In his book *Syntactic Structures* (1957, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), Chomsky claimed that the most important qualities of language, which are creativity and uniqueness, have been ignored in the current structural theories of language. Teaching structures on the basis of situations has started to be questioned by the British applied linguists as well. Communicative potential of language has been what they needed to focus in their theories.

Another reason for the change in the approaches to foreign language teaching is the interdependence of European countries. Adults need to be taught the major languages of the European Common Market. The Council of Europe sees education as one of its main areas;

therefore, it has sponsored international conferences on language teaching, published books on teaching and contributed to the studies for alternative teaching methods. With the support of the European Council, the writings of Wilkins, Widdowson, Candlin, Brumfit, Johnson and other British applied linguists on the communicative or functional approach to language teaching have produced the Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching.

According to Nunan (1989), there have been changes in attitude towards both language and learning. The view that has underpinned Communicative Language Teaching is to accept that language is more than simply a system of rules. Language has started to be seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning. In terms of learning, it is generally accepted that 'learning that' and 'knowing how' should be distinguished. In other words, knowing various grammatical rules about the target language and using these rules effectively and appropriately while communicating are two distinct features.

There has been some confusion about the importance of grammar in communication. According to Dickens and Woods (1988), grammar and communication used to be considered two independent features rather than two complementary and integrated elements necessary for effective communication when SLT was powerful. Learners used to be presented with exercises which encouraged the manipulation of grammatical structures but ignored the contexts in which these structures occurred. Early approaches to language teaching did not give importance to meaning believing that it was enough to learn what is in the grammar and the dictionary (Swan, 1990). However, in recent years, the pedagogical practice places the emphasis on communication. The functions of grammar in the effective communication of ideas, beliefs and feelings have gained importance. The belief that knowing a language means one has acquired the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences has been abandoned.

Communicative Language Teaching aims to address the gap in traditional language teaching between grammar and usage by focusing on the communicative process and the negotiation of meaning between participants (Pennington, 2002). Since the mid 1970s, both American and British proponents of CLT have seen it as an approach to make communicative competence the aim of language teaching and to integrate grammatical and functional teaching. Hymes (1979) has coined the term "communicative competence" in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence. Chomsky's theory is concerned with ideal listeners and speakers in a homogeneous community who know their language perfectly and apply their knowledge of the language in actual performances

correctly. This theory focuses on the abstract qualities people have in order to produce grammatically correct sentences. According to Hymes, however, such a view of linguistic theory is sterile. The theory should be broad enough to include the definition of what people need to know in order to be communicatively competent in communicative situations. Abstract grammatical knowledge is not enough to perform different functions in social settings. According to Littlewood (1981, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), paying attention to both functional and structural dimensions of language is one of the most important features of CLT. In addition, Halliday's functional account of language is also favored in CLT because it complements Hymes's view of communicative competence. According to Halliday (1975, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), there are seven functions of language: instrumental function (the use of language to get things), regulatory function (the use of language to control the behaviours of others), inter-actional function (the use of language to create interaction with others), personal function (the use of language to express personal feelings), heuristic function (the use of language to learn and to discover), imaginative function (the use of language to create a world of imagination) and representational function (the use of language to communicate meaning). To sum up, in CLT, learning a second language is equal to acquiring linguistic means in order to perform different functions of language appropriately in social settings.

Another important quality of CLT is that it favors a learner-centered and experience-based view of second language teaching. Individual learners have unique styles, needs, interests and goals, and these points should be taken into consideration in the design of methods. According to Wenden (1990), teachers should try to discover what their students' beliefs are and how these beliefs may influence their approach to language learning. Besides, learners themselves should be given opportunities to think about their learning processes so that they might become aware of their beliefs and how these beliefs may influence their way of learning (Campbell and Kryszewska, 1992).

Teachers are required to design activities according to the needs of the learners. Language is not seen as a habit any longer; in fact, it is created by learners through trial and error. The teacher facilitates the communication process among all the participants. It is important to provide learners with activities that are really communicative. Xiaoju (1990) states three conditions to be met if any activity is to be called communicative: first, the situation must be real, and learner roles must be real; second, there must be a need and purpose for communication; third, learners must feel free to answer as they choose, which brings about

unpredictability. Teachers must design activities paying attention to these criteria so that learners perform real communicative activities.

Real communication activities and meaningful tasks promote learning. The teacher should select the learning activities which encourage learners to use authentic language. Instead of practicing patterns mechanically, learners are assigned tasks which require the use of communicative processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction. *“Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing”* (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 165). In terms of major activity types in CLT, Littlewood (1981, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) makes a distinction between functional communication activities and social interaction activities. Tasks such as comparing a set of pictures and finding out similarities and differences, creating a sequence of events for a set of pictures or finding out the missing parts in a map or picture can be given as examples for functional communication activities. Conversations, discussion sessions, dialogues and role-plays, simulations and improvisations, on the other hand, fit the category of social interaction activities. In short, learners are expected to interact with each other rather than with the teacher in a classroom situation where the process of communication is valued rather than the mastery of structures.

The nature of the syllabus in Communicative Language Teaching has been under discussion for a long time, and several proposals have been made. Yalden (1983, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) summarizes the syllabus models as follows: structures plus functions syllabus; functional spiral around a structural core; structural, functional, instrumental syllabus; functional syllabus; notional syllabus; interactional syllabus; task-based syllabus and learner-generated syllabus. Notional syllabus specifies the semantic-grammatical categories such as frequency and location, and the categories of communicative functions that learners are supposed to express. In order to expand and develop the syllabus, the Council of Europe has made some contributions to this syllabus which has included the definitions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults, the situations in which learners may have the need to use a foreign language, the topics they may need to talk about such as travel or sports, the functions a foreign language serves such as requesting, expressing agreement or disagreement, the notions that are used in the act of communication such as time, frequency and duration, and also the needed vocabulary and grammar. The result, which was published as *Threshold Level English* (van Ek and Alexander, 1980, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001),

specifies the qualities needed in order to be able to have a high level of communicative proficiency in a foreign language.

Some designers of communicative syllabi have also included task specification and task organization as a part of their syllabus designs. According to Prabhu (1983, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), for instance, the form of syllabus designed for communicative teaching is supposed to include the types to be implemented in the classroom, and tasks should also be presented in an order according to their difficulty. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), Malaysian communicational syllabus (English Language Syllabus in Malaysian Schools, 1975), which was nationally implemented, is another example for such a model. Communicative Language Teaching was established around a specification of communicative tasks. According to the results of needs analysis studies, broad communicative objectives were divided into twenty-four specific objectives (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). In CLT, the objectives are organized in such a way that a number of outcome goals or products are established. Products are achieved through the successful completion of tasks, and in the syllabus, different situations which include the communicative context, stimuli, learner interactions, desired outcomes, constraints, etc. are suggested in order to enable the learners to achieve the products. However, in the CLT literature, some have proposed that the idea of syllabus be abandoned, and some others have suggested that a grammatically based model, which includes notions, functions and communicative activities be used.

All in all, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), CLT emerged at a time when SLT and Audiolingualism started to be considered as inappropriate methodologies. Therefore, the world was ready to accept such a change in language teaching. The support of leading applied linguists, language specialists, publishers and some institutions such as the British Council has helped CLT to be adopted rapidly throughout the world.

1.3.2. From Communicative to Task-Based Syllabus

TBLT is an approach which is mainly based on the use of tasks as a way of instruction in language teaching. According to Willis (1996b), TBLT is seen as a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching because it is constructed on the principles of the communicative movement. Similar to CLT, TBLT includes the use of activities which involve real communication in order to carry out meaningful tasks. Such activities are believed to promote language learning, and the language used should be meaningful to the learner. As

Richards and Rodgers (2001) state, tasks function as useful vehicles in order to carry out these principles.

The similarities in the principles of CLT and TBLT stem from the early applications of task-based approach in the designs of syllabi within the Communicative Language Teaching framework. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that the Malaysian Communicational Syllabus in 1975 and the Bangalore Project are the two examples for the CLT syllabi which include the use of tasks to be attempted in a classroom setting. In other words, a task-based approach started to be followed in these syllabi for the first time.

It is also important to mention the distinction made by Howatt (1984, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) in order to point out the distinction between CLT and TBLT. According to Howatt, there is a strong and a weak version of the communicative approach. The weak version, which represents Communicative Language Teaching namely, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use language for communicative purposes, and attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching. Howatt emphasizes that the strong version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication. According to the strong version, which represents TBLT, acquisition is not merely a question of activating an existing knowledge of language. On the contrary, stimulating the development of the language system itself is required for acquisition to take place. Howatt describes the former as learning to use a language, and the latter as using a language to learn. According to McLaughlin (2001), task-based syllabi fall under Howatt's strong description of CLT.

The role of tasks has gained more importance due to the studies of some researchers such as Long and Crookes (1993, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Tasks have started to be considered as research tools, and a number of SLA research have focused on the strategies and cognitive processes employed by second language learners. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that such research supports the view that traditional grammar-focused teaching does not reflect the cognitive learning processes employed in language learning. Providing learners with tasks, on the other hand, is more beneficial for the activation of the learning processes; and thus, tasks create better opportunities for language learning to take place. Tasks are more beneficial because they require learners to negotiate meaning and engage them in naturalistic and meaningful communication (Willis, 1996b, Ellis, 2003).

According to Long and Crookes (1992, cited in McLaughlin, 2001), there are two types of syllabi: synthetic and analytic. In the synthetic syllabi, target language is divided into discrete linguistic items for presentation one at a time. Acquisition is considered to be a process of accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language is built up. When syllabus designers choose a linguistic unit such as a word, structure, notion or function as their organizational unit, they produce a synthetic syllabus. Learners are expected to learn a language in parts such as structures or functions independently of one another. Therefore, Long and Crookes (1992, cited in McLaughlin, 2001) claim that all lexical, structural, notional and functional syllabi are synthetic. Long and Crookes also claim that even though developers of synthetic syllabi may find them communicative, they are in fact artificial. In contrast, analytic syllabi do not include any kind of control over structures or functions as in the synthetic manner. Long and Crookes emphasize that analytic syllabi are organized in terms of the reasons for which people are learning a language. The kinds of language performance which are necessary to meet these purposes are believed to be central in the design of analytic syllabi. According to Long and Crookes, task-based syllabus which has an analytic nature differs from structural, lexical, notional and functional syllabi due to the fact that task-based syllabus rejects taking linguistic elements as the central units of analysis, and instead employs the conception of tasks.

TBLT is an approach which fulfills the requirements of modern communicative language teaching principles. TBLT employs the use of tasks in order to promote the communicative use of language. To have a complete understanding of the rationale behind this approach, it is necessary to consider how linguists analyze the change from traditional instruction to task-based instruction in language learning. This analysis will help future linguists and potential teachers of language education to better understand the features and the framework of tasks applied in today's language classroom.

In conclusion, the change towards the use of tasks as the main part of the syllabus started within the CLT syllabus types. The principles of TBLT emerged in these syllabi for the first time, and the use of tasks as research tools has helped TBLT to be accepted as a new method.

1.3.3. Traditional Instruction versus Task-Focused Instruction

The traditional approach to teaching is based upon an approach which is called PPP. The term PPP refers to presentation, practice and production stages. After the presentation of some items, practice activities such as coral repetition, individual repetition and cue-response drills are provided (Harmer, 2001). In the production stage, learners are given chances to use the items freely to ensure that learners can use these items in communicative situations whenever they are needed. However, the results of some studies made by a number of researchers have proven that the implementation of a PPP approach has unsatisfactory results in language learning due to its lack of theory and also its lack of concern with the learner. A contrasting approach which is based on task-based instruction has emerged due to the second language acquisition research studies carried out by some researchers such as Ellis (1985).

1.3.3.1. The PPP Approach

Skehan (1996b) states that the PPP approach has some important advantages. First of all, it has a very comforting nature for the teacher because s/he controls all the classroom behaviour. S/he operates as the provider of input, the supplier of feedback and the engineer of controlled activity (Samuda, 2001). The teacher uses a range of techniques to promote the learning of a specific structure and keeps his or her authority throughout the activities. The second advantage is its accountability. There are clearly established, certain lesson goals which can be evaluated easily afterwards. As White (1988, cited in Skehan, 1996b) states, the units to be studied and the order of the units are decided by the teacher or the syllabus writer. The underlying belief is that learners will learn what is taught in the order in which it is taught. The emphasis is on product, and tests evaluate the products of the learners to open a path for their forward studies. According to Hilgard and Bower (1975, cited in Skehan, 1996b), another advantage is that there is a clear connection between PPP approaches and the theory behind them. All learning activities are focused on rules which are expected to become automatic habits. This is a behaviourist theory of learning, which means that the products of learners are continually shaped until they fit the demands of the teacher (Ellis, 2002b).

1.3.3.2. From PPP Instruction to Task-Based Instruction

According to the grammar-based approach, a new structure is presented, practiced, and learners are given opportunities to produce it. Skehan (2002) states that the underlying

learning theory for PPP is automatization. This skill-based view of learning applies to many domains, but whether it applies to language learning is questionable. Language involves many different systems, often complex and interlocking. Learning a new thing often involves the modification of the things learnt before. Language learners need to internalize the rules. However, the approach underlying PPP is behaviourist in nature. It is designed to ensure automatic response to stimulus rather than creative thought. According to Dave Willis (1996), it does not encourage learners to think about the target language. Instead, learners are encouraged to see the target language as a set of isolated patterns which can be accumulated by obediently following the instructions of the teacher.

Skehan (1996b) states that the advantages mentioned about PPP have started to lose their importance owing to two major reasons. First of all, the evidence to support PPP approaches is unimpressive. There are poor levels of attainment in this traditional language learning situation, and learners leave school with a little knowledge of usable language (Stern 1983). That is to say, most language learning results in failure. Only the gifted learners can achieve the desired levels of proficiency. In a similar way, some comparative studies show that methodological factors have had relatively little impact on general levels of success (Stern 1983). According to one of the most influential comparative studies, instruction has no effect on language learning. The instructed and uninstructed learners were compared with respect to the length of time they spent in the target language country. The level of achievement did not differ in the two groups (Fathman 1976, cited in Skehan, 1996b). This suggests that it is better to go to the country where the target language is spoken and to interact with the native speakers of that language rather than to attend language courses.

The second reason for Skehan (1996b: 18) is that the underlying theory for a PPP approach has been discredited: "*The belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization (that learners will learn what is taught in the order in which it is taught) no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology.*" On the contrary, the belief that learning is constrained by internal processes has become more powerful. Learning is not simply a matter of changing input into output; there are some hidden processes which are not under the control of the teacher. Ellis (1993) states what the input teachers, syllabus designers and material writers provide is processed by a learner not necessarily in the intended way. What is learnt can only be controlled by the learner. While using the target language, learners produce hypotheses, generalizations and inferences about the language system as a whole. This means that they make use of the language, but teachers cannot possibly know how

learners make use of it. Therefore, teachers must be aware of such processes and learners' contribution to learning.

Dave Willis (1996) states that a PPP approach may at first appear to contribute to language learning; however, it fails to encourage learners to use the language for communication. It requires an exact focus on the specific target forms of the language and encourages learners to produce the language with a proper concern for form. Dave Willis (1996) finds the appearance illusory and states that PPP shows a great emphasis on forms, but in doing so it displays a misunderstanding of the learning process. *"The concern for form is achieved by encouraging students to produce language unthinkingly in accordance with stimuli provided by the teacher. There is no real communicative language use"* (Dave Willis, 1996: 44). In other words, the production stage of the lesson requires learners to use the language expected by the teacher rather than using language for communicative purposes.

According to Brumfit (1984, cited in Dave Willis, 1996), one way of contrasting a PPP approach with task-based approach to learning is to state that the former sets a premium on accuracy, and the latter sets a premium on fluency. In PPP approaches, there is a great deal of language control on the part of the teacher to ensure accuracy because it is believed that out of accuracy comes fluency. A task-based approach, on the other hand, encourages learners to do their best to solve a communicative problem using their existing language resources, which indicates that the focus is on fluency not on accuracy. Such an approach assumes that out of fluency comes accuracy.

A methodology based on PPP allows for a focus on a targeted form of language, and then learners are encouraged to produce language in communicative situations with a proper concern for form. In fact, learners are supposed to produce utterances of the form identified by the teacher. There may be other possible meaningful productions by learners; however, the teacher restricts the learners' responses by requiring responses of particular forms. What the teacher looks for is called conformity, not accuracy. Dave Willis (1996: 46) states, *"The belief that lies behind the PPP sequence seems to be that if an item is presented to learners and if they have time to practice this under teacher control they will then go on to incorporate it in a production stage – that conformity leads directly to mastery."* According to Dave Willis (1996), however, it is unrealistic to expect learners to make acquaintance with a new language form and incorporate it into their working grammar of the language within a single lesson. Therefore, the production stage does not prove that learners have achieved a communicative command of the

target form. In short, a good deal of control on the part of the teacher in the interests of accuracy leaves little space for the communicative use of language, and learners cannot move smoothly from the first acquaintance with a target form to the production of that form communicatively.

According to Ellis (1985) teaching does not and cannot determine the way the learner's language will develop. Learners use natural processes, and the syllabus is designed according to these processes. In other words, not the language items but learners' needs are taken into account in the syllabus. In relation to this, it has been supported that learners go through a developmental sequence. This path does not lead directly to the target form but has several errors on the way. These errors do not simply stem from the mother tongue interference. Learners, for instance, can control a particular system under some conditions such as having enough time for conscious processing. However, if learners do not have the facilitator conditions, they may fall back. Skehan (1996b: 19) summarizes the main points of language learning as *"The notion of learning is, then, a very complex one. It is certainly not a smooth progression – the elements of the target language do not simply slot into place in a predictable order."*

PPP approaches have been enduring in their influence in spite of their lack of success, theory and concern with the learner. However, such inadequacies have caused the emergence of a contrastive approach to language learning in recent years. This new contrastive approach to language learning suggests that language input functions as raw material. According to Skehan (1996b), language input helps learners to review the picture of the target language system. Early accounts, however, were different. Input was believed to be the key condition for language learning; therefore, the most important job of the teacher was to provide language input of high quality. Learners were exposed to a language which was varied in form. With the help of comprehensible input, learners' language system would automatically develop without language-focused instruction (Krashen 1985, cited in Skehan, 1996b). The account that instruction is irrelevant has been severely criticized (Swain 1985; Gregg 1984, cited in Skehan, 1996b). Later, instruction and interaction have started to gain importance. Despite the findings of Fathman (1976, cited in Skehan, 1996b) mentioned above, Long (1983; 1988, cited in Skehan, 1996b) has supported the effect of instruction. However, this effect is indirect and non-immediate. He holds the view that paying attention to form is vitally important for learners. It does not mean that teachers will focus on a particular point in a particular lesson as it is the case in PPP approaches. Learners will be exposed to instruction, and teachers will not expect to see the immediate impact of the instruction in learners' use of the language. According to Long

(1988, cited in Skehan, 1996b), instructed learners make faster progress than the uninstructed ones and achieve a higher level of attainment. Learners, however, do this by following their own developmental sequence which is not a sequence imposed by the teacher.

According to Skehan (1996b), SLA research until 1985 showed the problematic points of PPP approaches but did not give any advice about what should be done to make them work better. After the mid-1980s, researchers started to find out ways to promote language learning. Since teachers started to use communicative activities more in classroom settings, researchers found it necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of those activities. Towards the end of 1980s, researchers agreed on a consensus. Skehan (1996b: 20) states, *“The teachers’ concern for meaning-based activities and the researchers’ investigation of patterns of interaction suggested a task-based approach to foreign language instruction.”* Tasks are activities in which meaning is focused. While performing tasks, learners use real life language. The achievement of an outcome signals the success in a task. Task-based instruction is mainly based on communicative language teaching. Tasks drive learners’ system forward by running acquisitional processes, and the syllabus design is shaped in tasks as its units (Long and Crookes, 1991; 1993, cited in Skehan, 1996b).

Skehan (1996b) states that the learning process in a PPP approach is viewed as learning a series of discrete items and bringing these items together in communicative situations to provide practice. The learning process in a task-based approach, however, favors learning through doing. Tasks engage learners with meaning, and therefore their system is encouraged to develop. According to Doughty & Williams (1998, cited in Richards, 2002:154), *“While carrying out communicative tasks, learners are said to receive comprehensible input and modified output, processes believed central to second language acquisition and which ultimately lead to the development of both linguistic and communicative competence.”* This means that successful language learning depends on tasks which require learners to negotiate meaning and engage in naturalistic and meaningful communication.

In conclusion, Skehan (2002) states that many different concerns about PPP cause a move towards a task-oriented approach, which stems from three main sources. First, a considerable amount of evidence from naturalistic studies signals that learners do not follow the sequences expected in the classroom. Second, SLA strongly supports that the growth of an interlanguage, a rule-based system which reflects the learners’ appreciation of the patterns of the target language is a prerequisite for language development. Third, there is a need to create

opportunities for individualization of instruction so that learners at different stages can be aware of the point they have reached. The differences between traditional grammar-focused activities and communicative task work are listed as follows:

“Grammar-Focused Activities

*reflect typical classroom use of language
focus on the formation of correct examples of language
produce language for display (as evidence of learning)
call on explicit knowledge
elicit a careful (monitored) speech style
reflect controlled performance
practice language out of context
practice small samples of language
do not require authentic communication*

Task-Focused Activities

*reflect natural language use
call on implicit knowledge
elicit a vernacular speech style
reflect automatic performance
require the use of improvising, paraphrasing, repair and reorganization
produce language that is not always predictable
allow students to select the language they use
require real communication” (Richards, 2002: 154-155)*

1.3.4. Theoretical Aspects of Task-Based Language Teaching

TBLT has a distinguishing place in modern language teaching. Despite the fact that there have been few practical applications of it and little documentation related to its success in terms of material development or classroom teaching, TBLT has gained considerable attention due to the support of some prominent SLA researchers and its link to CLT. The principles underlying task-based instruction are summarized by Feez (1998, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) as follows: The focus is not on product, but on process. Purposeful activities and tasks which emphasize communication and meaning form the basic elements of instruction. The main belief is that learners learn a language if they interact communicatively and purposefully in that language. Activities and tasks are of two kinds; tasks which learners may need to achieve in real life and the ones which have pedagogical purposes specific to the classroom. Tasks included in a task-based syllabus are put in an order according to their difficulty. Besides, the difficulty of a task is believed to stem from different factors such as the

previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to carry out the task and the degree of the support available for the learner.

According to Willis (1996a), task-based framework differs from a PPP cycle because the focus on the language is at the end. The communication task forms the centre of the framework. While performing the task, learners use the language they have learnt from previous lessons or from other sources. Then they write and talk about how they did the task and compare their findings. Finally, attention is directed to the specific features of the language form. Willis (1996a) states that this refers to a holistic experience of the language in use. The last step is to have a close look at the specific language forms. By that point, learners will have worked with the targeted forms and processed them for meaning.

In order to have a complete understanding of TBLT, it is necessary to mention the most important features of TBLT, which form the basis for its theoretical aspects. First of all, the definition of the term task is necessary. The theory of language, the theory of learning, syllabus, learner roles and teacher roles are also worth discussing to increase the understanding of the task-based approach.

1.3.4.1. Definitions of Task

The notion of 'task' has the main role in TBLT, and there are various definitions of tasks. Long (1985, cited in Nunan, 1989: 5) states, "*[a 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, ... In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between.*" For the definition of tasks, Crookes (1986, cited in Bygate, Skehan, Swain, 2001: 9) says, "*A piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as a part of an educational course, at work, or used to elicit data for research.*" Famous for his Bangalore Project, Prabhu (1987: 24) states, "*An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process was regarded as a 'task'.*" Nunan (1989: 10) states, "*In general, I too will consider the communicative task as a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.*" According to Skehan (1996b: 20), "*Tasksare activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in*

terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use. So, task-based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communicative language teaching.”

All in all, all these definitions are very close to each other. Small differences stem from different points of emphasis. Long and Skehan, for instance, emphasize the real world relationship for an activity to be taken as a task. Prabhu, Nunan and Crookes, however, emphasize the outcome nature of tasks.

1.3.4.2. Theory of Language

Richards and Rogers (2001) hold the view that TBLT is more concerned with a theory of learning rather than a theory of language. In task-based pedagogy, the content of the language to be negotiated in class is left to the teacher and the learner. Rather than teaching materials, learning materials are designed to promote learning opportunities. Language is mainly viewed as a means of making meaning. It is because, as Skehan (1998) emphasizes, meaning has the central role in language use. Besides its use to make meaning, language is believed to have multiple models in TBLT. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 226), *“Advocates of task-based instruction draw on structural, functional, and interactional models of language.”* Skehan (1998), for instance, emphasizes structural criteria for determining the complexity of tasks. Berwick (1988, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), on the other hand, proposes functional classification of task types. In the classification of task types, Berwick divides task goals into two types; social goals which require the use of language because of the activity learners are engaged and educational goals which serve didactic functions. In terms of interactional models of language, Pica’s distinction may be given as an example. Pica (1994, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), makes a distinction between interactional activity and communicative goal in terms of interactional dimension of tasks. In short, the use of language in TBLT involves three models of language theory.

Another dimension of the language use within TBLT is that lexical units have a central role in language learning and use. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), vocabulary has gained a central role in second language learning. Vocabulary includes the use of lexical phrases, sentence stems, prefabricated routines, collocations and also words as units of linguistic lexical analysis and language pedagogy. Many task-based proposals make use of this perspective. Skehan (1996b) states that the language theory in much of language teaching is

structural, which means that vocabulary items are used to fill in structural patterns. However, many linguists and psycholinguists emphasize that native language speech processing has a lexical nature. According to Skehan (1996b), this means that speech processing is based on the production and the reception of the whole phrase units. By the same token, the fluency of the learner, which refers to the learner's capacity to produce language in real time without pausing for hesitation, depends on lexicalized models of communication. Skehan (1996b) concludes that the pressures of real-time speech production can only be overcome if excessive rule-based computation is avoided.

Nunan (1989) emphasizes that the top-down (using the knowledge of the larger picture to assist comprehension) and the bottom-up (various components of the language fit together and produce the language) distinctions resemble the distinction between meaning-focused and form-focused tasks. In designing communicative tasks, it is necessary to consider the extent to which focus on linguistic forms is required. Prabhu (1987), for instance, supports that it is not needed to provide practice activities which focus on individual linguistic components as an important part of communicative tasks. Rutherford (1987); on the other hand, supports that a linguistic focus, in the form of consciousness-raising activities, should be included in the task design.

Conversation is also emphasized as the central focus of language. *"Speaking and trying to communicate with others through the spoken language drawing on the learners' available linguistic and communicative resources is considered the basis for second language acquisition in TBI..."* (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 228). It is certain that most of the tasks within task-based instruction include conversation because of its contribution to the acquisition process. In addition, Dyer (1996) states that task-based instruction involves some implications for writing activities. Writing tasks with specific objectives cause the most significant gains in student writing. Writing tasks should be sequenced from personal response to precise comprehension to critical synthesis, analysis and evaluation of data.

1.3.4.3. Theory of Learning

The insights derived from the recent research in second and foreign language development have made it certain that language learning is a developmental process which takes place in the form of partial learning of many items at a time rather than a complete mastery of one item at a time. According to Kumaravadevelu (1991), language learning is more incidental

than intentional. Learner strategies and learner processes produce the final learning outcome; therefore, there is a tendency to relate L2 teaching to the knowledge about L2 development and to make L2 pedagogy more learner- and learning-oriented and less teacher- and teaching-oriented.

Kumaravadivelu states that one of the learner- and learning-oriented pedagogies discussed in recent ELT literature is task-based pedagogy which involves much more than designing a syllabus or a new text book. Those who have explored the theoretical principals and classroom procedures of task-based pedagogy emphasize the need for a fundamental restructuring of the relationship between teaching input and learning outcome; between curricular content and classroom procedures, and between teacher and learner roles. There are many debates on the input and output processes, negotiation and modification of meaning. Krashen and Terrell (1983) insist that comprehensible input is one sufficient criterion for successful language acquisition. According to Long's interaction hypothesis (1983; 1985; 1996, cited in Mackey, 1999), interaction facilitates acquisition because of the conversational and linguistic modifications which take place in that discourse and provide learners with the input they need. Others have pointed out the importance of productive output as well as input for adequate language learning. In Canada, Swain (1985, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), for instance, claims that even after years of exposure to comprehensible input, the language ability of immersion students did not develop as much as expected. Therefore, adequate opportunities for a productive use of language should also be provided. According to Swain (1995, cited in Mackey, 1999), in their efforts to be understood in the target language, learners are pushed in their production. They try out new forms and modify their output. In order to explore output, Swain and Lapkin (1998) investigated language-related episodes in which learners talk about the language they are producing. For Swain (1985, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), tasks provide opportunities for both input and output requirements, which form key processes in language learning.

Some other researchers have emphasized the negotiation of meaning as the necessary element in second language acquisition. Swain and Lapkin (1998) state that messages are transmitted as output from one source and received as input elsewhere; and when there are difficulties in encoding or decoding these messages, language users modify and restructure their interaction in order to comprehend the message. Thus, the activity of negotiation leads to language learning because learners are provided with comprehensible input. Gonzalez-Lloret (2003) delivered task-based CALL (computer-assisted language learning) activities via the

internet to test whether negotiation and communication occurred, and whether the negotiation was similar to that reported in previous studies which support the idea that negotiation facilitates the comprehension process. The results show that the language produced by the participants is typical of negotiation for meaning, where learners focus on the completion of the task, and where language is used to satisfy communicative purposes in an economical way rather than in long and accurate ways. It is supported that negotiation leads to comprehension and ultimately to language acquisition. According to Plough and Gass (1993, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), meaning negotiation focuses a learner's attention on some part of his or her utterance such as pronunciation, grammar or lexicon, and this results in the modification of meaning. Plough and Gass conclude that negotiation works as a trigger for acquisition; however, the effects of interaction may not be immediate. Learners experience delayed developmental effects of interaction. All in all, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), tasks are believed to involve the processes of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, experimentation and input-output practice, and these key elements in language learning are achieved through the use of transactionally focused conversations.

Another dimension of tasks is that they improve learner motivation; and thus, they promote language learning. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that tasks require learners to use authentic language, and they have well-defined dimensions and closure. Tasks are varied in format and operation. Some tasks include physical activity, some tasks depend upon partnership and collaboration, some tasks involve the use of learners' past experience, and some others typically tolerate and encourage different communication styles. According to Willis (1996b), learners have motivation because there is the use of authentic language. Learners are motivated to listen to each other because they want to compare their findings with the ones their classmates have reached. In short, tasks are useful vehicles which are designed to sustain the level of the learner motivation throughout the task; and thus, learning process is aimed to stretch forward.

1.3.4.4. The Syllabus

The importance of the syllabus stems from the fact that the syllabus specifies the content and the learning outcomes for classroom teaching activities. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), a conventional syllabus typically specifies the content of a course from categories such as language structures, functions, topics and themes, four macro skills, competencies, text types and vocabulary targets. However, the proponents of TBLT do not have

an interest in learners' development in these categories. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) state, the proponents of TBLT are more concerned with the process dimensions of learning than with the specific content and skills which are acquired as a result of the activation of these processes. Therefore, a TBLT syllabus is based on the specification of tasks which learners are supposed to carry out within a program. According to Nunan (1989), a syllabus for TBLT is based on two types of tasks; real-world and pedagogical tasks. Real-world tasks are designed to practice and rehearse the qualities which are important in terms of a need analysis and real world. Pedagogical tasks, on the other hand, have a psycholinguistic base in SLA theory and research, and they do not have to reflect the real-world type of tasks. A task involving booking a hotel room, for instance, is an example for real-world tasks. Information-gap tasks are pedagogical tasks.

In the Bangalore Project (a task-based design for primary age learners of English), Prabhu (1987) specifies 18 types of tasks in the syllabus. The task types are diagrams and formations, drawing, clock faces, monthly calendar, maps, school timetables, programs and itineraries, train timetables, age and year of birth, money, tabular information, distances, rules, the postal system, telegrams, stories and dialogues, classification, and personal lists. These task types are given with the possible activity types. According to Nunan (1989), many of the tasks in the Bangalore Project have little world relevance but have validity because they are intellectually valid, meaning-focused, and they put language to use.

Long and Crookes's (1992, cited in McLaughlin, 2001) distinctions between synthetic (the target language is divided into discrete linguistic items for presentation one at a time) and analytic syllabi (the purposes for learning a language, the performances to fulfill these purposes, and learners' analytic capabilities while recognizing the linguistic components of the language behaviour are important) are important for the syllabus analysis in TBLT. When syllabus designers choose a linguistic element such as a word, structure, notion or function as the organizational unit, they follow a synthetic syllabus. This means that lexical, structural, notional and functional syllabi are all synthetic. According to McLaughlin (2001), researchers support the use of task-based syllabi following an analytical model. Learners do not move from zero to target-like use of the items in a single step. On the contrary, learners undergo a developmental sequence. Second language acquisition may involve temporary deterioration in learners' performance. Learners may hesitate between the correct and non-native like forms for extended periods.

The development of learner-centered approaches to language teaching has stemmed from CLT and contributed to syllabus analyses. According to Nunan (1989), both the teacher and the learner create ideas for the task design, and the information gained from learners is used in planning, implementing and evaluating language programs. Nunan (1989) suggests that both the teacher and the learner should work collaboratively in decisions on content selection, methodology and evaluation. Similarly, Finch (1999) states that White's Type B, analytic as opposed to synthetic syllabus, and Breen's process rather than propositional paradigm imply a learner-centered focus on performance, problem-solving and reflection which is not involved in earlier forms of syllabi. The focus is on process rather than product, on how to learn rather than what to learn.

Besides, Long and Crookes (1992, cited in McLaughlin, 2001) suggest that syllabus designs should include the identification of the learners' language needs. Real world tasks such as buying a train ticket, renting an apartment or taking notes in a lecture are recommended. After the learner needs are identified, the designers must classify these needs into target task types. Pedagogic tasks derived from the real world tasks must be put into order to form the task-based syllabus. The assessment in task-based syllabus depends on criterion-referenced bases. The experts in the field are supposed to establish criteria for the student performance on tasks.

Norris, Brown, Hudson and Yoshioka (1998, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) provide the examples of real-world tasks grouped according to their themes. For a theme of vacation, for instance, they propose the tasks of booking a flight and a room or choosing a hotel. Both the themes and task types go hand in hand in their syllabus. However, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), this classification does not offer much beyond the intuitive impressions of the writers of Situational Language Teaching materials of the 1960s or the data-free taxonomies that are seen in Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

To conclude, it is apparent in the examples above that task selection is taken as a basis for a task-based syllabus. However, the ordering of tasks also requires some attention. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that the intrinsic difficulty has been proposed as a basis for the ordering of tasks, but task difficulty is a concept which cannot be determined easily. In order to help determine the task difficulty, Honeyfield (1993, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) offers such considerations as procedures, input text, output required, amount and type of help

given, role of teachers and learners, time allowed, motivation, confidence and learning styles. These considerations are taken into account before tasks are ordered in terms of their difficulty.

1.3.4.5. Learner and Teacher Roles

In task-based pedagogy, the role relationship between the teacher and the learner is very important. According to Kumaravadivelu (1991), both the teacher and the learner share the responsibility to create, promote and sustain learning opportunities in the L2 class. Through meaningful interaction and negotiation, the teacher and the learner carry out a co-operative process of decision-making. The importance given to interaction and negotiation in a task-based classroom increases the importance of the roles of the teacher and the learner, and reduces the roles of the syllabus designer and the materials producer. The teacher and the learner have a remarkable degree of flexibility, for they are presented with a set of general learning objectives and problem-solving tasks, rather than a list of specific linguistic items, within task-based language learning pedagogy. Similarly, Cameron (1997) defines task as a classroom event that has coherence and unity, with a clear beginning and an end, in which learners take an active role. The active role played by the learner is a key feature. According to Mitchell and Parkinson (1979, cited in Cameron, 1997), if learners are not required to play an active role in a particular part of a task, the task does not exist. The reason is that the evaluation of the participants and the redesign of the same task depend upon the participants' active involvement.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that task work specifies several roles for the learner and the teacher. Learners are mainly expected to be group participants, monitors, risk-takers and innovators. Many tasks involve pair or group work; therefore, learners are supposed to learn how to work as group participants. In TBLT, the main role of tasks is to facilitate language learning. Each task has to be designed to enable learners to focus not only on the message but also on the form, and learners should be able to reflect on their learning by monitoring their own production. Besides, Richards and Rodgers (2001) claim that tasks may require learners to create or interpret messages for which they lack linguistic resources and prior experience. Learners have practice in restating, paraphrasing or using paralinguistic signals in such tasks. Learners also educate their skills of guessing from the context, asking for clarification, and consulting with other learners. Such practice is easily carried out if learners act as risk-takers and innovators.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), some specific roles are also assigned for the teacher in task-based instruction. First of all, the teacher has the central role of selecting, adapting and creating tasks. The teacher should also take learner needs, interests and current language skills into account before forming his or her adaptation of tasks into an instructional sequence. Another role for the teacher is to prepare learners for the task. This preparation can be done through the introduction of the topic, clarifying the task instructions and reminding learners about some useful words for the task. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) state, a TBLT teacher is supposed to prepare consciousness-raising activities through which learners will be able to focus their attention on the critical features of the language they hear or use. Besides, Medgyes (1990) states that communicative teachers have two-fold jobs. First, they need to satisfy specific needs of the groups as a whole. This is easy if the group members are homogenous in terms of age, interests, occupation, cultural and educational background. However, generally it is not the case. TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reasons) is the most common category all over the world. Therefore, future needs of the learners cannot be predicted easily. Second, teachers should pay attention to individual aspirations. *“The group, which used to be regarded as a faceless, monolithic mass, is seen today as an organic unit comprising learners of the most diverse nature”* (Medgyes, 1990: 104). In other words, personal differences in age, motivation, intelligence, linguistic level and etc. should not be ignored.

To sum up, learners are actively involved in the process of performing tasks. They work in pairs or groups in order to solve a problem. Teachers, on the other hand, are supposed to create the necessary atmosphere for language learning. Teachers and learners work together to choose the topics which attract learners.

1.3.5. Common Features of Tasks

Willis (1996b) suggests that the term task is used to refer to activities in which learners use the target language for communicative purposes in order to achieve an outcome. The teacher or the task designer has some important requirements. S/he must choose motivating topics for learners to keep their attention throughout the task, create intellectual and linguistic challenge which must be suitable for the level of the learners and increase their language development as much as possible.

Petrovitz (1997) states that the main shortcoming of traditional grammar materials is a lack of context; however, in recent years, the need to include context, communication and

use has increased. Tasks used in TBLT are goal-oriented activities, which means that learners must achieve a specific objective in a given time. The successful completion of a task requires understanding and conveying meanings (Willis, 1996b). When learners are engaged in a task, they use the target language in a meaningful way. Showing learners a picture and telling them to write some sentences to describe the picture, for instance, would be an example for an activity which lacks an outcome. In this activity, there is no communicative purpose, but only the practice of some linguistic items (Batstone, 1994). However, if the teacher shows the picture briefly and wants learners to write true and false sentences about it or to create a solution for the problem presented in the picture, learners will force themselves to remember the points that the other learners may have forgotten and to try to find out the best ways to challenge the memories of others. Willis (1996b) holds the view that in order to be able to achieve this goal, learners are supposed to focus on meaning first. Then, they focus on the best ways to express this meaning linguistically.

Willis (1996a) states that language lessons might be filled with nothing but tasks. Learners can get various opportunities to interact with each other in pairs or groups. Group atmosphere also encourages learners to express themselves freely and increase their confidence in using the target language. If a variety of topics and task types is provided, then learners broaden their language experience, extend their vocabulary and boredom is prevented. In order to prevent any classroom pidgin or fossilization, Skehan (1996b) states that learners need a constant linguistic challenge, which will help them to drive their interlanguage development forward. To summarize, learners learn better through participating in meaning-oriented interactions; therefore, the opportunities for interaction should be increased.

1.3.5.1. The Language Use in Tasks

In terms of the language use, TBLT is highly flexible. According to Willis (1996b: 24), *“An important feature of TBL is that learners are free to choose whatever language forms they wish to convey what they mean, in order to fulfill, as well as they can, the task goals.”* Whenever the need to communicate is strongly felt, newly acquired words and phrases come to mind. All these valuable attempts to communicate in the target language should be encouraged by the teacher. The teacher is supposed to monitor these attempts from a distance. During the task stage, the teacher does not make any corrections because it is necessary that learners should feel free to experiment with the target language on their own by taking risks. In order to secure risk taking by the learner, Willis (1996b) insists that the teacher explain that to risk getting

something wrong is better than to say nothing. If learners can also regard their errors in a positive way, consider their errors as a natural part of learning, it will be easier for them to experiment with language. The main point is that if the message is understood, this means that the learner has been successful; on the contrary, if he keeps silent, he is less likely to learn.

Providing opportunities for free and meaningful use of the target language is one side of the medal. The kind of language which must be used in tasks is also important. Traditionally, learners are expected to work more often with the written language, and in terms of the spoken language, learners think that they are expected to speak in full sentences. At this point, Willis (1996b) emphasizes that lexical phrases which function between lexis and grammar gain importance. Lexical phrases such as 'don't know', 'doesn't matter', 'on the way home', 'sounds great', and linking devices such as 'and', 'but', 'so', 'therefore' and 'though' are acquired by learners as fixed chunks and stored in the mind as whole units. While speaking spontaneously, people use lexical phrases rather than using perfectly formed grammatical sentences. The rule is the same for language learners. Teachers should not expect learners to build complete sentences while performing tasks. Otherwise, it would be like speaking written English which would be very difficult even for the native speakers. In traditional classes, teachers also tend to ask learners to speak about the points of the shared knowledge, which is another example of unnatural language. However, in the classroom situation, speakers can see each other so that they can understand one another by means of looks and gestures. Therefore, Willis (1996b) insists that learners should not be expected to be verbally explicit about the things which are common to the whole class. In short, tasks should expose learners to spontaneous language in appropriate situations and give learners a chance to use it because it is what learners commonly need in real life situations.

It is also certain that the use of authentic materials in the classroom is beneficial to the learning process. According to Guariento and Morley (2001), awareness of the need to develop learners' skill for the real world means that teachers should try hard to stimulate this world in the classroom. According to Little et. al. (1988, cited in Guariento and Morley, 2001), one way of doing this is to use authentic material. If learners are exposed to the language of the real world, this will help them to acquire an effective receptive competence in the target language. Wilkins (1976, cited in Guariento and Morley, 2001) states that the use of authentic texts bridges the gap between classroom knowledge and learners' capacity to participate in real world events. In short, learners should be given opportunities to experiment with the language

freely with the help of authentic materials so that learners might feel that they are learning the real language, and that they are in touch with a living entity.

1.3.5.2. Sequencing Tasks

It is important to bring meaning and form together in TBLT. The concerns with the content of tasks resulted in some criteria about selecting and grading tasks. Early attempts to characterize task difficulty were not satisfactory. Skehan (1992, cited in Skehan, 1998) proposes a three-way distinction for the analysis of tasks based on code complexity (linguistic complexity and variety, vocabulary load and variety, redundancy and density), cognitive complexity (cognitive familiarity – familiarity of topic and its predictability, familiarity of discourse genre, familiarity of task; cognitive processing – information organization, amount of computation, clarity and sufficiency of given information, information type) and communicative pressure (time limits and time pressure, speed of presentation, number of participants, length of texts used, type of response, opportunities to control interaction). These task sequencing features draw on previous work by Candlin (1987, cited in Skehan, 1996a) and Nunan (1989). Code complexity is based on the areas of syntactic and lexical difficulty. Cognitive complexity distinguishes between the areas of processing and familiarity. Processing is based on the amount of on-line computation which is required while doing a task. Familiarity, on the other hand, is based on the extent to which a task invites ready-made solutions. Communicative stress consists of some factors which have an effect on the pressure of communication. Time pressure is related to how fast a task must be done. Modality is concerned with the four skills; writing, speaking, listening and reading. It is believed that speaking causes more pressure than writing, and listening more pressure than reading. Scale refers to some factors such as the number of the participants in the task or the number of relationships involved. Stakes is concerned with how important it is to do the task correctly. This means that if the process is important, then the stakes are low, and if it is important not to make any mistakes while performing the task, then the stakes are high. Finally, control concerns the extent to which participants have control over the task and over how it is done.

In conclusion, Skehan (1998) states that this three-part scheme stems from the definitions of tasks. A task makes meaning primary by giving learners the opportunity to do tasks under conditions which relate to real life. The general components of the scheme are concerned with different major influences on performing a task; and thus, real-world relationships are obtained.

1.3.5.3. Four Skills in Tasks

In terms of the four skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing, the task-based cycle gives learners different opportunities to improve them. According to Willis (1996b), skills are not practiced separately; learners practice a combination of skills in order to achieve the task goals. They read and take notes; they speak to an audience and listen to the recordings of the native speakers doing the same task. However, Willis (1996b) points out that it is also important for teachers to know the future needs of the learners so that they can select tasks depending on their specific needs. If learners need English for academic purposes, for instance, it would be better to devise tasks involving reading, listening, note-taking and summarizing. Some learners may need translation skills, which means tasks involving the comparisons of texts in L1 and L2 would be helpful.

1.3.5.4. Task Types

Tasks are activities which include reading as well as speaking, and many of them lead to writing. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), in the literature of TBLT, there have been several attempts to group tasks into different categories. In order to make the picture clearer, these several lists should be given in detail. According to Willis (1996b), there are six main types of tasks which teachers can use with any topic:

1. Listing: Listing type of tasks include brainstorming and fact-finding activities. In brainstorming, learners use their own knowledge or experience to add new dimensions to the topic. Learners try to find out new things by asking questions to each other or to other people or by referring to books in fact-finding. Listing tasks result in a lot of talk while learners try to explain their findings or ideas.

2. Ordering and Sorting: Four main processes are included in ordering and sorting tasks. Learners may sequence items, actions or events according to their chronological or a logical order, or learners may rank items by using their personal values or some specified criteria. The third process is to categorize items under some given headings. It is also possible to categorize items when the categories are not given at all.

3. Comparing: In these tasks, there is the comparison of information of similar nature but from different sources or versions so that learners identify common and/or similar points.

4. Problem-solving: Learners' intellectual and reasoning powers are included in such a challenging task type. The processes employed by learners and the time scale take shape according to the type and the complexity of the problem. Real-life problems encourage learners to make hypotheses, describe their experiences, compare some alternative solutions and agree on a final solution. In completion tasks, learners are engaged in the efforts to predict the ending or beginning of a text.

5. Sharing Personal Experiences: In this type of tasks, learners talk freely about themselves and learn about the experiences of others. Such open tasks are more difficult to manage because the resulting interaction resembles a casual social conversation. Besides, this type of interaction is not as goal-oriented as the ones used in other task types.

6. Creative Tasks: Creative tasks are some kind of projects in which learners work in pairs or groups. These tasks have more stages than the other task types, and they may include the use of the other task types as summarized above. Learners may have the need to do some out-of-class research. Organizational skills and team work are required in order to complete the task successfully. Generally, the outcome is also beneficial for the learners other than the ones who produced it.

Besides this classification in which tasks are categorized in six groups as listed above, according to Willis (1996b), tasks are also classified into two groups as *closed* and *open* tasks in terms of their ways of achieving the outcome. Willis (1996b) supports that closed tasks are highly structured tasks with very specific goals. For instance, learners are required to read two different versions of the same text and find four differences in the usage of sentence connectors in two minutes time. Most comparing tasks form the examples of closed tasks in which the instructions are very specific, and there is only one possible outcome and one way of achieving it. According to Willis (1996b), open tasks, on the other hand, are more loosely structured, and they have less specific goals such as to compare the memories of grandparents or to exchange opinions on a theme. Open tasks still have goals, but they are less predictable because the range of learners' experience is so wide. Besides, some task types are between open and closed types. Logic problems, for example, have one specific goal and one outcome, but

learners may use different ways to achieve the outcome. Ranking tasks and real-life problem-solving tasks have also specific goals, but learners' outcomes may be different from one other's, and they may use different ways in order to reach their outcomes.

Willis (1996b: 28) says, "*Generally speaking, the more specific the goals, the easier it is for students to evaluate their success and the more likely they are to get involved with the task and work independently.*" The goal of a task and the possible outcome the learners are expected to achieve are the key factors which give learners the motivation they need to complete the task and to benefit from this learning opportunity. In short, tasks with specific goals encourage learners to interact in the target language by enabling them to sustain their level of motivation during the task.

Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) propose a classification of tasks according to the type of interaction which occurs in task accomplishment. Tasks are classified into five categories as follows:

1. Jigsaw tasks: Jigsaw tasks engage learners in combining different pieces of information in order to form a whole. Four individuals or groups may have the different pieces of a story, for instance, and they try to put the pieces together to get the whole story.

2. Information-gap tasks: One learner or a group of learners has one set of information; another learner or a group of learners has a complementary set of information. In order to complete the task, learners are supposed to negotiate and find out the information of the other party.

3. Problem-solving tasks: A problem and a set of information are presented, and learners are expected to find a solution for the problem. Generally, there is only one possible solution for the problem.

4. Decision-making tasks: Learners are given a problem, but in this type of tasks, learners are also informed that there are a number of possible outcomes for the problem. Learners choose one of the solutions through negotiation and discussion.

5. Opinion-exchange tasks: Without having the need to reach an agreement, learners are expected to be engaged in discussions and exchanging their ideas.

Beside these classifications of tasks, Richards and Rodgers (2001) distinguish some specific characteristics of tasks as: one-way or two-way (whether there is a one-way exchange of information or a two-way exchange in the task), convergent or divergent (whether learners are expected to reach a common goal or several different goals), collaborative or competitive (whether learners collaborate or compete with each other while they are carrying out a task), single or multiple outcomes (whether the task has a single outcome or many different outcomes), concrete or abstract language (whether the task requires the use of concrete language or abstract language), simple or complex processing (whether the task requires learners to employ simple or complex cognitive processing), simple or complex language (whether the task requires learners to use linguistically simple or complex language) and reality-based or not reality-based (whether the task involves a real-world activity or a pedagogical activity which cannot be found in the real-world).

Finally, it is worth mentioning Ellis's task classification which is based on task reciprocity. Ellis (2001: 49) states, "*Reciprocal tasks are tasks that require a two-way flow of information between a speaker and a listener; they are speaking tasks. Non-reciprocal tasks require only a one-way flow of information from a speaker to a listener.*" What Widdowson (1978) calls as reciprocal and non-reciprocal activities is the same with reciprocal and non-reciprocal tasks mentioned. According to Ellis (2001), this classification is best explained through a continuum rather than a dichotomy. At one end of the continuum exist non-reciprocal tasks, and learners do not have the opportunity to interact with each other or the teacher. At the other end exist reciprocal tasks which can be achieved successfully if learners interact their meanings with each other. In between these two ends, there are tasks which permit learners to interact, but these permissions are in a way restricted. In other words, tasks are distinguished in terms of their varying degrees of reciprocity.

1.3.5.5. The Advantages of Learning through Tasks

In addition to the classification of tasks, it is vitally important to discuss the advantages of TBLT in terms of the learners' point of view. According to Willis (1996b), learners who are not used to TBLT may not realize its advantages, may need some time to understand the requirements of tasks and may need to be persuaded of the benefits. Some research carried out in this field shows that learners find it fun to work with their classmates in groups. Köksal (1993, cited in Willis, 1996b), for instance, carried out a research at Eyüboğlu High School, Istanbul Turkey with secondary level students aged around fifteen and collected

data showing that learners have positive reactions towards task-based activities. Besides, Council for Cultural Co-operation Education Committee (2000) recommends TBLT as a supportive approach to communicative language teaching.

According to Willis (1996b), doing a task in pairs or groups provides learners with many advantages. The privacy of a pair or a small group gives learners the possibility to try out the language items they know and also the ones they think they know. Tasks also require spontaneous interaction, which means that learners compose what to say next in real time and find the necessary expressions while listening to what is being said. Another advantage of task work is that while trying to achieve a goal, learners have the opportunity to observe how the others express similar meanings. The act of observing other learners functions as a corrective feedback. Unlike the teacher-led interaction in which learners only respond to questions, interaction in tasks involves the negotiating turns to speak, responding to questions and reacting to others' responses. It is also another important fact that learners use language purposefully and co-operatively in tasks. Willis (1996b) insists that learners work in groups and try to find the best language items to express their meaning; and thus, achieve communicative goals of the task. In short, if learners are not accustomed to task work, they may not realize the advantages; therefore, it is necessary to explain the benefits of TBLT, and how it functions as a facilitator of learning.

1.3.6. The Framework of Task-Based Language Teaching

Willis has made some important contributions to the TBLT literature. Especially, her framework of TBLT, which consists of three parts: pre-task, task cycle and language focus, is important because it clearly illustrates the basic procedures of TBLT framework. According to Willis (1996b), in the pre-task phase, the teacher introduces the topic and the task and teaches some necessary new vocabulary. The task cycle phase provides learners with a chance to use the target language to complete the task. The teacher gives feedback whenever it is needed, at the planning stage or after the report. According to the type of the task, exposure to language in use such as listening to the recordings of other people doing the same task can be provided either before or during the task cycle. As Willis (1996b) emphasizes, three basic conditions of language learning which are exposure, language use and motivation are achieved until the end of the task cycle phase. The language focus phase includes a closer study of some specific features which naturally occur in the language used during the task. The analysis and the

practice components of the language focus phase provide the desirable extra condition of language learning, which is explicit study of the language form.

According to Willis (1996b), language learners have the need of two things – variety and security. The use of different topics, texts and task types gives learners the variety they need. The sense of security is provided with the framework of TBLT which has three distinct phases. Learners are aware that the task cycle phase is followed by the language focus phase; therefore, they feel less worried about the new language they meet during the task cycle.

The teacher's role is important in TBLT lessons. According to Willis (1996b), teachers function as a facilitator throughout the process and balance the amount of exposure and the language use. The teacher sets tasks up, makes sure that learners understand and helps them to come to a close. In TBLT, the emphasis is on learners who do things in pairs or groups and use the target language in order to achieve an outcome. Despite the fact that learners perform tasks independently, the teacher still has the control over the process, which means that s/he can stop all the activity whenever it is needed. In a broader sense, the teacher functions as a course guide who explains the objectives of the task to learners and how the parts of the framework achieve these objectives. Knowing what they will achieve in the task increases the learners' motivation.

Willis (1996b) states that the TBLT framework has a highly flexible nature. The components of the framework can be shaped easily according to learners' needs. If learners are insecure false beginners, for instance, the report component can be skipped. However, more time can be spent on this component if learners are fluent and confident. It is also a fact that if the topic is familiar for the learners and the task is short, then it may be possible to set two task cycles in one lesson. On the other hand, the framework can be divided into two lesson hours with unfamiliar topics and complex tasks such as problem solving. All in all, the familiarity of the topic, the complexity of the task and the learners' needs decide how the components of the framework should be weighted. A closer study of the components of the framework one by one will clarify possible confusions.

1.3.6.1. The Pre-task Phase

As Willis (1996b) mentions, the pre-task phase is the shortest stage, which lasts between two and twenty minutes. The amount of the time depends on the familiarity of the topic and the complexity of the task itself. The teacher can prepare the task by using a course book or a reference book or by himself. Much advance preparation is not needed if a course book is decided to be used because a good textbook introduces the topic and supplies some preparatory activities for learners. However, if the teacher decides to prepare his or her own task, there will be more preparation to do beforehand such as providing some suitable pictures, creating vocabulary-building ideas or sometimes making a recording of native speakers doing the task. Although preparing a task for the first time involves some preliminary work, it can be used again and again with different classes. Besides, when learners get accustomed to TBLT, they can work independently without needing much teacher guidance.

According to Willis (1996b), the pre-task phase has three steps to be followed. First, the teacher introduces the topic. Simple topic areas such as family, school or work do not need long introduction. However if the topic is unfamiliar for the learners, there may be a need to clarify the new points. Second, the teacher identifies some topic language. As Willis (1996b) emphasizes, the aim is to introduce some very important topic-related vocabulary so that learners will learn or activate these words and phrases which will be of great use during the task and outside the classroom. It is not very easy for the teacher to predict how much of the topic-related language exists in learners' vocabulary stock. However, the aim here is not to teach a large amount of vocabulary or a specific grammatical structure. Just the opposite, learners are encouraged to recall some vital vocabulary so that they will handle the task more easily. Newton (2001) suggests some options for dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary. In the pre-task phase, learners can work in groups to brainstorm a list of words related to the task topic, do a dictionary search or match a list of words with the definitions.

The teacher can set different kinds of pre-task activities in order to give learners relevant exposure and create interest to do the task. Willis (1996b) gives the following useful advice on the kinds of activities to do in the classroom setting. The introductory focus on topic and language can be done by the use of teacher-led brainstorming activities, for instance. The teacher can write the words learners recall about the topic on the board so that if learners feel stuck at any stage of the task, the words and phrases on the board may help them out. Or the

teacher can give jumbled-up words and phrases related to the topic and expect learners to classify them. If the teacher puts one item which does not fit the others, learners find this odd one out. Or the teacher can show some pictures to be matched with the phrases related to the topic. Recounting a similar experience is also beneficial. If the teacher has any experience related to the topic, s/he can tell this story. All these different types of pre-task activities provide learners with exposure to the target language and increase their level of motivation to do the coming task.

The third step in the pre-task phase is giving instructions. According to Willis (1996b), the teacher needs to make sure that all learners understand what the task involves, what the goals of the task are and what outcome is expected from them. In fact, learners need to be informed about how they will begin the task, what each learner will do and how much time is allowed for the task. The rule Willis (1996b) suggests is that the more specific the instructions and the goal, the more easily and successfully learners perform the task; therefore, the teacher is expected to give clear and specific instructions and set the goals clearly. Besides, Willis (1996b) suggests different ways to provide instruction. Learners, for instance, may read the instructions by themselves if a text -book is used in the task. Or the teacher may demonstrate the task with a good student. Playing audio or video recording of some native speakers doing the task is another possible way of making the instruction and the process clearer. Or the achievements of the last year's class may be demonstrated. Willis (1996b: 46) says, "*Whether you choose spoken or written instructions, and with or without a demonstration, remember that instruction-giving is a truly communicative use of the target language.*" Instruction -giving in the target language provides beneficial exposure while learners are making efforts to grasp the requirements of the task. A shift to learners' mother tongue is accepted when learners have a major misunderstanding of the instructions required.

As soon as the instruction -giving part is completed, learners should be given some preparation time before doing the task. Preparation time provides learners with many advantages. According to Foster (1996: 134),

"A task done without planning time is more likely to lead to students choosing relatively undemanding language. It also increases the chances that they will rely on readily available vocabulary rather than trawling the less easily accessed parts of their English lexicon. Students without time to plan are very much more likely to pause frequently and at length. All these effects are stronger on tasks that are cognitively more demanding presumably because students do not

have the attentional resources sufficient to deal with the difficulties of both language content and language form at the same time."

In other words, if learners are given sufficient time to prepare themselves for the task, their outcome becomes richer in terms of complexity, the variety of syntax, the range of vocabulary and fluency. The planning of the details of the information to be conveyed may cause learners to create more complex ideas and more accurate or sophisticated forms (Mori, 2002). According to Willis (1996b), the length of the preparation time depends on the familiarity of the topic and the cognitive demands of the task. Problem-solving and creative tasks are more complex than the other types of tasks. Willis (1996b) states the rule as the more complex the task, the more unfamiliar the topic, the more time should be allowed. Two minutes would be enough for a short task on a familiar topic, but a complex task on a less familiar topic requires ten minutes or so. The preparation time allows learners to plan their ideas about what to say and how to say it in the task cycle phase. At the end of the preparation time, learners feel ready to start the task.

1.3.6.2. The Task Cycle Phase

As Willis (1996b) mentions, the task cycle is vitally important because it provides learners with the opportunity to use whatever language they have without the direct support of the teacher; and thus, it increases learners' confidence in using the target language by themselves. According to Willis (1996b), the task cycle has three parts: the task stage, the planning stage and the report stage.

During the task stage, learners work in pairs or groups. Working in groups, according to Widdowson (1990), gives learners the opportunity of interaction through which they define themselves as group members. Willis (1996b) assigns important roles to the teacher. No matter what task type is assigned, the important thing is that the teacher should stop teaching during the task stage and just monitor. The teacher should allow learners to do the task on their own by resisting the temptation to help. If learners start to use the mother tongue in a group, the teacher is supposed to go over and encourage the use of the target language. However, if a group is seriously in trouble with a structure or a vocabulary item which is vitally important to continue the task, then the teacher may help them out and withdraw again. Newton (2001) suggests some options for learners having difficulty with vocabulary items in the task cycle phase. Learners can use a glossary which allows them to learn vocabulary items without using much time. Learners can also use an interactive glossary which involves the definition of a

vocabulary item on one side of the paper and the word on the other. However, the most challenging option is that learners should be encouraged to negotiate the meaning of unfamiliar items using group members as resource.

The teacher's monitoring role is vitally important if learners' active use of the target language is desired. In order to achieve this goal, the teacher should make sure that all pair or group members are doing the task appropriately, and they are certainly aware of the goal of the task. According to Willis (1996b), no matter how weak their level of language, all learners should be encouraged to use the target language, and possible errors of form should be forgiven. Additionally, when there is a real major breakdown in communication, the teacher should help learners until the problem is over. In other words, the teacher should create a suitable atmosphere where learners actively think of different ways in order to express their meaning themselves.

The task stage gives learners the chance to use the target language on their own in order to solve a problem set by the teacher, and this helps learners to develop fluency in the target language and strategies for communication. However, while trying to achieve the goals of the task in a certain time limit, learners focus on the meaning they need to express rather than the forms of the language they use. This naturally leads to the fact that they will be more concerned with the use of lexis and lexical chunks while ignoring grammatical accuracy. Besides, some learners may achieve great communicative strategies by using their mimics and gestures so that they free themselves from the linguistic challenge of tasks. According to Willis (1996b), in order to overcome the risk of having fluency at the expense of accuracy, learners have the planning and the report stages where they can stretch their language development further.

The time limit for the task stage may vary from one minute to ten minutes depending on the type of the task and its complexity. In order not to cause boredom, the teacher can stop the activity even if some pairs or groups still have things to do. Willis (1996b) points out that as soon as learners finish their task performances, the teacher should talk about some important points s/he has observed while monitoring and make positive comments on the way learners have handled the task. However, the teacher should not make a detailed analysis of the important points because this study is done in the following two stages: the planning and the report.

As soon as learners complete the task in small groups or pairs, they feel the need to learn how the others have performed the task. This is one of the reasons for the report stage where learners report on some aspects of their tasks in written or oral form to the whole class. However, the language used in public has different qualities than spontaneous language such as being planned, final and permanent. Willis (1996b: 55) states, "*For this public stage, students will naturally want to use their best language and avoid making mistakes that others might notice.*" This means that learners force themselves to use the best language they can, and they avoid making mistakes which may be discovered by the other learners. Before public performance, learners organize what they want to say, check some problematic points, try to use appropriate language and find new words to express their meaning more exactly. These efforts in order to reach the polished final draft constitute the planning stage activities.

According to Willis (1996b), the more public and permanent the presentation, the longer time learners need for the planning stage. Learners may have a presentation before the class, or their presentation can be recorded for some other weak classes, or the aim can be a kind of publication in a newspaper or a magazine. During the planning stage, learners experiment with the target language and produce their final draft with the help of their group members, the teacher, grammar books and dictionaries; and thus, this process gives learners the opportunity to drive their language development forward and helps them to gain new insights into language use. If learners are informed at the beginning of the task cycle that they are going to present their findings at the report stage, they tend to use more complex and accurate language during the task stage.

The planning stage comes after the task stage, and it involves the studies which help learners to report more effectively. Willis (1996b) gives a list of criteria to be followed by the teacher and specifies some roles for the teacher. The teacher assigns specific roles for learners within pairs or groups to report the findings to the class, to be the writer or to be the person to use the dictionary. The type of presentation is agreed beforehand. Learners may have oral or written presentations, or they can record their findings on an audio cassette or a video. The purpose of the report is important for learners. In other words, learners should be aware of the points which they need to look for in each other's reports. It is also important that learners should know the resources which they are free to use, and who they are going to make this presentation for. The teacher is supposed to inform learners about how long their presentation will be. It is preferable to set a short time limit for oral presentations, and a number for words or paragraphs may be assigned for written presentations.

While learners are planning how they will report their findings, the teacher functions as language adviser in order to help learners to express their ideas exactly. According to Willis (1996b), the teacher is a valuable source in order to respond to the needs of learners. However, it is essential that the teacher should wait until s/he is asked to help rather than being eager to suggest more appropriate forms. Learners should experiment with the target language and find the correct forms on their own instead of being told by the teacher. The teacher is supposed to comment on good points and encourage the creative use of language. Willis (1996b) holds the view that when learners want to be corrected, the teacher should correct the most important errors, which endanger the intended meaning. For errors of form, however, learners should be encouraged to correct themselves. Another important point is that learners should help each other by editing the drafts of each other and listening to each other's contributions.

To sum up, the planning stage maximizes learning opportunities. While preparing themselves for the report stage, learners improve their use of the target language. In other words, the report stage forms a linguistic challenge for learners to upgrade their use of language. At the end of the planning stage, learners will be ready to report their findings.

According to Willis (1996b), the last stage of the task cycle is the report stage which presents less learning opportunity than the planning stage. The time for the presentation of reports may change from thirty seconds to two minutes. If the class is large, it is not necessary to have every pair or group report so that repetition and boredom are avoided. The reports of learners provide valuable data which show their current level of progress. According to Willis (1996b: 58, 59), *"Their reports will not resemble native-speaker language; there are bound to be strange wordings and grammatical errors. What is of vital importance is to acknowledge that students are offering them as the best they can achieve at that moment, given the linguistic resources and time available."* It is also important that the teacher should always be encouraging in his or her reaction towards learners' reports. Learners' output should not be devalued by commenting negatively. The teacher is supposed to focus on points which learners are getting right. The areas where learners are showing improvement should be praised. As Willis (1996b) believes, positive reactions are of great importance because they increase learners' self-esteem and motivation.

During the report stage, the role assigned to the teacher is to act as a chairperson who introduces presentations, sets a reason to listen to and sums up at the end. There should be a certain purpose for listening. Learners may be required to note down the most important points of each other's presentations, or they may be asked to find the differences between their own presentations and the ones their classmates present. According to Willis (1996b), another point is that the teacher should avoid making corrections during presentations. Instead, s/he can note down the phrases or words which need correction later on. This is because interruption and correction may be discouraging. When presentations are over, the teacher is supposed to give feedback positively. Good expressions which learners have used should be emphasized. Willis (1996b) suggests that the best way for correction be to write the problematic sentences on the board by leaving a blank where the error occurs so that learners can be asked to find appropriate ways to fill in the blank.

To sum up, during the planning stage, learners force their limits due to the linguistic challenge of going public. With the help of the teacher, their pairs and course books, learners compose what they have found during the task. The report stage leads learners to upgrade their language. While getting ready to present their findings, learners focus on both meaning and form. During the report stage, learners read or listen to each other's output, which also provides learners with valuable exposure.

1.3.6.3. The Language Focus Phase

The last phase of the TBLT framework is the language focus. According to Willis (1996b), the task cycle focuses on learners' understanding the exposure and expressing their meaning in order to achieve an outcome, which means learners have the necessary three conditions for learning: exposure, use and motivation. The language focus phase, however, provides learners with a desirable condition for learning: explicit language instruction. All activities done in that phase include an element of analysis of linguistic items. Learners are supposed to identify and think about particular features of language form and language use in their own time and at their own level. This process will naturally lead to the recognition and understanding of meanings and uses of linguistic items. In terms of vocabulary, Newton (2001) suggests the use of vocabulary logs in the language focus phase. Vocabulary logs help learners to reinforce their learning. Learners collect the new words they encounter in communication so that they can have revisions whenever they need.

Willis (1996b) states that two types of activities are done in the language focus phase: language analysis activities and language practice activities. The aim of such activities is not to perfect learners' production. Form-focused practice and analysis activities make it easy for learners to pronounce and memorize useful phrases and common patterns so that they can try out new combinations on their own. The aim is to draw their attention to forms which they have been exposed to during the stages of TBLT framework up to that point.

According to Willis (1996b), language analysis activities are also called consciousness-raising, language awareness activities or meta-communicative tasks. The aim is to focus explicitly on language form and use. Analysis activities promote learners' observation and investigation of specific points. The teacher should provide the necessary classroom situation where learners can test their own hypotheses and make their own discoveries so that they will recognize the new points and try to add these points to their developing picture of the target language. Willis (1996b: 103) states, "*Analysis activities give learners time to systematize and build on the grammar they already know, to make and test hypotheses about the grammar and to increase their repertoire of useful lexical items.*" Learners can investigate new features by asking individual questions. The most important thing is that learners should be working at their own level and at their own pace.

Willis (1996b) specifies four main starting points for analysis activities which are semantic concepts (themes, notions and functions), words or parts of a word, categories of meaning or use and phonology (intonation, stress and sounds) and suggests some typical analysis activities to be performed. While studying semantic concepts, learners rely mainly on lexis in order to find the main themes. Expressions referring to time, place and people can be studied. Activities focusing on themes prove useful to increase learners' vocabulary. Willis (1996b: 108) says, "*Sometimes, identifying the theme words and phrases will help students to notice lexical repetition and how this can form cohesive ties through the text.*" Activities focusing on words and parts of words such as -ing, -ed, -s, -ly, -tion or prefixes such as -un, -mis, -inter, -over, however, help learners to increase their insight in grammar, sentence structure and word formation. Learners may also be given categories of meaning or use of words or phrases with a list of words to be matched to these categories. For a study of time and place with prepositions, for instance, first different categories may be studied, and then learners may be given some prepositions to match with the categories. Phonology also deserves a close analysis by learners. Willis (1996b) mentions that with the help of recordings, learners learn to identify message-bearing words in the flow of speech and recognize tone units and stressed

words. Such listening activities enable learners to increase their comprehension abilities and to cope with the flow of speech.

Analysis activities are useful because they give learners confidence and a sense of security. As soon as learners finish analysis activities, it is also useful to have practice activities for consolidation and revision. Practice activities involve the study of the features of language which have already occurred in analysis activities. According to Willis (1996b), there are different types of practice activities such as repetition, listening and completion, deletion, memory challenge, dictionary exercises, personal recordings and computer games.

The teacher does not present language as new to learners during analysis and practice stages; on the contrary, language analysis activities help learners to reflect on the language they have studied, and language practice activities enable learners to use the same linguistic items in different exercise types. All language samples used in the language focus activities are taken from the texts and recordings which learners have already studied during the first two phases of the TBLT framework. The underlying reason is that while learners progress through a course, all the texts and recordings they are exposed to constitute a similar corpus of language. According to Willis (1996b), it is also possible to call this corpus a pedagogic corpus because all learners in the class are familiar with it. It is highly advisable that this language should be used as a source for all types of following activities. Such a corpus solves the problem of finding a meaningful concept. It enables learners to analyze and practice a language which is contextualized, authentic and familiar to them.

To sum up, the framework of TBLT is based on three stages, namely pre-task, task cycle and language focus. These three stages form the essential components of tasks and are well agreed by the proponents of the approach (Willis 1996b; Skehan 1996b).

1.3.7. Discussions on TBLT

TBLT is a new discussion point of the scientists in the field of second language acquisition, and a lot of research has been devoted to it, and much more needs to be devoted. Although there are some proponents of TBLT like Willis and Skehan, many other linguists and methodologists put their efforts into the issues concerning the practicality and implementation of TBLT in educational settings. Some support the literature with the studies while some others criticize TBLT for a few reasons. In this part, those discussions and studies backing them were

looked into in order to have a sounder point of view that was supposed to lead a way to the present study.

1.3.7.1. Discussions on Noticing and Consciousness-Raising

The theoretical basis for noticing stems from the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge refers to conscious knowledge of grammar rules learned through formal classroom instruction. For instance, a learner knows every rule about verbs followed by infinitives and gerunds but makes frequent mistakes in natural speech. S/he can use this knowledge when s/he has time to think. On the contrary, implicit knowledge refers to unconscious, internalized knowledge of a language that is available for spontaneous speech. For instance, an English person speaks English with perfect use of infinitives and gerunds. It is possible that s/he has no idea about the rules about the verbs followed by infinitives and gerunds.

Cross (2002) states that the significance of the role of conscious and unconscious processes and the notion of interference in second language development has been the center of interest in the field of cognitive psychology. The problem is whether explicit grammar knowledge can become implicit knowledge. Krashen (1981, 1982) proposed a non-interface position which claims that explicit knowledge can never become implicit knowledge because these two types of knowledge are located in different parts of the brain. On the other hand, the interface position claims that explicit knowledge can have an impact on implicit knowledge. The interface position is divided into two views, the strong and the weak position. The strong interface position claims that explicit knowledge becomes internalized through practice, like the acquisition of other skills. The weak interface position claims views similar to Krashen's. Explicit knowledge can never become implicit knowledge, but it can aid or foster the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

McLaughlin (1987, cited in Nassaji, 2000) states that learning a second language involves two cognitive processes: automatization and restructuring. Automatization refers to a quick and effortless response to linguistic stimuli. Such responses turn into routinized and automatized responses through subsequent responses. However, restructuring refers to the time when learners understand the input in a different way. It is described as a total, discontinuous or qualitative change in a cognitive patterning. According to McLaughlin (1990, cited in Nassaji, 2000), any cognitive development and any transition from one stage of development to the next

requires such restructuring processes. The restructuring view holds that L2 development involves much more than moving from controlled to automatized processes. L2 development, however, involves reorganizing, refining and integrating new information into the previous stock.

It is a fact that attention to form is central to the restructuring processes. Nassaji (2000) states that many second language researchers believe that attention to form has a central role in the cognitive process of second language development. According to Schmidt (1990, cited in Nassaji, 2000), restructuring of grammar takes place when learners attend to and notice features in input. If learners pay attention to form and notice the gap between their current level of grammatical knowledge and the communicative demand of the context, L2 development occurs.

According to Batstone (1996), *"Noticing is basically the idea that if learners pay attention to form and meaning of certain language structures in input, this will contribute to the internalization of the rule."* Ryan (2001, cited in Noonan, 2004) states that the construction of implicit knowledge can only be done by the learners only. Nobody can implant rules into that network. Learners extract from the available information around them the regularities that fit their knowledge system. The teacher's job is to make learners aware of some of these patterns. Ellis (2002a) states that the primary nature of explicit knowledge is to develop awareness of rather than production of target forms. Language awareness can be described as sensitivity to grammatical, lexical or phonological features and the effect on meaning brought about by the use of different forms (Hales, 1997). This awareness will help learners to notice target forms in future input, and this will facilitate the eventual acquisition of these forms as implicit knowledge. Thornbury (1997) suggests that teachers should promote noticing by focusing learners' attention on the targeted language in the input so that the distance between learners' present state of their interlanguage and the target language might be covered. In his study, Mohamed (2004) found that inductive and deductive consciousness-raising tasks are similarly welcome by language learners.

It is necessary to mention linear and organic models of language acquisition before introducing consciousness-raising. According to Nunan (1998), the linear model holds that learners acquire one target language item at a time, in a sequential, step-by-step fashion, and learners should show their mastery of one thing before moving to the next one. However, it has been observed that learners do not acquire another language in a building-block fashion as

suggested by the linear model. Kellerman (1983, cited in Nunan, 1998), for instance, emphasizes the u-shape behaviour of linguistic items in learners' interlanguage development. Accuracy does not increase in a linear fashion, but it sometimes decreases during the learning process. According to Nunan (1998), the organic model, however, claims that learners do not learn one thing perfectly at a time, but numerous things simultaneously and imperfectly. Structures are not learned in isolation, but they interact with each other.

The organic view of language learning is interrelated to the notion of grammatical instruction as consciousness-raising (CR henceforth). According to Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985, cited in Cross, 2002), CR refers to the drawing of learners' attention to the formal properties of the language. Nunan (1991) states that CR rejects the split between conscious learning and subconscious acquisition. It also contrasts with traditional grammar instruction. Form-function relations are given more attention. Besides, it is based on an organic rather than linear view of learning. It completely rejects the naive notion that once something is taught, it is certainly learned.

Ellis (2002a) states that the main idea of grammar teaching is to enable learners to internalize the structures so that learners can use them in everyday communication. According to Ellis (2002a: 167), "*Consciousness-raising, as I use the term, involves an attempt to equip learners with an understanding of a specific grammatical feature – to develop declarative rather than procedural knowledge of it.*" Ellis (2002a) gives a list of activities which follow the main characteristics of consciousness-raising activities. First of all, there should be an attempt to isolate a specific linguistic feature for focused attention. According to the list of activities suggested by Ellis (2002a), the second step is to provide data in order to illustrate the targeted feature, and possible explicit rule giving helps learners to focus on the form and the use of it. Learners are supposed to use intellectual effort to understand the targeted feature. Learners may have a misunderstanding or an incomplete understanding of the grammatical structure, and according to Ellis (2002a), this leads to a clarification in the form of further data, description or explanation. Learners may also be required to articulate the rule which describes the grammatical structure. As Ellis (2002a) mentions, the difference between practice activities and CR activities stems from the fact that the aim in CR activities is not to enable learners to perform a structure correctly with the help of repetitions and immediate feedback giving, but to develop explicit knowledge of grammar, to help learners to know about it. In short, it is supported that practice is mainly behavioural, but CR is to achieve concept-forming in orientation.

Willis and Willis (1996b) state that current concerns with CR stem from a reaction against approaches to language learning which pays little attention to the contribution of instruction. For these language specialists, CR is seen as problem solving. Learners are encouraged to notice specific features of languages, to draw conclusions from what they have noticed and to organize their view of language using the conclusions they have drawn. According to Willis and Willis (1996b), this quality of CR carries a resemblance to a three-part process; observe-hypothesize-experiment, described by Lewis.

To sum up, according to Cross (2002), learners may notice a particular feature in input when following formal instruction as CR, and CR activities have the aim of drawing learners' attention to the formal properties of language. As Ellis (2002a) mentions, CR is directed at explicit knowledge. In other words, in their communicative output, learners are not expected to use a specific target form which has been brought to their attention through formal instruction. However, noticing has supposed implications for language processing and the actual acquisition of linguistic features. The internalization of rules is aimed, and this can take place if learners pay attention to both form and meaning.

Noticing is a key condition in language acquisition. Schmidt (1990, cited in Cross, 2002) states that what learners notice in input becomes intake for learning. Van Patten (1993, cited in Richards, 2002) defines intake as the subset of the input that is comprehended and attended to in some way. Intake contains the linguistic data which are available for acquisition. According to Van Patten (1993, cited in Richards, 2002), some part of the input remains in long-term memory and establishes basis for language acquisition. Such factors as complexity, saliency, frequency and need affect how items pass from input to intake.

Schmidt's 'noticing hypothesis' holds that whether learners deliberately attend to a linguistic form in the input, or they notice it purely unintentionally, if it is noticed, it becomes intake. This means that noticing is a necessary condition for language acquisition. According to Ellis (1997), there are two main stages involved in the process of input becoming implicit knowledge. First, input becomes intake. This means that learners notice language features in input and absorb them into their short-term memories. Second, intake is integrated into learners' developing interlanguage systems and causes some changes in the system. New language features become parts of long-term memory. Similarly, Kihlstrom (1984, cited in Cross, 2002) suggests that consciousness and short-term memory are the same, the language items to be

stored in long-term memory must be first processed in short-term memory, and the items not processed in short-term memory or not sent to long-term memory from short-term memory will be lost. Therefore, Schmidt (1990, cited in Cross, 2002) concludes that if consciousness is equivalent to short-term store, storage without conscious awareness is not possible.

In conclusion, some researchers such as Smith (1981, cited in Fotos, 1993), Rutherford (1987) and McLaughlin (1987, cited in Fotos, 1993) suggest that noticing acts as a trigger for language processing, and learners go through four processing steps. First, a feature in input is either consciously or unconsciously noticed. Second, learners unconsciously make a comparison between their existing linguistic knowledge and the new input. Third, learners produce new linguistic hypotheses about the differences between the new information and the current interlanguage. Fourth, these new hypotheses are tested through paying additional attention to input and producing output using the new form. In short, it is believed that when learners notice a feature in subsequent communicative input, the acquisition of that feature may occur (Batstone, 2002).

It is certain that noticing has a mediating role between input and memory systems. According to Robinson (1995, cited in Cross, 2002), it is inside short-term memory that noticing must take place, and short-term memory is triggered by different influences on noticing. Schmidt (1990, cited in Cross, 2002) lists some factors influencing noticing. One of the influences is *instruction* which provides structured, differentiated input. Such input assists noticing by focusing attention on language features. According to Schmidt, instruction may have an important role in encouraging learners to notice features by establishing expectation about the target language. *Frequency* is another influence on noticing. It is believed that when an item appears more frequently in input, the possibility that the item will be noticed and integrated into the interlanguage system is increased. *Perceptual salience* of the item in input is also an important factor. If the item appears more prominently in input, the chance of noticing it will be greater. *Skill level* is another factor which refers to how ready learners are to notice new forms in input. Noticing ability changes from person to person; some people are better input processors. Schmidt states that the term *task demands* refers to the way in which a task causes learners to notice certain features that are necessary in order to carry out that task. Tasks must be designed to force learners to process the language.

Attention is an important factor in noticing, and both Schmidt and McLaughlin focus their attention on 'attention to form' supporting that attention to form triggers

restructuring. However, according to Sheen (2000), the use of attention differs for these researchers. According to Schmidt (1993, cited in Sheen, 2000), attention is directed to input in order to trigger noticing and thus learning/acquisition. McLaughlin (1990, cited in Sheen, 2000), on the other hand, states that attention comes into play post-learning, which means that learners need different degrees of attention in order to carry out tasks at the controlled processing stage, and this leads to automaticity and restructuring.

To sum up, Schmidt (1990, cited in Cross, 2002) emphasizes such factors as instruction, frequency, perceptual salience, skill level and task demand which are believed to influence the act of noticing. These factors need to be taken into account while designing tasks if noticing is desired.

1.3.7.2. Discussions on the Weak Points of TBLT and Focus on Form

Kim (1998) emphasizes that TBLT has both some strengths and weaknesses and lists the weaknesses. First of all, TBLT has limited theoretical rationale based on research. There is much to be discovered about this method because there is not sufficient empirical data research that has been performed in real classroom situations. Second; selection, grading and sequencing of the content of the tasks cause problems. In terms of selection, all tasks cannot be applied at the beginning level because tasks require conversational competence from the beginning. In terms of grading and sequencing, it is very difficult to determine which task types are more difficult than the others until they are performed in class. Sometimes tasks can be very confusing for students, and they may arrive at unexpected results. Third, task complexity is another problematic point. It is closely related to the limited variety of task types and unclear divisions in task classification. Determining the degree of task complexity can be achieved when the task types and the levels of analysis are clarified. Fourth, TBLT is said to be structured and focused more on forms. It tends to involve grammatical aspects as well. However, a communicative methodology emphasizes meaning and fluency more than it does form and accuracy. Fifth, language learners are supposed to find ways to clarify the meaning when they do not understand, or they need to make themselves understood.

Sheen (1994) also criticizes some points of task-based syllabi. First of all, research, according to Sheen, indicates that deductive methods produce better results in terms of language acquisition than do inductive methods. Second, Sheen criticizes Long and Crookes (1992, cited in Mc Laughlin, 2001) for declaring that research shows that task-based syllabi reflect the

processes involved in language acquisition and failing to cite adequate research data. Sheen supports that a consensus on how language acquisition takes place does not exist at all. Third, Long and Crookes, according to Sheen, do not specify the nature of tasks which aim to draw the student attention on form. Fourth, task-based syllabi and French Immersion programs emphasize the use of comprehensible input as an important factor to induce acquisition. The students in French Immersion programs show high usage levels of non-target structures. Therefore, it can be questioned whether task-based syllabi cause an accurate second language use. Fifth, Sheen criticizes Long and Crookes for believing that language-learning programs must consider the specific conditions in which students will use the target language. Sheen finds this idea highly unrealistic because it is not possible to guess under what conditions students will use the target language in the future. Therefore, Sheen concludes that task-based approaches limit themselves to Survival English and ESP roles.

Skehan (1998) lists several major problems about task-based language teaching. First of all, although early empirical research strongly supports the use of tasks as an effective way of language teaching, the amount of research is not sufficient. Second, no task-based program has been implemented and evaluated. Until this has been accomplished, and positive results have been obtained, there will always be doubts and criticism. Third, task finiteness needs to be examined closely. For instance, a task such as designing a questionnaire requires many microtasks which must be performed successfully in order to complete the larger task. This means that a task can be completed if a large number of basic production rules are known and accurately performed. When the task is the communicative use of the language, the requirements are more complex.

Concerning the weaknesses mentioned above, Long and Crookes (1993, cited in Kim, 1998) suggest that if tasks are combined with a focus on form, they might receive more support in SLA research. However, there are some misunderstandings related to the idea of attention to form in the literature; it is interpreted as explicit formal instruction. In fact, the idea of attention to form is different from explicit formal instruction. Long (1991, cited in Nassaji, 2000) distinguishes between *focus on forms* and *focus on form*. According to Long, focus on forms is very similar to traditional grammar teaching. The primary goal is to teach language forms in isolation. Focus on form; however, aims to draw learners' attention to linguistic forms arising from the activities whose primary focus is on meaning.

The idea of focus on form in communicative texts is supported by both theory and research. However, many educators believe that form-focused activities and communicative activities should be separated in classroom setting. According to Lightbown (1998, cited in Nassaji, 2000), attempts to emphasize form may cause negative reactions on the part of learners who are engaged in expressing themselves in a meaning-based activity. Therefore, these educators believe that form-focused and communicative activities should be treated as separate learning activities if meaningful interaction is desired.

However, some other educators, on the other hand, believe that the most effective way is to consider activities which involve attention to form while maintaining meaningful communication and using form for communication. According to Skehan (1996a), if the goal of second language learning is to develop accuracy, fluency and complexity, and if accuracy cannot be achieved unless learners pay attention to form, learning becomes more effective if learners pay attention to form while they are engaged in meaning-based activities. Psychologists state that learners remember things in reference to the context where they learn them. Therefore, if learners pay attention to form in the context of communication, it will be easier for them to remember and use these forms in similar contexts in the future.

The problem stems from the fact that communicative tasks are interpreted as meaning-based classroom activities. According to Ellis (1982, cited in Nassaji, 2000), the focus of a communicative task must be on the message rather than on the channel. Learners must be engaged in thinking what they will say, not how they will say it. Nunan (1989) emphasizes the priority of meaning over form in his definition of tasks saying that learners' attention must be on meaning rather than form while comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language. However, according to Nassaji (2000), both Ellis and Nunan support form-focused activities in their recent writings.

In recent years, theoretical perspectives on language learning have changed. According to Nassaji (2000), many second language researchers argue that exposure to language is not adequate for second language acquisition. These researchers support the view that activities which focus only on message are inadequate to develop an accurate knowledge of the target language. In order to compensate for this inadequacy, teachers must incorporate some form-focused activities into communicative classroom contexts. As Bowen and Marks (1994) mention, there has been a return to grammar. It is believed that grammar plays a vital role in achieving meaning and communication, and teaching materials and methods must involve

grammar by giving due attention to meaning. If learners increase their control over grammar, they can increasingly extend and refine their ability to communicate meanings.

To sum up, a totally message-based approach is inadequate for language learning. Besides, communicative activities contribute to grammatical development to a limited degree. Therefore, integrative activities which integrate form-focused activities into existing communicative activities are needed in classroom contexts.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

A lot of research has been devoted to TBLT in recent years. Fotos and Ellis (1999) aimed to focus on the comparison of proficiency gains between the performances in grammar tasks and traditional, teacher-fronted lessons. Similar to the findings of Doughty and Pica (1986, cited in Ellis, 1999), this study also proves that dyads cause the highest level of negotiation, groups follow the dyads, and teacher-fronted lessons do not lead to any kind of negotiation attempts. Takashima and Ellis (1999) carried out a study in order to show that the learners benefit from focused feedback acquisitionally and that clarification requests push learners to reformulate their output in the context of a message-focused task. Furthermore, such feedback is also beneficial to the listeners who may compare and stretch their interlanguage system.

Swain and Lapkin (1998) view language use as both a communication and a cognitive activity, and according to them, dialogue provides the necessary condition for language learning. Their study shows that collaborative dialogue is a useful concept for understanding L2 learning. In a similar study, Murphy (2003) aimed to investigate the ways in which learners interact with tasks. According to the results, the influence of learners on the task may jeopardize the task designer's objective. Therefore, learners should be given the chance to reflect on the ways to perform the task and on the language they will use. Mackey (1999) investigated the relationship between different types of conversational interaction and SLA. The results of the study shows that the groups that took part in interaction actively increased significantly in their developmental stages and produced structures of more advanced level. The researcher supports the central idea that conversational interaction facilitates second language acquisition.

Most advocates of task-based approach to language teaching confirm that both an explicit language focus component and comprehensible input play an important role in language

acquisition. In order to test the success of different inter-task segments such as input, instruction or a combination of both, the researchers Gulliver, Newson and Chapco (2001) designed a research model. The data analysis proves that the group receiving a combination of both input and instruction showed the greatest increase in accuracy.

Fotos (1993) focused on noticing the target structures in communicative input, and the relationship between proficiency gains and noticing frequencies. According to the data gained from post-tests and noticing exercises, grammar consciousness-raising performance proves to be useful as a pedagogic device in grammar teaching. In another study, Fotos (1994) carried out a research on grammar consciousness-raising tasks which combine the development of knowledge about problematic L2 grammatical features with the meaning-focused use of the target language. In terms of the proficiency gains, the results were similar in both the group which performed grammar consciousness-raising tasks and the one which performed traditional grammar lessons. Similarly, negotiation quantity was similar in both grammar task performance and the communicative task performance of the learners. Therefore, the researcher concludes that grammar consciousness-raising tasks may be regarded as a possible method for the development of knowledge of problematic grammar points through communicative activities.

The implementation of TBLT in classroom setting is also an issue that deserves research. Some longitudinal studies have been carried out to investigate what is going on in the TBLT classroom. For this purpose, Kim (1998) aimed to analyze communicative-oriented activities, namely task-based activities that are linked to the curriculum of the textbooks in nationwide use in EFL classrooms in Korea and Hawaii. It is concluded that teachers should implement a communicative approach and keep up with the current level of students by using realistic activities that may take place in real life.

In another study, Zhang (1994) worked as the leader of a long-term project which was based on the implementation of a task-based syllabus for a group of beginning learners of Chinese. The aim of this longitudinal study was to observe the effects of the teaching of Chinese grammar which was incorporated into a communicative curriculum. According to the data analysis, most of the students found the use of a task-based syllabus very helpful in their learning. Pair work and group work were believed to be highly favorable. The students liked the act of active participation in the process of using Chinese. The researcher also suggests the use of team teaching and peer observation sessions to avoid problems about running a learner-centered classroom. Similarly, McLaughlin (2001) carried out a case analysis in order to

evaluate the English language-learning program at Andong National University in Korea. This case analysis evaluated the English language-learning program which was based on task-based principles.

Carless (2002; 2003) conducted case studies to investigate the implementation of TBLT with young children. Four themes relevant to the classroom implementation of TBLT with young learners, namely, noise/discipline the use of the mother tongue, the extent of pupil involvement and the role of drawing or coloring activities were aimed to be analyzed. The data analysis serves as useful advice for the teachers of second language. The other study focused on 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. The idea that complex relationships between these factors have an influence on the extent of the implementation of task-based teaching in the classroom is argued in this research.

In his study (1991), Kumaravadivelu emphasized the importance of the relationship between the teacher and the learner. In task-based pedagogy, learning outcome is viewed as the unpredictable interaction between the learner, the task and the task situation. According to the analysis of the classroom transcripts, the researcher listed ten categories as the potential sources of the mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation. Cognitive, communicative, linguistic, pedagogic, strategic, cultural, evaluative, procedural, instructional and attitudinal sources of mismatch should be understood clearly in order to avoid contradictory intentions and interpretations and to achieve the desired learning outcomes in the classroom.

Lynch and Maclean (2000) aimed to investigate the benefits of task repetition in their experimental research. A careful analysis of two students at the extremes of the proficiency level of the group, who were Alicia, the weakest in the group with less than 400 TOEFL, and Daniela, who had over 600 TOEFL, proved that task repetition enables different learners to develop different areas of their interlanguage.

Beglar and Hunt (2002) believe that a task-based syllabus has the potential to play an important role in ESL/EFL curricula; therefore, they designed an extended task-based project. This project was implemented in a private Japanese university with 340 university students. The researchers aimed to evaluate the implementation of task-based learning. The researchers conclude that the learners found the project rewarding, interesting and beneficial for

their improvement. The products of the learners were of high level, and their process of doing the task was believed to improve their level of proficiency in English.

Swain and Lapkin (2001) focused on the uses of the L1 made by 22 pairs of grade 8 French immersion students while they performed either a dictogloss or a jigsaw task. The students who achieved a higher level of success in their written performance tended to use less L1. However, it was emphasized that L1 use should not be prohibited because it supports the development of the second language. In another study, Swain and Lapkin (2002) investigated the importance of collaborative dialogue as a part of the process of second language learning. Multi-stage writing, noticing, stimulated recall processes and reflection on the language are believed to be effective ways to facilitate second language learning. Besides, the interviews with the students prove that they had positive views on their dialogues with each other.

Salaberry and Lopez-Ortega (1998) focused on attention to form as a direct predictor of accuracy in L2 production. In their study, the researchers aimed to analyze the accuracy of L2 Spanish production across three different tasks (narrative task, multiple-choice test and fill-in-the-blanks cloze test) on three grammatical items (past tense aspect, subject pronouns and articles) among 74 native English speakers (45 intermediate and 29 advanced students of Spanish). The analysis of the results showed that attention to form is a good predictor of accuracy among L2 learners. The researchers conclude that learners' control of the grammatical requirements of the task enables them to improve the accuracy of their L2 production.

In their research, Kuiken and Vedder (2002) aimed to investigate the effect of interaction between learners of English as a second language during a dictogloss task on the acquisition of the passive form. As far as the quantitative analysis of the data is concerned, the opportunity to interact during the reconstruction stage did not lead to a better result in the post-tests or to a more frequent use of the passives in the reconstructed texts. However, the qualitative analysis of the instances of simple and elaborate noticing in the transcripts shows that noticing causes new linguistic proposals, modification and a better outcome.

In previous studies mentioned above, the effect of TBLT on the proficiency levels of learners in the use of a grammar point has not been studied enough. There are few studies paying attention to this issue. Furthermore, studies focusing on the thoughts of the learners on the implementation of TBLT are limited and were carried out mostly in the Far East. In no study

have the thoughts of learners in TBLT and PPP been compared yet. That is why more research on these issues should be done in order to study the effects of TBLT on proficiency and noticing of grammar and to investigate the thoughts of learners on the teaching of grammar and on the implementation of TBLT and PPP in a different educational setting. This study will provide the field of language teaching with more sound theories about TBLT.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Woodward (1996) states that there is a paradigm shift in language teaching from PPP to new methodologies. Thus, this movement should be studied to investigate the differences between PPP and a new research field, TBLT. In the quasi-experimental part of this study, the effects of task-based instruction and PPP instruction on the grammar proficiency and noticing were investigated in a Turkish primary school classroom setting. In addition, students' thoughts about grammar instruction and on the implementation of TBLT and PPP were questioned through a semi-structured interview.

Since grammar instruction is still a question, it is important to investigate the effects of PPP instruction and task-based instruction. It is also important to discover the thoughts of learners towards the implementation of TBLT and PPP. The findings are supposed to help scientists and instructors in the field of English Language Teaching to be aware of which method proves to be superior to the other. By doing so, it provides some useful feedback for scientists and instructors. Finally, this research makes a path for further research and gives some implications to anyone in the field.

1.6. Research Questions

The research questions, answers to which were sought in this study are as follows:

1. Do PPP instruction and TBLT instruction significantly differ in grammar proficiency?
2. Do PPP instruction and TBLT instruction significantly differ in grammar noticing?

3. Do PPP instruction and task-based instruction significantly differ in grammar proficiency and noticing of the two genders?

4. What are the thoughts of the learners in the TBLT and the PPP groups on grammar instruction and practice?

5. What are the thoughts of the learners on the implementation of TBLT and PPP?

1.7. Assumptions of the Study

The study was conducted under the following assumptions:

1. The students included in this research answered the questions in the proficiency and noticing tests, and the questions in the interview honestly and sincerely.

2. The research sampling represents the whole group.

3. The research model used is congruent with the purpose and the subject matter of the study.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted with 20 students in the experimental group and 19 students in the control group during the 2004-2005 academic year. The treatment in the experimental group was applied according to the principles of TBLT, whereas the control group studied the Simple Present Tense according to the principles of PPP.

1.9. Definitions

Acquisition and Learning: Second language acquisition is a very complex process with many interrelated factors. The term 'second language acquisition' includes the studies about how learners learn an additional language after they acquire their mother tongue. Mother tongue is synonymous with first language (L1), and it refers to the language that children acquire in early childhood from their parents. It is the language that is spoken in the home

environment. The studies on second language acquisition started with the studies on L1 acquisition in order to develop efficient methodologies.

The terms 'acquisition' and 'learning' are sometimes contrasted. "*The term 'acquisition' is used to refer to picking up a second language through exposure, whereas the term 'learning' is used to refer to the conscious study of a second language*" (Ellis, 1985: 6). There are two separate knowledge systems in second language performance; the acquired and the learned system. The acquired system refers to the subconscious knowledge of the SL grammar that is similar to the subconscious knowledge native speakers have of their first language. The learned system is the product of formal instruction that is supplied in the classroom setting. The acquired system provides the only source for speakers in real-time communication. The learned system, on the other hand, only functions as an editor of the output of the acquired system. However, second language acquisition is used as a general term that covers both untutored and tutored acquisition. It includes all the studies of both conscious and subconscious processes by which a language other than the mother tongue is learned.

Chomsky is another important name to mention in second language acquisition issue. The distinction between competence and performance is distinctive in SLA studies. "*According to Chomsky (1965), competence consists of the mental representation of linguistic rules which constitute the speaker-hearer's internalized grammar. Performance consists of the comprehension and production of language*" (Ellis, 1985: 5, 6). Language acquisition studies mainly focus on how competence is developed. Internalized system, however, cannot be openly investigated. The utterances that learners produce are used as evidence to investigate the internalized system. In other words, performance is observed in order to have more information about competence. In his transformational grammar, Chomsky also supports that fundamental properties of language are derived from the innate aspects of the human mind. People are born with an innate ability to learn languages because they are equipped with LAD (language acquisition device) that helps learners to acquire languages. In his criticism of behaviourism, Chomsky claims that human language use does not stem from imitation, but from knowledge of abstract rules. Imitation or repetition cannot help learners to form sentences; on the contrary, learners' underlying competence enables them to generate a great number of sentences.

Noticing: In noticing, the main idea is that learners should pay attention to both form and meaning in order to internalize the language. Teachers' first priority is to make learners aware of the forms of the L2. In noticing activities, learners' attention is focused on a

target language item in the input so that learners might cover the distance between their current state of interlanguage and the target language. Consciousness-raising activities, similarly, have the same purpose. A target structure is presented, and learners are provided with explicit rule giving; and thus, they are expected to use intellectual effort to understand the targeted feature.

Input: All language sources that are used in order to initiate the language learning process are called input. Textbooks, teacher-made materials and teacher-initiated discourse can be given as examples of input sources used in language classes. Traditionally, an explicit linguistic syllabus includes all the necessary input sources to help the acquisition of the target language. Some theorists, however, find such linguistic syllabi unnecessary. They support that a syllabus must be meaning-based, and grammar needs can be provided incidentally. Krashen (1985, cited in Richards, 2002), for instance, holds this view and emphasizes that exposure to comprehensible target-language input is sufficient in order to trigger acquisition. However, it should not be ignored that some form of linguistic syllabus is necessary not only to signal and clarify an acquisition sequence but also to simplify the input. At the input stage, learners' attention is focused on particular linguistic features. All the activities have the purpose of making the learner aware of these new features. Learners, however, are not required to produce the linguistic items which are frequently repeated in texts.

Output: The result of the learners' efforts produces output. Learners use their interlanguage system actively, and this attempt results in the production of the target language. According to Krashen (1985, cited in Richards, 2002), comprehensible input is sufficient, but output is not essential to acquisition. According to Swain (1985, cited in Richards, 2002), on the other hand, output is also essential to acquisition. Especially when learners are expected to reshape their utterances and use the target language more accurately and coherently, output functions as a great facilitator for acquisition. According to Richards (2002), this idea is confirmed by the examples of second language users who speak a language fluently but use limited lexicon and syntax. Besides, they do not improve their accuracy over time. It is just because the reasons for which they use the language do not force them to expand their linguistic systems. However, in a classroom situation, learners should be encouraged to reshape and stretch their developing system forward by giving them opportunities to use the language actively in different situations.

Exposure: Being exposed to the target language in use is highly beneficial for learners. This process can be conscious or subconscious through reading, listening or both. In

this process, learners try to understand what they hear or read and observe the way how others express their intended messages. As Willis (1996b) states, if learners know the topic and the purpose of the piece of language they are being exposed to in advance, they can make better predictions about the points they are not sure of. It is the teacher's requirement to modify the exposure properly so that learners notice the new features, process them in their minds and make them a piece of their internalized language system. For instance, if a familiar type of reading passage with a familiar topic is given, learners can guess the meanings expressed and how the discourse will take shape.

Teachers modify their speech in order to help learners. They repeat things or stop to explain some new points consciously or unconsciously. According to Willis (1996b), modification is highly beneficial if it is not carried too far. However, if teachers speak very slowly and clearly, this causes the distortions of intonation patterns, and learners are exposed to a language which does not resemble an acceptable version of the target language. Therefore, learners can never get used to coping with the target language spoken outside the classroom. Teachers must be careful while they modify their classroom language.

Simplification of reading texts linguistically does not have important advantages, either. Breaking up complex noun groups or long sentences into parts is not preferable because this gives harm to text qualities and to the unity within the text. Learners cannot grasp the exact meaning of connectors such as 'because', 'however' and 'therefore', etc. In addition, learners lose the chance of being familiar with the original forms as used in the target language.

The most important point about exposure is that learners should be exposed to different types of language use. "*.... the quality of exposure has been found to be more important than the quantity. Quality does not just mean good pronunciation but a variety of types of language use, e.g. informal chat as well as formal monologue, and a range of different kinds of writing*" (Willis, 1996b: 13). To summarize, it is not enough for learners to be exposed to restricted or simplified pieces of language. The input must be rich and include the examples of real language.

Instruction: "*It is generally accepted that instruction which focuses on language form can both speed up the rate of language development and raise the ultimate level of the learners' attainment*" (Willis, 1996b: 15). It is certain that instruction helps learners to notice what they are exposed to. Learners process grammatical and lexical items and produce

hypotheses about their meaning and use. Learners recognize new features more easily when they are used in the input they receive. Sometimes, however, learners are exposed to a new item which changes the picture they have for a particular point in their minds. For instance, after studying the Simple Past Tense, learners are exposed to the Present Perfect Tense which is also used for past events so that their present hypothesis about the past simple is disconfirmed. At that moment, learners start to examine the examples for both tenses in order to grasp the differences in their uses. These efforts bring about a process in which their current system is restructured in order to accommodate the new item.

Learners must be given opportunities to notice useful features. *“Activities aimed at promoting awareness of language form, making students conscious of particular language features and encouraging them to think about them are likely to be more beneficial in the long run than form-focused activities aimed at automating production of a single item”*(Willis 1996b: 16). Learners should be given enough time to investigate specific linguistic features and to process them on their own. It should not be forgotten that instruction is a desirable factor to learn a language, but it is not essential at all.

1.10 Abbreviations

n: The Number of the Sample

SD: Standard Deviation

SS: Sum of Squares

t: t-value

df: Degree of Freedom

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, studies on TBLT are presented under two headings: quantitative studies and qualitative studies.

2.1. Quantitative Studies on TBLT

Ellis (1990; 1993, cited in Ellis, 1999) believes that formal instruction develops the explicit knowledge of grammatical structures, and this eventually helps learners to acquire implicit knowledge. Therefore, Ellis suggests that formal instruction and communicative language teaching be integrated through the use of grammar tasks which promote communication about grammar. These grammar tasks are designed to serve two purposes. Grammar tasks aim to develop explicit knowledge of L2 grammatical features and to provide learners with opportunities for interaction focused on the exchange of information. With the help of grammar tasks, learners' consciousness about the features of the L2 grammar is raised. These tasks are supposed to provide learners with multiple opportunities for producing the target features.

Fotos and Ellis (1999) carried out a study which focused on the comparison of grammar tasks and traditional, teacher-fronted lessons in the study of a specific feature, indirect objects. According to Doughty and Pica (1986, cited in Ellis, 1999), pairs of students tend to produce more negotiations than do groups. For the present study, the researchers also aimed to investigate whether performance through consciousness-raising task results in the same kinds and quantity of interaction in the reciprocal task performance in pairs and groups which have been observed by Doughty and Pica.

The subjects for this research were two groups of Japanese EFL college students: first-year English language majors at a women's junior college (intermediate level) and first-year Business Administration majors (basic level). The students from these two groups were assigned to one of three groups on a random basis. In other words, there were three groups for both the basic and the intermediate level students. In one group, the grammar task was carried

out by groups of four students and dyads in one classroom. All participation patterns were audio-taped. In another group, a traditional teacher-fronted lesson was delivered, and the lesson was audio-taped. The remaining students served as the control group, and they performed a reading assignment during the treatments.

The grammar task consisted of four cards and a task sheet. The task cards included a list of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences focusing on the use of the indirect objects. The students were informed about the grammaticality of the sentences with the labels 'correct' and 'incorrect' next to the sentences. The task sheet included some basic grammatical information about the use of dative verbs and indirect objects. The task sheet also contained a chart to fill in for each verb which data had been supplied for. Finally, the task sheet required the learners to formulate three rules about the dative verbs. The students performed the task in groups of four. The students were expected to exchange the information on their task cards in order to be able to fill in the chart on the task sheet and to report their findings to the class. A grammaticality judgment test was chosen as the measure of proficiency. The researchers aimed to investigate whether such a grammar task was successful in developing an explicit knowledge of the use of the dative verbs and whether such a task produced the kind of interactions which are believed to facilitate L2 acquisition.

Negotiation was obligatory in order to complete such a task. Each student had to read the sentences on his or her card to the other members of the group in order to complete the task sheet. The use of the comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation requests and repetitions was observed as the most common negotiation checks. After the students performed the task, the same test was given as the post-test. There was a significant difference in pre- and post-test scores.

The content of the traditional grammar lesson was the same with the grammar task and took the same amount of time, 20-30 minutes. This time, the teacher wrote the correct and incorrect sentences on the board, indicated the placement of indirect objects, wrote out the rules governing indirect object placement, and gave the post-test after erasing the board.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for the analysis of the differences in the pre-, post-test scores for the treatments and between the treatments and the control group. A one-way chi-square test was used to examine the differences between negotiation counts for the groups and dyads. According to the statistical results, the differences

were significant between the mean scores of the pre- and post-test for the task treatment and for the grammar treatment, as well as for both treatments' post-test scores compared with the control group's post-test scores.

For the English majors at the junior college, the initial mean percent correct for the task group was 72%, and this increased to 95% on the post test. However, the grammar-lesson students started at the initial mean of 75% correct and increased to 93% after the lesson. As the numbers suggest, the post-test scores of the task group and the grammar-lesson group were not significantly different. For the basic level non-English-major university students, the initial mean percent correct for the task group was 65%, and this increased to 81% after the task. The grammar group's initial mean percent correct was 64%, which increased to 96% after the lesson. This means that the gain in proficiency for the task group was lower than that for the grammar-lesson group. This may have stemmed from the fact that non-English-major students are not closely familiar with group or pair work. Besides, their comments and questions during the tape recording showed that they did not clearly understand the goals and the procedures of the task.

In terms of negotiation, the study reflected similar findings to those of Doughty and Pica. 82 L2 negotiations were produced by the four dyads, 61 L2 negotiations by the four groups, and no negotiations were produced by the students of the teacher-fronted lesson. It can be concluded that, in terms of the amount of negotiation, dyads are the most useful type, which is followed by groups, and teacher-fronted activity produces the least amount of negotiations.

To sum up, the statistical findings prove that grammar tasks appear to function as well as grammar lessons. Such a learning task type encourages communication. The amounts of negotiation produced by groups and dyads show that tasks allow interaction more when compared to traditional lessons.

Ellis (1999) states that there have been few studies to investigate whether and how interaction contributes to the development of L2 grammar. The early version of the interaction hypothesis (IH) includes the view that interaction assists learning by providing learners with comprehensible input. The later version of the IH includes the studies which focus on the effects of the negative evidence that learners receive through interaction. The results of these studies support the view that negative feedback in the context of message-focused interaction can assist learning. The revised version of the IH, however, holds the view that pushed output helps learners to acquire L2 grammar. Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993, cited in Ellis, 1999) found out that

two out of three learners seemed to benefit from being pushed to reformulate utterances containing past tense errors.

In their study, Takashima and Ellis (1999) aimed to test the current version of the IH. This version holds the view that if learners are pushed to produce output, this may enable learners to engage in bottom-up processing which is necessary for extending interlanguage. Many ways are possible to push learners to produce output, but the researchers were concerned with the use of clarification requests. If a learner produces an utterance which cannot be understood by the listener, the listener may respond with a clarification request such as 'sorry' or 'I beg your pardon'. According to Takashima (1995, cited in Takashima and Ellis, 1999), the result of this negotiation is called 'enhanced output', which refers to the output that is grammaticalized as a result of pushing.

Pushing learners through clarification requests results in three possible outcomes. First, learners may repeat their utterances instead of reformulating them. Second, the learner may fail to use the correct form but use a more advanced interlanguage form. Third, the clarification request may serve the learner to use the correct form. The term 'enhanced output' can be used for situations where learners use either the correct form or a more advanced interlanguage form.

According to the results of Nobuyoshi and Ellis' study (1993, cited in Takashima and Ellis, 1999), not all learners produce enhanced output when given an opportunity to do so, and only those learners who do modify their output benefit acquisitionally. However, Ellis (1999) states that learners cannot themselves reformulate using grammatical forms that they have not yet acquired. This means that if a learner can substitute the correct form for the incorrect one, s/he must know the target form. The question how learners acquire L2 grammar with the help of enhanced output can be answered with the fact that reformulating helps learners to produce correct forms, and these forms exist in their interlanguage but cause difficulty when the learner wants to access them in the act of direct communication. Ellis states that enhanced output does not result in the acquisition of new forms but in greater control of forms which have already been acquired. The present study focused on the effects of pushing learners through clarification requests on both their immediately reformulated output and on their acquisition of past tense verb forms over time. Pushed output is important because it causes learners to produce the target language and also provides a rich kind of input which is called 'auto-input'.

Researchers, Takashima and Ellis (1999), investigated such specific grammatical features as regular and irregular past tense forms. The acquisition of the Past Tense is a slow and complex process. For the irregular past tense verbs, for instance, learners overgeneralize the past tense form -ed before they use the target form. 61 second-year students in a Japanese national university formed the subjects of this study. They had studied English for seven years before the study and had limited communicative proficiency. Besides, the subjects, 19 males and 42 females, were not strongly motivated to learn English. The two intact classes of the subjects used in the study did not differ in the scores of the national university entrance examination.

The aim of the study was to investigate the effects of two kinds of clarification requests, focused and unfocused negotiation. In the experimental group, learners received clarification requests when they made an error in the use of the Past Tense. Clarification requests were provided irrespective of whether the teacher understood the utterance or not. Besides, the learners in the experimental group were not aware that the teacher's clarification requests focused on the use of the past tense. The learners felt that the teacher made the clarification requests when he did not understand their utterance. The learners in the experimental group participated in focused negotiation. However, the control group received a clarification requests whenever there was a major breakdown in the process of communication. The negotiation they were exposed to was unfocussed negotiation.

Both groups received a pre-test, three treatment tests and three post-tests. Both the pre-test and the post-tests included oral narratives based on two series of four pictures. The first series of pictures was used for the pre-test and the first post-test; the second series was used for the second and the third post-test. Each picture series included a list of 12 to 15 vocabulary items which the learners might need. For the pre-test, the learners studied in a language laboratory. They received a picture series to practice telling a story orally, and then they were given the materials for the pre-test. The learners were divided in groups, and each learner received one picture. The researcher allowed the students to talk about their pictures in Japanese or English for five minutes. Next, all the learners individually recorded their stories on cassette. The same procedure was followed for the post-tests.

For the treatment for the experimental group, the subjects were divided into groups of four or five. Each student received one picture from a series. Group members elected a representative who would later tell the whole story to the class. Each subject described his or

her picture without showing it to the group members. Next, the representatives told the stories while the others were listening. Whenever there was an error in the use of the past tense, the teacher provided clarification request. The representatives' performances of oral narratives were audio recorded. The treatment was repeated in a three week period. Each week, the subjects were given different series of pictures, and the same student representatives told all these three stories. The treatment for the control group was very similar; the only difference was that the teacher provided clarification requests when s/he did not comprehend the meaning of what was said. The same procedure was followed with the same representatives, and the oral narratives were again audio-recorded.

The transcription of the recordings of the subjects' oral narratives produced during the pre-test, the treatment and the post-tests were carried out by four researchers. Each transcription was checked by another researcher to guarantee reliability. The researchers identified the obligatory occasions for the use of the Past Tense in the transcription of the oral narratives, and then they calculated the number and the percentage of correctly supplied past forms. According to the results, the subjects varied considerably in the extent to which they attempted to reformulate their utterances by correcting past tense forms. Subject 1, for instance, corrected once out of sixteen opportunities. Subject 7, on the other hand, corrected six out of nine utterances. In terms of the pattern of scores, there was again considerable variation. Subject 1 showed no improvement; however, subject 7 showed a steady improvement. In total, three out of the seven subjects showed improvement.

According to the results reflected in the gain in the past tense accuracy from pre-test to post-test 1, the treatment had a clear effect on the narrators of the control group. However, there were no significant gains in post-tests 2 and 3. The listeners in the control group, on the other hand, showed little progress. Besides, both the listeners and the narrators of the experimental group showed improvement, with the listeners improving more. The researchers computed two repeated measures of ANOVAs for the control and the experimental group to investigate the differences between the narrators' and the listeners' test scores, and the difference in the scores was non-significant. Finally, an ANOVA was computed to check whether the overall performance of the both groups was different, and it was observed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on all the tests.

It is also important to mention that the experimental group narrators' score was quite high in the pre-test, notably higher than that of the control group. The reason was that the

experimental group was used in the pilot study for six months before the study. Since there was no equivalence of the two groups at the beginning of the study, it was difficult to make reliable comparisons. However, the experimental group's access to focused feedback was reflected in an increase in the accurate use of the Past Tense over the three post-tests. The control group, on the other hand, improved from the pre-test to the first post-test, but then the improvement stopped.

To sum up, it can be concluded that focused feedback is effective in promoting learning L2 grammar. Essential time should be allowed for the effects of the focused negotiation. The success of the experimental group was also due to their extra study during the pilot test. According to the results of the study, it is certain that the narrators who experience focused feedback and enhance their output benefit acquisitionally. Besides, the enhanced output which narrators produce serves as input to listeners. This rich input enables listeners to notice the targeted forms, to compare them with their interlanguage and eventually to acquire them.

The experiment Ellis conducted (1994, cited in Ellis, 2001) included structural input which is input that was specially designed to include specific linguistic features-vocabulary items, and a non-verbal device which is a diagram. The structured input included a series of directives requesting the learners to carry out a series of actions. These actions required learners to identify the referents referred to in the directives and show them in a picture. For one of the directives, for instance, the learners were expected to identify the scouring pad in a series of small pictures and write the number of the picture in the correct position in the matrix diagram of the kitchen. According to Ellis (2001), this kind of task has a number of advantages. First of all, it enables the researcher to incorporate specific linguistic features into the input; therefore, it is called structured input. Second, the researcher may manipulate the input in different ways in order to test the effect that various input modifications have on comprehension and acquisition.

According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985, cited in Ellis, 2001), learners need access to comprehensible input and a low effective filter which makes them open to the input in order to acquire it. According to Krashen, speakers employ simplified registers when speaking to learners. These registers provide learners with modified input. According to Krashen (1981, cited in Ellis, 2001), input should be pitched at a level that enables learners to understand, but input should also contain some linguistic forms that learners have not acquired yet. Secondly, learners should be able to use contextual information to help themselves to decode input including unknown linguistic forms, to comprehend and to acquire the input. The idea that

comprehension is necessary for acquisition is also emphasized in Long's Interactional Hypothesis (1983, cited in Ellis, 2001). According to this hypothesis, comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition, and modifications to the interactional surface of conversations which take place in the process of negotiating solutions to communication problems provide comprehensible input for learners, and as a result, this input enables learners to process linguistic forms that are problematic to them.

Ellis's study (1994, cited in Ellis, 2001) aimed to investigate the effects of simplified and interactionally modified input on the comprehension of directives containing new lexical items. Two groups of Japanese high school students completed the kitchen task under three conditions. They were provided with baseline input in which the directives were based on the kind of language native speakers use when addressing each other, premodified input in which the directives were simplified by the task designer in accordance with the kind of language native speakers use when addressing language learners, and interactionally modified input in which students were provided with the opportunity to negotiate meaning when they did not understand a baseline directive. In the present study, Ellis used interactional modifications, which means that the teacher provided the students with information that might help them to acquire new language when the students expressed the indications of non-understanding in the form of requests to be clarified. According to Ellis (1994, cited in Ellis, 2001), the results were clearcut where the interactionally modified input was concerned. In both groups, the students comprehended interactionally modified directives (means= 9.91 out of 15 and 10.69 out of 16) better than both the students who were given baseline directives (means= 2.32 and 1.2) and the students who were given premodified directives (means=4.0 and 6.79). The results were not that clear in the case of premodified input. In one group, the students who received the premodified input comprehended better than the students who received the baseline input, but in the other group, there was not a statistically significant result.

In conclusion, the study supports Interactional Hypothesis claims that opportunities to modify input interactionally enhance comprehension. However, Ellis (2001) states that it shows less support for Krashen's claim that simplified input facilitates comprehension.

Swain and Lapkin (1998) believe that language use is both a communication and a cognitive activity, and dialogue provides both an occasion for language learning and evidence for it. In this study, the researchers aimed to examine the dialogue which occurred between two learners as they were trying to solve the problems they faced while writing a short narrative.

This perspective stems from the idea that language is used as a psychological tool, and dialogue is used by learners as a tool in aid of L2 learning. The theoretical orientation of the researchers was to understand why collaborative tasks might promote L2 learning.

The data for this study were collected in a French immersion class. The students were grade 8 students who had been attending an early French immersion program since kindergarten. A jigsaw task was given to the class. Student dyads received a set of numbered pictures which told a story. The students were supposed to work out the story together and then write it out. Before doing the task, the students were given a short lesson on grammar points.

The activities of the study included several steps. In the first week, the students were given a pre-test. In the second week, a mini lesson was delivered to make the students familiar with the jigsaw task. Their attention focused on the agreement of adjectives with nouns. The students worked in pairs, and they wrote a short story by using a series of pictures. In the third week, the students were presented a pre-recorded mini lesson about French reflexive verbs. The video showed a pair of students working together to construct a short story by using a series of pictures, which served as a model for the students. Next, the students were distributed the pictures. One student in each pair received pictures 1, 3, 5 and 7, and the other student received pictures 2, 4, 6 and 8. First, the students constructed the story orally; then, their conversations were all audio-taped. In the fourth week, the tape recordings were transcribed, and a post-test was developed by adding some new test items which were observed in the taped oral interactions. In the fifth week, the post-test was administered.

Although the activities were performed by all students of the class, a student pair, Kim and Rick, was selected according to their pre-test scores and their teacher's ratings of overall ability in French. Kim and Rick's dialogue was analyzed in terms of language-related episodes. According to Swain and Lapkin (1995, cited in Swain and Lapkin, 1998), a language-related episode (LRE) is any part of a dialogue where students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use or correct themselves or others. LREs were classified as lexis-based and form-based in this study. Two French immersion teachers rated the stories written by each pair. The average number of LREs was 8.8 with a range of 26 to 1, and Kim and Rick produced 23 LREs. The average number of form-based LREs was 4.8 with a range of 15 to 1, and Kim and Rick produced 15. The average number of lexis-based LREs was 4.0 with a range of 12 to 0, and Kim and Rick produced 8. The correlation between pre-test scores of all pairs and the number of LREs was not significant; however, the correlation between the post-

test scores and the number of LREs was significant. The number of LREs and the post-test scores were positively related.

In conclusion, the researchers observed cognitive processes in the talk of Kim and Rick, who generated alternatives, assessed alternatives and applied the resulting knowledge in order to solve a linguistic problem. Kim and Rick's interaction shows the value and importance of collaborative activity in class. The researchers conclude that a collaborative dialogue consisting of LREs is beneficial in L2 learning.

In a similar study, Murphy (2003) investigated whether learners' attention can focus on the competing goals of accuracy, fluency and complexity through manipulation of task characteristics and processing conditions. Skehan (1998) distinguishes among the three goals of accuracy, fluency and complexity, and believes that learners cannot pay full attention to these three goals simultaneously. According to Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001), there is a three-way relationship between teachers, learners and learning outcomes. Learner contribution to tasks is an important factor. Learning outcomes are the product of the contribution of the individual learner, the task and the situation in which the task is realized. Any pre-designed task may change due to the way the learner interacts with it. The outcome is also shaped according to the degree to what extent teacher intention and learner interpretation meet. According to Breen (1987, cited in Murphy, 2003), if learners perceive that a task relates closely to their own learning needs, they adopt an achievement orientation. On the contrary, if learners cannot see the relevance of the task to their needs, they adopt a survival orientation and carry out the task with minimum effort. Therefore, Breen suggests that the intended pedagogical objectives of tasks should be made clear to students. The subjects for this study were foreign students studying General English for three hours every day in a large Collage of Further Education in England. Eight students, four male and four female, were chosen to participate in the study, who were at an intermediate-level class, and their ages varied from 17 to 30. The class of these students was using *Cutting Edge* (intermediate level) as the course book. Three tasks were selected and adopted to match the criteria suggested by Skehan. In spite of the fact that each task focused on either of accuracy, fluency or complexity, each of these variables was measured for all the three tasks. The aim was to be able to obtain unforeseen results if the learner contribution jeopardized the intended pedagogic outcomes. The researcher used Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth's (2000, cited in Murphy, 2003) method of analyzing speech units for the quantitative analysis in this study.

The data were analyzed in order to observe the level of success in accuracy, fluency and complexity. In terms of accuracy, only two learners recorded their highest accuracy score on Task 1. Therefore, the researcher states that there are personal factors which might have influenced their results. One learner who made the shortest presentation had tried to memorize the script which he had written during the planning time. This indicates that learners may create alternative strategies to complete the task. In the discussion session before the start of the study, the other learner had expressed strong feelings about accuracy compared to fluency; therefore, it is not surprising that she focused on this area. She had also stated that she was afraid of making mistakes. According to Murphy (2003), these individual factors show the danger of relying purely on quantitative data and analysis. In terms of fluency, it was difficult to time each individual's contribution accurately because of interruptions and overlapping of speech. The learner, who had memorized the script and scored the highest in terms of accuracy, spoke more fluently than usual. The lowest score on both task1 and 2 was that of a student who was a very hesitant speaker. Again it was observed that personal knowledge of the participants in the study indicates that individual differences have an important effect on the results. In terms of complexity, Task3 recorded the lowest complexity scores both for individuals and groups.

To sum up, in the present study, the researcher aimed to investigate the ways in which the individual learners interacted with tasks. According to the results obtained in the analysis, the influence of learners may jeopardize the task designer's goals. Besides, relying on the manipulation of task characteristics and processing conditions do not seem efficient enough to achieve intended pedagogic outcomes. The researcher suggests that task designing should involve learners so that they may reflect on the way in which they perform tasks and on the language they use. Therefore, learner autonomy can be developed. If learners are provided with a chance to evaluate previous tasks, such critical evaluation would provide valuable input for the design of the future tasks.

A great deal of research has been carried out in order to investigate the relationship between interaction and SLA. According to Long (1996, cited in Mackey, 1999), implicit negative feedback, which can be obtained through negotiated interaction, facilitates SLA. Long supports the view that interaction facilitates acquisition because conversational and linguistic modifications supply the input the learners need. According to Pica (1994, cited in Mackey, 1999), interaction facilitates conditions and processes which are important in second language learning. When learners repeat and reorganize the linguistic units, they have the opportunity to notice the features of the target language. Besides, Pica (1992, cited in Mackey, 1999) observed

that there were no significant differences between learners who observed the interaction and the learners who participated in the interaction. Therefore, Pica believes that observing interaction may be sufficient. Swain (1995, cited in Mackey, 1999) supports the importance of comprehensible output in SLA process. This means that when learners have the need to be understood in the target language, they are pushed to try out new forms and modify others. Swain and Lapkin (1998) used collaborative dialogues in a study in order to investigate language-related episodes in which learners talk about the language they are producing.

Similarly, Mackey (1999) aimed to test whether taking part in interaction facilitates second language development. The focus of the study was on the developmental outcomes of taking part in various types of interaction. The researcher chose question forms as the measure of development, the dependent variable in the current study. Only the development in terms of question forms was the point of interest. The tasks used in the study were developed to supply contexts for the targeted structures to occur and to provide learners with opportunities for interactional adjustments to take place. The tasks were used as both test and treatment material. The participants were 34 adult ESL learners attending a private English language school in Sydney, Australia. All the participants were from beginner and low-intermediate intensive English language classes. They were from different L1 backgrounds, and they were selected at random on the basis of enrollment. 27 participants were classified as lower-intermediate and 7 participants were classified as beginner by the school. The researcher conducted a before and after proficiency test to confirm the school's rating and similar results were obtained. Next, the researcher assigned the lower-intermediate participants into four categories with three treatment and one control group. The beginner participants received identical treatment to one of the treatment groups but at a lower developmental level. Six native speakers of English were also included in the study. The NSs were given some prior education on the use of the pre- and post-test task materials. The study was carried out during the summer vacation.

The treatment groups were called interactors, interactor unreadyies, observers and scripteders. The interactors group performed the tasks in NS-learner pairs. The learners asked the questions which they found necessary to complete the task, and the NSs answered them. The participants received interactionally modified input. The interactor unready group received the same input as the interactors; however, these participants were lower than the other groups in terms of their developmental level. Therefore, this group was called interactor unreadyies because they were different from the other group in terms of readiness. The observer group observed the input which was given to the interactors. They were given the same pictures for the

task, and they watched the interactor group members, but they were not allowed to interact in any way. The scripted group performed the same tasks in NS-learner pairs. However, they received premodified input, which followed the system outlined in such studies as those of Pica, Young and Doughty (1987, cited in Mackey, 1999), Pica (1992, cited in Mackey, 1999), and Gass and Varonis (1994, cited in Mackey, 1999). The NSs followed a script, and the NNSs interacted naturally. The instructions were so detailed that the probability of communication breakdowns and negotiation for meaning was decreased. The control group did not receive any treatment to enable the researcher to compare the changes and the gains in the performance of the other groups.

Each test and treatment session lasted 15-25 minutes, and the study included one session per day for one week, one session one week later and a final session three weeks later. The researcher used different examples of information-gap tasks for both the treatment and the tests. In the test session, the participants performed 'spot the difference' tasks. In the treatment sessions, the participants performed a picture-drawing task, a story-completion task and a story-sequencing task. The pre- and post-tests were coded in order to observe the developmental stages of the participants and to investigate the stages of questions produced. In terms of developmental stage increase, it was observed that the interactor and the interactor unready groups made large gains: 5 out of 7 the interactors and 6 out of 7 the interactor unreadies increased in stage. The observer group made some gains: 4 out of 7 the observers increased in stage. The scripted group and the control group made very little gains in stage; only one participant in each group increased in stage. Next, the groups that took part in interaction (the interactors and the interactor unreadies) and the groups that did not take part in interaction (the observers, the scripted group and the control group) were compared using the chi-square test. The results proved that the group that took part in interaction was more likely to have sustained stage increase than the group that did not take part in interaction.

Besides, difference scores were calculated by subtracting each participant's pre-test scores from their post-test scores. The difference scores were analyzed using one-way repeated measures ANOVAs in order to explore the patterns of development in each group. In terms of the developmentally more advanced questions, it was observed that there was no evidence of significant change across the four testing periods in the scripted, the observer and the control groups. However, the analysis for the interactor group proved that there was a significant change over time. A similar result was also observed for the interactor unready group. Although

the interactor unready group produced a greater number of question forms than the interactor group, they showed a less systematic overall development.

To summarize, the results of this study confirm that conversational interaction facilitates second language development. It was clear that only the groups which actively took part in the interaction showed the evidence of development. These interactor groups both increased significantly in terms of developmental stage, as shown by the chi-square test, and produced significantly higher level of structures, as shown by the ANOVAs. However, the observer group, who observed interaction without participating in it, and the scripted group, who participated in scripted interaction, and the control group received less benefit. This study suggests that actively taking part in conversational interaction creates a positive effect on the production of developmentally more advanced structures.

Gulliver, Newson and Chapco (2001) aimed to investigate whether input, instruction or a combination of both would best facilitate successful task completion within a 50-minute class period. Most advocates of task-based approach to language teaching confirm that both an explicit language focus component and comprehensible input play an important role in language acquisition. The hypothesis of the researchers was that a combination of input and a language focus is more successful than either one of these components alone. In order to test this hypothesis, three native speakers of English in the Department of English Language and Literature at Conghju University in South Korea were invited to participate in conducting the classroom-based research to determine the extent to which successful task completion could be achieved by providing students with input, a language focus component or a mixture of both within a task-based instruction framework.

Task-based instruction is becoming more and more popular within Korean university classrooms. For the purpose of this study, the researchers inserted one stage in the task cycle. The students were provided with input, instruction or both between the pre-task and task stages, and it was called 'inter-task' stage. The question is what form the inter-task should have in order to best facilitate the task completion. The researchers make three hypotheses to test. First, an inter-task segment which has only language focus without input will increase the accuracy of learners' responses but create the least increase in the number of responses. Second, an inter-task segment which has only input will increase the number of responses but create the least increase in accuracy. Third, an inter-task segment having both input and language focus will lead to the greatest increase in accuracy and number of responses.

Students from six classes took part in this study. The classes consisted of 32 students enrolled in the nighttime beginning level course, 50 students enrolled in the daytime beginning level course, and 46 students enrolled in the daytime intermediate level course. The students were required to self-select partners and to sit facing each other. The researchers prepared two identical exercises. Both exercises included an information gap which led to information exchange. In task A, the partners were given two maps, one having the names of the stores and the other having the location of the stores, and they were given ten minutes to finish the task. After completing the first task, the students were asked to go, with their partners, to three separate rooms. They were given inter-task instruction in these rooms. Group One was instructed in the language which the native speakers used to complete the pre-task, but they did not listen to the tape or read the script. Group Two was informed about the specific aspects of language used in the tape, and then they listened to the tape. Group Three read a script and listened to the tape of native speakers performing the same pre-task. Each kind of inter-task segment was given in ten minutes for each group.

Task B worksheets were done in ten minutes and were assigned three scores: number, correct and accuracy. The score number refers to the number of answers marked on the worksheet. The score called correct refers to the number of correct answers marked on the worksheets. The score called accuracy refers to the percentage of the number of answers that were correct. Each score for task A was subtracted from the same students' corresponding score for task B. The third set of scores show the change in each student's performances due to both practice and instruction.

Each group was provided with different inter-task instruction, and all the groups showed some improvement on all three scores while performing task B. According to the data analysis, Group One, which received ten minutes of instruction on grammar and vocabulary, showed the least increase in accuracy (0.93%). However, since this group was provided with the conscious knowledge of how accurate information can be exchanged; the researchers expected the group to show the least improvement in number but the greatest increase in the number of correct answers and in accuracy. Group Three, which was provided with ten minutes of oral and written input, showed an 8.48% improvement in accuracy. This result also surprised the researchers because they expected that an inter-task segment involving input alone would lead to increase in number but a decrease in accuracy. Group Two, which received the combination of both language focus and input, produced the results expected by the researchers, and they

benefited the most from the inter-task segment. Their difference in number, correct and accuracy scores were higher than the scores of the two groups.

In conclusion, the researchers made three hypotheses about the effect of input and instruction on language acquisition, but two of them were not supported by the data. Only the third hypothesis, which claims that a combination of input and language focus would lead to the greatest increase in accuracy and number, was supported by the data. In short, these results suggest that a classroom providing either input or instruction will be less successful than the one which attempts to provide a balance of both.

Fotos (1993) focused on the critical role of noticing the target structures in communicative input. The researcher aimed to investigate the learner noticing in two types of grammar consciousness-raising treatments: teacher-fronted grammar lessons and interactive, grammar problem-solving tasks. The researcher also compared the frequencies of noticing the target structure in communicative input of grammar consciousness-raising treatments with the frequencies of noticing of a control group which was not exposed to grammar consciousness-raising activities.

According to Long (1988, cited in Fotos, 1993) and Ellis (1990, cited in Fotos, 1993), formal instruction is needed to promote target language attainment, and a growing body of empirical evidence is in favor of the positive effects of formal instruction on language acquisition. Fotos (1993) states that recent proposals by two researchers (Ellis, 1990; Schmidt, 1990) focusing on this issue depend on the view of formal instruction as consciousness-raising. According to Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985, cited in Fotos, 1993), the term consciousness-raising refers to increased learner awareness of particular linguistic features. According to Ellis (1990, cited in Fotos, 1993), it is through formal instruction that learners become aware of particular features of the target language and form explicit representations of what they are taught. According to Ellis's (1990, cited in Fotos, 1993) theory, once consciousness of a particular feature is raised through formal instruction, learners continue to remain aware of the feature and notice it in the following communicative input. These events are considered to be prerequisites for language processing which will lead to the acquisition of that feature. As it is apparent, noticing plays a critical role because noticing performs an interfacing function between the development of the explicit knowledge of a feature through formal instruction and the development of the implicit knowledge of that feature.

Fotos and Ellis (1991, cited in Fotos, 1993) proposed the use of a task type called the grammar consciousness-raising task which integrates grammar instruction with the opportunities for meaning-focused use of the target language. Ellis (1998) states that the grammar consciousness-raising task seeks to combine a focus on grammatical form with provision for message conveyance. A specific grammatical feature is made the content of the task. According to Fotos (1992, cited in Fotos, 1993), the aim of grammar consciousness-raising task performance is to raise learners' consciousness of a particular grammatical feature through the development of explicit knowledge so that significant proficiency gains in grammar structures which are comparable to the gains made by learners who studied the same structures through formal, teacher-fronted lessons are promoted. However, in this research, the researcher is concerned with whether performance of various grammar consciousness-raising tasks can produce similar amounts of noticing the structure when compared with the amounts of noticing produced in traditional, teacher-fronted lessons. The first research question is whether the development of explicit knowledge about grammar structures through formal instruction or through grammar task performance results in more instances of noticing the structures in the communicative input when compared with a control group that has not been exposed to any kind of grammar consciousness-raising activity. The second question is about the comparison of the amount of noticing produced by learners who carried out consciousness-raising tasks and the amount of noticing produced in formal grammar lessons.

Fotos (1993) took 160 Japanese university EFL learners as her subjects in the research. These students were from three intact classes of first-year non-English majors. Classes consisted of 53 or 54 students and the students had one required 90-minute period per week, which enabled the researcher to carry out the research. The three classes formed three treatment groups which were a grammar task group who performed three grammar consciousness-raising tasks, a grammar lesson group who received grammar lessons with the same content as in the grammar task group, and a communicative task group who performed communicative tasks without grammatical content. Before the research, the researcher administered a cloze test to the three groups in order to find out whether there were significant differences in English proficiency, and the results showed that they were equivalent.

The researcher delivered the tasks and the lessons in three cycles of three weeks each. Some structures as indirect object placement, relative clause placement and adverb placement, which are problematic for Japanese learners, were used in the research. Before the delivery of tasks and lessons, both treatment groups (grammar consciousness-raising task group

and the formal grammar lesson group) took pre-tests on the grammar structure. Post-tests which are similar to the pre-tests were given after the tasks and lessons. The communicative task group, which functioned as the control group for the noticing investigation, did not take these tests in order not to be exposed to the target structures. During the second and third weeks, all three treatment groups received noticing exercises.

In noticing exercises, on the other hand, noticing a grammar structure meant recognizing and underlining the structure embedded in texts of a short story or a dictation exercise. The first week after the task performance and the grammar lesson, the two treatment groups and the control group were assigned to read a story including the target structure from the previous week's treatment. The group members listened to the story and answered some general questions. Then, the students were given the text and were asked to check their answers and underline any special use of English they noticed. The researcher acted very carefully not to give any sign about the existence of the target structures. Next, the texts were collected by the researcher. The second week after the treatment, a dictation exercise including the target structures within was given to all the three groups. Later, the texts were given to the group members so that the students checked what they wrote and underlined any special use of English before the texts were being collected.

The researcher used repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) procedures and derived univariate statistics in order to examine the significance of the difference in proficiency test scores within the two grammar treatment groups and between the two groups. In order to analyze and obtain the frequencies of noticing, the researcher counted the number of times the structure was underlined in the noticing exercises. It was observed that learners also underlined non-grammatical items such as English proverbs, unusual lexical items and interesting items. The researcher also counted this content-based underlining for the three groups. Chi-square was used to test the significance of differences in noticing frequencies between each grammar treatment group and the communicative task group. The instances of unrelated content-based underlining across the three groups were also treated in the same way.

Noticing frequencies for the three structures were analyzed one by one. The first structure, adverb placement, was not noticed by the control group members; however, the two treatment groups noticed many incidents of the structure one week after the treatment/lesson and continued to notice the structure after two weeks. The rate of frequency for the second

noticing was lower than that for the first noticing. The number of the existence of the structure was also lower. In terms of the second structure, indirect object placement, there were not any significant differences between the grammatical noticing frequencies for the grammar task group and the grammar lesson group. It can be concluded that task performance promotes amounts of noticing comparable to formal instruction. The grammatical noticing frequencies of the control group for the second structure were lower than that for either treatment group; this also proves the effectiveness of the grammar consciousness-raising treatments. During the third cycle on relative clause placement, the grammar lesson group's class was unexpectedly cancelled, which meant the loss of the data for the first noticing exercise. However, the grammar task group noticed more instances of the structure than did the control group.

No significant difference in any pre-, post- or final test score was observed between the grammar task group and the grammar lesson group for all tasks. This means that the two groups' proficiency levels were similar before and after the treatment, and these groups maintained these levels even after two weeks. In order to investigate whether a significant relationship existed between proficiency gains and noticing frequencies, the researcher performed Pearson's product-moment correlations with the two treatment groups' post-test proficiency gain scores and their total noticing frequencies. However, the correlations were insignificant and low. Only for the grammar lesson group was there a significant correlation between proficiency and noticing for the indirect object structure. Besides, by dividing the two treatment groups between low and high proficiency gain groups, independent Student *t* tests were used to determine whether significant differences in noticing mean scores existed between the high-gain and the low-gain groups. According to this analysis, there was no significant difference for the grammar task treatment group across the three grammar structures. However, there was a single significant difference between high- and low-gain score learners for the grammar lesson treatment for the first grammar structure on adverb placement.

In conclusion, the researcher observed that for adverb placement and relative clause usage, performance of the grammar consciousness-raising task promoted comparable amounts of noticing to that produced by formal, teacher-fronted instruction on the same grammar point. Besides, both grammar treatment groups made comparable significant proficiency gains in the structures and maintained these scores over a two-week period. According to Fotos (1993), these results suggest that learners were able to develop significant levels of explicit grammatical knowledge as a result of the consciousness-raising task treatments. As Ellis (1990, cited in Fotos, 1993) mentions, once their consciousness is raised,

learners continue to be aware of the structures and notice them one or two weeks later. Therefore, the researcher suggests that grammar consciousness-raising task performance is nearly as effective as formal instruction in the promotion of noticing, and noticing structures is positively related to the emergence of the structures in learner output. All in all, consciousness-raising is a general pedagogic device which can be applied very broadly to different areas of language teaching.

In another research, Fotos (1994) mentioned the view that grammar instruction is important in raising learners' conscious awareness of a particular feature; therefore, grammar instruction should be integrated with the provision of opportunities for meaning-focused use of the target language. Fotos and Ellis (1991, cited in Fotos, 1994) recommended a task-based approach to grammar instruction using a task type which enables learners to solve some grammar problems interactively. This is called grammar consciousness-raising task which is communicative and has an L2 problem as the task content. Not only do learners focus on the form of the grammatical structure, but they are also engaged in meaning-focused use of the target language while solving the grammar problem. In other words, learners increase their grammatical knowledge while they are communicating.

It is important to mention the two main differences between consciousness-raising communicative tasks and grammar consciousness-raising tasks. According to Fotos (1994), the first difference stems from the nature of the task content. The content of the grammar consciousness-raising tasks is the target structure itself; however, consciousness-raising communicative tasks require learners either to recognize the target structure or to use the target structure to reach the task solution. Secondly, developing immediate ability to use the target structure is not aimed in grammar consciousness-raising tasks. The main attempts in such tasks; however, are to call learner attention to grammatical features, to raise their consciousness of them and to enable learners to notice these features in communicative situations.

According to Fotos (1994), the use of grammar as the task content has some essential pedagogic advantages. Instead of the use of some topics of trivial nature in communicative tasks, Fotos (1994) suggests that grammar problems constitute serious task material. This point is important especially in most EFL situations where teacher-fronted grammar instruction is commonly favored and communicative activities are regarded to be of little value. Especially if learners have the same L1, they may complete the communicative tasks by using their L1 instead of the target language. However, if a grammar problem is taken

as the task content, learners are required to use the target language to solve the task. Another advantage for Fotos (1994) is the ease of the assessment of the task performance through pre- and post-tests on the specific grammar structure.

Beside the knowledge of the features of grammar consciousness-raising tasks, it is also important to mention the term negotiated interaction in order to have a fully understanding of this research. Negotiated interaction (Long 1983, cited in Fotos, 1994) refers to the type of interaction in which learners ask and answer some questions when certain items of discourse are not clear for them. This type of interaction is believed to be very beneficial in promoting learners' comprehension of the target language. According to Pica (1987, cited in Fotos, 1994), negotiated interaction results in adjustment and modification of language output. Native speakers modify their output so that it becomes more comprehensible for learners, and learners force themselves to make their output like the target language in order to be understood. This process is called pushed output.

160 Japanese university EFL learners of three intact classes were the subjects of this research. There were 54 or 55 learners per class. The learners had one required 90-minute period every week, and the researcher took the place of the instructor. One class received three teacher-fronted grammar lessons on adverb placement, indirect object placement and relative clause usage. The second class received three grammar tasks on the same structures, and the third class received three communicative tasks which are similar to grammar tasks in terms of length, format, instructions and task features but lacking grammatical task content. A cloze test which was previously determined to be valid and reliable (Fotos 1991, cited in Fotos, 1994) was administered to all classes, and it was found out that there was not a significant difference in English proficiency among the three classes.

The three treatments consisted of three cycles of three weeks each and were carried out during the weekly 90-minute English class. Before the researcher delivered the grammar task (grammar consciousness-raising task) and the grammar lesson (the teacher-fronted grammar lesson), the two grammar treatment groups were administered a pre-test on grammatical structures. A post-test similar to the pre-test was administered to these groups after the performance of the task and the lesson. During the performance of grammar consciousness-raising tasks, 10 to 12 discussion groups of each treatment were sent to separate rooms, and all these groups were audio-taped. The delivery of the traditional grammar lessons was audio-taped as well. The communicative task group, on the other hand, was not provided with instructions

on these grammar points, and this group was not administered pre- or post-tests, either. During the third week, a final test similar to the pre- and post-tests was administered to the two grammar treatment groups.

The starting point for this research was to compare the proficiency gains of learners performing grammar consciousness-raising tasks and traditional teacher-fronted grammar lessons. The repeated measures MANOVA procedures were used to analyze the pre-, post- and final tests. The statistical analysis proved that the two groups' initial proficiency in all grammar structures was similar, and after the treatments, both groups had similar immediate proficiency gains and maintained this level of proficiency gains after two weeks.

Beside the proficiency gains, the number of L2 negotiations made while performing grammar consciousness-raising tasks and communicative tasks was to be compared. One way chi-square tests were used to find out the differences between separate quantitative counts of L1 and L2 negotiations produced by all discussion groups of grammar consciousness-raising and communicative tasks groups. The number of such L2 word categories as confirmation checks, clarification requests and comprehension checks was taken into account. In the first task, which was on adverb placement, the grammar task group produced significantly more L2 words and more L1 negotiation words. The communicative task group members were able to make only two more L2 negotiations per minute. In the second task, which was on indirect object placement, the communicative task group made more L2 negotiations than the grammar task group, and it stemmed from the fact that there were several unusual lexical items in the sentences of the communicative task. There were no significant differences for the third task, which was on relative clauses.

In summary, Fotos (1994) concludes that the knowledge developed through the performance of three different grammar tasks compared favorably with the knowledge gained from formal instruction on the three grammar points. Grammar task performance may be used for different grammar structures. Fotos (1994) also suggests that grammar task performance promote negotiation quantities comparable to those produced by communicative task performance. All in all, it can be said that grammar consciousness-raising tasks may be of great value for acquisition processes as the possible proficiency gains and negotiated interactions compare favorably with traditional grammar lessons and communicative tasks.

All the studies mentioned above indicate that there are few studies which focused on the comparison of TBLT and PPP in teaching a specific grammar point. Besides, all these studies took place in different educational settings than Turkey. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out further studies on the effects of TBLT on grammar proficiency and noticing.

2.2. Qualitative Studies on TBLT

The aim of Savic's survey (1997) was to help Spanish teachers and instructors to understand their role in promoting and teaching the Spanish language and culture to Yugoslav students. It was a survey of teachers' and instructors' attitudes and assumptions toward Spanish curriculum organization and general issues about language teaching methods. The researcher followed the patterns established by the Foreign Language Attitude Survey for Teacher (FLAST) in her survey and made the necessary adaptations for the local needs and purposes. The participants were The Belgrade University instructors from the Spanish section at the College of Philology, the Foreign Language High School teachers of Spanish and instructors from two Institutes for Foreign Languages. Besides, several classes at different levels at the College of Philology and at the Institute for Foreign Languages were observed.

Savic interviewed a total of twelve Spanish instructors who are females and aged from 27 to 55. Eleven of them are Serbian and the graduates of the Spanish section, College of Philology at Belgrade University. One of the instructors is from Peru and a graduate of the Universidad de San Marcos, Lima, Peru, who has lived in Belgrade for the last twenty-five years. The length of their teaching experiences varies from ten months for the youngest and to twenty-five years for the two older instructors. The number of students they teach varies from five to twelve at the Foreign Language Institutes, from fourteen to twenty at the Foreign Language High School and from twenty to forty-five at the College of Philology. The textbooks used at the Foreign Language High School and the Institutes are either from Spain or written in Yugoslavia, and they aim at Yugoslavian/Serbian students studying Spanish. An Introductory Spanish text- book is available for the freshmen at the College of Philology.

As mentioned above, the research consisted of a survey following the patterns of FLAST. The main aim was to enable the researcher to have a close look at the Spanish instructors' assumptions about the foreign language teaching methods, their present knowledge about first and second language acquisition and how much they knew about communicative competence and some general trends in foreign language teaching methodologies.

The answers of the instructors to the questions had a contradictory nature. The instructors gave positive answers to the questions concerning the use of the Spanish language during the class period, the development of communicative skills as a major goal of language teaching process, the incorporation of the materials and the Spanish culture and making language teaching interesting enough to motivate students. Seventy-five percent of the instructors in the survey agreed that communicative language skills and communicative competence should be developed in their classes. Eighty-four percent of the participants agreed that Spanish should be used in classes as much as possible, and the teacher should create several opportunities to enable students to speak in Spanish in communicative situations. Eighty-six percent of the participants strongly agreed that it would be impossible to teach Spanish without giving students education about the Spanish culture. The culture should also be taught whenever and wherever possible. Ninety-four percent of the participants agreed that various real-life situations should be created to promote the acquisition of communicative skills. Ninety-two percent of the participants agreed that foreign language classes should have a fun and stimulating nature. Eighty-six percent of the participants strongly agreed that students could make errors in pronunciation, morphology and syntax; however, the errors should be considered as a natural part of acquisition process. Therefore, complete grammatical and linguistic accuracy should not be expected especially while students are exchanging ideas spontaneously. All of the participants gave positive answers for the need to use visual and audio materials in their classrooms.

On the other hand, sixty-seven percent of the participants believed that grammar-translation method is beneficial for the development of communicative skills in Spanish. Contradicting what they said about the possibility of communicating without complete accuracy, sixty-five percent of the participants found knowledge of grammar necessary for the development of communicative skills. Fifty-four percent of the participants believed that if the native language and the target language structures are significantly different, the repetition of sounds, words and larger units are needed for the acquisition of the target language. Similarly, sixty-eight percent of the instructors favored exposure to a well-planned repetition so that students can use the new material actively. Fifty-two percent of the instructors interviewed agreed that the sound system of Spanish should be taught separately, at the beginning of the acquisition process. Seventy-four percent of the participants found it beneficial that Latin should be studied before the study of any other Indo-European language. Only fifty-two percent of the participants believed that human beings have an innate capacity to learn a language. Sixty

percent of the participants believed that starting to study a language at an early age is a prerequisite for the successful acquisition of it. Fifty-four percent of the participants held the view that if a student has low grades in his or her native language, it is natural that s/he will be a poor learner of the target language.

Finally, the visits to the Spanish classrooms at the College of Philology and at the Institute for Foreign Languages were highly useful to prove that traditional teaching techniques are commonly used in the instruction of Spanish. Grammar drills and overt error correction are heavily included in teaching activities. There is a tendency to use the native language more than necessary. The teachers show little or no attempt to arrange group or pair work activities throughout the class hours. In addition to these, the use of audio/visual and reading materials is ignored; and thus, learners lack the chance of being exposed to social and thematic context-based input.

To sum up, the visits to different classes confirm the findings of the survey. According to the survey results, the instructors have a theoretical understanding of the basic principles of efficient language teaching; however, they strongly need teacher training programs, specialized workshops, modern textbooks and additional teaching materials to convert their theoretical knowledge into practice. Interaction with other Spanish teachers, for instance, may enable the teachers to receive the most recent developments in the area.

Kim (1998) aimed to provide English teachers in Korean classroom settings, whether they are native speakers or not, with communicative-oriented activities, namely task-based activities, that are linked to the curriculum of the textbooks in nationwide use. This study specifically addresses the concerns of eighth graders in Korean junior high school, who are either false beginners or learners at the intermediate level of proficiency.

English language curriculum in Korea favors the communicative approach as one of the most effective contemporary methodologies in teaching English. However, Korean teachers of English had difficulties in dealing with such textbooks in English. Therefore, they tended to use one of two major methods: the Audiolingual Method and the Grammar Translation Method. For this reason, the Korean-American Educational Commission and the Korean Ministry of Education employed many native English speakers in the past years. These teachers came both from America and all over the world, and they stimulated language learning through providing more authentic language input.

From 1993 to the summer of 1997, the researcher observed numerous classes throughout Korea and in Hawaii: more than 30 classes taught by 11 native speakers, more than 70 classes by 24 Korean teachers in Korea, and 15 classes by nine ESL teachers in Hawaii. Several problems were noticed through these observations. First of all, native speakers were able to teach a class only once a week and deliver conversational classes, which meant that the native speakers did not know much about the regular curriculum. Therefore, they were not successful in reinforcing students' knowledge obtained from the regular English classes with the Korean teachers. Second, the native speakers did not explain enough of their culture or identify the contrasts and similarities between their society and the Korean society. Third, the classes had 40-50 students, so proper group work was not achieved at all. Fourth, many native speakers who did not have a degree in ESL had problems with developing specific lesson plans, which resulted in failure to collaborate with Korean teachers.

In conclusion, the researcher believes that English should be taught as a tool to communicate in natural settings. Since the students have limited opportunity to use English with foreigners in Korea, it is very difficult for Korean students to produce comprehensible output at the sentence level. Therefore, it is necessary that Korean EFL teachers implement a communicative approach and supply realistic activities which students need outside the classroom.

Zhang (1994) was the leader of the project which focused on the implementation of a task-based syllabus for a group of beginning learners of Chinese. The aim was to have a longitudinal study of the implementation of TBLT. The group of beginning Chinese learners (41 in semester 1 and 29 in semester 2) took the subject called 'Beginning Chinese' in Monash's Arts degree. The curriculum design of this project had two unique features: a task-based syllabus and learner-centeredness. The task-based syllabus design consisted of pedagogic and target tasks selected according to identification of prior needs. The students took part in individual, pair work, group work and the whole class work. In the present program, the teaching of Chinese grammar was incorporated into a communicative curriculum, and grammar was taught both implicitly and explicitly. First, the students were presented with the necessary vocabulary, and then they were asked to solve the problem of arranging sentences.

The researcher emphasizes that the investigation was conducted in the field rather than in artificially controlled laboratory settings. The effect of the total program rather than the

isolated components of it received attention; therefore, the duration of the studies was decided to be long-term rather than short-term. The major concern was to achieve results which could be generalized. The evaluation of the program was conducted on the whole program. There were no control groups, but a small non-randomized group of students and teachers over a year. During the teaching and course development period, a teaching consultant and two teachers were appointed to perform observation sessions on a weekly basis. The results of the sessions were returned to the coordinator and were discussed as a part of the course development. Besides, the students were asked to fill in Monash University Teaching and Subject feedback forms every six weeks to have immediate problems solved. At the end of each semester, they were asked to fill in a Student Questionnaire and a methodological evaluation questionnaire. The results of the methodological evaluation questionnaire were matched with the students' need analysis to be able to see how sufficiently the methodology of the course fulfilled the needs of the students. The results of the Student Questionnaire were used in order to identify the areas of improvement in the following semester. At the end of the second semester, four teachers and 12 students of varying linguistic ability were interviewed by the teacher consultant, and the results were analyzed.

According to the outcomes of the evaluations, most students (72%) found the way Chinese grammar was taught in this program very helpful in their learning. 55% of the students felt that they learnt a lot about both English and Chinese grammar. Most students (98%) stated that pair and group work was their favorite pattern of interaction. Student participation was favored believing that it was beneficial for their learning. All students found the teaching staff friendly, which is a very important incentive to learning. The feedback gained from the students also showed that the students tended to take a very active part in the process of using Chinese.

Concluding, the researcher supports that the students gained considerable knowledge about learning and teaching through their active involvement in the curriculum design of the course. The project led to improvements in the students' abilities in Chinese and in developing strategies to use while communicating with people. It was also observed that team teaching and peer observation sessions were valuable tools in the training of new teachers.

McLaughlin (2001) aimed to evaluate the English language-learning program at Andong National University in Korea. The case analysis of the Andong program had two main components. First, the results of teacher questionnaires were assessed regarding CLT principles.

Second, the program workbooks were designed and assessed according to task-based principles. Testing and grading also showed a strong attachment to task-based principles.

The Language Center building at Andong National University was equipped with the latest facilities including multi-media technology. The teaching staff were all native English speakers who all had university degrees plus TEFL credentials. A small minority had degrees in TESOL or applied linguistics. The students were generally from lower middle class and were not English majors. Most of the students were false beginners who had few chances to use English in real life situations.

According to their author, each of the workbooks seeks to address a different learning characteristic. The first workbook aims to address confidence. Information gap activities such as surveys and guided role plays are included. The second workbook aims to increase motivation. It is topic-oriented, and it includes guided conversation exercises. The third workbook helps to increase independence. Longer-term tasks are completed individually or in groups so that learners make use of their currently acquired English knowledge. The workbooks attempt to prepare the students for the specific situations they would encounter in real life.

The class sizes in the program did not exceed 25 students. However, the A.N.U. program was lacking in terms of the opportunities provided for the students to interact in the target language environment. The students were able to attend the Language Center for just two 50-minute sessions a week.

The surveys were conducted based on Breen & Candlin's (1980, cited in McLaughlin, 2001) description of teacher, student and material roles in the CLT classroom. The teachers' survey produced very positive outcomes for the first three sets of questions related to teacher, students and material roles in class. This shows a strong positive bias on the part of the instructors towards the CLT approach. The students' survey produced more modest and varying results. The only item in the students' survey which scored higher than the equivalent item in the teachers' survey was that they saw themselves helping the teacher.

To sum up, the Andong program succeeded in presenting the target language code for the students to analyze, making sufficient use of pre-tasks and post-tasks so that L2 elements were integrated into the interlanguage of the students, keeping the communicative and cognitive stress appropriately low, providing meaningful and relevant tasks and getting most of the

students actively involved in class activities. The researcher also believes that a balance between accuracy and fluency goals was achieved, and term-end testing was successful in supporting task-based approach. However, the researcher also mentions some possible weaknesses of the program. For instance, there were not scored tests for the pre- and post tasks. Such tests could have indicated to the students the forms which they needed to pay more attention. There were not sufficient communicative writing tasks or work-related tasks. Not all the members of the L.C. were able to understand the principles behind task-based teaching. In short, the Andong program was an innovative task-based course which suited the students' needs.

Carless (2002) conducted qualitative case studies of three teachers in different schools implementing a task-based innovation in Hong Kong primary schools. The pupils in the classes of observation were six or seven years old. Seventeen lessons for each teacher were observed and audio-taped over a period of one academic year, which is fifty-one lessons in total. Beside the observations, the researcher carried out six semi-structured interviews. Furthermore, Carless (2002) holds the view that the conditions for task-based instruction in Hong Kong are not favorable. There are thirty-six pupils in per class in primary schools, and the classrooms do not have adequate storage space. In addition to these, senior teachers and principles do not fully support the rationale for Task-Based Learning.

In this research, Carless (2002) focused on four themes which were noise/discipline, the use of the mother tongue, the extent of pupil involvement and the role of drawing or coloring activities. The researcher analyzed these themes separately, but this does not mean that there is no link between these themes. There is a link between these themes, for instance, when the use of mother tongue increases in class, the level of noise also increases. For each of these themes, Carless identified challenges for the implementation of Task-Based Learning with reference to the three case study classrooms.

In the Hong Kong context, school principles and senior teachers give importance to quiet classes with students focused on reading and writing exercises. Speaking activities are restricted to teacher talk and to choral repetitions only. All the three teachers noted a kind of tension between performing task-based activities and maintaining good discipline. According to the teachers, it is difficult to have a balance between performing communicative tasks and maintaining good behaviour. Large class sizes are believed to contribute to the problems of noise and indiscipline. According to the researcher, in the classrooms under observation, noise

and indiscipline stemmed from three conditions. Firstly, lots of discussions and arguments arose when the students were not clear about what to do in the following activity. Secondly, the students became task-off when the task was either too easy or too difficult. Thirdly, it was observed that the type of the task also affected the level of the noise in the classroom. For instance, role-play type of tasks caused over-excitement which resulted in a higher level of noise. Carless suggests that the reminders about the noise level should be made both before the task and during the task. In groups, group leaders should be appointed by the teacher for the supervision of noise among the peers. The teacher also may offer rewards to the best-behaved group of students.

In terms of the use of the mother tongue, Carless mentions that the use of the first language or code-switching from the target language to the mother tongue or vice versa is a common feature in EFL world-wide, and it is a natural act which, if used successfully by teachers or pupils, seems to make positive contributions to the learning process. In a study in Turkish secondary schools, Eldridge (1996, cited in Carless, 2002) found that most code-switching was purposeful, and both lower and higher achievers exhibited a similar quantity of code-switching. In their study, Swain and Lapkin (2000, cited in Carless, 2002) found that pupils used the first language for three main purposes such as moving the task along, focusing attention and interpersonal attention. According to Carless, the mother tongue serves a number of functions such as providing an opportunity for pupils to clarify the meaning of the teacher's utterances, discussions of the requirements of the task and how it can be performed, and also a social function in terms of creating a sense of group cohesion or reducing student anxiety.

In each class under observation, it was observed that pupils frequently used Cantonese rather than English during the tasks. In this study, the extent of the use made of the mother tongue was related to two important dimensions. Firstly, the researcher supports that the more linguistically complex and open-ended the task, the more use seemed to be made of the mother tongue. Secondly, the researcher found out a kind of relationship between the pupils' language proficiency and the extent of the use of the mother tongue. The relationship was that the higher the language proficiency of the pupils, the less Cantonese they used. In the highest ability class among the three classes, however, there were times when a lot of Cantonese was spoken, but the use of the mother tongue occurred especially when the students were over-excited or distracted. Besides these two dimensions, the researcher observed that there was a variation in the use of the mother tongue between groups of students as well as classes. This means that irrespective of their language proficiency, some pairs of students frequently used

Cantonese even in linguistically simple tasks. To promote the use of the target language, Carless suggests that the teacher should be a good model by using the target language as much as possible.

In terms of pupil involvement, the classroom observation revealed that there was sometimes a high degree of variety of pupil involvement in group work for Task-Based Learning. As the researcher states, classroom data for the study provided a number of illustrations where, during performing the tasks, English language production was mainly restricted to certain individuals. The group leaders of small groups of five or six pupils were actively engaged in language production. According to Carless, the extent of pupil involvement in tasks raises the issue of the extent to which Task-Based Learning is taking place successfully. On the other hand, the researcher speculates that pupils learn new things by observing others carrying out the task when they have not achieved the level of second language development where they feel comfortable in speaking before the others. Carless suggests that teachers should develop more inclusivity in the classroom by discouraging the more domineering students and encouraging the more reticent ones so that all students may start to make oral contributions. Another suggestion is that if groups have leaders, this role should be circulated among all group members rather than being restricted to only one student. It is also advisable to assign different roles to students at different times. Groups may be rearranged in different ways to increase the opportunities for pupils to enact different roles.

According to Carless, the theme of drawing and coloring shares common ground with the previous theme in that it focuses on a lack of pupils' linguistic output. A certain amount of drawing/coloring is considered good primary practice. However, there should be an acceptable balance between the relaxation or enjoyment provided by drawing/coloring and the language output. According to Carless, there were some occasions during the observed lessons in which some pupils seemed to produce drawing/coloring but made no written or oral production in English. The researcher comments that it is a problematic issue whether the motivating aspects of drawing/coloring may compensate for the lack of language learning, especially in Hong Kong setting, where serious learning is valued more than enjoyable learning. According to the observation of one of the classes, the pupils were asked to make a zoo by using cut-outs, and this resulted in a lot of talk in the mother tongue, and pupils were actively and enthusiastically involved in the task. However, there was almost no target language input. In the interview, the teacher complained about the time-consuming nature of the activity and also felt that there were some additional non-linguistic gains from the activity such as the

conceptualization of animals and the social skill of coordination during the group work. What the researcher suggests is that teachers should develop the habit for pupils of doing the written or reading part of the task at the beginning or midway through the activity so that drawing/coloring can be completed afterwards.

To sum up, this qualitative study focused on the implementation of Task-Based Learning with young learners in Hong Kong. The researcher used classroom observation and interview data to provide an analysis of four issues facing teachers in the Hong Kong context. The article written on this research also includes some useful advice for the teachers of second language.

There is a great amount of literature on communicative and task-based teaching often with adult ESL classes; however, according to Candlin (2001, cited in Carless, 2003), there is a lack of empirical research on task-based teaching school foreign language contexts. The practicalities and challenges in task-based teaching differ from those expressed in the literature. Therefore, reporting on how teachers are implementing an innovation is highly beneficial both for the management of such a change in teaching and for the ongoing development of task-based teaching in classroom setting. The aim of Carless's research (2003) was to provide some information on how three teachers tried to come to terms with the planning and implementation of a task-based pedagogic innovation.

In Hong Kong, task-based teaching started and included as a part of a Target-Oriented Curriculum (TOC). In practice, the approach to tasks in Hong Kong primary schools is similar to what Skehan describes as the weak approach to task-based learning, with tasks comparable to the production stage of a PPP method. This weak approach is more popular than the strong approach where tasks are the main organizational focus and language study emerges from tasks. Due to this weak approach, tasks in TOC are highly structured.

Carless carried out case studies of three English teachers in different schools, implementing the task-based innovation TOC over a seven month period in their own primary 1 or primary 2 classrooms with students aged 6-7 years old. The teachers, all Cantonese native-speakers, were interested in the implementation of the innovation. They were in their twenties or early thirties, and they were open to changes and confident enough to be observed on a longitudinal basis. Carless preferred case study as an investigative technique in order to study

the teachers in depth in a classroom setting and to facilitate the development of an understanding of the innovation with the help of the teachers' viewpoints.

The research questions of the study focused on the teachers' attitudes and understanding towards task-based teaching; and the factors impacting on the planning for the implementation of task-based teaching. Data collection methods were classroom observation, focused interviews and an attitude scale. The researcher conducted classroom observations for five or six consecutive English lessons for each teacher in three separate cycles during the school year. Totally, seventeen lessons of each teacher were observed. The reason for observing successive lessons and at different stages of the academic year was to reduce the dangers of the observer's subjectivity. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected, quantitative data in terms of a tailor-made observation schedule, and qualitative data in terms of lesson transcriptions and field notes.

Each teacher was interviewed with semi-structured interviews lasting between forty minutes and one hour. Before the classroom observations, a baseline interview was conducted to gather some relevant information about the background of the teachers and the school. Three post-observation interviews were conducted after the observation of each cycle of lessons in order to gather some information about the lessons that had been just observed. The researcher also carried out summative interviews in order to gather further information about the main issues stemming from the classroom observations and ongoing data. Six months later, post-analysis interviews were conducted in order to verify the conclusions and the interpretations with the teachers as a part of the data analysis. Task-based teaching was the main focus of the interview; it was investigated both through the direct questions of the researcher and the issues raised by the informants. Carless also developed a five-point attitude scale to measure the orientation of the respondents to ELT and TOC.

The researcher carried out the data analysis of the qualitative data by assigning codes to the interview transcripts and the classroom observation summaries. From these codes, a number of issues were developed such as the issue of the syllabus time available to carry out task-based teaching. Six main issues were chosen as main themes, and all data referring to these themes from different research tools were gathered and analyzed in detail.

According to Clark (1999, cited in Carless, 2003), Hong Kong teachers had unclear conceptions about task-based teaching, and this hindered its implementation. In this research,

understandings were observed through interview data and classroom observations, and in terms of teachers' understanding of tasks issue, three teachers were able to identify the key features of task-based learning and TOC. Teachers' attitude towards task-based teaching was evidenced by the attitude scale and interview data. Two of the teachers were positively inclined towards task-based teaching while the other teacher claimed to be positive when asked directly, but there were contradictions between these positive assertions and other interview extracts, the attitude scale and the classroom data. In terms of the issue of time available for task-based teaching, all the three teachers referred to the impact of time on task-based teaching by pointing out the influence of time with respect to the pressures of completing the syllabus. They complained that some tasks are quite time consuming to prepare and to carry out. In terms of the fact that the textbook and topics had an impact on task-based teaching, a clear picture did not emerge. According to the classroom observations of the teachers, all topics seemed to permit the exploitation of task-based teaching. In the interviews, however, the teachers noted that different topics directly affect the motivation and interest level of students.

It is a fact that Hong Kong language teachers have heavy workloads, mainly marking exam papers. Sometimes, task-based teaching, however, requires additional preparation of ideas and materials. In terms of teacher preparation and resources, there were mixed views. Teachers did not identify preparation time for task-based teaching as a major issue or find this wholly negative. Overall, this factor did not form a major impediment to the implementation of task-based teaching. In terms of the language proficiency of the students, the researcher's interpretation of the data is that more able students have a greater capacity for tasks.

In conclusion, this research indicates the factors which impacted on teachers' approaches to task-based teaching in Hong Kong, and also how this influenced the uptake of the innovation. The model obtained from the data may be found speculative due to the small number of teachers. In spite of this limitation, this framework may have something to say to teachers and researchers who are willing to investigate how teachers come to terms with task-based teaching.

Recent research in task-based pedagogy points out that learning outcome is the result of an unpredictable interaction between the learner, the task and the task situation. From the teacher's point of view, the achievement of success is based on the degree to what extent teacher intention and learner interpretation of a given task may meet. According to Kumaravadivelu (1991), the narrower the gap between teacher intention and learner

interpretation, the greater are the chances of achieving desired learning outcomes. Therefore, in this study, the researcher aimed to investigate potential sources contributing to the mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation. In recent years, teacher and learner perceptions of classroom aims have gained greater importance, and the potential sources for the mismatch and miscommunication between the teacher and the learner require to be examined more closely.

The researcher analyzed classroom events in order to identify any observed mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation. The task used in this study was taken from a recently published textbook: *Pyramids: Structurally Based Tasks for ESL Learners*, by Madden and Reinhart, published by the University of Michigan Press. The task is on scanning advertisements, and it was concerned with the linguistic features 'too' and 'enough', at low-intermediate level. Two intermediate-level ESL classes taught by two different teachers took part in this study. Both of the teachers agreed to follow the same task by using the strategies for classroom management provided by the textbook writers. The selected task required a paired activity, and the researcher focused his attention on one pair of learners in each class. One pair was formed by a Japanese male and a Brazilian female, another group was formed by a Japanese male and a Malaysian female in order to guarantee that each pair did not share the same native language. The researcher audio taped and transcribed the classroom interaction, and then talked with the teachers and the learners to have certain clarifications. The classroom transcripts were the source of primary data, and the interview transcripts were the source of secondary data. Based on the analysis, the researcher identified ten sources which have the potential to contribute to the mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation of classroom aims and events. The sources listed in this analysis have cognitive, communicative, linguistic, pedagogic, strategic, cultural, evaluative, procedural, instructional and attitudinal foundations. The researcher established such a list of categories by closely examining the classroom transcripts. Several occasions of mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation were basically placed under these categories. The researcher states that these labels do not have distinct boundaries, but they are distinct enough to relate to a particular source. However, further studies are needed to understand already determined and yet undetermined mismatches which classroom events are capable of generating.

To conclude, the study classified ten potential sources of mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation. According to task-based pedagogy, teachers and learners should function as partners. Therefore, contradictory intentions and interpretations of

partners should be understood and analyzed closely if the aim is to facilitate desired learning outcomes in the classroom.

Lynch and Maclean (2000) questioned the benefits of task repetition in their experimental research. The participants were the students of a course called English for Medical Congresses. 14 health professionals were attending this course in order to improve their ability to present papers in English. The course was based on task-based activities. The participants worked through a number of tasks to increase their awareness of appropriate language for communication at congresses.

The researchers used a specific type of task called 'poster carousel' (Lynch and Maclean, 1994, cited in Lynch and Maclean, 2000). The points they wanted to explore were whether learners gain from repetition in the poster carousel, whether they think that they gain and in what ways learners gain from repetition. The participants were paired up, and pairs were given a different research article. In one hour, they made a poster based on the article. The posters were displayed in a large room. One participant from each pair answered the questions of the visitors. When the A participants came back, the B participants went visiting. When the second rounds were over, all the participants discussed the posters and the teacher provided feedback on language points.

The researchers state that repetition in the case of the carousel means something like recycling or retrieval because there is not a second performance by one speaker on an identical task with the same listener in the case of poster carousel. There were three pedagogical reasons for introducing the carousel into English for Medical Congresses: first, to provide freer talk after more controlled reporting tasks; second, to provide a lighter activity before the final conference presentations; and third, to encourage the learners to handle with questions under time pressure. Besides, it was observed that carousel produces a great deal of involvement and enjoyment.

In this research, two types of data were collected. First, the researchers recorded all the interactions between each host and visitor and transcribed them. The second source of data was a self-report questionnaire. The participants were asked to fill in a self-report questionnaire so that they reflected on their experience on the task. Next, the researchers chose two participants at the extremes of the proficiency level of the group: Alicia, who was the weakest in the group with less than 400 TOEFL, and Daniela, who had over 600 TOEFL. The analysis of

Alicia's recordings showed that her spoken English output became more accurate in syntax, lexico-grammar and pronunciation. In the case of Daniela, information density and precise meaning improved with task repetition. Alicia and Daniela provided contrasting comments in their questionnaires. Alicia expressed that she had not consciously decided to change the way she expressed herself, or she had not noticed any unplanned changes. However, Daniela stated that she had taken deliberate decisions to change linguistic expressions and observed unplanned changes in her performance. According to the researchers, the difference in the reactions stemmed from their level of proficiency. Alicia was so firmly fixed to convert her meanings that she could not monitor her own performance. All in all, the researchers observed that linguistic changes occurred in the output of the two learners. They believe that the use of poster carousel stimulates comprehensible interaction among partners in the form of asking and answering questions, and task repetition enables different learners to develop different areas of their interlanguage.

Beglar and Hunt (2002) believe that a task-based syllabus has the potential to play an important role in ESL/EFL curricula. In their research, they aimed to evaluate one implementation of task-based learning, which was a unified, semester-long project. The task-based project was implemented at a major private Japanese university with 340 first-year students enrolled in a second-semester speaking course. These students were placed into classes according to their TOEFL scores. The project, which was called student-generated action research by the researchers, took 12-week semester to complete. The learners were supposed to work in groups of two to four persons and choose a topic which they wanted to learn about. Then, the group members were asked to design a questionnaire, and the questionnaires were used to investigate the opinions that a target group held about the chosen topic. Each group member was expected to administer a questionnaire and an interview with at least ten people. Next, the group members compiled, analyzed and organized the resulting data. They chose the most important aspects of the data, summarized them and presented them to the class in five to eight minutes. The objectives of the project are listed as providing the learners with the opportunity to use English for authentic purposes for an extended period of time, allowing the learners to take responsibility for their own English education by giving them the responsibility for topic selection, questionnaire preparation and deciding how they will form and present the data collected, reinforcing the learners' ability to form grammatically correct questions, enhancing the learners' presentation skills and encouraging the learners to work with a partner for an extended period of time.

According to the researchers, the success of this project stemmed from the fact that the learners had control over the topic they investigated. This caused noticeable positive effects on the learners' motivation to complete the task successfully. Allowing the learners to choose the topic they want to study is in accordance with the principles underlying analytic syllabi. Besides, the instructors encouraged the learners to choose socially relevant topics so that the classroom activity was enlarged to a bigger social context. The topics the learners chose were information society, marriage, care for the elderly, suicide, older men dating high school girls and environment.

A priority in task-based approaches is to activate learners' metacognitive resources so that they become aware of what is being learnt and what remains to be learnt. Engaging in self-assessment brings about understanding one's weaknesses. The learners participating in this project were required to reflect upon their performance in group presentation. However, there might be some shortcomings. The learners, for instance, were not asked to formulate a plan to address the weaknesses they observed; therefore, no concrete action took place.

In conclusion, the researchers observed that the task-based project was well received by the majority of the learners in the course. The learners found the activities to be rewarding, interesting and educationally beneficial. The final presentations were observed to be impressively polished and to include a great deal of detailed information. The final product was of high level, but the concern of this project is mainly the process. Seen from the point of view of process, the project has the potential to help learners to improve many aspects of their English language proficiency.

In another study, Swain and Lapkin (2001) focused on the use of the first language made by 22 pairs of grade 8 French immersion students. The researchers state that the research focusing on the relationship between L1 and L2 use in the context of bilingual education for minority language children makes it clear that the development and maintenance of the L1 supports the development of the L2. It is believed that L1 use both supports and enhances L2 development, functioning as an effective tool to deal with cognitively demanding content.

For the present research (Swain and Lapkin, 2001), the participants were two French immersion classes at the grade 8 level. These English-speaking students were enrolled in immersion since kindergarten, with instruction in the medium, French. Class D with 30 students performed a dictogloss task, and Class J with 35 students performed a jigsaw task. The students

performed the tasks in pairs. The two tasks were based on the same story. The jigsaw task involved a visual stimulus (the pairs had a series of pictures), and the dictogloss task involved an oral text stimulus (they listened to a native-speaker version of the story on tape). All the dialogues of the pairs in both classes were tape-recorded and transcribed, and also each pair of students was asked to write the story following the stimulus presented.

Although both tasks generated attention to both meaning and form, there were notable task differences. There was less variability among student dyads in Class D compared to Class J in the number of language-related episodes produced, and in the range of vocabulary in the written narratives. Besides, Class D produced more correct reflexive verbs in French than did Class J. When the researchers analyzed the tape-recordings of the dialogues of the dyads, they identified that all the turns contained English, and they listed three categories for the use of L1. It was observed that the students used L1 in order to move the task along, to focus their attention and to have interpersonal interaction. The data analysis showed that the pair of students who achieved higher ratings for content and language on their written narratives made less use of L1. However, some factors affected the amount of the L1. For instance, one intervening variable was the task itself, the students' performance was constrained by the dictogloss task compared to the jigsaw task. This suggests that different task types provide different degrees of needs for different uses of L1.

To sum up, the researchers believe that the use of L1 should not be prohibited in immersion classrooms, but also it should not be actively encouraged because it may substitute for, rather than support, second language learning. Besides, the researchers believe that the task presented to the students may not be accomplished effectively if the students are forbidden to use L1.

In their recent study, Swain and Lapkin (2002) focused on the impact of peer-peer dialogue on second language learning. Both researchers view output (mainly speaking) as an important tool in cognitive study. They believe that thought is externalized through speaking, and it takes the shape of an object when it becomes an utterance. As an object, it is possible to scrutinize, question, reflect upon, disagree with or change the utterance. According to Lapkin, learners must speak to each other so that they can be engaged in making meaning and debating the meaning made. Whenever learners talk about their language forms and lexical choices, they can make their meaning clearer and more coherent. According to Lantolf and Swain (2000;

2000, cited in Swain and Lapkin, 2002), this talk about language (metatalk) facilitates second language learning by supporting the process of internalization.

Swain (2000, cited in Swain and Lapkin, 2002), holds the view that metatalk is used to reflect consciously on language use. Metatalk is a kind of collaborative dialogue, and speakers are engaged in problem-solving and knowledge-building in such dialogues. Peer-peer type of dialogues is believed to foster language learning. According to the results of the research carried out by De Guerrero & Villamil (2000, cited in Swain and Lapkin, 2002), the opportunity to talk and discuss language with each other allows learners to consolidate and reorganize their knowledge of L2 in structural and rhetorical aspects.

For the present study, immersion programs in Canada were chosen as the starting point of the study. The reason was that immersion programs are believed to provide useful context for examining language learning in progress. Students' exposure to French is limited to the classroom atmosphere. Target-language models are provided only by the teacher or the print. The output students hear from each other is full of inaccuracies, and they do not have much opportunity to produce the target language.

Two participants in the study came from a typical French immersion program. Both Dara and Nina, two adolescents at the age of 12, started to study French at the kindergarten level, at the age of 5. The data collection which had several stages took over two weeks. At the beginning of the first session, the students watched a five-minute videotape focusing on pronominal verbs in French. The video also included a part where two students performed a jigsaw task. Then, Nina and Dara performed a similar jigsaw task collaboratively. First, they spoke on the task and then wrote their text together. Next, a native speaker reformulated their text. Reformulation means that the native speaker revised the students' text to reflect target-language use while preserving the students' original meaning. The second stage focused on the act of noticing. The students were required to notice and mark the difference between their text and the reformulated version of it, and they were videotaped. During the third stage, the researchers showed the videotape of the second stage to the learners. They stopped the tape at each feature the students had noticed, and the students were asked to comment on these features. During the fourth stage, the students were given their text and asked to make any changes they wanted. The two students worked independently, and at the fifth stage, the researchers interviewed the students individually to elicit their perceptions of the stages.

For the data analysis, the researchers coded the transcribed data from the first stage to the third stage in order to obtain language-related episodes (LREs). Nina and Dara produced 47 LREs in the writing stage, and they produced 21 LREs in the noticing stage. The native speaker made 29 changes in their text, and the students were not able comment on eight during the noticing stage. During the stimulated recall stage, Dara and Nina produced 23 LREs. In general, both students paid more attention to form than they did to lexis or discourse. Besides, the researchers investigated that both students commented positively on the value of their dialogue with each other. They believed that it was highly advantageous to have someone to talk to whenever they observed a change and did not know the reason for this change. In short, they believed that receiving feedback from peers had a positive impact on their language learning.

In conclusion, the researchers emphasize that reformulation of learners' writing is an effective technique for stimulating noticing and reflection on language. Nina and Dara noticed most of the differences between their text and the reformulated version. The various stages of such tasks provide learners with numerous opportunities for collaborative dialogue. The researchers state that multiple opportunities to 'talk it through' means that learners can reflect on the language point in question and come to a deeper understanding of the proposed change.

In their experimental study, Salaberry and Lopez-Ortega (1998) focused on attention to form which is a direct predictor of accuracy in second language production. It is believed that the degree of attention to form is among the important cognitive factors which cause variation in language. Krashen (1982), for instance, supports that attention acts as a monitor for the appropriate use of language. However, variation in L2 is explained by some other factors than attention. According to Tarone (1985, cited in Salaberry and Lopez-Ortega, 1998), the discursive features of the L2 text cause variation in L2. If learners are expected to use adequate discursive cohesiveness (interview and narration type of tasks), they tend to be more accurate in the use of the structures which maintain the cohesiveness of the narration. Tarone (1988, cited in Salaberry and Lopez-Ortega, 1998) also believes that communicative pressure acts as a direct causal or predictive factor of accurate use of L2. The nature of specific tasks places different degrees of communicative demands on learners (grammar tasks the lowest, spontaneous conversation the highest). According to Ellis (1987, cited in Salaberry and Lopez-Ortega, 1998), however, planning time has a clear effect on L2 accuracy.

In the present study, all the participants were the NSs of English and Spanish was the target language. Students with two different levels of proficiency in the L2 were included in the study to investigate the effect of developmental patterns in the participants' construction of the TL. The target grammatical items were past tense aspect, subject pro-drop, and definite and indefinite articles. The participants were 74 English-speaking full-time college students. 45 students were enrolled in four sections of an advanced beginners' (third semester) Spanish language course (Spanish 123). The remaining 29 students were enrolled in three sections of an advanced (sixth semester) conversation and composition course (Spanish 311). Besides, 10 native speakers of Spanish formed a control group.

The students were presented two versions of the grammar task: a fill-in-the-blank cloze test (FB) and a multiple-choice test (MC). The three grammar points were included evenly in both versions of the grammar tasks. In addition, the students were asked to write a narration using a series of pictures. The story led the students to use the three targeted structures. Two sections in Spanish 123 did the FB task, and the other two sections did the MC task. One section in Spanish 311 did the FB task, and the other two sections did the MC task. Such counterbalancing was done to control possible classroom factors. In the analysis of the narrative task results, the errors on the use of the targeted structures were counted.

The analysis of both the grammar tasks and the narrative tasks showed that accuracy of L2 production varied according to the grammatical item. The lowest number of mistakes for both Spanish 123 and Spanish 311 was observed in the use of articles. For both Spanish 123 and Spanish 311, the number of mistakes was higher in the FB test than it was in MC test across all three grammatical features. The researchers conclude that even if cohesiveness of the text is controlled, attention to form is not the single best predictor of accurate L2 production. They also believe that communicative pressure is not a direct predictor of accuracy in L2 production. The researchers also consider communicative control of the L2 grammar as an additional factor that may explain variation in accuracy of L2 production. It is also interesting that variability across tasks decreases as the level of proficiency increases. In conclusion, this study proves that attention to form is a good predictor of accuracy among L2 learners, and speakers' control of the grammatical requirements of the task allows them to manage their cognitive and intellectual resources.

In their research, Kuiken and Vedder (2002) aimed to investigate the effect of interaction between learners of English as a second language during a dictogloss task on the

acquisition of the passive form. Many linguists have believed that there is a connection between learners' awareness of linguistic forms in the input and successful learning. Noticing, which stands at the base of the present study, emphasizes the interaction of input features with the interlanguage system of the learner. The second line of the research is based on the role of interaction. Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985; 1998, cited in Kuiken and Vedder, 2002) suggests that output may influence noticing and promote L2 acquisition. Swain also emphasizes collaborative dialogue which engages learners in negotiating meaning and language building. Collaborative language production tasks serve to deepen learners' awareness of linguistic forms. When learners are engaged in meaningful interaction, they understand the relation between meaning, form and function, and such activities lead to greater metacognitive awareness. The term interaction is used in the sense of collaborative dialogue in this research.

The aim was to observe whether the outcome of a particular language task (the dictogloss task) with respect to a particular construction (the passive) differs depending on the degree which learners interact with each other. The participants in the research were 34 Dutch high school students aged between 16 and 18. They were in their fifth year of English. The researchers set two groups: an experimental group (20 students) and a control group (14 students). The experimental group performed two dictogloss tasks. After the teacher read the text, the students had to reconstruct the text in small groups. In the control group, the students were asked to reconstruct the same text individually. They were not allowed to interact.

The texts used were 'The Stolen Painting' and 'The Nazca Lines'. They included three types of passives. The researchers tape-recorded and transcribed the discussions among the students during the reconstruction stage for the qualitative analysis. The discussions were mainly in Dutch, not in English. Previous knowledge of the passive in English was observed by means of a detection test. The pre-test included 32 sentences, and the students were asked to underline the sentences having a passive structure. After the dictogloss tasks, a similar test was given as a post-test. Two weeks later, the students were administered a delayed post-test. The researchers hypothesized that the students in the experimental group would perform better in the scores on post-test and delayed post-test due to the opportunity to interact with each other, and they would also use the passive structure more frequently in the reconstructed texts than would the students in the control group. Qualitative analysis helped the researchers to determine how noticing of the passive took place.

The quantitative analysis of the data shows that the opportunity to interact during the reconstruction stage did not cause a better result in the post-tests or in a more frequent use of the passives in the reconstructed texts. The qualitative analysis caused the researchers to make a distinction between 'simple noticing' and 'elaborate noticing'. Simple noticing takes place when passives are mentioned but not discussed by the students. However, in the case of elaborate noticing, the students discuss the passive structures, and they may propose alternative structures. The qualitative analysis of the students' discussions during the reconstruction stage shows that numerous instances of interaction led to simple and elaborate noticing. And this noticing led to new linguistic proposals and to more complex use of the structures in the output. The instances of simple and elaborate noticing in the transcripts demonstrate that the students were focusing on language form, they were aware of their problem areas, and noticing of the passive took place. To sum up, although quantitative analysis does not show significant gains when learners are given the opportunity to interact, the results of qualitative analysis seem promising. Noticing, as a result of interaction, gives way to new linguistic proposals.

The studies mentioned above involve different techniques to elicit qualitative data on TBLT; however, the thoughts of the learners who studied grammar through TBLT and PPP have not been elicited. Besides, all these studies took place in different settings other than Turkey.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Model

This study is composed of quantitative and qualitative parts. The quantitative study has a quasi-experimental model with one experimental group and one control group. A proficiency test and a noticing test were developed as pre-tests and post-tests of the study. The qualitative study is based on an interview with the subjects in experimental and control groups following the treatment. In the quasi-experimental part of the study, a class of students from Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu (6 B) was selected as the experimental group and another (6 C) as the control group. Both classes were selected for the study randomly. The experimental and the control groups both took a pre-test before the treatment and a post-test afterwards. The experimental group received a treatment of TBLT, and the control group was instructed in a traditional way following the principles of the PPP chain for one month. Once the quasi-experimental study had been completed, all the subjects of the study were given an interview to collect their thoughts on the instruction of grammar and the implementation of TBLT and PPP.

3.2. The Universe and the Sample

The universe of the study is the sixth grade students in primary schools in Turkey. The sampling of the study were chosen from Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu, and two classes were randomly appointed as experimental (6B) and control (6C) groups. The structures of the classes were not changed by the researcher. Table 3.1 displays the characteristics of the subjects in the experimental and the control groups who participated in the quantitative study.

Table 3.1: The Distribution of Participants into the Groups in the Quantitative Study

Gender	Control Group PPP	Experimental Group TBLT
Female	11	12
Male	8	8
Total	19	20

The subjects were the participants of the qualitative study as well. However, one student from each group was chosen for the piloting of the interview questions. Also, two students from the control group did not attend the interview after the treatment. That is why the numbers of the participants in the qualitative study differ from those in the quantitative study. Table 3.2 shows characteristics of the students who took part in the qualitative study.

Table 3.2: The Distribution of Participants into the Groups in the Qualitative Study

Gender	Control Group PPP	Experimental Group TBLT
Female	9	11
Male	7	8
Total	16	19

3.3. Data Collection

In this study, data were collected in both quantitative and qualitative ways. The quantitative part was a quasi-experimental study, and the qualitative part was a semi-structured interview after the treatment.

3.3.1. The Quantitative Study

In the quantitative study, a proficiency test and a noticing test were developed. The proficiency test was developed as an exam with different kinds of questions and the noticing test as a correct-incorrect type of exam.

3.3.1.1. The Proficiency Test

Before the proficiency test was developed, the researcher selected the Simple Present Tense as the focus of the teaching point. According to the curriculum designed for the sixth grade students by the Ministry of Education, the Simple Present Tense forms the base of the English lessons to be delivered throughout the academic year; therefore, the researcher chose the Simple Present Tense as the point of focus, and designed the proficiency test and the

lesson plans by paying attention to the goals and objectives mentioned in the curriculum. Another reason to choose the Simple Present Tense was the popularity of the use of this tense in real life use of the language. According to George (1972), the Simple Present Tense has a high frequency in terms of its occurrence per 1000 verb-form: the Simple Present Tense (actual) has the occurrence rate of 120.4 per 1000 verb-form, and the Simple Present Tense (neutral) has the occurrence rate of 69.7 per 1000 verb-form. This means that the Simple Present Tense is the second most frequently used tense after the Past Tense (George, 1972). As soon as the point of focus was determined as the Simple Present Tense, the researcher started to design the proficiency test.

Some scientists, instructor and teachers were consulted for validity during and after the development of the proficiency test. The questions were prepared according to the table of specifications as proposed by Ertürk (1972). They were developed on the goals and objectives determined for the teaching of a grammar point, the Simple Present Tense. The test questions were multiple choice, matching, fill in the blanks and sentence writing types of questions in nature. The questions were first piloted with a class of 26 students from Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu (7B), and problems detected during the piloting were solved before the study of reliability. The reliability of the questions was tested on 268 students from Karşıkaya İlköğretim Okulu, Vali Rahmi Bey İlköğretim Okulu and Saadet Emir İlköğretim Okulu. The results were analyzed with an SPSS program, and the number of the questions in the proficiency test was rendered from 65 to 62. The reliability analysis showed the Cronbach Alpha value of the test to be .96.

3.3.1.2. The Noticing Test

The noticing test of the study was also developed on the grammar points of the Simple Present Tense. The types of the questions were correct-incorrect, and they were developed with the support from scientists, instructors and teachers in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, which gave support to the validity of the test. A correct-incorrect exam was used because Noonan (2004) gives this type of exercise as one of the noticing activities. The noticing test also was based on the table of specifications derived from the goals and objectives of the teaching process of the Simple Present Tense. The noticing test questions were piloted in Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu with 26 students (7B), and results led to some reorganization of the test and to problem solving. After this piloting process, the questions were tested for reliability in Karşıkaya İlköğretim Okulu, Vali Rahmi Bey İlköğretim Okulu and Saadet Emir İlköğretim Okulu with 268 students. The reliability analysis was carried out with

the help of an SPSS program. The number of the questions in the noticing test was rendered from 15 to 11. The reliability analysis showed the Cronbach Alpha value for the test to be .62.

3.3.2. The Qualitative Study

The qualitative part of the study consisted of an interview with the students from both the experimental group and the control group. The thoughts of the students, who were treated differently for the teaching of the Simple Present Tense, were collected through an interview. Brown and Rodgers (2002: 290) define an interview as “*a survey done orally in a face-to-face format, on the telephone, or in the groups.*” Yeşilyaprak (2000) states that interviewing is one of the basic and most spread techniques of collecting individual data. Wray, Trott and Bloomer (1998) believe that with the help of face-to-face interview, it is possible to elicit language forms, to ask for intuitions and to question the interviewee generally. The interview of this study was in a face-to-face format with participants, and it was carried out individually.

The interview for the TBLT group was developed depending on the principles of TBLT and the task framework proposed by Willis (1996b) and Skehan (1996b). On the other hand, another interview was developed for the PPP group with some common questions with the one for the TBLT group. The interview questions for the two groups were discussed with the school teachers and scientists in the fields of Teaching of English as a Foreign Language and Measurement and Evaluation in Educational Studies in order to meet the criteria for a semi-structured interview and to increase the validity.

3.4. The Procedure

In this section, the procedural steps of the study are presented under the subheadings of Activities of Preparation, Pre-test, Activities of Introduction, Treatment, Post-test, Preparation of the Interview Questions, Interview, Validity and Reliability of the Qualitative Study and Data Analysis Techniques.

3.4.1. Activities of Preparation

This step of the study consists of determining and deciding on the school as the setting of the study, getting permission from the local bureau of The National Ministry of

Education for the study, informing the school administration and teachers about the study and assigning the subjects.

After consulting some teachers and directors from different schools, a school of primary education of middle socio economic status, Ufuk İlköğretim Okulu was chosen as the setting of the study since necessary consent was given by the administration and the teachers.

The aim, the content and the methodology of the study were introduced to the administration, which later led to the clearance for the study by the local bureau of The National Ministry of Education.

After the permission, English teachers at the school were requested to give information about the sixth grade classes so that the researcher was able to choose two classes of similar level. Next, two sixth grade classes were randomly assigned as control (6C) and experimental (6B) groups. They were both afternoon groups, and before the treatment, both classes had studied English with the same teacher. The pre-tests applied to these classes showed these classes to be at similar levels.

3.4.2. The Pre-tests

The pre-tests in noticing and proficiency were applied to both the control and the experimental groups in two class hours on November, 9th, 2004. The students were exposed to 63 questions on the proficiency test and 11 correct-incorrect type of questions. The pre-tests were applied to the experimental group in the first and second class hours, and to the control group in the third and the fourth class hours. There were no absentees in either class.

3.4.3. Activities of Introduction

The natural structures of the classes were not changed for the study. The methodology of the study was introduced to the school administration, and the dates and the period of the study were negotiated. The instruction activity was carried out by the researcher in both the control and the experimental groups.

Before the treatment period, the students were instructed by using the methods of the treatment in order to prepare them for the treatment. The verb 'be' in the Simple Present

Tense, which was studied before the experiment, was chosen for the piloting study. Both groups studied the verb 'be' in four class hours. By doing so, the students in the experimental group and the control group got acquainted with TBLT and PPP respectively.

3.4.4. The Treatment

The treatment was carried out in the control and the experimental groups for 4 weeks with 4 hours of classes each week. The treatment applied in the two groups was as follows:

The Experimental Group

1. The treatment in the experimental group was applied according to the principles of TBLT, and the framework introduced by Willis (1996b) and Skehan (1996b) was used as the basis for the lesson plans. Therefore, all the tasks done in classes had the basic stages of pre-task, task cycle and language focus.

2. The teacher roles, student roles and the roles of the educational material were designed and applied as proposed in the principles of TBLT.

3. The students were asked to form pairs or groups, presented with the necessary vocabulary in order to carry out the task and exposed to the real language use in the form of input in the pre-task stage.

4. With the use of different tasks during the task-cycle stage such as writing passages similar to the ones presented as input, finding the differences between the written and audio-taped versions of a text, separating the mixed sentences of two separate dialogues, preparing questions by using the pre-determined vocabulary and asking them to the other groups etc., the students were encouraged to use the language as in real life.

5. The researcher did not make any corrections about the students' use of the language while they were doing the task unless there was a serious breakdown.

6. After doing the task, the students were asked to report their productions before their classmates so that they were able to compare their findings.

7. The researcher observed the reports carefully and announced the best performance in order to create a kind of challenge in class.

8. Since the students were exposed to the new grammar points in the input and used the grammar points during the task-cycle stage, they gained some information and got acquainted with the new grammar points.

9. During the language-focus stage, the grammar points were focused in meaningful contexts through consciousness-raising.

10. Either the sentences used in the input or the students' own sentences produced during the task-cycle stage were used for the analysis of the new items.

11. For the practice of the new grammar points, the researcher handed out exercises of different kinds.

12. Cooperation was supported in the privacy of the small groups, and the students were encouraged to use the target language as much as possible without having the fear of making mistakes.

The Control Group

1. At the beginning of the classes, the grammar rules were taught explicitly.
2. The questions raised by the students about the grammar points were answered explicitly.
3. In the classroom, some choral repetitions of the new item took place.
4. After the grammar presentation, the students did oral practice on the new grammar point.
5. The students were corrected immediately.
6. Students worked individually.

7. After the practice, students were asked to produce in the target structure.

8. At the end of the session, students asked questions about the items that were not understood and got the teacher response.

3.4.5. The Post-tests

The post-test in noticing and proficiency was applied in two class hours on December, 17th, 2004. The pre-tests and the post-tests included the same questions. The students were exposed to 63 questions in the proficiency test and 11 correct-incorrect type of questions. The post-tests were applied to the experimental group in the first and second class hours, and to the control group in the third and the fourth class hours. There were no absentees in either class.

3.4.6. The Preparation of the Interview Questions

With the help of interview, an interviewer has the opportunity to elicit data on interviewees' thoughts, beliefs and ideas (Powney and Watts ,1987). Besides, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) emphasize the fact that interview gives subjects the freedom of choosing topics of discussion. The questions in the interview of this study were prepared as open-ended questions to survey the thoughts of the participants in both the experimental and the control groups. A semi-structured interview was designed because such an interview is considered to be planned and flexible at the same time (Türnüklü, 2000). The questions were written according to the principles required for interviews (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2004) and were reviewed and revised by the scientists and instructors in the field. Two sets of interview were prepared, one for the TBLT group and another for the PPP group. Those two sets had some questions in common and some specific to the methodologies.

3.4.7. The Interview

Both the control and the experimental groups of students were given a semi-structured interview about the treatment they had during the study. The interview questions were developed with the support from scientists, instructor and teachers in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Measurement and Evaluation in Educational Sciences. The interview questions were piloted with two students: one in the experimental group and one in the control group. The results led to some reorganization of the test and to problem solving. The

interview was given by a specialist other than the researcher on December, 22nd, 2004. It took approximately 15 minutes for each student. The interview with each student was audiotaped for further analysis.

The interview took place in an empty classroom into which students were taken one by one. The size of the classroom was about 40 meters square, and it was a well lightened one with large windows. It had a teacher desk and student desks for 20 students. The walls had pictures and some bulletin boards. The students had the interview face-to-face with the interviewer at the teacher desk.

3.4.8. The Validity and the Reliability of the Qualitative Study

For the validity of the qualitative study, following issues were paid attention to:

1. The findings of the study are meaningful and intra-consistent.
2. The findings of the quantitative study and of the qualitative study come together to form a meaningful entity.
3. The predetermined framework before the study helped the data to be studied in some boundaries to come up with related findings.
4. The setting, sampling and procedure of the research were described in detail to make the findings comparable with other studies.
5. This study helps the reader to associate the findings with their own experience, since the place and the significance of the study in the literature were well defined.
6. To provide readers with the comparison of this study with other studies in the field, necessary explanations were made. Thus, the findings of the study can be tested in similar settings.

In addition to the validity, the reliability of the qualitative study was increased with special attention to following points:

1. The researcher defined herself as the implementer of TBLT in the experimental group and of the PPP type of instruction in the control group.
2. The characteristics of the participants were described in detail.
3. The setting of the research was also described in detail.
4. The framework predetermined for the study was well described to support further studies.
5. Methods of data collection and data analysis were described as a procedure in detail.
6. No hypotheses were made before the study in order to abstain from bias and prejudice.
7. All kinds of statements by the participants were taken into consideration as data.
8. All the data from the study are kept by the researcher for other researchers and scientists.
9. The interview was given by a different researcher than the researcher of the study in order to provide objectivity for the process of interviewing.
10. Another researcher from the field took part in the study to check the compiled and analyzed data to prevent any possible errors.
11. The findings of the study were read by another researcher from the field to get rid of some personal comments to increase the objectivity as proposed by Fanselow (1992).

3.5. Data Analysis Techniques

The quantitative data collected throughout the study were analyzed through following techniques:

1. Standard deviation.
2. Mean score.
3. Analysis of variance.
4. *t*-test.

For the analysis of the qualitative data, a descriptive analysis was used to summarize and comment on the data. A descriptive analysis aims to comment, organize and analyze the data according to a predetermined framework (Yıldırım and Şimsek, 2004). All participants were given a number (T1....T19 for the TBLT group students, and P1....P16 for the PPP group learners) to avoid confusion in data organization and commenting. The steps of data analysis of the qualitative study that were followed are as follows:

1. Describing the framework
2. Data organization
3. Defining the findings
4. Commenting on the findings

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

In this chapter, the findings from the research based on the methodology introduced in the previous chapter and the interpretations of these findings are presented with respect to the research questions of the study. The research has two main parts: quantitative and qualitative.

4.1. The Quantitative Study

The quantitative study aimed at studying the effects of TBLT and PPP approach on the proficiency and noticing levels of the learners in the use of the Simple Present Tense as a grammatical entity. The findings of the quantitative study are presented in terms of the test scores and the statistical analysis of these scores. In addition, the study queried for the effects of the two treatments considering the variability of gender in both experimental and control groups.

4.1.1. The Effects of TBLT and PPP Instruction on the Proficiency and Noticing in the Use of the Simple Present Tense

In order to study the effects of TBLT and PPP on proficiency and noticing of the learners in their use of the Simple Present Tense, the learners were given pre-tests before and post-tests after the treatment. By doing so, the score differences between the pre-tests and the post-tests were obtained and further analyzed to find out if those differences were statistically significant. That is to say, the statistical analysis of the scores indicated whether or not the score differences of the two groups depended on the treatment. For this purpose; the mean scores, standard deviations of the pre-tests and the post-tests were obtained, and a t-test was applied.

First of all, the mean scores and the standard deviations of the control (PPP) and the experimental (TBLT) groups for the pre-test scores of the proficiency test were calculated and a dependent t-test was applied, and the findings are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Mean, Standard Deviation and Dependent t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in terms of Pre-test Scores of the Proficiency Test

Groups	n	Mean	SD	df	t	Sig.
PPP	19	7.90	3.35	37	0.54	Not Significant
TBLT	20	11.90	6.94			

[t (37)=2.02]

Table 4.1 indicates that the mean score of the TBLT group (11.90) is higher than that of the PPP group (7.90). The dependent t-test analysis proved the difference to be insignificant ($p < 0.05$).

Another analysis was performed for the analysis of the post-test scores in order to discover if the two groups significantly differed from each other. For this purpose, the mean scores and the standard deviations were calculated, and a t-test was applied. The findings are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in terms of Post-test Scores of the Proficiency Test

Groups	n	Mean	SD	df	t	Sig.
PPP	19	35.32	12.19	37	0.83	Not Significant
TBLT	20	38.60	12.40			

[t (37)=2.02]

Table 4.2 indicates that the mean score of the TBLT group (38.60) is higher than that of the PPP group (35.32). The t-test analysis proved the difference to be insignificant ($p < 0.05$).

The findings in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 indicate that the both groups (TBLT and PPP) did not significantly differ in their proficiency in the use of the Simple Present Tense regarding the pre-test and post-test analyses of the research.

The quantitative part of the study also aimed at investigating the effects of TBLT and PPP approach on the noticing level of the learners in the use of the Simple Present Tense. With this purpose, a correct-incorrect type of noticing test was given to both the experimental

(TBLT) and the control (PPP) groups. First of all; the mean scores, standard deviations and t-test scores were analyzed for the pre-test scores of the both groups and shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in terms of Pre-test Scores of the Noticing Test

Groups	n	Mean	SD	df	T	Sig.
PPP	19	1.26	1.10	37	1.72	Not Significant
TBLT	20	1.90	1.21			

[t (37)= 2.02]

Table 4.3 proves the mean score of TBLT group (1.90) to be higher than that of PPP group (1.26). In order to discover if this difference was significant, a t-test was applied. The t-test score shows that the difference between the TBLT and PPP groups in terms of pre-test scores is not significant ($p < 0.05$).

As in the case of proficiency pre-test scores of the two groups, mean scores, standard deviations were obtained for the post-test scores and a t-test was applied to test the significance. The findings are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Results of TBLT and PPP Groups in terms of Post-test Scores of the Noticing Test

Groups	n	Mean	SD	df	T	Sig.
PPP	19	5.58	2.09	37	0.17	Not Significant
TBLT	20	5.70	2.32			

[t (37)= 2.02]

Table 4.4 indicates that the mean score of the TBLT group (5.70) is higher than that of the PPP group (5.58). A t-test was applied to find out if the difference was significant, and it was realized that the difference between the groups in terms of post-test scores is not significant ($p < 0.05$).

The findings in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 indicate that the both groups (TBLT and PPP) did not significantly differ in their noticing levels in the Simple Present Tense regarding the pre-test and post-test analyses of the research.

In order to investigate the differences between proficiency and noticing pre-test and post-test scores of the TBLT and the PPP groups, a t-test was applied. Table 4.5 shows the findings from this analysis:

Table 4.5: Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test Scores of the Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Pre-test and Post-test Scores

Dimension	Groups	Tests	N	Mean	SD	df	t	Sig.
Proficiency	TBLT	Pre-test	20	11.90	6.94	19	9.36	Significant
		Post-test	20	38.60	12.40			
	PPP	Pre-test	19	7.90	3.35	18	9.70	Significant
		Post-test	19	35.32	12.19			
Noticing	TBLT	Pre-test	20	1.90	1.21	19	7.29	Significant
		Post-test	20	5.70	2.32			
	PPP	Pre-test	19	1.26	1.26	18	9.15	Significant
		Post-test	19	5.58	2.09			

[t (19)= 2.09] [t (18)= 2.10]

The proficiency test scores show that the post-test mean score of the TBLT group (38.60) is higher than the pre-test mean score (11.90). This means that TBLT instruction caused a difference for the learners. The t-test score proves that this difference is significant ($p < 0.05$). The proficiency post-test mean score of the PPP group (35.32) is also higher than that of the pre-test (7.90), and this difference is significant as well ($p < 0.05$).

As for the noticing test, the post-test mean score of the TBLT group (5.70) is higher than that of the pre-test (1.90), and this difference is significant ($p < 0.05$). The PPP group also shows a similar difference between the pre-test mean score (1.26) and the post-test mean score (5.58). This difference also proves to be significant according to the t-test analysis ($p < 0.05$).

The above analysis indicates that the methods used in the TBLT and the PPP groups both improved the proficiency and the noticing levels of the learners significantly. For the proficiency test, the mean score difference between the pre-test and the post-test of the TBLT group (26.70) is similar to that of the PPP group (27.42). For the noticing test, also, the mean score difference between the pre-test and the post-test of the TBLT group (3.80) is similar to that of the PPP group (4.32).

All these findings indicate that both the TBLT and the PPP groups improved their proficiency and noticing levels in the Simple Present Tense in a similar extent. Both methods prove to be significantly effective on the proficiency and noticing in the use of the Simple Present Tense as shown on Table 4.5. However, as shown on Table 4.2 and 4.4, TBLT and PPP do not significantly differ from each other. In addition, this is supported by the similar mean score improvements of both the TBLT and the PPP groups from the pre-test to the post-test scores of proficiency and noticing.

4.1.2. The Effects of TBLT and PPP Instruction on the Proficiency and Noticing Levels with regard to Gender

In order to investigate the effects of TBLT and PPP instructions on proficiency and noticing with regard to gender, the proficiency and the noticing scores of the learners in the experimental and the control groups were analyzed. In this analysis, it was searched if the scores of the learners significantly differed depending on gender. For this reason, the mean scores and the standard deviations of the learners' scores in both groups were analyzed in terms of gender. The findings are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of the Female and Male Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Pre-test and Post-test Scores

Dimension	Groups	Gender	n	Pre-test		Post-Test	
				mean	SD	mean	SD
Noticing	TBLT	F	11	0.91	1.04	5.18	1.17
		M	8	1.75	1.03	6.13	2.95
	PPP	F	12	2.00	1.35	6.25	2.63
		M	8	1.59	1.19	4.88	1.55
Proficiency	TBLT	F	11	8.00	3.82	36.27	10.74
		M	8	7.75	2.82	34.00	14.63
	PPP	F	12	11.67	7.20	40.25	13.73
		M	8	12.25	7.00	36.13	10.47

Table 4.6 indicates that, for the noticing pre-test scores, the mean score (1.75) of the male learners in the TBLT group is higher than the mean score (0.91) of the female learners,

whereas the mean score (1.59) of the male learners is lower than the mean score (2.00) of the female learners in the PPP group. For the noticing post-test scores, also, the mean score (6.13) of the male learners in the TBLT group is higher than the mean score (5.18) of the female learners, whereas the mean score (4.88) of the male learners is lower than the mean score (6.25) of the female learners in the PPP group.

For the proficiency pre-test scores, the mean score (7.75) of the male learners in the TBLT group is lower than the mean score (8.00) of the female learners, whereas the mean score (12.25) of the male learners is higher than the mean score (11.67) of the female learners in the PPP group. For the proficiency the post-test scores, however, the mean score (34.00) of the male learners in the TBLT group is lower than the mean score (36.27) of the female learners; and likewise, the mean score (36.13) of the male learners is lower than the mean score (40.25) of the female learners in the PPP group.

In order to investigate the significance of the differences between the groups and genders for the pre-test scores, a variance analysis was applied, and the findings are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Female and Male Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Pre-test Scores

Test		SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Noticing	Between	7.527	3	2.51	1.91	Not Significant
	Within	45.909	35	1.31		
	Total	53.436	38			
Proficiency	Between	158.231	3	52.74	1.66	Not Significant
	Within	1115.667	35	31.88		
	Total	1273.897	38			

The variance analysis result proves that the pre-test scores for both test types in the TBLT and the PPP groups do not significantly differ in terms of gender. That is to say, the difference between the male and the female learners is not significant [$F(3,35) = 2.87$] in the two groups for proficiency and noticing in the use of the Simple Present Tense.

Another variance analysis was applied to investigate the significance of the differences between the groups and genders for the post-test scores. Table 4.8 presents the findings obtained from this variance analysis.

Table 4.8: Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Female and Male Learners in TBLT and PPP Groups for Proficiency and Noticing Post-test Scores

Test		SS	Df	MS	F	Sig.
Noticing	Between	13.338	3	4.45	0.93	Not Significant
	Within	167.636	35	4.79		
	Total	180.974	38			
Proficiency	Between	210.693	3	70.23	0.45	Not Significant
	Within	5491.307	35	156.89		
	Total	5702.000	38			

The variance analysis result indicates that the post-test scores for both test types in the TBLT and the PPP groups do not significantly differ in terms of gender. That is to say, the difference between the male and female learners is not significant [$F(35.3) = 8.61$] in the two groups for proficiency and noticing in the Simple Present Tense.

The quantitative part of the study indicated that TBLT did not significantly differ from PPP in the teaching of the Simple Present Tense in a public school in Turkey. Gender also had nothing to do with the scores the learners accomplished in the pre-tests and the post-tests. Therefore, it is not possible to claim the superiority of one of TBLT and PPP on the other in teaching the grammar point the Simple Present Tense to sixth grade learners.

4.2. The Qualitative Study

The qualitative part of the study was designed to search for the thoughts of the learners in the two groups: the TBLT group and the PPP group. For this purpose, the learners in the two groups were interviewed by a scientist in the field. The pre-determined field of the interview was grammar instruction in TBLT and PPP. A semi-structured interview was prepared within the framework of the language focus for TBLT and of traditional grammar instruction for PPP. Along with the instruction, the practice of the new grammar items was included in the data analysis. In addition to the learner thoughts on grammar instruction and practice, some other issues concerning the implementation of TBLT and PPP were questioned from the data collected

through the interview. To sum up, the qualitative data were analyzed under the following headings:

1. Learner Thoughts on Grammar Instruction and Practice
2. Learner Thoughts on the Implementation of TBLT and PPP.

The thoughts of the learners were analyzed with direct quotations from the interviews, and the issues in the implementation were also derived from the thoughts of the learners.

4.2.1. Learner Thoughts on Grammar Instruction and Practice

The main focus of the quantitative part of this study was on the effects of TBLT and PPP instructions on the teaching of a grammar unit. That is why the main concern of the qualitative study was on the grammar instruction and practice.

Learners were provided with different grammar instructions in the PPP and the TBLT classes. According to Skehan (1996b), a PPP approach assumes that change will come about the presentation stage, and this will be transformed into fluency and accuracy through the following practice and production stages. Grammar instruction is provided in the presentation stage in order to cause a change in learners' system of the target language. The teacher or the syllabus designer decides the new forms to be presented, and the teacher mainly uses explicit rule giving while presenting the new forms of the target language. Explicit rule giving helps learners to gain familiarity with the units of the language, and learners are believed to learn these units once they are covered. This way of grammar instruction causes learners to develop explicit knowledge of the forms. However, TBLT supports that learners should be engaged in authentic language use. Grammar instruction is provided through post-task activities in the language focus stage after learners have completed the pre-task and during-task activities. In other words, after learners are exposed to authentic language in input and use the language for meaningful purposes, they focus on the new forms of the target language. According to Finch (1999), language analysis and language practice activities in the language focus stage help learners to identify the new forms, to classify these forms structurally and semantically, to be engaged in cross-language exploration and to recall and reconstruct texts. Learners focus on the language which is relevant to them because they have already used this language communicatively while doing the task, not because a syllabus designer requires that a particular

point should be covered. This means that learners are expected to develop implicit knowledge of the forms.

The learners in the two groups were asked for their thoughts on the introduction of new grammar points. The TBLT group presented their thoughts on studying the new grammar items after the task in language focus phase as follows:

“Other teachers always directly taught us. This teacher makes us be confronted with the points we do not know and later teaches.” (T1)

“...because (the teacher) tried to understand what we knew and what we did not know in order to better explain us.” (T3)

“This is very good because we tried to do the task first by ourselves. By comparing with what the teacher explains later, we understand oh we have made a mistake. But it is natural to make a mistake before learning.” (T6)

“Good. We do the task during the class hour. The teacher explains (the grammar item) later. I understand what mistakes I made.” (T8)

“That was better because we comprehended the things we did not know before. We learned by ourselves. We became our own teachers. It is better for us, we will not forget in this way.” (T9)

“...when we made a mistake, the teacher explained us and showed us what was correct or incorrect. So we improved our English better.” (T11)

“In my opinion, it would have been better if grammar had been taught beforehand. We would have done the task better, results might have been better.” (T12)

“We first did the task using what we already knew, later we learned what we did not know. It is beneficial. (T13)

"We do the task first, (the teacher) teaches later. This is better because we do not know about our mistakes in the beginning." (T14)

"The teacher tested us because we did not know anything. When we learn later, everything is easy for us. For me, this is beneficial. Doing a task correctly without studying is very good." (T15)

"That was better for me because we tried to do first by ourselves. Later, the teacher taught us. There is nothing bad about it." (T16)

"We first do the task, see our mistakes and because we know about our mistakes we do not repeat them." (T17)

"That was difficult for me. It would have been better if the teacher had given the rule beforehand. When you see your mistakes, you cannot go back to correct them." (T18)

"Grammar should come first, because you can do better if you learn (grammar) first." (T19)

When the thoughts of the TBLT group learners are taken into consideration, it can be easily stated that the introduction of new grammar items in the language focus phase after the task phase was welcome by most of the learners. They mostly stated that the language focus activities helped them better to remember and to maintain the grammatical items in oncoming tasks. Only 3 learners opposed this idea by stating that grammar should come first. However, it was strange enough to hear almost from every learner that they really care about 'mistakes and errors'. No matter whether they were for or against the implementation of language focus activities, they tended to believe that 'mistakes and errors' are bad, and they should be avoided sooner or later. In other words, learners believed that the goal of language learning was 'not to make mistakes and errors'. It is really important to discover that in a communicative language class, learners were able to find out that they are responsible for their own learning, and that they learn subconsciously.

Table 4.9 summarizes the thoughts of the learners in TBLT group on grammar instruction:

Table 4.9: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on Grammar

Instruction

Learner Thoughts	Participants																			Tot	%	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19			
Studying grammar after the task is good	1							1	1				1	1	1	1	1			8	42	
Teacher checks our knowledge before teaching			1			1									1					3	16	
Making mistakes during the task is natural						1							1							2	11	
With this method we know about our mistakes						1		1			1			1				1		5	26	
Grammar should be taught first												1							1	1	3	16

The PPP group was the control group of the study in which all grammatical items were taught explicitly and directly. They first got the rules and did the practice later. They always followed the Presentation-Practice-Production chain to master the new grammatical points. The learners in the control group were also asked for their thoughts on the PPP chain, and their thoughts are as follows:

"I liked the explanation of the teacher because when she teaches us, we listen more carefully and comprehend better... It does not matter when (at the beginning or at the end) you teach the grammar items. Both are OK. If well explained, the knowledge will be permanent."
(P1)

"When the teacher made an explanation, I comprehended well. If the teacher explains everything, we understand them. So we can do the exercises." (P2)

"For me, grammar should be taught at the beginning of the lesson. There are some students who do not know about it. So, it is good for them and also for us." (P4)

"First, our teacher makes an explanation. Later, we do the exercise, and we can answer the questions with the help of that information." (P5)

"I think the teacher explained everything when it was to be explained (at the beginning)." (P6)

"If the teacher had told about the grammar in the middle or at the end of the lesson, everything would have been hard for us. We would have had trouble in deciding what to do." (P7)

"We did not use our textbooks, which was good. I do not think books have enough information for us...When we learn the grammar first and then do the practice, it is very good." (P8)

"I liked the explanation part of the class because when the teacher explains the grammar item, I perceive it better. Without it, I would not be able to do the exercises at all...The earlier you learn about grammar, the better it is. If she had not taught at the beginning of the lesson, we would not have been able to do the exercises...It's very important to understand the teacher while she teaches grammar, and later you can practice the language on your own." (P9)

"When grammar is taught at the beginning of the lesson, it is a bit better. In this way, we understand better." (P10)

"It is better to explain grammar before everything. Anyway that is how the teacher did. She taught us first, and then we did everything by heart." (P11)

“If the teacher had taught grammar late, we would not have been able to do the exercises.” (P12)

“The middle or the end of the lesson would not be good for grammar teaching, we would be confused.” (P13)

“It is not good in the middle or at the end of the lesson. If not taught at the beginning of the lesson, I cannot comprehend...The best part of the class for me is the teacher explanation part.” (P14)

“Our teacher teaches grammar at the beginning of the lesson, and we ask question if we do not understand. She explains again. If she did not teach grammar first, we would not understand anything.” (P15)

“The teacher does it well. If she taught grammar late, it would not be good.” (P16)

All the learners in the control group of the study stated that grammar should be taught explicitly and directly because this way of grammar teaching was very good and useful to them. They stated that grammar teaching was a prerequisite to do the exercises correctly. Table 4.10 gives a summary of the thoughts of the learners in the PPP group on grammar instruction:

Table 4.10: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on Grammar Instruction

Learner Thoughts	Participants																Tot	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		
No matter when grammar is taught	1																1	6
Grammar should be taught first				1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12	75
Not using the textbooks for grammar is good								1									1	6
Grammar is necessary for practice					1		1	1	1			1					5	31

In the language focus phase of the task framework, language is analyzed and practiced. Practice activities help learners to consolidate and revise what they have studied before. These activities may include some oral exercises as well as some written ones. Willis (1996b) states that much practice could be done by the learners as homework. With the help of practice activities, learners have the opportunity to use the language and to study about the language. Following statements by the learners of the experimental TBLT group reflect their thoughts on the language focus phase of the task framework:

"The part of the lesson I liked best was the exercise part since it indicated how much we knew." (T2)

"I liked the practice activities. They were fun... There were different kinds of activities. They were very beneficial to us." (T3)

"Because I like working alone, I liked the exercises most." (T5)

"I did not like working alone and doing some exercises by myself." (T9)

"I liked the practice exercises at the end of the lesson. They were fun to me. We needed to do them alone. They were easy." (T10)

"We usually used photocopies. They were practical to use." (T12)

"What I liked best about these classes was doing some exercises and group work. Exercises are things like revision what we have studied...Using photocopies is very good. When we did the exercises on the blackboard in the past, everybody saw what you did. In case of a mistake, people laughed at you. Photocopy is better. When you are doing the exercises, you have to think. What if you make a mistake?" (T13)

"The teacher asked us to correct our friends' sentences. I think this is very useful. (T15)

The learners in the control group were given two kinds of practice activities: oral and written. They were supposed to answer the oral exercises introduced by the teacher. For example, the learners replaced the subjects of the sentences with other singular and plural nouns and pronouns in order to study the subject-verb agreement and third person singular –s in the Simple Present Tense. After the oral practice step, the learners were given written exercises to use and monitor the language. Their thoughts on these practice activities are as follows:

“I think those activities were not enough in number. I would like more because they are fun.” (P1)

“I think this is the best. When the teacher gives us oral work, we comprehend better...I liked the exercises, too. They were different to me because other teachers did not give such exercises.” (P2)

“I think the activities written on the board are not good. Oral ones are better. They make our ability to memorize develop and enable us to learn better...I liked the photocopies a lot. I had fun doing them... Exercises were very good. Every teacher should give such exercises.” (P3)

“I think positively about oral practice. We communicate better by speaking...I think exercises are very good. They reflect what the teacher has taught on paper...The exercises the teacher gave us were creative work. Through them, we were able to check ourselves.” (P4)

“When I speak to the teacher, I feel as if I am more hard-working. If I speak well, I can comprehend better...While I am doing the exercises, I think hard. I cannot ask the teacher for help because I feel shy.” (P5)

“In oral practice, long sentences were hard to remember for me. It is useful for us to expand our minds...We did different exercises which we had not done before.” (P6)

"I liked the oral practice because it gave me the opportunity to comprehend better...While writing and doing the exercises, you need to think harder." (P7)

"I do not like oral practice. When the teacher asks me something orally, I cannot answer. I feel nervous." (P8)

"In general, oral practice is good because this helps us to speak to a foreigner...I like the exercises because they are like exams. I can evaluate myself...Using photocopies is good because when you do the exercises on photocopies, the teacher can see who is better or worse." (P9)

"Oral practice was for our good. It helped us to keep things in mind...During the oral practice, we think very hard because it is not easy to keep sentences in mind. We think hard to retrieve the sentence." (P10)

"I wish we did not have any oral practice...We did not use the textbook. The teacher gave us the sheets, and we did the exercises. Doing exercises is good because our English gets better." (P11)

"It (oral practice) was good. Good for our comprehension... My favorite part of the lesson was the exercise session. It was fun and instructive...It is very good to work on photocopies. We learn faster." (P12)

"I think positively about oral practice. It gives you practice. The teacher gives half a sentence, we complete it...I liked the exercises very much because they were easy. Without exercises, I do not understand even when the teacher teaches...With the help of the exercises, I learned some words very well...We did not use a textbook, we used sheets instead. They were easy. I sometimes take them out and revise." (P13)

“Our teacher gave us answers and asked us to make questions. That was very good. All the class started to improve with the practice...The exercises were good to me. My English got better.” (P14)

“I think exercises are good because they help us to learn and speak English...The teacher brought photocopies to class. She gave them after she taught us how to make an evaluation.” (P15)

“The teacher gave us photocopies. That was a change for us. So, we comprehended better. Photocopies are clearer than books, and I really enjoyed doing them.” (P16)

The statements of the learners presented above display that the learners in the control group thought in favor of the oral practice since they believed oral practice to be influential on the improvement of their English. It is possible to assume that the learners in majority were for using the language whether it was natural or artificial. Without oral practice and exercises, they thought the process was not complete. Most of the learners in the control group stated that the oral practice and exercise phases were those which required more thinking; that is to say, more of a cognitive process. The learners believed that they learnt better when they were cognitively involved.

Another point to be seriously considered about the thoughts of the control group learners, like in the TBLT group, is that they are not, at all, concerned about the material taken into the classroom. What is new in terms of physical and cognitive value seem to be fun for the learners especially if they are used to the traditional way of spoon-feeding type of teaching activities. Almost every learner in the groups remembered the photocopies taken to the class by the teacher. With no hesitation, they emphasized the importance of those sheets for their development because of their earlier learning experience which they considered to be monotonous. Thus, any novelty in the methodology like not using the textbook seemed to have deep impact on the learners in the language classroom.

Table 4.12 summarizes the thoughts of the learners in the PPP group on grammar practice:

Table 4.12: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on Grammar

Practice

Learner Thoughts	Participants																Tot	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		
Practice activities were not enough	1																1	6
Oral practice is beneficial for communication				1	1				1				1	1			5	31
Oral practice is beneficial for comprehension		1	1			1	1			1		1	1	1			8	50
Using worksheets is beneficial			1						1		1	1	1		1	1	7	44
I liked the exercises a lot		1		1					1		1	1	1	1	1		8	50
Not using the textbook is good											1		1			1	3	19
Exercises on the board are not good			1														1	6
I do not feel well during oral practice								1									1	6
Exercises were new to me		1		1		1											3	19

When the experimental and the control groups are considered as a whole, it is obvious that the learners are accustomed to traditional teacher-centered grammar teaching. The control group learners never talked about communicative alternatives to traditional grammar instruction since they were not aware of them. However, when they were given a meaningful grammar learning setting, it was welcome by the majority of the learners. Even in the control group, new material caused a significant change in the perception of the learners. They stated that they never used worksheets before then. What is new, different and fun to the learners has a lot to do with the learners' positive thoughts towards learning a language.

4.2.2. Learner Thoughts on the Implementation of TBLT and PPP

In this study, the thoughts of the learners were surveyed not only for the grammar instruction and practice in the classroom for the TBLT and the PPP groups but also for the

implementation of TBLT and PPP. For this purpose, the data collected through an interview were analyzed to discover other issues concerning the implementation of the method in real classroom setting other than grammar instruction. However, because language is an entity which cannot be separated into units such as grammar, vocabulary, etc. anything told about the implementation may or should have something to do with grammar.

In this part, some issues were dealt with depending on the responds of the learners to some specific questions asking about the implementation of TBLT and PPP. Also, some problems which arouse by the statements of the learners were presented with direct quotations from the participants of the study.

The learners in the both groups were asked to state what was new to them in the treatment period. The thoughts of the TBLT group learners are as follows:

"The teacher always gave us exercises, and this way it was more fun. Other teachers always directly taught us. This teacher gives us new material and then teaches" (T1)

"The teacher gave us photocopies. Other teachers wrote everything on the board. When we work on the paper, we see how much we know." (T2)

"Other teachers followed the units in the textbook. Different subjects are better. Our teacher gave us different tasks. It was fun. I want it to be like this all the time." (T5)

"I learned new words and about my mistakes. It was very good and fun." (T6)

"Before this, the teacher talked, and we listened. But with this teacher, we did very different things." (T8)

"This was better and different. We tried to do the task before learning grammar. We produced first and learned later." (T9)

"The teacher gave us worksheets. We did them. I had fun with them. We sat in groups of two or four. I learned a lot." (T11)

"Presenting the things we have done, being like a teacher was different. We did make some mistakes, but the teacher made us correct them. She just listened to us. I think our teacher does a good job. She does not act like other teachers. Other teachers always ask for accurate answers. But this teacher gives the instructions about the tasks and leaves everything to us. We learn by ourselves. (T12)

"We did group work, exercises... We worked with friends. This is good because we have a new friend in our class. He did not use to talk to people before, but now he does. He was shy before." (T13)

"There were worksheets. We worked in groups. It was good and fun." (T14)

"Working with friends in groups of four were new. We had listening and we wrote on worksheets. Before this, every teacher taught first and then asked questions. But this teacher made us work with other students, we were like teachers. I think this is better because we learn faster." (T15)

"Working in groups and doing the exercises was new to me." (T16)

"Group work was new to me. You work with somebody and give your answers. Group work is fun." (T17)

"This teacher gave us photocopies, which others never did. I liked these exercises. The teacher put us in groups. I liked it, it was fun." (T18)

"We did group work. That was different because we had never done that before. She gave us exercises. That was also different. I think these are good. In this way you understand better. If you understand

and give the answer, knowledge becomes permanent. So you learn English.” (T19)

The learners in the TBLT group stated that studying a language through tasks was completely new to them. They emphasized that they had different classes owing to group work which they enjoyed a lot. Some learners stated that they felt like teachers because of the lack of teacher intervention. What they meant by ‘permanent knowledge’ is a result of meaningful learning, which is a premise the philosophy of TBLT is based on. As mentioned in grammar instruction discussion, the learners expressed positive feelings about worksheets and exercises that were new to them. They tended to state what was new to them to be also ‘good’. Table 4.13 gives a summary of the thoughts of the learners in the TBLT group on the novelty the method introduced:

Table 4.13: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on the Novelty the Method Introduced

Learner Thoughts	Participants																			Tot	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19		
Doing the task before studying grammar	1							1	1											3	16
Working on the worksheets instead of textbooks		1			1						1			1	1			1		6	32
Doing grammar exercises																1			1	2	11
Working in groups											1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	42
Being like a teacher												1			1					2	11
Working on other people’s mistakes												1								1	5

The same interview questions were replied by the learners in the PPP group as well. Below are presented their thoughts:

“Other teachers never came to class with photocopies. This teacher gave us photocopies and taught different things.” (P1)

"Other teacher did not bring photocopies but this teacher did. I keep them in my notebook. I sometimes revise them and try to do them again. Photocopies are better." (P2)

"Before, we did not use photocopies, only the textbook. This time, we did not use our textbooks. We had fun." (P3)

"Exercises were new." (P4)

"The teacher gave us photocopies. When we do them, we learn a lot." (P5)

"We did different exercises which we had not done before. We were given worksheets. These are necessary for us to learn." (P6)

"It was interesting for me. The teacher taught in a different way. I was impressed." (P7)

"The teacher gave photocopies. That was different. The way she teaches is also different. Photocopies are like exams. I like them." (P8)

"What the teacher did was easy for me. I understood it better." (P9)

"She made photocopies. We did them. The way this teacher taught was a bit different." (P12)

"We liked the teacher. We had fun in classes." (P13)

"The teacher gave us photocopies. It was beneficial." (P14)

"The teacher brought photocopies, and we did them. To me, this is very good. This evaluates us." (P15)

"The teacher handed out photocopies. This is good." (P16)

The only point emphasized by the learners in the control group is that how much they loved the photocopies as a novelty in the classroom. They mentioned nothing about the implementation of PPP as nothing really was new to them, and they were accustomed to this kind of traditional language teaching. Table 4.14 summarizes the thoughts of the learners in the PPP group on the novelty the method introduced:

Table 4.14: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on the Novelty the Method Introduced

Learner Thoughts	Participants																Tot	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		
The worksheets the teacher took into class	1	1	1		1	1		1				1		1	1	1	13	81
Grammar exercises we did				1		1											2	13
The way the teacher taught							1	1				1					3	19

Another question to the both groups was what they enjoyed and did not enjoy about the treatment, which showed their feelings towards TBLT and PPP. The thoughts of the TBLT group are as follows:

“I liked working in groups of four and two. When four people come together, we come up with better results...I would like to be taught in this way again because it is fun. Everybody in the class may participate in this way, but in the case of direct teaching, we are bored. This way is like a game. We enjoy it.” (T1)

“It is very important to report what we have done during the task phase. If a person does not know much, s/he can learn from it. (T2)

“The teacher assigned us into groups of three and four. We tried to do the things we did not know or had forgotten. This is good because we could evaluate our own accomplishment...When we report our work,

we learn from our friends. We correct ourselves and try not to make the same mistake next time.” (T3)

“I liked doing the worksheets. That was fun.” (T4)

“We did group work. That was good. Because you learn better...We used cassette players for listening. The teacher gave us tasks, and we did them. These were creative...If we did not report our tasks, we would not find out our mistakes.” (T5)

“I liked group work, tasks and working in groups by ourselves. When we worked in groups we combined what we knew for a good outcome...Photocopies are very good. You can revise at home...When we reported, we were able to compare our task achievement with others’. We understood how friends thought...As we do tasks in groups, we grow ambitious.” (T6)

“I liked doing the tasks and answering the questions...We used listening cassettes. I enjoyed doing them...I liked working in groups. Everybody in the group expressed their ideas. So we did better...Reporting is good because you can learn what you do not know...I think very hard while reporting because I see my mistakes and do not repeat them.” (T8)

“Classes were different. We tried to do the tasks without studying grammar first. We produced things ourselves and then learned. That production was very good for me...We studied some worksheets, which was fun...I enjoyed group work a lot. We thought together with friends, made a common decision. We learned from our friends...Reporting was good because some friends could learn from reports. We compared and shared our ideas...I would like to study English in this way all the time. You become your own teacher.” (T9)

“Group work helped us to learn from our friends. I liked peer work.” (T10)

"I liked groups of four. We tried to formulate some questions with friends... In group work, we can learn from friends." (T11)

"I liked carrying out the classes as students...I liked group work, especially in groups of four. The bigger the number of people in the group, the more number of ideas come together to come up with a good result." (T12)

"I liked group work and exercises most. In group work, you collect ideas from group members...Classes with tasks are fun." (T13)

"I liked group work. It was fun... In group work, we learn from each other...Reporting was like competition. Good for me." (T14)

"I liked group work and writing questions. When we worked in groups, we did the tasks better than we would have done them alone...In classes, we did listening, a lot of exercises. We learned better...Reporting was good. When we did the task well, the teacher congratulated us. Then, we were happy. Reporting is like revising English." (T15)

"I liked the group work. When we decide with friends, the result is the best. You communicate in the group and learn better. We help each other." (T17)

"I think reporting is good. You understand what your mistakes are and see others' mistakes." (T18)

"Reporting was fun. When there is competition, you try and learn more." (T19)

From the statements of the learners, it is possible to state that most of the learners in the TBLT group liked group work. They liked group work because they believed that they learnt from each other by helping each other. Besides, the learners stated that tasks were very

good for them to study a foreign language. Materials like listening cassettes and worksheets were also welcome by the learners. Another point that was positively regarded by the learners is the reporting stage after the task. For them, this step was the time when they compared their work with that of others. Reporting was also like an atmosphere that satisfied their need for competition. They wanted to see that they had done better than other groups. The thoughts of the learners in the TBLT group on the positive sides of the method are presented in Table 4.15:

Table 4.15: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on the Positive Sides of the Method

Learner Thoughts	Participants																			Tot	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19		
Working in groups	1		1		1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1			13	68
Learning from my friends		1	1					1	1	1	1			1			1			8	42
Participating in the tasks	1				1	1		1	1				1							6	32
Correcting myself and avoiding mistakes			1		1			1											1	4	21
Doing listening activities					1			1								1				3	16
Producing before studying grammar									1											1	6
Learning by yourself						1			1											2	11
Reporting what I have done		1	1		1	1		1	1					1	1			1	1	10	53
Working on work sheets				1		1			1											3	16

Along with their positive feelings about the implementation of the method, the learners in TBLT group stated some negative thoughts on the issue:

“Once, the teacher made me sit with a poor student who did not know much. I did not like that... In classes, sometimes there was a lot of noise. Then I could not study at all” (T1)

“In group work, sometimes there is an argument and noise.” (T3)

"In groups of four, there was some trouble. We sometimes argued about things." (T5)

"In group work, we sometimes cannot decide who is right. We have a problem of negotiation...After some reports I faced with some things which I did not understand. Reporting was also a problem for me." (T6)

"I had to think hard in the reporting stage. I was afraid of making a reading mistake." (T7)

"I did not like pair work. My partner sometimes failed to help me." (T8)

"You feel nervous while reporting...In group work, sometimes there was argument." (T9)

"I did not like groups of four. When there are too many people, you cannot reach an agreement." (T10)

"In group work, some people do not participate. So you have to do the task alone." (T11)

"I did not like pair work...In group work, some friends do not participate, and then we cannot achieve the task. The quality of group work sometimes depends on the people you work with... When I did not trust myself about my task work, I did not want to report. The teacher did not criticize me for my mistakes, but I wanted to do well." (T12)

"In group work, sometimes everybody came up with different ideas, and that caused trouble in the group...I did not like the listening parts. People made a lot of noise, and I did not understand well...Some people are too shy, and they do not want to report. I always did the reporting in my groups." (T13)

"I did not like the listening part. It was fast and hard." (T14)

"I did not like listening tasks much. They were fast and hard to understand." (T15)

"I did not like group work. I like working alone...In group, there was always argument." (T16)

"I am afraid of reporting and making mistakes. I do not want to report." (T17)

"In group work, there is a lot of argument. When you make a mistake, people laugh at you. I do not like this." (T18)

"There are problems in group work. People argue about roles in the group." (T19)

The thoughts of the learners reflected on some problems of the implementation of TBLT. Some learners complained about group work, especially some group members. They believed that the performance and fun of group work depended on whom they worked with. Also some stated that noise became a problem in the groups. Most of them did not prefer pair work and stated if their partner did not work, they had to do the task alone. Although all the learners found reporting very useful, some saw it as a stressful step since they were afraid of making mistakes while reporting. Finally, some learners stated that listening activities were hard to follow for them. Table 4.16 presents the thoughts of the learners in the TBLT group on the negative sides of the method:

Table 4.16: The Thoughts of the Learners in TBLT Group on the Negative Sides of the Method

Learner Thoughts	Participants																			Tot	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19		
Working in a group																1				1	5
Working with poor students	1										1	1								3	16
Increasing noise level	1		1										1							3	16
Not negotiating easily in groups			1		1	1			1	1			1			1		1	1	9	47
Being afraid of making a mistake in report						1	1					1						1		4	21
Doing pair work								1	1			1								3	16
Listening for information														1	1					2	11

The control group replied the same question asking about their feelings regarding the treatment. Their thoughts on the implementation of PPP are as follows:

"The teacher gives us photocopies which help us to learn better." (P1)

"I liked forming questions and taking the floor. I liked the photocopies as well... I can answer the questions on the photocopies better. I get nervous at the board." (P2)

"I enjoyed the photocopies a lot. I had fun because I think they are very useful...I think the blackboard should not be used much. It is better to have photocopies and oral practice for us." (P3)

"I liked the way the teacher taught us. She explained well." (P4)

"When we got photocopies, we learned better." (P5)

"Exercises make us learn more, so do practice and instruction." (P6)

"I liked the instruction. The photocopies also taught us a lot. They were different." (P7)

"We asked questions to each other. I enjoyed that." (P9)

"The teacher gave us sheets (worksheets). They were easy for me." (P11)

"I liked everything; group work, photocopies, etc. Photocopies are good because we learn faster." (P12)

"I liked oral practice a lot. Some of them were difficult." (P13)

"I liked the photocopies and oral practice. When I spoke English, I felt like another person." (P15)

"I liked everything. I enjoyed the photocopies. That was a change for us." (P16)

Almost all the learners in the control group of the study stated that they liked the worksheets the teacher brought in and the oral practice following grammar instruction. Other points the learners focused on were the way of teaching and the exercises provided by the teacher. The thoughts of the learners in the PPP group on the positive sides of the method are presented in Table 4.17:

Table 4.17: The Thoughts of the Learners in PPP Group on the Positive Sides of the Method

Learner Thoughts	Participants																Tot	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		
Working on worksheets	1	1	1		1		1				1	1				1	8	50
Doing oral practice			1			1			1				1			1	5	31
The way the teacher taught				1			1										2	13
Doing the exercises						1											1	6

The learners in the control group did not come up with clear negative thoughts. Some stated they did not enjoy some exercises, some could not do some practice because they were difficult. However, their statements do not have much to do with the implementation of the traditional PPP method. They believed everything was good, and there was no problem since they liked the teacher and the way she taught. The source of that feeling, however, was the teacher, not the method.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter, conclusions made as a result of the findings of the study, discussions on the conclusions and some suggestions for scientists, teachers, institutions and further studies are presented.

5.1. Conclusions and Discussions

In this study, the effects of TBLT and PPP instructions on the proficiency and noticing levels of the learners in the use of the Simple Present Tense were investigated, and also the thoughts of the learners in both the treatment and the control groups were surveyed. The findings from the quantitative and the qualitative parts of the study lead to following conclusions:

1. The quantitative study displayed that both TBLT and PPP caused significant change in the proficiency and noticing levels of the learners. However, the differences were similar for both groups. For proficiency, the TBLT group accomplished a difference of 26.70 points and the PPP group 27.42. For noticing, the TBLT group raised their score by 3.80 points and the PPP group by 4.32 points.

2. The quantitative study indicated no difference in the effect of the treatment on the proficiency in the use of the Simple Present Tense. That is to say, neither TBLT nor PPP proved to be significantly superior to the other.

With respect to the proficiency post-test scores of the learners in both groups, the mean scores of the TBLT (38.60) and the PPP (35.32) group learners did not differ significantly, which was proved with a t-test analysis. In the studies of Fotos (1993; 1994), no significant difference was found between the traditional teacher-fronted grammar teaching and grammar task group with consciousness-raising activities. In Fotos and Ellis's (1999) study, also, there was no scientifically significant difference between a task approach group and a traditional group. That is to say, in their study, TBLT and traditional language teaching did not have different effects on the proficiency of dative alternation as the grammar point of the study.

3. The quantitative study also showed that the treatment had no effect on how the Simple Present Tense was noticed. The difference between the experimental and the control groups according to the post-test scores was not significant.

The noticing post-test scores indicated no significant difference between the mean score of the TBLT (5.70) and that of the PPP (5.58) groups. Fotos (1993) found that grammar consciousness-raising task performance is nearly as effective as formal instruction in the promotion of noticing. That is to say, there was no significant difference between the traditional grammar teaching and grammar consciousness-raising task in the noticing of grammar items parallel to the findings of this present study.

4. Gender did not play a significant role in the proficiency and noticing levels of the experimental and the control groups. The post-test scores of the male and female learners in the two groups did not show any scientifically significant difference according to the variance analysis applied. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) state that the studies of second language acquisition yield no clear results about the impact of gender on language proficiency, and the findings in the literature are incidental. Lin and Wu (2003) found no significant difference between males and females in their proficiency of TOEFL and FCE tests. They found a slight superiority of male students to females in grammar. In addition, according to Jenks (2004), some late research has shown that gender difference does not play a role on self-efficacy, which is an important factor in the accomplishment of task.

5. The present study aimed at investigating the thoughts of the learners in the TBLT and the PPP groups on the grammar instruction and practice. To do so, they were asked for their opinions about the grammar instruction and practice activities in the treatment period.

Many learners (42%) in the TBLT group stated that studying grammar after the task in the language focus phase was good and no problem for them. Some learners (26%) believed that the method helped them to be aware of the mistakes or errors they made, whereas some others (11%) stated that making mistakes or errors was natural. Some (16%) stated the teacher taught grammar after the task because she wanted to check their knowledge. However, 16 percent of the learners in the experimental group said that they needed grammar first and the task should come later. On the whole, these thoughts of the learners showed that they had positive feelings toward the methodology applied in the classroom while they were studying the

Simple Present Tense as a grammar point. TBLT builds up some awareness of the grammar items through consciousness-raising activities in the language focus phase. That is to say, TBLT has the aim of producing subconscious learning, without explicit grammar explanation before the task (Willis, 1996b; Skehan, 1996b; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). It is important that learners in the TBLT group noticed that fact and expressed it in their statements.

The learners in the PPP control group mostly (75%) stated that grammar should be taught before everything because they (31%) believed that grammar was a must in doing the activities. They found what the teacher did in class right, and only 1 learner (6%) stated it was not important when grammar was taught.

As for the grammar practice, the TBLT group learners focused on different issues. They stated that practice activities were fun and beneficial (26%), doing practice on worksheets was psychologically better (16%), and the use of worksheets was practical (11%). Some learners (11%) thought that exercises in the language focus phase showed how much they knew. According to Willis (1996b), learners in TBLT feel the lack of exercises, and it is natural to observe some learners stating that they do not study enough grammar and want more exercises. That is why she suggests that teachers assign more homework with satisfactory amount of grammar.

On the other hand, the PPP group learners had a lot to say about the practice activities since they paid more attention to the grammar. 50 percent of the learners in the control group believed that oral practice was really good for comprehension, and 31 percent thought it was good for communication. A great number of learners (50%) stated that they enjoyed the exercises they did in the classes, and the exercises were new to them (19%). About the practice, they (44%) really enjoyed the worksheets the teacher took into class, and some (19%) stated that not using the textbooks was very good. Oral practice seemed to be an important point learners pronounced quite often throughout the interview. They considered it as a kind of real language use. Skehan (2002) stresses that TBLT offers real language use in the classroom. The present study shows that the learners in the PPP group verbalized their need for real language use. That is why they highly enjoyed the oral practice activities which are among the properties of PPP language teaching.

6. Another point investigated in the study was what the learners thought about the implementation of TBLT and PPP. For this purpose, the learners were interviewed on the issues of the novelty the method introduced, and the positive and negative sides of the implementation.

The learners in the TBLT group stated that working in groups (42%) and working with worksheets instead of textbooks (32%) were new to them. Other issues they put forward were doing the task before studying grammar (16%) and acting like a teacher in the classroom (11%). Another 11 percent of the learners stated that the exercises were also new to them.

Group work is an important component of TBLT. Willis (1996b) states that group work has a lot advantages for the TBLT learners. Group work provides learners with opportunities of relaxed atmosphere, interaction, learning from friends, turn-taking, cooperation, participation, and building communicative strategies and self-esteem. The findings from this study revealed that most of the learners in the TBLT group were satisfied with the group work and believed that group work was new to them. This means teachers in language classes hardly make their learners work in groups although it is highly motivating for them.

The PPP group learners, on the other hand, mostly (81%) stated that the worksheets the teacher brought to classes were new to them. Also they mentioned the way the teacher taught (19%) and the exercises (13%) as novelties in the control group. The high percentage of the learners who saw worksheets as a novelty is worth thinking over. In the traditional classroom setting, teachers always rely on textbooks which they think need no supplementation. Doing something other than the textbook seems to be a great source of motivation for learners in language teaching.

When the learners were asked to state what they liked about the implementation of the method used in the classroom, the TBLT group learners focused on some important issues which form the rationale for communicative language teaching and TBLT. They stated they liked working in groups (68%), reporting after the task (53%), learning from friends (42%) and participating in tasks (32%). These issues and the percentages indicated that TBLT was highly enjoyed and appreciated by young learners. Group work was considered to be the most liked issue about TBLT as it was in the study of Zhang (1994), who reached the rate of 98% in his study. The learners in the study of Zhang stated that student participation was beneficial to learning. In this study, also 42 percent of the participants emphasized the importance of learning

from friends. Generally, it is possible to say that TBLT was enjoyed by the participants in the study due to above reasons stated in the Beglar and Hunt (2002) study.

The thoughts of the PPP group learners concentrated on two issues: working with worksheets (50%) and doing oral practice (31%). PPP group learners liked the worksheets probably because they were new to them. When compared to the issues mentioned by the TBLT group, the only thing related to the implementation of PPP was the oral practice, whereas the TBLT group focused on some underlying features and principles of the method.

Finally, the learners in the TBLT group touched on some problems about the implementation of TBLT, which gains some support from the literature. They complained about the lack of negotiation in groups (47%), the fear of making mistakes in reporting (21%), working with poor learners (16%), working in pairs (16%) and the noise level during the tasks (16%). Although group work has many assets as put forward by Willis (1996b), some studies indicate that it may cause some problems for learners. DiNitto (2000) found that group work may not work in some settings, and believing that group work is always good can be deceptive. In addition, Yaylı (2004) found that group work with university learners caused problems of interaction and negotiation. In the present study, also, some participants believed that the success of the group work depended on who you worked with. Increasing noise level in the classroom is also a problem sourcing from group work into which was taken attention by Carless (2002).

The PPP group, however, did not come up with clear problems about the implementation. They only stated that they did not like some exercises, some work was hard for them to do, and the like.

5.2. Suggestions

Depending on the conclusions and discussions presented above, following suggestions could be made for the teachers of English, syllabus designers, material designers, English language teacher raising institutions and universities, scientists in the field and researchers planning further studies:

1. Although the quantitative study displayed that there is no significant difference between the TBLT and the PPP groups in terms of grammar proficiency and noticing, the

qualitative study showed that learners had a positive attitude towards TBLT. Therefore, the teachers of English should not ignore the motivation, challenge and fun achieved through the use of tasks.

2. A great number of learners stated that working in groups was beneficial and fun to them. They were aware of the fact that tasks done in groups helped them to learn from friends and to co-operate. For this reason, the teacher should assign learners into groups in some of the classroom activities. Tan-Tütüniş (1997) believes that a task-based syllabus is better than a structured syllabus as a learner-based language approach is the one to be adopted.

3. Some learners stated that they enjoyed being like a teacher during the task performance. The teacher did not intervene with learners' task work, and the learners liked to have control over their performance. Therefore, teachers should watch and monitor learners doing the task from a distance and should not correct learners' mistakes.

4. Most of the learners in both the TBLT and PPP groups stated that they liked exercise worksheets. They found such material very practical and useful to practice the language. However, textbooks did not attract learners as much as worksheets did. In order to raise motivation in the classroom, teachers should devote some time to some material outside the textbooks.

5. The learners in the TBLT group found it highly challenging to study the grammar points after completing the task. The learners in the PPP group, however, stated that grammar rules should come first. The feelings of the learners of the PPP group can be said to be natural because they were not accustomed to the principles of communicative language teaching. On the other hand, the learners of the TBLT group did not consider studying grammar rules after performing the task to be annoying or weird. This finding proves that when learners are introduced to communicative activities as in TBLT, such activities are welcome by them. Therefore, teachers should not abstain from challenging learners with communicative tasks.

6. Reporting after the task is a stage which learners found very useful. They believed that when their friends reported what they had done during the task, they were able to learn from their friends. They stated reporting was real challenge because it fostered competition and pushed learners to upgrade their use of language. Therefore, every group work should be followed by a reporting stage.

7. The learners in the PPP group stated that oral practice activities helped them to use the language. They believed that it was one of the few opportunities they had to use the language in the classroom. Therefore, teachers should include activities which promote the use of real language so that learners' need for meaningful communication can be satisfied. Seedhouse (1999) states that tasks train learners for real life situations. Therefore, real language use can be accomplished through tasks.

8. The learners in the TBLT group had some restrictions against group work. They stated that some group members did not put their efforts into the accomplishment of the task. Those were some poor learners. Therefore, the other members of the group had to complete the job. Especially in the case of pair work, the problem got worse. Considering this fact, teachers should give important roles to such learners in order to raise their commitment and should prefer group work instead of pair work.

9. Noise level and the problem of negotiation were two important factors stated by the learners of the TBLT group. Some learners complained about the noise and argument in the group. To avoid these problems, teachers should assign the group members with clear roles. By doing so, teachers could establish a more peaceful atmosphere and coordination.

10. Another problem for the TBLT group seemed to be the fear of making mistakes whilst reporting. Some learners tried not to be the one who did the reporting after the task. Because they felt that if they made a mistake, they would be laughed at or made fun of. Therefore, teachers should explain that making mistakes is a natural part of language learning in order to increase risk-taking in the classroom.

11. Syllabus and material designers also should take tasks into consideration due to positive feelings they create in the classroom. Therefore, they should develop syllabi and materials taking TBLT into consideration as a communicative approach.

12. English language teacher raising institutions and universities should introduce communicative language teaching approaches to their learners and should emphasize the significance of communicative language use; and thus, tasks should be included in schedules and focused on as a tool of communicative language teaching.

13. More research should be devoted to the effects of TBLT on grammar proficiency since the field lacks research carried out in real classroom setting.

14. There is little research focusing on the implementation of TBLT and problems which arise from the implementation. Therefore, more research is needed to contribute to the field of second language teaching and acquisition.

15. The present study took place in a public secondary school setting in Turkey. More studies are needed with participants from other age groups and types of schools.



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Batstone, R. (1994). **Grammar**. Oxford University Press.
- Batstone, R. (1996). Key Concepts in ELT: Noticing. **ELT Journal**, 50/3, p. 273.
- Batstone, R. (2002). Making sense of new language: A discourse perspective. **Language Awareness**, 11(1), 14-29.
- Beglar, D.; Hunt, A. (2002). 'Implementing task-based language teaching.' in J.C. Richards; W.A. Renandya. (Eds.), **Methodology in Language Teaching**. Cambridge University Press.
- Bowen, T. & Marks, J. (1994). **Inside Teaching**. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Brown, J. D. & Rodgers, T. S. (2002). **Doing Second Language Research**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bygate, M.; Skehan, P.; Swain, M. (2001). 'Introduction' in M. Bygate; P. Skehan; M. Swain (Eds.) **Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing**. London, UK: Longman.
- Cameron, L. (1997). The task as a unit for teacher development. **ELT Journal**, 51(4), 345-351.
- Campbell, C. & Kryszewska, H. (1992). **Learner-Based Teaching**. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.
- Carless, D.R. (2002). Implementing task-based learning with young learners. **ELT Journal**, 56(4), 1-10.
- Carless, D.R. (2003). Factors in the implementation of task-based teaching in primary schools. **System**, 31, 485-500.
- Celce-Murcia M. (Ed.) (1991) **Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language**, Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Cook, V. (1991). **Second Language Learning and Language Teaching**. London: Arnold.
- Council for Cultural Co-operation Education Committee (2000). **Language Learning for European Citizenship**. (Report)
- Cross, J. (2002). Noticing in SLA: Is it a valid concept? **TESL-EJ**, 6(3), 1-9.

- Dickins, P.M.R.; Woods, E.G. (1988). Some criteria for the development of communicative grammar tasks. *TESOL Quarterly*, **22(4)**, 623-646.
- DiNitto, R. (2000). Can collaboration be unsuccessful? A sociocultural analysis of classroom setting and Japanese L2 performance in group tasks. *The Journal of Association of Teachers of Japanese*, **34(2)**, 179-210.
- Dyer, B. (1996). L1 and L2 composition theories: Hillock's 'environmental mode' and task-based language teaching. *ELT Journal*, **50(4)**, 312-317.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: OUP.
- Ellis, R. (1993). Talking shop. Second language acquisition research: How does it help teachers? An interview with Rod Ellis. *ELT Journal*, **47(1)**, pp. 3-11.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA Research and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1998). 'Evaluating and researching grammar consciousness-raising tasks' in P. Rea-Dickens and K. P. Germaine (Eds.) *Managing Evaluation and Innovation in Language Teaching: Building Bridges*. London: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
- Ellis, R. (1999). *Learning a Second Language through Interaction*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Ellis, R. (2001). 'Non-reciprocal tasks, comprehension and second language acquisition' in M. Bygate; P. Skehan; M. Swain (Eds.) *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing*. London, UK: Longman.
- Ellis, R. (2002a). 'Grammar teaching-practice or consciousness raising?' in J.C. Richards; W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2002b). 'The place of grammar instruction in the second/foreign language curriculum' in E. Hinkel and S. Fotos (Eds.) *New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University.
- Ertürk, Selahattin. (1972). *Eğitimde 'Program' Geliştirme*. Ankara: Meteksan A.Ş.
- Fanselow, J.F. (1992). *Contrasting Conversations: Activities for Exploring Our Beliefs and Teaching Practices*. New York: Longman.

- Finch, A. (1999). The task-based classroom in practice. **KOTESOL Proceedings of the Second Pan Asian Conference**, Seoul.
- Finney, D. (2002). 'The ELT curriculum: A flexible model for a changing world' in J.C. Richards; W.A Renandya. (Eds.), **Methodology in Language Teaching**. Cambridge University Press.
- Foster, P. (1996). 'Doing the task better: how planning time influences students' performance.' in J. Willis; D. Willis (Eds.) **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching**, Essex: Longman Limited.
- Fotos, S.S. (1993). Consciousness-raising and noticing through focus on form: grammar task performance versus formal instruction. **Applied Linguistics**, 14(4), 385-407.
- Fotos, S.S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar consciousness-raising tasks. **TESOL Quarterly**, 28(2), 323-351.
- Fotos, S.; Ellis, R. (1999). 'Communicating About Grammar.' in R. Ellis (Ed.) **Learning a Second Language through Interaction**. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- George, H. V. (1972). **Common Errors in Language Learning**. Massachusetts: Newbury House.
- Gonzalez-Lloret, M. (2003). Designing task-based CALL to promote interaction: En Busca de Esmeraldas. **Language Learning and Technology**, 7(1), 86-104.
- Guariento, W. & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. **ELT Journal**, 55(4), 347-353.
- Gulliver, T. H.; Newson, E. & Chapco, C. (2001). Input versus instruction—facilitating successful task completion in the EFL classroom. **The PAC Journal**, 1(1), 147-162.
- Hales, T. (1997). Exploring data-driven language awareness. **ELT Journal**, 51(3), 217-223.
- Hanauer, D.I. (2001). The task of poetry reading and second language learning. **Applied Linguistics**, 22(3), 295-323.
- Harmer, J. (2001). **The Practice of English Language Teaching**. China: Longman.
- Hymes, D. E. (1979). 'On communicative competence' in C. J. Brumfit and K. Johnson (Eds.) **The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Jenks, C. J. (2004). The effects of age, sex and language proficiency on the self-efficacy of English language learners. *ARECLS E-Journal*, 1, 50-63.
- Kim, K.S. (1998). Nose to the grindstone: task-based activities for Korean junior high schoolers. *Proceedings of the 1997 Korea TESOL Conference*.
- Krashen, S.D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Second Language Acquisition Theory*. In *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. London: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S.D.; Terrell, T. (1983). *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Kuiken, F.; Vedder, I. (2002). The effect of interaction in acquiring the grammar of a second language. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 343-358.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1991). Language-learning tasks: teacher intention and learner interpretation. *ELT Journal*, 45(2), 98-107.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). 'Grammar' in *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*, Carter, R.&Nunan, D. (Eds.). Cambridge: CUP.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. (1991). *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. Longman, London & New York.
- Lin, J. & Wu, F. (2003). Differential performance by gender in foreign language testing. **Poster for the Annual Meeting of NCME**, Chicago.
- Lynch, T.; Maclean, J. (2000). Exploring the benefits of task repetition and recycling for classroom language learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 221-250.
- Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction, and second language development. *SSLA*, 21, 557-587.
- McLaughlin, J. (2001). A task-based program in Korea: a case analysis. *SLLT*, 1(1), 1-22.
- Medgyes, P. (1990). 'Queries from a communicative teacher' in R. Rossner and R. Bolitho (Eds.) *Currents of Change in English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mohamed, N. (2004). Consciousness-raising tasks: a learner perspective. *ELT Journal*, 58(3), 219-227.

- Mori, J. (2002). Task design, plan, and development of talk-on-interaction: an analysis of a small group activity in a Japanese language classroom. **Applied Linguistics**, 23(3), 323-347.
- Murphy, J. (2003). Task-based learning: the interaction between tasks and learners. **ELT Journal**, 57(4), 352-360.
- Nassaji, H. (2000). Towards integrating form-focused instruction and communicative interaction in the second language classroom: some pedagogical possibilities. **The Modern Language Journal**, 84(2), 241-250.
- Newton, J. (2001). Options for vocabulary learning through communication tasks. **ELT Journal**, 55(1), 3-37.
- Noonan, F. J. (2004). Teaching ESL students to “notice” grammar. **The Internet TESL Journal**, 10(7).
- Nunan, D. (1988). **Syllabus Design**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1989). **Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Nunan, D. (1991). **Language Teaching Methodology**. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall.
- Nunan, D. (1998). Teaching grammar in context. **ELT Journal**, 52(2), 101-109.
- Pennington, M. C. (2002). ‘Grammar and communication: New directions in theory and practice’ in E. Hinkel and S. Fotos (Eds.) **New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms**. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Petrovitz, W. (1997). The role of context in the presentation of grammar. **ELT Journal**, 51(3), 201-207.
- Powney, J. & Watts, M. (1987). **Interviewing in Educational Research**. London: Routledge & Kegan Ltd.
- Prabhu, N. S. (1987). **Second Language Pedagogy**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). **Approaches and methods in language teaching**. New York: CUP.
- Richards J.C. (2002). ‘Addressing the grammar gap in task work’ in J.C. Richards; W.A Renandya. (Eds.), **Methodology in Language Teaching**. Cambridge University Press.

- Rutherford, W.E. (1987). **Second Language Grammar: Learning and Teaching**. London: Longman.
- Salaberry, M.R.; Lopez-Ortega, N. (1998). Accurate L2 production across language tasks: focus on form, focus on meaning, and communicative control. **The Modern Language Journal**, 82(4), 514-532.
- Samuda, V. (2001). Guiding relationships between form and meaning during task performance: the role of the teacher. in M. Bygate; P. Skehan; M. Swain (Eds.) **Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing**. London, UK: Longman.
- Savic, J.M. (1997). Teaching Spanish as a foreign language in Belgrade, Yugoslavia: a need to overcome the old ways. **Hispania**, 80, 541-545.
- Seedhouse, P. (1999). Task-based interaction. **ELT Journal**, 53(3), 149-156.
- Sheen, R. (1994). A critical analysis of the advocacy of the task-based syllabus. **TESOL Quarterly**, 28(1), 127 -151.
- Sheen, R. (2000). A response to Nassaji's 'Towards integrating forum-focused instruction and communicative interaction in the second language classroom' in light of issues related to focus on form. **The Canadian Modern Language Review**, 56(3), 496-506.
- Skehan, P. (1996a). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. **Applied Linguistics**, 17(1), 38-62.
- Skehan, P. (1996b). 'Second language acquisition research and task-based instruction' in J. Willis; D. Willis **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching**, Essex: Longman Limited.
- Skehan, P. (1998). **A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Skehan, P. (2002). A non-marginal role for tasks. **ELT Journal**, 56(3), 289-295.
- Stern, H. H. (1983). Models of second language learning and the concept of proficiency. In *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford: OUP.
- Swain, M.; Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: two adolescent French immersion students working together. **The Modern Language Journal**, 82(3), 320-337.

- Swain, M.; Lapkin, S. (2001). Focus on form through collaborative dialogue: exploring task effects. in M. Bygate; P. Skehan; M. Swain (Eds.) **Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing**. London, UK: Longman.
- Swain, M.; Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. **International Journal of Educational Research**, 37, 285-304.
- Swan, M. (1990). 'A critical look at the communicative approach.' in R. Rossner and R. Bolitho (Eds.) **Currents of Change in English Language Teaching**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Takashima, H.; Ellis, R. (1999). 'Output enhancement and the acquisition of the past tense.' in R. Ellis (Ed.) **Learning a Second Language through Interaction**. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Tan-Tütüniş, B. (1997). Task-based ELT syllabus and its impact on acquisition and learning. **Dil Dergisi**, 51, 21-25.
- Thornbury, S. (1997). Reformulation and reconstruction: tasks that promote 'noticing'. **ELT Journal**, 51(4), 326-335.
- Thornbury, S. (1999). *How to Teach Grammar*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Türnüklü, A. (2000). Eğitimbilim araştırmalarında etkin olarak kullanılabilir nitel bir araştırma tekniği: görüşme. **Eğitim Yönetimi**, 6(24), 543-559.
- Wenden, A. (1990). 'Helping language learners think about learning' in R. Rossner and R. Bolitho (Eds.) **Currents of Change in English Language Teaching**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1978). **Teaching Language as Communication**. Oxford University Press
- Widdowson, H.G. (1990). **Aspects of Language Teaching**. Oxford University Press.
- Willis, D. (1996). 'Accuracy, fluency and conformity.' in J. Willis; D. Willis (Eds.) **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching**, Essex: Longman Limited.
- Willis, J. (1996a). 'A flexible framework for task-based learning.' in J. Willis; D. Willis (Eds.) **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching**, Essex: Longman Limited.
- Willis, J. (1996b). **A Framework for Task-Based Learning**, Essex: Longman Limited.
- Willis, J. & Willis, D. (1996a). **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching**, Essex: Longman Limited.

- Willis, J. & Willis, D. (1996b). 'Consciousness-raising activities in the language classroom' in J. Willis; D. Willis (Eds.) **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching**, Essex: Longman Limited.
- Woods, E. (1995). **Introducing Grammar**. London: Penguin Books Limited.
- Woodward, T. (1996). 'Paradigm shift and the language teaching profession' in J. Willis; D. Willis (Eds.) **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching**, Essex: Longman Limited.
- Wray, A., Trott, K. & Bloomer, A. (1998). **Projects in Linguistics**. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Xiaoju, L. (1990). 'In defense of the communicative approach' in R. Rossner and R. Bolitho (Eds.) **Currents of Change in English Language Teaching**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Yaylı, D. (2004). **Göreve Dayalı Öğrenme Yönteminin Türkçe'nin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretiminde Uygulanması ve Bu Uygulamaya İlişkin Öğrenci Görüşleri**. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İzmir.
- Yeşilyaprak, B. (2000). **Eğitimde Rehberlik Hizmetleri**. Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Yıldırım, A. & Şimşek H. (2004). **Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri**. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınevi.
- Zhang, F. (1994). The Implementation of a task-based syllabus for a group of beginning learners of Chinese. **Final Report for a 1994 National Teaching Development Grant**. Australia.

APPENDICES

- 1. The Table of Specifications**
- 2. Lesson Plans for the TBLT Group**
- 3. Lesson Plans for the PPP Group**
- 4. Exercises**
- 5. Listening Material for Tasks**
- 6. Samples from Proficiency and Noticing Tests**
- 7. Interview Questions for the PPP Group**
- 8. Interview Questions for the TBLT Group**
- 9. Students' Interview Statements in Turkish**
- 10. Samples from Students' Task Work**





THE TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS

THE TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS

GOAL and OBJECTIVES		RECOGNITION																			
GOAL and OBJECTIVES SUBJECTS Affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense Frequency and time adverbs in the affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense Affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense. Revision of affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense W/h questions in the Simple Present Tense Frequency adverbs in the Simple Present Tense Revision of all question forms in the Simple Present Tense Using the Simple Present Tense to write passages and interviews	Goal 1: The ability to recognize some specific grammatical rules of the Simple Present Tense.																				
	Objective 1: Students will be able to write/say the rules about the verb formation for the singular and plural persona in the sentences in the Simple Present Tense.																				
	Objective 2: Students will be able to write/say the helping verbs (do and does) in the sentences in the Simple Present Tense.																				
	Objective 3: Students will be able to choose the word containing a mistake in the use of third person -s in the sentences in the Simple Present Tense.	13, 14																			
	Objective 4: Students will be able to make a choice between the verbs in different formations in order to have grammatical sentences in the Simple Present Tense.	6, 7, 8																			
	Goal 2: The knowledge of helping verbs in the Simple Present Tense.																				
	Objective 1: Students will be able to write/say the contracted forms of the helping verbs in the negative sentences in the Simple Present Tense.																				
	Objective 2: Students will be able to choose the helping verbs in the short answers in the Simple Present Tense.	9, 10, 11, 12																			
	Goal 3: The ability to recognize sentences and questions in the Simple Present Tense.																				
	Objective 1: Students will be able to write/say the difference in the word formation between the sentences and the questions in the Simple Present Tense.																				
Objective 2: Students will be able to write/say the difference between the yes/no and w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense.																					
Objective 3: Students will be able to classify sentences and questions as true or false by taking the rules about the Simple Present Tense into account.																				19,20,21, 22,23,24, 25,26,27, 28,29	

THE TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS

		COMPREHENSION													
GOAL and OBJECTIVES		Goal 1: The ability to transform sentences into affirmative, negative, singular, plural and question forms in the Simple Present Tense.	Objective 1: Students will be able to transform affirmative statements into the negative form.	Objective 2: Students will be able to transform negative statements into the affirmative form.	Objective 3: Students will be able to transform statements into the question form.	Objective 4: Students will be able to transform the sentence with the singular subject into the sentence with the plural subject.	Objective 5: Students will be able to transform the sentence with the plural subject into the sentence with the singular subject.	Goal 2: The ability to transform the information presented in the form of sentences or pictures into the form required by taking meaning into account.	Objective 1: Among the sentences in the Simple Present Tense, students will be able to choose the sentence expressing the meaning in the picture.	Objective 2: Among the sentences in the Simple Present Tense, students will be able to choose the sentence which is similar in meaning to the sentence given.	Goal 3: The ability to understand a passage containing sentences in the Simple Present Tense.	Objective 1: Students will be able to choose the theme of the passage.	Objective 2: Students will be able to choose the correct information about the characters in the passage.	Objective 3: Students will be able to choose the correct information about the events in the passage.	
SUBJECTS															
Affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense															
Frequency and time adverbs in the affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense															
Affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense.															
Revision of affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense		1, 2, 3			72, 73	70, 71	4, 5								
W/h questions in the Simple Present Tense															
Frequency adverbs in the Simple Present Tense									67, 68, 69	57, 58, 59					
Revision of all question forms in the Simple Present Tense															
Using the Simple Present Tense to write passages and interviews												60	61, 62, 66	63, 64, 65	

THE TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS

GOAL and OBJECTIVES	APPLICATION			ANALYSIS			SYNTHESIS				
	Goal 1: The ability to use time and frequency adverbs in the Simple Present Tense.	Objective 1: Students will be able to re-write the sentences in the Simple Present Tense by adding the time adverbs given.	Objective 2: Students will be able to re-write the sentences in the Simple Present Tense by adding the frequency adverbs given.	Goal 2: The ability to produce sentences in the Simple Present Tense by putting the jumbled words or divided sentences together.	Objective 1: Students will be able to produce sentences in the Simple Present Tense using the jumbled words.	Objective 2: Students will be able to produce yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense using the jumbled words.	Objective 3: Students will be able to produce w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense using the jumbled words.	Objective 4: Students will be able to match the parts of sentences in order to have affirmative, negative sentences and questions in the Simple Present Tense.	Goal 1: The ability to analyze the sentences in the Simple Present Tense to find the parts of the sentences.	Objective 1: Students will be able to analyze the sentences in the Simple Present Tense.	Objective 2: Students will be able to analyze the questions in the Simple Present Tense.
SUBJECTS											
Affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense			15, 16								
Frequency and time adverbs in the affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense		17, 18									
Affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense.											
Revision of affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense											
W/h questions in the Simple Present Tense											
Frequency adverbs in the Simple Present Tense											
Revision of all question forms in the Simple Present Tense					50, 51, 52	53, 55	40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49				
Using the Simple Present Tense to write passages and interviews											30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36



LESSON PLANS FOR THE TBLT GROUP

The Lesson Plan for Task 1

Performance Objectives:

The students will listen to a passage containing sentences in the Simple Present Tense, and then they will write a similar passage. The students are expected to use simple sentences in the Simple Present Tense to express daily routines.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be' and the modal 'can'. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and some simple verbs such as *live, go, study, learn, teach, eat, drink, do, etc.*

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be informed that they will perform a listening and a writing activity, which will serve as an introduction to the Simple Present Tense.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 23. 11. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to form pairs with different students other than the ones sitting next to them.
2. They will need a pencil, a photocopied page containing a series of pictures and a blank sheet of paper.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some daily activity verbs such as *get up, go to school, go to bed, get home, have dinner, have a shower, finish work, watch TV, go running, do yoga, use the lift, etc.* on the board, which will be necessary to complete the task.
4. The teacher will hand out a photocopied page containing a series of pictures to the pairs.
5. The teacher will inform the students that they have to listen to the passage about the daily routines of two different persons; *Suzy Stressed* and *Henry Health* carefully in order to put their pictures in order of activities.
6. The students are also instructed that they are also supposed to write a passage about these two persons after a second listening.

The Task-Cycle 1: (15 minutes)

Task: The students will listen to the passage and put the pictures into order in pairs.

Planning: The students will discuss and check their order so that they will be ready to present their list of activities to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their list to the class and listen to each pair's list in order to make a comparison between it and their own list.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's list.

The pairs who have put the pictures into order correctly will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (20 minutes)

Task: The students will listen to the passage for the second time, and they will write a passage for these two people.

They will be instructed to use the verbs on the board.

Planning: The students will read and make some corrections on their passage before reading it aloud.

BREAK

Report and Listening: The pairs will read their passages one by one, and the others will listen silently.

The pairs who have made the least number of mistakes in the use of the Simple Present Tense will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (35 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The students will listen to the tape for the third time, but this time the teacher will pause the tape from time to time so that the students can predict what the next sentence is.

The teacher will write some of the sentences on the board.

2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing some transformation from singular to plural persona and vice versa, fill-in-the blanks with appropriate form of the verbs, forming sentences from jumbled words and choosing the correct option for the verb formation.

The Lesson Plan for Task 2

Performance Objectives:

The students will read a passage containing sentences in the Simple Present Tense with time expressions and frequency adverbs, and then they will write a similar passage. The students are expected to use time expressions and frequency adverbs in the sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can' and some affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense to express daily routines. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be informed that they will perform a reading and a writing activity in groups of four in order to study time and frequency in the Simple Present Tense.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 25. 11. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to form groups of four with different students other than the ones sitting next to them.
2. They will need a pencil and a photocopied page containing a passage.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some daily activity verbs such as *brush my teeth*, *take the bus*, *read a book* and *walk*, nouns such as *director*, *company* and *apartment*, and adjectives such as *small* and *big* on the board, which will enable the students to understand the passage.
4. The teacher will hand out a photocopied page containing a passage written in the first person about the daily activities of *Sam Smith* to the groups.
5. The teacher will tell the students to read the passage.
6. The teacher will write 'When?' and 'How often?' in bold letters on the board and ask the students to group the time words which can be the answers to these two question words.
7. The students are also told that they are supposed to write a similar passage about one of their group members by using appropriate time and frequency adverbs as well.

The Task-Cycle 1: (20 minutes)

Task: The students will read the passage and group the time expressing words as time or frequency adverbs in order to fit the question categories 'When?' and 'How often?'

Planning: The students will discuss and check their groups of words so that they will be ready to present their list to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their list to the class and listen to each pair's list in order to make a comparison between it and their own list.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's list.

The teacher will write the time expressions such as *at 7:30 in the morning, at 5:30 in the evening, at night, etc.* and frequency adverbs such as *always, usually, sometimes, often, never* and *rarely* on the board.

The groups who have grouped the adverbs correctly will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (30 minutes)

Task: The students will read the passage for the second time, and they will write a similar passage about one of the group members.

They will be instructed to use the verbs, time expressions and frequency adverbs on the board.

Planning: The students will read and make some corrections on their passages before reading them aloud.

BREAK

Report and Listening: The groups will read their passages one by one, and the others will listen quietly.

The groups who have made the least number of mistakes in the use of the Simple Present Tense, time expressions and frequency adverbs will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (20 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The teacher will write some of the sentences produced by the students on the board and make necessary corrections with the students.
2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing re-writing the sentences by adding the time expressions and frequency adverbs in parentheses and correcting the mistakes in the use of these words.

The Lesson Plan for Task 3

Performance Objectives:

The students will listen to a passage containing affirmative and negative sentences about the daily activities of *Richards Smart* and read a different version of the same passage. They will discover the six mistakes between the two versions. Then, they will listen to 10 sentences on the tape and classify the sentences as affirmative, negative and question. The students are expected to use affirmative, negative and yes/no question type of sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', some affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense to express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will study negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense through listening tasks and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 30. 11. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to form groups of four with different students other than the ones sitting next to them.
2. They will need a pencil and a photocopied page containing a passage.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some verbs such as *start, finish, drive, like, want* and *love*, nouns such as *sports club, ice-cream, jacket, fish*, and adjectives such as *quick* and *big* on the board, which will enable the students to understand the passage.
4. The teacher will ask the students to listen to the passage about the daily activities of *Richard Smart* carefully.

5. The students are supposed to listen to the passage twice before they are given a different version of the same passage.
6. The teacher will inform the students that they will try to find out the six differences between the two versions of the passage.
7. The students are also informed that they are also supposed to listen to ten affirmative, negative and yes/no question type of sentences on the tape. They will classify these sentences as affirmative, negative and question by using the signs +, - and ?.

The Task-Cycle 1: (20 minutes)

Task: The students will listen to the passage twice. The teacher will hand out the written version of the same passage. The students will find out the six differences between the passage they have already listened to and the written one which has just been distributed to groups of four.

Planning: The students will try to remember the passage on the tape and specify the six differences in the sentences so that they will be ready to present their list to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their list to the class and listen to each pair's list in order to make a comparison between it and their own list.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's list.

The teacher will write the differences on the board.

The groups who have discovered the differences correctly will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (20 minutes)

Task: The students will listen to ten separate sentences out of context. They will be the examples of some affirmative, negative and yes/no question type of sentences in the Simple Present Tense, and the students will classify these sentences by using the signs +, - and ? on a piece of paper in their groups.

Planning: The students will read their lists and make some corrections on their lists before reading them aloud.

BREAK

Report and Listening: The groups will read their findings one by one, and the others will listen silently.

The groups who have made the least number of mistakes in their list will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (30 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The teacher will write the sentences which the students have already listened to on the board; *I always use the lift, She doesn't like ice-cream, Do you watch TV every evening?, I don't go to school by bus, Jane doesn't want this jacket, Does your sister like fish?, Joe lives in a big house, Mr. Smith doesn't speak German, They don't live in İzmir, Do you drive?* and the students will discover the rules about the differences between affirmative and negative statements, and between statement and question forms.
2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing transformation of affirmative sentences into negative, formation of affirmative, negative sentences and yes/ no questions from jumbled words, and asking questions about sentences.



The Lesson Plan for Task 4

Performance Objectives:

This will be a revision of the previous lesson with different tasks in order to prevent some possible hesitations in the use of yes/no questions and answers. The students will read the sentences of two different dialogues given in a mixed fashion. First, they will separate the sentences and order them in order to have two separate dialogues in pairs. Next, the pairs will prepare two questions which will be answered by the other pairs. The students are expected to use affirmative, negative and yes/no question type of sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', some affirmative and negative sentences in the Simple Present Tense to express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will study affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense through writing tasks and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 02. 12. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to form pairs with different students other than the ones sitting next to them.
2. They will need a pencil and a photocopied page containing mixed sentences.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some vocabulary items such as *evening shift*, *patients*, *department*, *the same* and *before school* on the board, which will enable the students to understand the sentences.
4. The teacher will hand out the sheet of mixed sentences and ask the students to separate and order the sentences to have two different dialogues.
5. The teacher will announce that after they have formed the dialogues from the mixed sentences, they will prepare two questions to ask the other pair members.

The Task-Cycle 1: (25 minutes)

Task: The pairs will read the sentences and form two separate dialogues.

Planning: The students will check their order of the sentences so that they will be ready to present their list to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their list to the class and listen to each pair's list in order to make a comparison between it and their own list.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's list.

The teacher will write the dialogues on the board.

The pairs who have ordered the sentences correctly will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (15 minutes)

Task: The students will prepare two yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense, and they will be answered by the other pair members.

BREAK

Planning: The students will check their questions and make some corrections before reading them aloud.

Report and Listening: The pairs will read their questions one by one, and the others will listen quietly.

The teacher will call on other pair members to answer these questions.

The pairs who have made the least number of mistakes in their questions will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (30 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The teacher will ask the students to classify the sentences in the dialogues, which the students have already studied, as affirmative, negative and question.
2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing formation of yes/no questions from jumbled words, finding out the wrong word in sentences in terms of third person singular – s and does, transformation from singular to plural persona and vice versa, and choosing the correct option for the short answers to yes/no questions.

The Lesson Plan for Task 5

Performance Objectives:

The students will listen to a dialogue on the tape and classify the answers for the w/h questions as 'thing', 'person', 'place', 'time' and 'frequency'. Next, they will be given the written version of a similar dialogue with some parts missing. The pairs will fill-in-the blanks with necessary question words and some answers true for themselves. The students are expected to use w/h question type of sentences (what, who, where, when and how often) in the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', the Simple Present Tense in the affirmative, negative and interrogative forms. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions in the affirmative sentences. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will study w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense through listening and writing tasks and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 07. 12. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to form pairs with different students other than the ones sitting next to them.
2. They will need a pencil and a photocopied page containing a dialogue.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some vocabulary items such as *cereal*, *far from*, *make mistakes*, *correct the mistakes* and *play games*, which will enable the students to understand the sentences in the dialogue.
4. The teacher will tell the pairs to listen to the dialogue on the tape carefully to classify the answers for the w/h questions as 'thing', 'person', 'place', 'time' and 'frequency'.
5. Next, the teacher will announce that after they have classified the words, they will fill-in-the blanks in a similar dialogue.

The Task-Cycle 1: (20 minutes)

Task: The pairs will listen to the dialogue on the tape twice. They will classify the answers for the w/h questions as 'thing', 'person', 'place', 'time' and 'frequency'.

Planning: The students will check their classifications of answers so that they will be ready to present their list to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their list to the class and listen to each pair's list in order to make a comparison between it and their own list.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's list.

The teacher will write the dialogue on the board. The teacher and the students will classify the w/h question words and the answers for them together.

The pairs who have classified the answers correctly will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (25 minutes)

Task: The teacher will hand out a sheet of a similar dialogue with some parts missing. The w/h question words and some answers form the missing parts. The pair members will fill in the blanks with the correct question words and some statements true for themselves as answers for the questions.

Planning: The students will check their questions and answers, and make some corrections before reading them aloud.

BREAK

Report and Listening: The pairs will read their questions and answers one by one, and the others will listen quietly.

The pairs who have made the least number of mistakes in their questions and answers will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (25 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The teacher will write some problematic sentences of the students on the board. The teacher and the students will make the corrections together.
2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing matching the question words *Who, Where, What, When* and *How often* with answers, formation of w/h questions from jumbled words and asking questions for underlined words.

The Lesson Plan for Task 6

Performance Objectives:

The students will listen to a dialogue about *what Jane does at weekends* on the tape and write a passage about *Jane's weekend* with the help of a series of pictures showing her daily activities. The students are expected to use sentences in the Simple Present Tense. Next, they will use frequency adverbs in questions in the Simple Present Tense in a writing task.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', the Simple Present Tense in affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions in the affirmative sentences. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will use the Simple Present Tense in a listening and a writing task, study frequency adverbs in negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense, and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 09. 12. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to form groups with different students other than the ones sitting next to them.
2. They will need a pencil and a photocopied page containing a series of pictures.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some vocabulary items such as *go out, go shopping, skirt, jeans, cheese, olives, honey, omelet* and *department store*, which will enable the students to understand the sentences in the dialogue.
4. The teacher will tell the groups to listen to the dialogue on the tape carefully in order to write a passage about *Jane's weekend* afterwards.
5. Next, the teacher will announce that the groups will prepare two questions with frequency adverbs, and the groups will answer other groups' questions.

The Task-Cycle 1: (25 minutes)

Task: The students will listen to the dialogue about *Jane's weekend* on the tape twice. The teacher will hand out a sheet of paper containing a series of pictures about Jane's activities. The groups will write a passage about *Jane's weekend*, and the pictures will help the group members to remember the activities.

Planning: The students will check their passages so that they will be ready to present them to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their passage to the class and listen to each group's passage in order to make a comparison between it and their own passage.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's passage.

The teacher will write some problematic sentences on the board. The teacher and the students will correct the mistakes in the sentences.

The group members who have written the best passage will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (10 minutes)

Task: The teacher will ask the groups to prepare two questions to be asked to the other groups. The students will choose the verbs among *go to restaurants*, *go to school by bus*, *get up early*, *go swimming* and *eat fish*. The frequency adverbs to be used in the questions are *usually*, *often* and *sometimes*. The students will prepare two yes/no questions using the words given.

Planning: The group members will check their questions and make some corrections before reading them aloud.

BREAK

Report and Listening: The groups will read their questions, and the teacher will call on other group members to answer these questions.

The groups who have made the least number of mistakes in their questions will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (35 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The teacher will write some problematic questions and answers of the students on the board. The teacher and the students will make the corrections together.

2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing choosing appropriate sentences for pictures, re-writing sentences using the words in parentheses and choosing synonymous sentences.

The Lesson Plan for Task 7

Performance Objectives:

The students will read a passage about *Michael Johnson's daily routine*. They will be asked to write down eighteen underlined words. The teacher will collect the passages, and the students will try to remember the passage in order to write two affirmative and two yes/no questions about the passage by taking the underlined words into account. Next, the groups will exchange the questions so that each group will answer the other group's questions.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', the Simple Present Tense in affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions in the affirmative, the negative and the interrogative forms in the Simple Present Tense. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will use the Simple Present Tense in a reading and a writing task and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 14. 12. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to form groups with different students other than the ones sitting next to them.
2. They will need a pencil and a photocopied page containing a passage about *Michael Johnson's daily routine*.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some vocabulary items such as *check exam papers, have classes, teach, library, cook and clean the house*, which will enable the students to understand the sentences in the passage.
4. The teacher will tell the groups to read the passage carefully and write down the underlined words.

5. Next, the teacher will announce that the groups will perform a writing activity based on the passage.

The Task-Cycle 1: (25 minutes)

Task: The teacher will hand out a sheet of paper containing the passage about *Michael Johnson*. The students will read the passage carefully and write down the underlined words on another sheet of paper. The teacher will collect the papers, and the students will prepare two affirmative and two yes/no questions for the underlined words. All these sentences will be about the passage as far as they remember.

Planning: The students will check their sentences about passages so that they will be ready to present them to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their sentences to the class and listen to each group's sentences in order to make a comparison.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's sentences.

The group members who have written the best sentences will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (10 minutes)

Task: The teacher will ask the groups to exchange their questions with the other groups. The groups will answer the questions of the other groups.

Planning: The group members will check their answers and make some corrections before reading them aloud.

BREAK

Report and Listening: The groups will read the questions and give the answers.

The teacher will collect the students' questions and answers and hand out the passages again.

The students will discuss their performance.

The groups who have asked the best questions will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (35 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The students will have an analysis of all the underlined words with the teacher and prepare questions for all the underlined words.
2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing formation of sentences from jumbled words, asking questions for the underlined words in dialogues and matching the words in two columns to have grammatical sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

The Lesson Plan for Task 8

Performance Objectives:

The students will have interviews with each other. This will be revision of the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', the Simple Present Tense in affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions in the affirmative, the negative and the interrogative forms in the Simple Present Tense. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will use the Simple Present Tense in a writing task.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 16. 12. 2004

The Pre-Task Stage: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will brainstorm with w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense.
2. The students will need a pencil and a blank sheet of paper.
3. The teacher will tell the students to write their names on a piece of paper and put it on the table. Next, the students will choose their pairs for this task.
4. Next, the teacher will announce that the pairs will have an interview. The students will prepare questions and answers in pairs.

The Task-Cycle 1: (20 minutes)

Task: The pairs will prepare yes/no and w/h questions. They will write at least six questions and organize these questions in an interview format. They will also write the answers for the questions together. The verbs they can use are *get up, have breakfast, get to school, have dinner, do homework, watch TV, go to bed*.

Planning: The students will check their interviews so that they will be ready to present them to the whole class.

Report and Listening: The students are expected to read their interview to the class and listen to each group's interview in order to make a comparison between it and their own.

The students will not be allowed to criticize each other's interview.

The group members who have written the best sentences will be announced by the teacher.

The Task-Cycle 2: (15 minutes)

Task: The pairs will exchange their interviews with the other pairs. The pairs will form a passage about their friends according to the answers in the interview.

Planning: The group members will check their passages and make some corrections before reading them aloud.

BREAK

Report and Listening: The groups will read the passages.

The students will discuss their performance.

The groups who have written the best passages will be announced by the teacher.

The Language Focus Stage: (35 minutes)

Analysis and Practice:

1. The teacher will write some problematic sentences of the students on the board. The students will correct the mistakes together.
2. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing changing the verbs in the first passage in order to fit the singular subject in the second passage and answering questions about a passage.



LESSON PLANS FOR THE PPP GROUP

PPP Lesson Plan 1

Performance Objectives:

The students are expected to learn how daily routines are expressed by using the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be' and the modal 'can'. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and some simple verbs such as *live, go, study, learn, teach, eat, drink, do, etc.*

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be informed that they will practice how to say the things that they do every day in English. They will be warmed up with some examples in Turkish. They will also be informed that they will learn new words in this lesson.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 22. 11. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (20 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some examples in the Simple Present Tense such as *Suzy gets up late, She goes to an Italian class every evening, Henry walks to work, He has a shower every morning, Tom does yoga, We use the lift, etc.* orally, and then she will write them on the board.
2. The students will repeat the examples on the board chorally.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some unfamiliar verbs.
4. The Teacher will write some other examples such as *Tom and Mary watch TV every evening, My sister and I play volleyball, Jane goes to bed late, Tom finishes work at 5:00 every day, etc.*; next, the teacher will underline the verbs.
5. The teacher will give the students a chance to work out the rules by themselves. The teacher will listen to the students' ideas about the rules for the verb formation in the Simple Present Tense.
6. The students will write down the sentences on the board.

7. The teacher will write the personal pronouns on the board and will write the verb *drink tea* for each pronoun.

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (50 minutes)

1. The teacher will say some other sample sentences orally such as *Suzy gets to work late, Henry gets up at 6 in the morning, We go running in the weekend, They visit their friends every week, etc.* and will ask the students to repeat these sentences chorally.

2. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a substitution drill. This will be the substitution of the object. The sentence *I drink tea* will be repeated by using *milk, coffee, orange juice* and *lemonade*.

3. The students will also substitute the verb in the sentence *She gets up late* with *has breakfast, gets to school, goes to bed, etc.*

BREAK

4. The students will substitute the subject in the sentence *I have lunch at 1:00 o'clock* with *Sam, Mary, Mary and Sam, he, they, we, she* and *you*.

5. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing some transformation from singular to plural persona and vice versa, fill-in-the blanks with appropriate form of the verbs, forming sentences from jumbled words and choosing the correct option for the verb formation.

Production of the New Material: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will ask the students to write three sentences about their daily activities.

2. The teacher will listen to these sentences and give feedback.

PPP Lesson Plan 2

Performance Objectives:

The students are expected to learn how time and frequency are expressed in the sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can' and some affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense to express daily routines. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be informed that they will study time expressions and frequency adverbs in English about the things that they do every day. They will be warmed up with some examples in Turkish. They will also be informed that they will learn new words in this lesson.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 24. 11. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (20 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some examples in the Simple Present Tense such as *I always take a shower, Joe brushes his teeth every morning, and We do yoga in the afternoon, etc.* orally, and then she will write them on the board.
2. The students will repeat the examples on the board.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some unfamiliar verbs.
4. The Teacher will write some other examples such as *We have breakfast at 7:00 in the morning, She sometimes walks to school and Jane calls her parents at 6:00 in the evening etc.* Next, the teacher will underline the time and the frequency adverbs.
5. The teacher will give the students a chance to work out the rules by themselves. The teacher will listen to the students' ideas about the rules for the time and frequency expressions in English.
6. The students will write down the sentences on the board.

7. The teacher will write the frequency adverbs; *always, usually, often, sometimes, rarely* and *never*, and the time expressions; *every week, every morning, every afternoon, every weekend, every Sunday, every Christmas, in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, at night* on the board as a list.

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (45 minutes)

1. The teacher will tell some other sample sentences such as *I sometimes meet my friends in a restaurant, They write letters at 5:00 in the evening* and *My father never smokes, etc.* and will ask the students to repeat these sentences chorally.

2. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a substitution drill. This will be the substitution of the frequency adverb. The word *never* in the sentence *I never play football* will be replaced with *always, sometimes, often, rarely* and *usually*.

BREAK

3. The students will also substitute the time expression in the sentence *She brushes her teeth in the morning* with *at noon, in the afternoon, in the evening* and *at night*.

4. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing the re-writing of the sentences by adding the time expressions and frequency adverbs in parentheses and correcting the mistakes in the use of these words.

Production of the New Material: (15 minutes)

1. The teacher will ask the students to write three sentences about their own daily routines, but this time they will also include the necessary time expressions and frequency adverbs.

2. The teacher will listen to these sentences and give feedback.

PPP Lesson Plan 3

Performance Objectives:

The students are expected to learn affirmative, negative and yes/no question type of sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', some affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense to express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will study negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 29. 11. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (30 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some examples in the Simple Present Tense such as *I get up early in the morning, Joe doesn't have breakfast every morning, and Do you walk to school?, etc.* orally, and then she will write them on the board.
2. The students will repeat the examples on the board chorally.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some unfamiliar verbs.
4. The teacher will write some other examples such as *I don't like chocolate, I like ice-cream, She doesn't go to bed late, She goes to bed early and They don't speak German, They speak English, etc.* and next, the teacher will ask the students to see the differences between the affirmative and the negative verbs.
5. The teacher will give the students a chance to work out the rules by themselves. The teacher will listen to the students' ideas about the rules, and underline the *don'ts* and *doesn'ts* in the sentences.
6. The students will write down the sentences on the board.

7. Next, the teacher will give some other examples such as *Do your parents work? Yes, they do, Does Jane smoke? No, she doesn't. Do you live in İzmir? Yes, I do.* on the board and ask the students to see the differences between questions and answers.

8. The teacher will give the rule for question formation.

9. The students will write the sentences on the board.

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (40 minutes)

1. The teacher will say some other sample sentences such as *I don't live in a big house, Do you watch TV every evening?* and *My father always uses the lift, etc.* and will ask the students to repeat these sentences chorally.

2. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a transformation drill. The sentences; *I love pizza, George speaks English, My friends go to a sports club every day* and *He has breakfast every morning* will be transformed into the negative.

3. The students will also transform the sentences *She has lunch at 1:00, I read books every day* and *We want a new book* into question forms.

BREAK

4. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing transformation of affirmative sentences into negative, formation of affirmative, negative sentences and yes/ no questions from jumbled words, and asking questions about sentences.

Production of the New Material: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will ask the students to prepare two questions to ask their friends. The pairs will ask and answer the questions one by one.

2. The teacher will listen to these sentences and give feedback.

PPP Lesson Plan 4

Performance Objectives:

This will be a revision of the previous lesson. The students are expected to use affirmative, negative and yes/no question type of sentences in the Simple Present Tense without hesitation.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', some affirmative and negative sentences in the Simple Present Tense to express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will study affirmative, negative sentences and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 01. 12. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (30 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some examples in the Simple Present Tense such as *I have six classes every day*, *Joe doesn't have many patients*, and *Do your lessons start at 12:30?*, etc. orally, and then she will write them on the board.
2. The students will repeat the examples on the board chorally.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some unfamiliar vocabulary items.
4. The rules for the formation of affirmative, negative and yes/no question type of sentences in the Simple Present Tense will be revised.

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (40 minutes)

1. The teacher will say some other sample sentences such as *Doctors work at hospitals*, *Do you do your homework every day?* and, *Mrs. Smith doesn't come home before 7:00 in the evening*, etc. and will ask the students to repeat these sentences chorally.

2. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a transformation drill. The sentences; *I get up before 8:00 in the morning*, *Mr. Jackson has many patients* and *Jane has six classes every day* will be transformed into the negative.

3. The students will also transform the sentences *She does her homework in the morning*, *I go to school every day* and *They start work early in the morning* into question forms.

BREAK

4. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing formation of yes/no questions from jumbled words, finding out the wrong word in sentences in terms of third person singular – s and does, transformation from singular to plural persona and vice versa, and choosing the correct option for the short answers to yes/no questions..

Production of the New Material: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will ask the students to prepare two questions about their parents to ask their friends. The students will use the verbs *live in İzmir*, *smoke*, *work in an office*, *get up early* or *watch TV in the evening* in their questions. The pairs will ask and answer the questions one by one.

2. The teacher will listen to these sentences and give feedback.

PPP Lesson Plan 5

Performance Objectives:

The students are expected to use w/h question type of sentences in the Simple Present Tense

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', some affirmative and negative sentences, and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will study w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 06. 12. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (40 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some examples in the Simple Present Tense such as *When do you get up?*, *How often do you go running?*, *Where do you live?* and *Who helps you with your homework?*, etc. orally, and then she will write them on the board.
2. The students will repeat the examples on the board chorally.
3. The teacher will write some other examples such as *Do you live in İzmir?* *Where do you live?* *Do you have breakfast?* *What do you have for breakfast?* *Does Jane brush her teeth?* *How often does she brush her teeth?* *Do you help your mother?* *Who helps your mother with the dishes?* *Do they get up early?* *When (What time) do they get up?* etc. and next, the teacher will ask the students to see the differences between yes/no and w/h questions.
5. The teacher will give the students a chance to work out the rules by themselves. The teacher will listen to the students' ideas about the rules, and underline the question words in the sentences.
6. The students will write down the sentences on the board.

7. Next, the teacher will give some other examples such as *Where do your parents work? They work in Konak. What do you have for breakfast? I have cheese, olives and jam. Who corrects the mistakes in your homework? My mother does. How often do you go to the movies? We go to the movies every Sunday. When does your father come home? He comes home at 7:00 every evening.* on the board and ask the students to analyze the questions and the answers.

8. The teacher will give the rule for w/h question formation.

9. The students will write down the sentences on the board.

10. The teacher will give some sentences and underline some words such as *I always go to bed early, He needs these books, Tom teaches history, They work in a restaurant, She goes to bed at 12:30, etc.* The students will ask the questions for the underlined words.

BREAK

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (30 minutes)

1. The teacher will produce some other sample sentences such as *When do you have dinner? How often do they eat pizza? Who washes the dishes in your house? What do you wear at school?* and *Where does Jane live?*, etc. and will ask the students to repeat these sentences chorally.

2. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a substitution drill. This will be the substitution of the subject. The word *you* in the question *Where do you live?* will be replaced with *Joe, your sister, your sisters* and *they*. The word *you* in the question *How often do you study English?* will be replaced with *Susan, your friends, Jack* and *Jack and Joe*.

3. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a transformation drill. The teacher will tell the answers and the students will form the questions for such answers as *sometimes, I sometimes go out, in a factory, Joe works in a factory, his car, Joe washes his car, My mother, My mother cooks, at 8:00, Susan gets up at 8:00, etc.*

4. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing matching the question words *Who, Where, What, When* and *How often* with answers, formation of w/h questions from jumbled words and asking questions for the underlined words.

Production of the New Material: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some pieces of information about people such as *(Susan, swim, sometimes), (They, work, in an office), (Joe, read, history books), (Jack, get to work, at 8:00)* and ask the pairs of students to prepare questions to learn this information. The pairs will ask the questions and the other pairs will give the answers.

2. The teacher will listen to these questions and answers and give feedback.

PPP Lesson Plan 6

Performance Objectives:

The students are expected to use frequency adverbs in negatives and yes/no questions in the Simple Present Tense

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', the Simple Present Tense in affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions in the affirmative sentences. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students have already studied frequency adverbs in affirmative sentences in the Simple Present Tense. Some sample sentences will be used for warm up. Next, the students will be announced that they will study frequency adverbs in negatives and questions in the Simple Present Tense.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 08. 12. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (30 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some examples in the Simple Present Tense such as *Do you sometimes drink coffee?*, *I don't always go to bed late* and *Does your sister usually play tennis?*, etc. orally, and then she will write them on the board.
2. The students will repeat the examples on the board chorally.
3. The teacher will write some other examples such as *Do you usually go out shopping at weekends?*, *Do your parents sometimes come home late?*, *Do you often go to the movies?*, etc. and next, the teacher will ask the students to underline the frequency adverbs in the questions.
5. The teacher will give the students a chance to work out the rules by themselves. The teacher will listen to the students' ideas about the rules and give the rule about the use of frequency adverbs in questions in the Simple Present Tense.
6. The students will write down the sentences on the board.

7. Next, the teacher will give some other examples such as *I don't always cook, My sister doesn't usually get up late, We don't often eat fish, etc.* on the board and ask the students to analyze the frequency adverb usage in negative sentences.
8. After the students have discussed the rule, the teacher will give the rule about the use of frequency adverbs in negative sentences in the Simple Present Tense.
9. The students will write down the sentences on the board.

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (30 minutes)

1. The teacher will produce some other sample sentences such as *Do you sometimes wash the dishes?, They don't always eat out and Does he often go to the movies?, etc.* and will ask the students to repeat these sentences chorally.

BREAK

2. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a transformation drill. The teacher will say the sentence and a frequency adverb. The students will include the frequency adverb in the sentences such as, *(always) Mary doesn't get up early, (often) Do you visit your grandparents?, (sometimes) He doesn't watch TV, (usually) Do your brothers help you? etc.*
3. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing choosing appropriate sentences for pictures, re-writing sentences using the words in parentheses and choosing synonymous sentences.

Production of the New Material: (20 minutes)

1. The teacher will hand out a sheet of paper containing a series of pictures about *what Jane does at weekends*. The students will write a passage about Jane's weekend using these pictures in groups of four.
2. The teacher will listen to these passages and give feedback.

PPP Lesson Plan 7

Performance Objectives:

The students are expected to form affirmative, negative sentences, yes/no and w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', the Simple Present Tense in affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions in the affirmative, the negative and the interrogative forms in the Simple Present Tense. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will form sentences in the Simple Present Tense from jumbled words and learn new vocabulary items.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 13. 12. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (10 minutes)

1. The teacher will give some examples in the Simple Present Tense such as *I sometimes go out with my friends*, *Do you sometimes play football with your friends?*, *She doesn't often go running*, *Where do you have lunch?* and *How often do you eat pizza?*, etc. orally, and then she will write them on the board.
2. The students will repeat the examples on the board chorally.
3. The teacher will give the meaning of some unfamiliar vocabulary items.
4. The rules for the formation of affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense will be revised.

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (35 minutes)

1. The teacher will produce some other sample sentences such as *Do you sometimes watch TV in the evening?*, *We don't always eat fish* and *He always goes to the library after school*, etc. and will ask the students to repeat these sentences chorally.
2. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a transformation drill. The teacher will tell the sentence and a frequency adverb. The students will include the frequency adverb in the sentences such as, *(always) Mary doesn't get up early*, *(often) Do you visit your grandparents?*, *(sometimes) He doesn't watch TV*, *(usually) Do your brothers help you?* etc.

BREAK

3. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing formation of sentences from jumbled words, asking questions for the underlined words in dialogues and matching the words in two columns to have grammatical sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Production of the New Material: (20 minutes)

1. The teacher will hand out a sheet of paper containing a passage about *Michael Johnson's daily routine* to groups of four. There are eighteen underlined words in the passage. The groups will be asked to prepare four questions for the underlined words.
2. Next, the groups will exchange their questions and other groups will give the answers.
3. The teacher will listen to the questions and answers, and s/he will give feedback.

PPP Lesson Plan 8

Performance Objectives:

The students are expected to produce affirmative, negative sentences, yes/no and w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense in order to write interviews and passages.

Class Background:

The students have already studied the verb 'be', the modal 'can', the Simple Present Tense in affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions. They can express daily routines with frequency adverbs and time expressions in the affirmative, the negative and the interrogative forms in the Simple Present Tense. They have a vocabulary stock of some simple adjectives, nouns, place adverbs and verbs.

Starting the Lesson:

The students will be announced that they will form sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Age of the Students: 12-14

Duration: 80 minutes

Date: 15. 12. 2004

Presentation of the New Material: (10 minutes)

1. The rules for the formation of affirmative, negative sentences, and yes/no and w/h questions in the Simple Present Tense will be revised.

Practicing the New Material by Drills: (30 minutes)

1. The teacher will instruct the students to perform a transformation drill. The teacher will say such sentences as *Susan often comes home early, My mother sometimes drinks beer, I like pizza, etc.* and the students will say these sentences in the negative form.
2. The teacher will instruct the students to transform such sentences as *I go running every day, Sam often takes the bus to work, We have six classes every day, etc.* into yes/no questions.
3. The teacher will hand out a worksheet of exercises containing changing the verbs in the first passage in order to fit the singular subject in the second passage and answering questions about a passage.

BREAK

Production of the New Material: (40 minutes)

1. The teacher will ask the students to form pairs. The pairs will prepare at least six yes/no and w/h questions and answers in order to have an interview with each other. The verbs they can use are *get up, have breakfast, get to school, have dinner, do homework, watch TV, go to bed*.
2. The teacher will listen to the interviews, and the students will correct the mistakes together.
3. Next, the pairs will exchange the interviews, and other pairs will write a passage using the information in the interview.
4. The teacher will listen to the passages, and she will give feedback.





EXERCISES

Name and Surname:

Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 1

A. Re-write the verbs by taking the subjects into account.

1. Michael and Sam play football every Sunday.

Michael _____ football every Sunday.

2. She gets up at 7 every morning.

We _____ at 7 every morning.

3. I take the bus to school.

He _____ the bus to school.

4. My parents have dinner at 7 every evening.

Mary _____ dinner at 7 every evening.

5. Students go to school.

Tom _____ to school.

6. Joe meets Tom after school.

They _____ Tom after school.

B. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate forms of the verbs in the parentheses.

7. We _____ running every weekend. (go)

8. Susan _____ a shower at 8 in the morning. (have)

9. They _____ in İzmir. (live)

10. He _____ an apple every day. (eat)

11. My brother _____ home at 8 every morning. (leave)

12. Yoko _____ Japanese. (speak)

13. I _____ the radio every evening. (listen to)

C. Form sentences from the jumbled words below.

14. I / breakfast / have / at 8

15. goes / Suzy / to bed / late

16. coffee / My father / drinks / every evening

17. Tom / a shower / has / every morning

18. We / our homework / every day / do

D. Choose the correct option.

17. The school _____ at 12.30.

a) start b) starts c) to start d) starting

18. My friends _____ to school.

a) walk b) walking c) walks d) to walk

19. He _____ in a bank.

a) work b) working c) works d) to work

20. My father _____ home at 7 every day.

a) get b) to get c) getting d) gets

Name and Surname:

Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 2

A. Re-write the following sentences using the words in the parentheses.

1. I visit my parents. (every weekend)
2. Sheila smokes. (never)
3. We finish work at 5 o'clock. (usually)
4. My friends stay in the same hotel in Fethiye. (every summer)
5. I forget his name. (always)
6. I have breakfast at 8. (in the morning)
7. Jane watches TV. (rarely)
8. My sister cleans her room. (every Sunday)
9. I do my homework. (in the evening)
10. Joe goes to bed late. (sometimes)

B. Correct the following sentences.

11. I go out sometimes.
12. We in the evening watch TV.
13. Jane has dinner at 7 usually.
14. My mother invites in the afternoon her friends.
15. They every weekend go to Kuşadası.
16. My friends and I take every morning the bus.
17. Susan washes every night the dishes.
18. Never my mother drinks beer.
19. Sam does his homework always.
20. She plays volleyball often with her friends.

Name and Surname:

Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 3

A. Make following sentences negative.

1. Jane has a sister.
Jane _____ a sister.
2. I watch TV every day.
I _____ TV every day.
3. My brother likes bicycles.
My brother _____ bicycles.
4. Susan visits her grandparents every weekend.
Susan _____ her grandparents every weekend.
5. The post office opens at 7:00 every morning.
The post office _____ at 7:00 every morning.
6. My mother and I go shopping on Saturdays.
My mother and I _____ shopping on Saturdays.
7. Michael has breakfast at 7:30 in the morning.
Michael _____ breakfast at 7:30 in the morning.

B. Form sentences from the jumbled words below.

8. to the movies / They / go / every Sunday (+)
9. pizza / doesn't / My sister / like (-)
10. every morning / drink / I / tea (+)
11. Jane / speak / Spanish / doesn't (-)
12. have / a car / My father / doesn't (-)

C. Ask questions for the sentences below.

13. I travel by train.
Do _____ ?
14. Joe works in a bank.
Does _____ ?
15. Sam teaches history at school.
Does _____ ?
16. Susan and Mary go to the theater every weekend.
Do _____ ?
17. We listen to classical music every evening.
Do _____ ?
18. Jane lives in a big house.
Does _____ ?

Name and Surname:

Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 4

A. Form questions, affirmative and negative sentences from the jumbled words below.

1. you / go to the movies / at the weekends / Do (?)
2. Mrs. Smith / at the hospital / Does / work (?)
3. your parents / live / in İzmir / Do (?)
4. Joe / go to bed / before 11:00 / Does (?)
5. don't / fish / have / I / for breakfast (-)
6. usually / Jane / her homework / does / before dinner (+)

B. Choose the wrong word.

7. 'Does Joe studies English every evening?'
a) Does b) English c) every evening d) studies
8. 'Do you works on the morning shift at the hospital?'
a) works b) Do c) on the morning shift d) at the hospital
9. 'Does your parents speak English?'
a) speak b) your c) Does d) English
10. I doesn't have dinner before 7:00 in the evening.
a) have b) doesn't c) before 7:00 d) in the evening

C. Re-write the verbs by taking the subjects into account.

11. My friends go running every morning.
My friend _____ running every morning.
12. I have a brother.
Susan _____ a brother.
13. They sometimes go out for dinner.
Tom sometimes _____ for dinner.
14. We walk to school every morning.
She _____ to school every morning.

D. Choose the correct option.

15. A: 'Do you call your parents every weekend?'
B: 'Yes, I _____.'
a) do b) does c) don't d) doesn't
16. A: 'Does your brother work in a bank?'
B: 'Yes, he _____.'
a) do b) does c) don't d) doesn't
17. A: 'Do you like pizza?'
B: 'No, we _____.'
a) do b) does c) don't d) doesn't
18. A: 'Does the bank open at 7:00 in the morning?'
B: 'No, it _____.'
a) do b) does c) don't d) doesn't

Name and Surname:

Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 5

A. Write the correct question words. Use **who, where, what, when** and **how often**.

1. _____ ? a) My friends
2. _____ ? b) usually
3. _____ ? c) at noon
4. _____ ? d) a suit and a tie.
5. _____ ? e) every weekend
6. _____ ? f) My teacher
7. _____ ? g) at school
8. _____ ? h) at 7:00 in the morning
9. _____ ? i) never
10. _____ ? j) my school bag
11. _____ ? k) at the museum
12. _____ ? l) in İzmir

B. Form questions from the jumbled words below.

13. do / you / help / How often / your mother (?)
14. does / Joe / do / his homework / When (?)
15. Who / late / goes to bed (?)
16. they / have / What / for dinner / do / tonight (?)
17. keep / their money / Where / do / they (?)

C. Ask questions for the underlined words.

18. I often watch TV after dinner.
19. Michael has a car.
20. Sam works in a factory.
21. My friends visit the zoo at the weekends.
22. Susan and her sister get up at 9:00 in the morning.
23. Joe and Jack play golf every Sunday.
24. We play football in the school yard.
25. I take out the garbage.
26. Jane wants a new dress for the party.
27. Tom goes to bed at 11:00

Name and Surname:

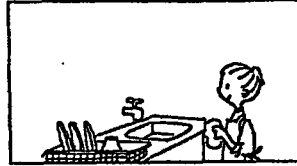
Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 6

A. Choose the appropriate sentences for the pictures below.

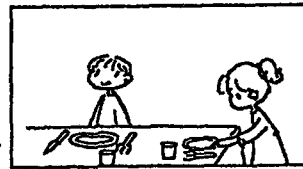
1.

- a) My mother cooks the meals every day.
- b) My mother washes the windows every day.
- c) My mother washes the dishes every day.
- d) My mother dusts the house every day.



2.

- a) My sister and I set the table every evening.
- b) My sister and I ride our bikes every evening.
- c) My sister and I mend the table every evening.
- d) My sister and I do our homework every evening.



B. Re-write the following sentences using the words in the parentheses.

- 3. Do you drink coffee at work? (often)
- 4. She doesn't go shopping on Mondays. (usually)
- 5. Does your sister help you? (sometimes)
- 6. We don't watch TV in the morning. (usually)
- 7. Do you have lunch with your friends? (sometimes)

C. Choose the synonymous sentence.

8. Jane: 'How often do you go out?'

Tom: 'Every night.'

- a) Tom never goes out.
 - b) Tom sometimes goes out.
 - c) Tom rarely goes out.
 - d) Tom always goes out.
9. Susan comes from Spain.
- a) Susan doesn't know Spanish.
 - b) Susan is Spanish.
 - c) Susan likes Spanish people.
 - d) Spanish people like Susan.
10. Mary: 'How often do you smoke?'
- Jack: 'Never.'
- a) Jack always smokes.
 - b) Jack usually smokes.
 - c) Jack sometimes smokes.
 - d) Jack doesn't smoke.

Name and Surname:

Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 7

A. Form sentences from the jumbled words below.

1. The post office / at 8:30 / opens / every weekday. (+)
2. doesn't / like / Susan / chocolate (-)
3. visit / your grandparents / How often / you / do (?)
4. wears / nice clothes / Jane / always (+)
5. Do / your parents / music / listen to / every day (?)
6. Suzy / her parents / usually / calls / in the evening (+)

B. Ask questions for the underlined words.

7. A: _____ ?

B: I sometimes play golf.

8. A: _____ ?

B: My father helps my mother.

9. A: _____ ?

B: My father sometimes reads magazines.

10. A: _____ ?

B: Susan attends a language course in Konak.

11. A: _____ ?

B: Joe gets home from work at 7:00 in the evening.

C. Match the words in column A with the words in column B in order to have grammatically correct sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

Column A

12. Do you often _____
13. Joe never _____
14. How often do you play _____
15. Where does _____
16. When do you go to _____
17. Susan does her _____
18. My mother eats _____
19. When do you have _____
20. Does your brother work _____
21. I don't need _____
22. It snows a lot _____

Column B

- a) homework every evening.
- b) they live?
- c) buy newspapers?
- d) games with your brother?
- e) bed?
- f) in Erzurum.
- g) sometimes.
- h) in a bank?
- i) she live?
- j) breakfast?
- k) an apple every morning.
- l) a new jacket.
- m) cleans his room.

Name and Surname:

Class:

Exercises for the Simple Present Tense 8

A. The verbs in the first paragraph are in the plural form. Use these verbs in the singular form in the blanks of the second paragraph.

Joe and Susan are doctors at a hospital. They get up at 7:00 in the morning. They have a quick breakfast. They leave home at 7:30 a.m. They treat many patients all day long. They come home at 7:00 p.m. They have dinner and read the newspaper. They watch TV and go to bed at around 11 p.m. They visit their parents at the weekend.

Joe is doctors at a hospital. He (1) _____ at 7:00 in the morning. He (2) _____ a quick breakfast. He (3) _____ home at 7:30 a.m. He (4) _____ many patients all day long. Joe (5) _____ home at 7:00 p.m. He (6) _____ dinner and (7) _____ the newspaper. He (8) _____ TV and (9) _____ to bed at around 11 p.m. He (10) _____ his parents at the weekends.

B. Read the following passage and choose the correct answers for the questions below.

Mary is a student at a high school. She lives with her mother, father and her brother. She comes home from school at 1:00 p.m. Her brother Michael is a doctor at a hospital. He comes home at 7:00 p.m. Mary's mother and father are engineers in a company, and they come home at 6:00 p.m. Mary's mother cooks for dinner, and they have dinner together. Mary's father always washes the dishes after dinner. They play cards together after dinner every night. They go to bed at around 11:00.

11. Who washes the dishes after dinner?

- a) Mary
- b) Mary's mother
- c) Mary's father
- d) Mary's brother

12. How often do they play cards?

- a) always
- b) sometimes
- c) rarely
- d) never

13. Who comes home at 7:00 p.m.?

- a) Mary
- b) Mary's mother
- c) Mary's father
- d) Mary's brother

14. Where does Michael work?

- a) in a high school
- b) in a company
- c) at a hospital
- d) at home

15. What is this passage about?

- a) Mary
- b) Mary's family
- c) a school
- d) dinner



LISTENING MATERIAL FOR TASKS

TASK 1

LISTENING

Suzy Stressed

Suzy Stressed gets up late and has a shower. She doesn't have breakfast. She goes to work by car. She gets to work at 8:55. She uses the lift. At 11:00 o'clock, she has a cigarette and a black coffee. Suzy has lunch at 1.30. She finishes work at 6:00 o'clock. Then she goes to an Italian class. She gets home late. After that, she watches TV. She has dinner at 11:00 o'clock. She goes to bed very late. Suzy is very stressed.

Henry Healthy

Henry gets up early. He goes running before breakfast. Then he has a shower. He has fruit juice and cereal for breakfast. After that, he walks to work. He doesn't use the lift. He starts work at 9:30. He goes home at 5:00 o'clock. In the evening, he does yoga. Henry doesn't watch TV. He goes to bed early. Henry is very healthy.

Taken from:

Oxender, C. & Seligson, P. (1996) *English File Students' Book*. Oxford University Press.

TASK 3

LISTENING

My name is Richard Smart. I am a student at a high school. I get up early in the morning. I don't have a shower every morning. I have a quick breakfast. I walk to school, I don't take the bus. My lessons start at 8:00 and finish at 1:00 o'clock. I come home at 1:30 and have a rest. I love sports. After lunch, I go to a sports club. I have dinner at 6:00. Then, I watch TV until 10:00 at night. I don't read books. I go to bed early.

I always use the lift.

She doesn't like ice-cream.

Do you watch TV every evening?

I don't go to school by bus.

Jane doesn't want this jacket.

Does your sister like fish?

Joe lives in a big house.

Mr. Smith doesn't speak German.

They don't live in İzmir.

Do you drive?

TASK 5
LISTENING

Jack and Mary are talking in a coffee shop.

Mary: Do you get up early in the morning?

Jack: Yes, I do. I get up at 7:00 in the morning.

Mary: What do you have for breakfast?

Jack: Cereal and fruit juice. And you?

Mary: I have a sandwich every morning.

Jack: Who makes the sandwich for you?

Mary: My mother does. And I go running before breakfast.

Jack: How often do you go running?

Mary: I go running every morning. After breakfast, I walk to school. Our house isn't far from the school. Where do you live?

Jack: In Karşıyaka. Our house is far from the school, so I take the bus to get to school. After school, I do my homework. I sometimes make mistakes.

Mary: Who corrects your mistakes?

Jack: My father does. And then, I watch TV and play games with my brother.

Mary: How often do you play games with your brother?

Jack: Always. We love games.

Mary: When do you go to bed?

Jack: At 10:00 o'clock.

TASK 6

LISTENING

Michael: Jane is my sister, and I love her very much.

Susan: I know Jane. How does she spend her weekends?

Michael: She wakes up at 9:00 in the morning. My sister Jane and I have breakfast together.

Susan: What do you have for breakfast?

Michael: We have some cheese, olives, an omelet and some honey.

Susan: What does Jane do after breakfast?

Michael: She always does her homework after breakfast. Then we play tennis.

Susan: How often do you play tennis?

Michael: We usually play tennis at weekends. We both love tennis. After tennis, Jane goes shopping.

Susan: Where does she go?

Michael: She goes to the department stores in Konak.

Susan: What does she usually buy?

Michael: She often buys skirts or jeans for herself.

Susan: Does she come home after shopping?

Michael: No, we go to the movies together. After the movies, we come home and have dinner.

Susan: Does Jane often go to bed late?

Michael: No, she always goes to bed at 11:00.



**SAMPLES FROM PROFICIENCY AND
NOTICING TESTS**

PROFICIENCY TEST

Choose the correct option.

1. The bank _____ at 8 every morning.
a) opening b) open c) to open d) opens
2. A: 'Does it snow a lot in your country?'
B: 'No, it _____.'
a) don't b) doesn't c) do d) does

Re-write the following sentences using the frequency adverbs in parantheses.

3. We don't eat fish. (often)

_____.

Form sentences in the Simple Present Tense.

4. music / listens to / Jane / every evening (+)

_____.

Choose the sentence which paraphrases the given situation.

5. Joe: 'How often do you eat pizza?'

Mary: 'Never.'

- a) Mary always eats pizza.
- b) Mary usually eats pizza.
- c) Mary sometimes eats pizza.
- d) Mary does not eat pizza.

Re-write the following sentences using plural subjects given.

6. She speaks four languages.

They _____ four languages.

NOTICING TEST

Write correct (C) or incorrect (I) for the following sentences.

- _____ 7. Do you help your mother?
- _____ 8. She drink milk every night.
- _____ 9. Where does she lives?
- _____ 10. My father doesn't has a car.



**INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE PPP
GROUP**

GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

Adı ve Soyadı:

Cinsiyeti:

ORTAK SORULAR

İngilizce ile İlgili Genel Sorular:

1. İngilizce öğrenmek konusunda ne düşünüyorsun?
2. İngilizce'nin kolay yanları ne?
3. İngilizce'nin zor yanları ne?
4. İngilizce'de sence neleri öğrenmek önemli?

Yöntemle İlgili Sorular:

5. Daha önce yapılan İngilizce dersleri ile son 1 ay içinde yapılan dersler arasında senin için neler farklıydı?
 - 5a. Bunlar hakkında neler düşünüyorsun?
6. Son 1 ay içinde yapılan derslerde senin için neler aynıydı?
 - 6a. Bunlar hakkında neler düşünüyorsun?
7. Bu derslerde neleri beğendin?
 - 7a. Neden?
8. Bu derslerde neleri beğenmedin?
 - 8a. Neden?
9. Bu derslerde kullandığınız ders malzemeleri nelerdi?
 - 9a. Bu malzemeler hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
10. Derslerin en çok hangi bölümünü beğeniyordun?
 - 10a. Neden?
11. Derslerin en çok hangi bölümünü beğenmiyordun?
 - 11a. Neden?
12. Derslerde ne tür dilbilgisi alıştırmaları yaptınız?
 - 12a. Bu alıştırmalar hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
13. Yeni dilbilgisi yapılarının dersin başında öğrenilmesi hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
 - 13a. Sence dersin başında kuralları öğrenmenin ne gibi faydaları olabilir?
14. Yeni dilbilgisi yapılarını içeren cümleleri sözlü tekrar etmekle ilgili neler düşünüyorsun?
 - 14a. Sözlü tekrarın ne gibi faydaları olabilir?
15. Pratik aşamasında, öğretmenin verdiği cümlelerle yeni dilbilgisi yapısını sözlü olarak pratik ettiniz. Bunun hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
 - 15a. Neden?

16. Dersin sonuna doğru cümleler, paragraflar veya görüşme yazmanız istendi? Bunun hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?

16a. Neden?

17. Yapılan derslerde hangi aşamalarda düşünmek zorunda kalıyorsun? (kuralların verilmesi, cümlelerin sözlü tekrarı, öğretmenin sözlü olarak verdiği cümlelerle pratik yapma, alıştırma yapma ve kendinizin cümleler yazması)

17a. Neden?

18. Bundan sonra İngilizce'deki dilbilgisi yapılarını bu yöntemle öğrenmek hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?

18a. Neden?

19. Bu derslerle ilgili senin eklemek istediğin şeyler var mı?



INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Name and Surname:

Sex:

Common Questions

General Questions about English:

1. What do you think of learning English?
2. What are the easy parts of English?
3. What are the difficult parts of English?
4. What do you think of the essential parts to be studied in English?

The Questions about PPP:

5. What are the differences between the lessons delivered last month and the ones delivered before, for you?
 - 5a. What do you think of the differences?
6. What are the similarities between the lessons delivered last month and the ones delivered before, for you?
 - 6a. What do you think of the similarities?
7. What do you like about the lessons delivered last month?
 - 7a. Why?
8. What do you dislike about these lessons?
 - 8a. Why?
9. What are the materials you used in the lessons delivered last month?
 - 9a. What do you think of these materials?
10. Which part of the lesson do you like most?
 - 10a. Why?
11. Which part of the lesson do you dislike most?
 - 11a. Why?
12. What kind of grammar exercises did you perform in these lessons?
 - 12a. What do you think of these exercises?
13. What do you think of studying the new grammar points at the beginning of the lesson?
 - 13a. What kind of benefits would it produce to study the rules of the new grammar points at the beginning of the lesson?

14. What do you think of the oral repetition of the sentences including the new grammar points?
- 14a. What kind of benefits do you think oral repetition produces?
15. In the practice phase, you practiced the new grammar points with the sentences provided by the teacher. What do you think of this?
- 15a. Why?
16. You were required to write sentences, paragraphs or an interview toward the end of the lesson. What do you think of this?
- 16a. Why?
17. In what phase of the lesson were you required to spend mental effort? (rule-giving, oral repetition of the sentences, having oral practice with the teacher, exercising and writing sentences of your own)
- 17a. Why?
18. What do you think of studying the grammar points of English with this method?
- 18a. Why?
19. Do you have anything to add about these lessons?



INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE TBLT GROUP

GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

Adı ve Soyadı:

Cinsiyeti:

ORTAK SORULAR

İngilizce ile İlgili Genel Sorular:

1. İngilizce öğrenmek konusunda ne düşünüyorsun?
2. İngilizce'nin kolay yanları ne?
3. İngilizce'nin zor yanları ne?
4. İngilizce'de sence neleri öğrenmek önemli?

Yöntemle İlgili Sorular:

5. Daha önce yapılan İngilizce dersleri ile son 1 ay içinde yapılan dersler arasında senin için neler farklıydı?
 - 5a. Bunlar hakkında neler düşünüyorsun?
6. Son 1 ay içinde yapılan derslerde senin için neler aynıydı?
 - 6a. Bunlar hakkında neler düşünüyorsun?
7. Bu derslerde neleri beğendin?
 - 7a. Neden?
8. Bu derslerde neleri beğenmedin?
 - 8a. Neden?
9. Bu derslerde kullandığınız ders malzemeleri nelerdi?
 - 9a. Bu malzemeler hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
10. Derslerin en çok hangi bölümünü beğeniyordun?
 - 10a. Neden?
11. Derslerin en çok hangi bölümünü beğenmiyordun?
 - 11a. Neden?
12. Derslerde ne tür dilbilgisi alıştırmaları yaptınız?
 - 12a. Bu alıştırmalar hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
13. Görevleri yapmadan önce bazı yeni sözcüklerin verilmesi konusunda ne düşünüyorsun?
 - 13a. Yeni sözcüklerin görevin yapılması sırasında pekiştirilmesi konusunda ne düşünüyorsun?
14. Yeni dilbilgisi yapılarının görevi tamamladıktan sonra öğrenilmesi hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
 - 14a. Sence yeni dilbilgisi yapısıyla görevler yoluyla tanışmanın ne gibi faydaları olabilir?
 - 14b. Bunun iyi ve kötü yönleri sana göre nelerdir?
15. Görevlerde dilbilgisini kolay öğrenmeni sağlayan yönler var mı?

15a. Bu yönler neler?

15b. Bu yönlerle ilgili neler düşünüyorsun?

16. Görevi yaptıktan sonra sunmakla ilgili ne düşünüyorsun?

16a. Bunun ne gibi faydaları olabilir?

17. En beğendiğin görev hangisiydi?

17a. Neden?

18. Hangi görevi beğenmedin?

18a. Neden?

19. Görevlerle yapılan derslerde hangi aşamalarda düşünmek zorunda kalıyorsun? (Görevi tamamlamak, görevi sunmak, hatalı cümleleri analiz etmek, kuralları söylemek ve alıştırma yapmak)

19a. Neden?

20. Sence grup içinde çalışmanın olumlu ve olumsuz yanları nelerdir?

20a. Neden?

21. Bundan sonra İngilizce'deki dilbilgisi yapılarını bu yöntemle öğrenmek hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?

21a. Neden?

22. Bu derslerle ilgili senin eklemek istediğin şeyler var mı?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Name and Surname:

Sex:

Common Questions

General Questions about English:

1. What do you think of learning English?
2. What are the easy parts of English?
3. What are the difficult parts of English?
4. What do you think of the essential parts to be studied in English?

The Questions about TBLT:

5. What are the differences between the lessons delivered last month and the ones delivered before, for you?
 - 5a. What do you think of the differences?
6. What are the similarities between the lessons delivered last month and the ones delivered before, for you?
 - 6a. What do you think of the similarities?
7. What do you like about the lessons delivered last month?
 - 7a. Why?
8. What do you dislike about these lessons?
 - 8a. Why?
9. What are the materials you used in the lessons delivered last month?
 - 9a. What do you think of these materials?
10. Which part of the lesson do you like most?
 - 10a. Why?
11. Which part of the lesson do you dislike most?
 - 11a. Why?
12. What kind of grammar exercises did you perform in these lessons?
 - 12a. What do you think of these exercises?
13. What do you think of being presented with the new vocabulary before doing tasks?
 - 13a. What do you think of practicing the new vocabulary during tasks?
14. What do you think of studying the new grammar points after completing tasks?

14a. What kind of benefits do you think it produces to meet the new grammar points through tasks?

14b. What are the good and bad sides of this?

15. Are there any qualities of tasks which help you to learn the new grammar points more easily?

15a. What are these qualities?

15b. What do you think of these qualities?

16. What do you think of reporting after performing the task?

16a. What kind of benefits do you think it produces?

17. Which task do you like most?

17a. Why?

18. Which task do you dislike most?

18a. Why?

19. In what phase of the task-based lessons were you required to spend mental effort?

(completing the task, reporting the task, analyzing the problematic sentences, rule-giving and exercising)

19a. Why?

20. What are the good and bad sides of group work?

20a. Why?

21. What do you think of studying the grammar points of English with this method?

21a. Why?

22. Do you have anything to add about these lessons?



**STUDENTS' INTERVIEW STATEMENTS
IN TURKISH**

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.8

“Öbür öğretmenler bize hep dersi anlatıyorlardı, bu öğretmen bizi bilmediğimiz şeylerle yüz yüze getiriyor, daha sonra bize öğretiyordu.” (T1)

“...çünkü bizim neyi bilip bilmediğimize bakıyordu, bize daha iyi anlatmak için.” (T3)

“Çok güzel çünkü kendimiz yapmaya çabalıyorduk. Öğretmenin verdiği kendi yaptığımızla karşılaştırarak aaa biz burada hata yapmışız. Ama bilmediğimiz için hata yapmamız doğal.” (T6)

“İyi. Derste yapıyoruz. Öğretmen sonra anlatıyor. Ben orada bunu yapmışım, şurada şurada yanlışım var. Onları anlıyordum.” (T8)

“Daha iyi oldu çünkü bilmediğimiz şeyleri kavradık hep. Kendimiz öğrendik. Öğretmen olmamış gibi öğretmen olduk kendimize. Daha iyi oldu bizim için, unutmamamız açısından.” (T9)

“Kağıtta yanlış yaparsak öğretmen bize anlatıyordu. Doğrularımızı yanlışlarımızı çıkartıyordu. Böylece daha daha geliştireyorduk İngilizcemizi.” (T11)

“Bence önce öğretilseydi daha iyi olurdu. Önce öğrenseydik daha kolay yapabiliriz, sonuçlar daha iyi olabilirdi.” (T12)

“Önce bildiklerimizi yapıyorduk, sonra bilmediklerimizi de öğreniyorduk. Daha güzel oluyordu. Yararlı.” (T13)

“Önce yapıyoruz, açıklıyor sonra. Daha iyi oluyor. Biz bilmiyoruz yanlışımızı. Belki yanlış, doğruları söylüyor.” (T14)

“Hiçbir şey bilmediğimiz için öğretmen deniyordu bizi. Sonra öğrenince daha kolay geliyor yaptıklarımız. Bence faydalı. Bence bilmediğin bir şeyi doğru yapmak çok güzel bir şey.” (T15)

“Böyle daha iyi oluyordu bence. Çünkü ondan önce yapıyorduk, daha iyi oluyordu. İlk önce kendimiz yapmaya çalışıyorduk, sonra öğretmen doğrusunu anlatıyordu. Kötü yanları yok.” (T16)

“Önce görevi yapıyoruz, hatalarımızı görüyoruz. Sonra da hatalarımızı anlayınca diğerinde yapmamaya çalışıyoruz.” (T17)

“Bana zor geliyordu. Önce kuralı verse daha iyiydi. Sonra yanlışlar çıkınca silmek olmuyor.” (T18)

“Dilbilgisi daha önce olması gerekiyor. Çünkü orada öğrenince daha kolay yapabilir insan.” (T19)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.9

“Öğretmenin anlatışını beğeniyordum. Çünkü o anlattığı zaman daha iyi dinliyoruz, daha iyi giriyor kafamıza. Başında da öğretilince iyi sonunda da öğretilince iyi. Sonuçta güzel bilinen kalıcı olur.” (P1)

“Öğretmen bir şey anlattığı zaman aklıma girdi. Öğretmen anlattığı zaman her şeyi anlarız. Anlattıktan sonra fotokopileri yaparız.” (P2)

“Bence dersin başında anlatmalı. Zaten eğer bilmeyen kişilerimiz de var sınıfta. Onlar içinde bizim için de daha iyi olur.” (P4)

“İlk önce öğretmen anlatıyor. O anlattığından çıkıyor fotokopiler. O anlattıkları orada uygulayabiliyoruz. Onun anlattıkları sorularda çıkıyor, kolayca cevaplayabiliyoruz.” (P5)

“Her şeyi yerinde anlattı bence. O zaman (dersin başında) öğrenmemiz gerekiyordu.” (P6)

“Ortada sonda anlatsa olmazdı, insanın işi daha zor olurdu. Ne yapacağını bilemezdik.” (P7)

“Kitapları getirmiyorduk biz. Güzel olduğunu düşünüyorum. Kitaplarda fazla bir şey yazmıyor zaten... Dersi önceden anlatıp sonra soru yapmak daha iyi olur. Önce anlatıyoruz sonra alıştırmayı yapıyoruz.” (P8)

“Öğretmenin anlattığı bölümü beğeniyordum. O anlatınca çünkü daha iyi algılıyordum. Yani öğretmen anlatmasa yapamayacağım alıştırmayı filan... Başında öğretmesi daha iyi çünkü ne kadar erken öğrenirsen o kadar güzel. Gerekiyordu, öğretmeseydi başta alıştırmaları verseydi genellikle çoğu yanlış çıkabilirdi... Öğretmen anlatırken onu iyi anlamak gerekir. Ondan sonra zaten pratik yapabiliyorsun kendin.” (P9)

“Başında olması birazcık daha iyi. Başında olunca daha iyi anlıyorduk.” (P10)

“Dersin başında anlatsa daha iyi olur. Anlatıyordu zaten. Öğretmen söylüyordu, biz de aklımızdan yapıyorduk.” (P11)

“Sonra anlatsaydı iyi olmazdı, bilemezdik, çözemerdik.” (P12)

“Ortasında, sonunda iyi olmazdı. Kafamız karışırdı çünkü başının ne olduğunu anlayamazdık.” (P13)

“Ortasında, sonunda daha iyi olmaz. Başında anlatınca daha iyi giriyor kafama. Ortasında anlattığı şeyi verince kafama girmiyordu öyle... Öğretmenin anlattığı bölümü beğeniyordum. Çünkü öğretmenin anlattığı daha yararlı geliyordu.” (P14)

“İlk başta öğretiyor, anlamadıklarımızı soruyoruz. Sonra o tekrar anlatıyor. Bence ilk başta anlatması daha iyi olur. Sonlarda, ortalarda anlatırsa anlamayız zaten.” (P15)

“İyi yapıyor. Sonunda anlatırsa olmaz, göremeyiz konuları.” (P16)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.10

“Fotokopilerde yapmayı beğeniyordum. Çünkü daha çok bilgimiz ölçülüyor.” (T2)

“Alistirmaları beğeniyordum. Eğlenceli geliyordu...Soru vardı, eşleştirme vs. vardı. Güzeldi, hepsi bizim yararımıza olduğu için gene eğlenceliydi.” (T3)

“Ben kendi başıma çalışmayı seviyorum. Onun için alıřtırmaları beğendim.” (T5)

“Tek yapmayı beğenmiyordum. Tek başına yaptığımız alıřtırmaları beğenmiyordum.” (T9)

“Sonundaki alıřtırmaları beğeniyordum. Onlar zevkli geliyordu. Bir de onlar tekli çalışmaydı. Kendimiz yapıyorduk. Kolay geliyordu.” (T10)

“Genellikle fotokopi kullanıyorduk. Fotokopiler daha pratik olduğu için öğretmen bize bunu yaptırıyordu.” (T12)

“En çok alıřtırma yapmayı ve grupla çalışmayı beğendim. Alıřtırmalar yaptığımız şeylerin tekrarı gibi... Fotokopi kullandık. Güzel bir şey. Tahtaya yazdığında herkes görüyordu, yanlış yapınca herkes gülüyordu. Bunda hiç öyle bir şey yok... Alıřtırmayı yaparken düşünmek zorunda kalıyorsun, ya yanlış olursa!” (T13)

“Öğretmen soruyordu, biz arkadaşımızın yanlış sorularını düzeltiyorduk. Onlar yararlı.” (T15)

“Sondaki alıřtırmaları beğendim. Alıřtırma bölümü daha kolaydı.” (T16)

“Alıřtırmaları beğendim. Soruları fazla yapamıyorum ama ben. Sınıfta 10 dakika süre veriliyor, kafam tam çalışmıyor... Ondan sonra anlıyorum. Zevkli geliyordu yaparken” (T18)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.11

“Azdı. Çok olmasını isterdim, çünkü zevkli bir şey.” (P1)

“En iyi öyle. Öğretmen sözlü şeyler yaptırdığında daha iyi anlıyoruz...Alıřtırmaları beğeniyorum çünkü öğretmenler yaptırmadıkları için farklı geldi bana.” (P2)

“ Bence tahtaya yazılanlar güzel olmuyor, sözlü olanlar daha iyi. Sözlüde dediğim gibi ezberlememiz gelişir. Öğrenmemiz daha iyi olur... Bence eğlenceli bir şey onlara yazı yazmak. Soruları zevkle yapıyor insan... Alıřtırmalar ayrı güzeldi. Bence her öğretmen böyle yapmalı, alıřtırma vermeli.” (P3)

“Sözlü pratikte de olumlu düşünüyorum. Konuşmalarda birbirimizle daha iyi anlaşıyoruz... alıřtırmaların güzel olduğunu düşünüyorum. Çünkü o da öğretmenin verdiği kadar öğrenim veriyor. Onun verdiklerini kağıda yansıtıyor gibi oluyor... Bana onlar daha yaratıcı geldi. Orada zaten kendimiz düşüncelerimizi yazıyorduk hep. Doğru olup yanlış olduğunu orada anlıyorduk.” (P4)

“Öğretmenle konuştuğumuzda ben kendimi daha çalışkan gibi hissediyorum. İyi, düzenli konuştuğumda daha iyi kavrayabilirim... En çok alıřtırma yaparken düşünüyorum. Alıřtırma yaparken bilemediklerimi öğretmene soramıyorum, utanıyorum bazen.” (P5)

“Sözlü tekrar doğru. Bazı cümleler uzun cümleler tekrarlanması zor geliyordu. Faydalı. Aklımızda kalması, beynimizin gelişmesi için faydalı... Farklı alıřtırmalar vardı, daha önce yapmadığımız.” (P6)

“Sözlü pratiđi daha iyi anlaşılma olanađı sağladığı için seviyorum... Kendimiz yazarken ve alıştıřma yaparken insanın düşünmesi gerekiyor.” (P7)

“Sözlü pratiđi sevmiyorum. Bir şeyi sözlü olarak sordu mu bilemiyorum, heyecanlanıyorum.” (P8)

“Genellikle sözlü pratik de iyi çünkü bir yabancı geldiđi zaman onunla diyalog şeklinde konuşabiliriz... Alıştıřmalar genellikle sınav gibi oluyor. O yüzden seviyorum. Kendi notumu kendim olarak değerlendiriyorum... Fotokopi kullanılması çok iyi çünkü öğrendiđimiz şeyleri bazen sıra gelmiyor. Fotokopi yapınca öğretmen kimin daha iyi daha kötü olduğunu görüyor.” (P9)

“Pratik alıştıřmalar bizim yararımıza bir şeydi. Çünkü aklımızda kalması için yapılmış bir şeydi... Sözlü pratik yaparken çok düşünüyoruz. Çünkü kalmıyor aklımızda cümle. Cümleyi aklımıza getirmek için çok düşünüyoruz.” (P10)

“Sözlü pratik olmasa daha iyi... Kitap kullanmadık. İşte öğretmen o kağıtları veriyordu. Biz de dolduruyorduk. Çözmek iyi geliyor. Hem İngilizcemiz daha iyi oluyor.” (P11)

“Sözlü pratik güzel yani. Anlamamız için güzel... Soruları çözdüğümüz bölüm en sevdiğim bölümdü. Zevkli oluyordu ondan. Daha öğreniyorduk... Fotokopi çözmek de güzel oluyor. Daha çabuk öğreniyoruz.” (P12)

“Sözlü pratikle ilgili çok iyi şeyler düşünüyorum çünkü pratik bilgiler veriyor. Yarım cümle veriyor biz uzununu kuruyoruz... Alıştıřmalar çok kolay olduğu için, bir de daha anlam taşıdığı için beğeniyordum. Öbür türlü ben hiç anlamıyordum, hoca anlatsa bile... Alıştıřmalara başladığımızdan beri bazı kelimeleri çok iyi öğrendim. Faydası oldu... Kitap kullanmadık. O kağıtları getiriyordu hoca. Kağıtlar çok basitti. Benim hala dosyamda hocanın verdiđi kağıtlar duruyor. Bazen onları çıkartıyorum, bakıyorum.” (P13)

“Soru veriyordu öğretmen mesela. Cevabına da soru yapmamızı istiyordu. Çok iyi oluyordu. Bütün sınıf pratikle birlikte yükselişe başladı. Alıştıřmalar çok iyi geldi bana. İngilizcem düzeldi çünkü benim. 2 almıştım ilk sınavda, şimdi 4-5 oldu.” (P14)

“Alıştıřmalar iyi bence çünkü başta dediđim gibi İngilizce öğrenmemize daha yardımcı oluyor. Artı, seviyemizi yükseltiyor. İngilizce konuşmamıza yardımcı oluyor bir bakıma... Öğretmen fotokopi getiriyordu, onları yapıyorduk. Bence çok iyi, konuyu işledikten sonra bunları veriyordu. Bir yönden ölçüyor bizi çalışmamız bakımından.” (P15)

“Fotokopi dağıtıyordu. Biz öyle yapmıyorduk. İyi oluyordu. Daha güzel oluyor, daha iyi anlıyoruz konuları... Kitapta yapacağımıza fotokopide yapıyorduk. Fotokopide daha açık, kitaplarda bu kadar açık olmuyor. Fotokopi yapmak zevkli oluyordu.” (P16)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.12

“Öğretmen bize hep alıştıřma veriyordu. Böyle daha eğlenceli oluyordu hem de daha iyi öğreniyorduk. Öbür öğretmenler bize hep dersi anlatıyorlardı, bu öğretmen bizi bilmediğimiz şeylerle yüz yüze getiriyor, daha sonra bize öğretiyordu.” (T1)

“Öğretmen fotokopi veriyor, yaptırıyor. Bazı öğretmenler de tahtaya yapıyor, öğretiyor, bildiriyor. Bilmediğimiz şeyleri kağıtta yapıyoruz. Kendi bilgilerimizi ölçüyoruz.” (T2)

“Diğer öğretmenler üniteler göre işliyordu, böyle farklı konular daha iyi oldu bizim için. Keşke bütün öğretmenler böyle işlese. Bizim öğretmen değişik görevler verdi. Eğlenceli oldu. Hep böyle olmasını istiyorum.” (T5)

“Öğrenmediğim birçok kelimeleri öğrendim. Yanlışlarım oldu onları öğrendim. Çok güzeldi, çok zevkli geçiyordu öğretmenin dersi.” (T6)

“Öğretmenler sadece dersi anlatıyordu, onu dinliyorduk. Bu öğretmenle çok farklı şeyler yaptık.” (T8)

“Daha iyi oldu. Farklı işlendi. Öğrenmeden yapmaya çalıştık ilkönce. Kendimiz ürettik, sonra öğrendik. Bilmediğimiz şeyleri bilmeye çalıştık.” (T9)

“Kağıtlar verdi öğretmen bize. Onları yaptık. Onlarda çok eğlendim. İkişerli dörtlü oturduk. Onlarda çok şey öğrendim.” (T11)

“Bizim yaptığımız şeyleri bizim sunmamız, bizim o derste öğretmen gibi olmamız farklıydı. Bazen yaptığımız yanlışlar vardı, onu da bize çözdürüyordu. O sadece bizi dinliyordu. Bu konuda öğretmen bence çok iyi yapıyor, çok iyi düşünüyor çünkü her öğretmen gibi yapmıyor. Her öğretmen sadece doğru istiyor bizlerden. Daha önce giren İngilizce öğretmenleri bunu istiyordu bizlerden. Ama bu hoca öyle yapmıyor. O ilk önce görevleri öğretiyor, kuralları öğretiyor, daha sonra bize bırakıyor. Zaten biz o işi öğreniyoruz.” (T12)

“Grup çalışması yaptık, alıştırmayı yaptık. Bir de başka arkadaşlarımızla çalıştık. Güzel. Mesela yeni gelen bir arkadaşımız vardı, kimseyle konuşmuyordu. Şimdi daha çok konuşuyor, herkesle anlaşıyor.” (T13)

“Kağıtlar vardı. Böyle yapıyorduk, dörtlü grup alışıyorduk. İkili çalışıyorduk. Bence güzel, daha zevkli oluyor.” (T14)

“Dörtlü arkadaşlarla çalışmak farklıydı. Teypten dinletiyordu öğretmen, kağıda yazıyorduk. Benim için onlar farklıydı. Her öğretmen normal ders anlatıyordu, bize soruyordu. Ama bu öğretmen bizi çiftli çalıştırıyordu, biz öğretmen gibiydik. Bence bu daha iyi, daha çabuk öğreniyoruz. Kendimiz yapabiliince arkadaşlarımızla daha iyi oluyor.” (T15)

“Grup halinde çalışmamız, alıştırmayı yapmamız farklı geldi.” (T16)

“Grup çalışması bana çok farklı geldi. başkasıyla birlikte deftere bakıyorsun, öyle cevaplıyorsun. Zevkli oluyor grup çalışması.” (T17)

“Öğretmen hep fotokopi dağıtıyordu. Biz hiç fotokopiyle ders yapmıyorduk. Fotokopi bana daha güzel, zevkli geldi. Öğretmen gruplandırıyor, beğendim. Zevkli oluyordu.” (T18)

“Derste biz grup çalışmalarını yapıyorduk. Onlar farklıydı, yapmadık hiçbir derste öyle. Sonra herkese öğretmen alıştırmaları veriyordu farklı farklı, onları yapıyorduk. Değişik geliyordu. Bence doğru. İnsan böyle yapınca daha çok anlıyor. Anlayınca da cevabını verince de aklında kalıyor. Böylece İngilizce’yi öğrenmiş oluyoruz.” (T19)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.13

“Öbür öğretmenlerimiz hiç fotokopi vermiyordu. Bu öğretmen gelince bize fotokopi verdi. Değişik değişik şeyler öğretti.” (P1)

“Eski öğretmenler fotokopi falan getirip yaptırtmıyorlardı. Bu öğretmen fotokopi getiriyor, defterimin arasında bir sürü fotokopi var. Bazen onlara bakıyorum, yapmaya çalışıyorum. Fotokopide yapmak daha iyi.” (P2)

“İlk öğretmenimizle hiç fotokopi işlemedik, hep kitaptan işlerdik. Bu öğretmenimizle fotokopi işliyorduk, kitaptan işlemedik. Çok güzel geçti derslerimiz.” (P3)

“Alıştırmalar yeniydi. Başka da yeni yoktu.” (P4)

“Diğer öğretmenler yılda bir fotokopi veriyordu. Ama bu öğretmen her gün veriyor. Onu yaptığımızda da bir sürü şey öğreniyoruz.” (P5)

“Farklı alıştırmalar vardı, daha önce yapmadığımız. Kağıt dağıtıyorlardı bir de. Daha önce yapmamıştık. Gerçekten gerekiyor. Öğretmen öğrenmemiz için dağıtıyor.” (P6)

“Çok ilginç geldi. öğretmenin anlatışı farklıydı. Etkiledi.” (P7)

“Öğretmen ikinci dersin sonlarında fotokopiler veriyordu, değişik geldi. öğretmenin anlatışı farklı. Verdiği fotokopiler sınav gibi, iyi oluyor. Seviyorum.” (P8)

“Öğretmenin yaptıkları daha kolay geldi, daha iyi algılayabildim.” (P9)

“Fotokopi çekti o, onları çözdük. Bu biraz değişikti. Bu öğretmenin anlatışı biraz daha farklıydı.” (P12)

“Bu öğretmeni çok sevdik. Eğlenceli geçiyordu derslerimiz.” (P13)

“Bu öğretmen fotokopi veriyordu bize. Fotokopiler çok yararlı geldi.” (P14)

“Öğretmen fotokopi getiriyordu, onları yapıyorduk. Bence çok iyi. Bir yünden ölçüyordu bizi çalışmamız bakımından.” (P15)

“Fotokopi dağıtıyordu. İyi oluyordu.” (P16)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.14

“Dörtlü grupta oturmayı, grup çalışmasını beğeniyordum. Yani sadece benim fikrim değil de arkadaştan topluca fikirlerimiz daha düzgün bir cümle oluyordu... Bence yine böyle öğretilsin. Daha keyifli. Öğrenciler hep ona katılırlar, ama bir öğretmen gelip hep ders anlatırsa öğrenciler sıkılırlar. Böyle oyun gibi oluyor. Daha iyi öğreniyoruz, keyifle yapıyoruz.” (T1)

“Sunmanın faydası var. Çünkü karşınızda bilmeyen insan daha çok bilgi edinebilir. Bizim bilmediğimiz şeyler o kişinin yaptığıyla biz de bilgilenebiliriz.” (T2)

“Öğretmen dörütlü üçlü gruplara ayırıyordu, sorular soruyordu, fotokopiler dağıtıyordu. Bilmediğimiz veya unuttuğumuz konuları önceden yapmaya çalışıyorduk ve bu bence çok güzel bir şey ve başarımızı daha iyi anlıyorduk... Sunmak güzel bir şey. Arkadaşlarımızdan yanlışıımız varsa onları öğreniyoruz veya arkadaşlarımız bizden öğreniyoruz. Düzeltiyoruz, bir dahaki sefere doğrusunu yapmaya çalışıyoruz.” (T3)

“Kağıtta çalışmayı beğendim. Zevkli oluyordu.” (T4)

“Görevleri, dörütlü ikili çalışmalar yaptık ortaklaşa. Onlar güzeldi. Güzel, eğlenceli, daha kolay öğreniliyor... Teyp kullandık. Teypte bir şeyler dinledik. Görevler verdi öğretmen, onları yaptık. Bunlar yaratıcıydı... yaptığımız görevleri söylemezsek yanlışılarımızı öğrenemeyecektik.” (T5)

“Grup çalışması, görevi, hafızayı, arkadaşlarla kendimiz bulup yapmayı beğendim. Grupla yapınca kendi bildiklerimizi ve arkadaşlarımızın bildiklerini yaparak güzel bir şey çıkartıyorduk... Fotokopiler çok güzel bir şey. Eve gidip fotokopi olması çok güzel. Eve gidip tekrar ediyorum... Kendi arkadaşlarımızın yaptıklarıyla karşılaştırıyorduk. Ne hata yapmışız, onların düşünceleri nasıl diye düşünüyorduk... Böyle görevler yaptıkça, gruplar yaptıkça daha çok güzel olur, daha zevkli olur. Kim birinci olacak, kim yapacak, hırslımız var.” (T6)

“Ödevleri yapmayı, sorduğu soruları cevaplamayı beğendim... Teyp kullanıyorduk. Öğretmen kaset getiriyorduk. İyiydi. Severek yaptım onun için... Dörütlü çalışmayı beğendim. Hepimiz bir grup olduğumuz için herkes ayrı ayrı fikrini söylüyordu. Bu nedenle daha çok doğrumuz oluyordu... Görevi yaptıktan sonra sunmak faydalı. Çünkü tam bilmediğin şeyi öğreniyorsun orada... En çok sunarken düşünüyorum. Çünkü hatamı anlıyorum. Anladığım zaman da bir daha o hatayı yapmıyorum.” (T8)

“Farklı işlendi. Öğrenmeden yapmaya çalıştık ilkönce. Kendimiz ürettik, sonra öğrendik. Bilmediğimiz şeyleri bilmeye çalıştık. Kendim üretmeyi sevdim... Fotokopiler ve görevler yaptık. Fotokopilerle daha iyi oldu... Grup çalışmasını çok sevdim. Arkadaşlarımla düşünüyorduk, bir ortak karar yapıyorduk. Daha güzel yani bilmediğimiz şeyleri arkadaşımızdan öğreniyorduk... Sunmak güzeldi çünkü bazı arkadaşlarım bilmediklerini onlarda öğreniyordu. Karşılaştırıyorduk birbirimizi, düşünceler paylaşılıyordu... Bundan sonra İngilizce dilbilgisi yapılarını bu yöntemle öğrenmeyi isterim. Daha iyi olur bizim için. Kendimiz öğretmen oluyoruz. Evde de kendimizin öğretmeni oluyoruz.” (T9)

“Grupta ben bulamadığımda arkadaşım yardım ediyordu. İkili çalışmayı beğendim.” (T10)

“Dörderli oturmayı beğendim. Arkadaşımla birlikte sorular bulduk, sorular çıkarmaya çalıştık. Kendi aramızda kelimeler üretiyorduk, sorular çıkarmaya çalışıyorduk. Onun için çok sevdim arkadaşlarımızla çalışmayı... Bilmediğimiz şeyleri arkadaşlarımızın yanında öğreniyoruz.” (T11)

“Dersi bizim sunmamızı, bizim yazmamızı beğendim... Grup çalışmalarını beğeniyordum. En çok beğendiğim grup çalışması dörütlü gruptu. Çünkü iki kişi olunca iki seçeneğiniz var: bir yanlışı, bir doğru. Ancak dört kişi olunca daha çok kafadan, her kafadan bir şey çıkıyor, bir araya getiriyoruz, doğru bir sonuç buluyoruz.” (T12)

“En çok alıştıırma yapmayı ve grupla çalışmayı beğendim. Grupla çalıştığım zaman herkesin fikrini alıyordum... Böyle daha güzel oluyor. Daha zevkli, neşeli oluyor.” (T13)

“Grup çalışmasını beğendim, zevkli olduğu için... Grup çalışması daha iyi oluyor. Mesela benim bilmediğimi arkadaşım biliyor. Onun bilmediğini ben biliyorum... Bence sunmak daha

iyi. Öğretmen kim birinci olacak söylüyordu. Yarışma oluyordu. Herkes biliyor kim birinci oldu.” (T14)

“Pasajları doldurmak hoşuma gidiyordu. İkili dördütlü çalışmalar hoşuma gidiyordu. Onlarla grupça yaptığımızda daha doğru yapıyorduk. Tekli yapınca bazen hatalar yapıyorduk. Grupça yapınca daha düzgün oluyor... Teypten dinletiyordu öğretmen, kağıda yazıyorduk. Bence bu daha iyi, daha çabuk öğreniyoruz... Doğru yapınca öğretmen tebrik ediyordu, birinciyi seçiyordu. O zaman çok seviniyorduk. Sunmak daha iyi ediyor bence. Anlatınca öğretmen, evde tekrar edince daha iyi oluyor.” (T15)

“Grup çalışmasını daha çok beğeniyordum. Grup çalışması arkadaşlarla daha iyi anlaşıyoruz. Birlikte karar verince en doğrusu oluyor tabii. Beraber çalışmak daha iyi.” (T17)

“Bence sunmak iyi bir şey. Diyelim karşıdan birisi okuyor, onun yanlışlarını görüyoruz biz de. O da bizim yanlışlarımızı görüyor.” (T18)

“Zevkli oluyordu sunmak. En çok kim doğru bilecek diye. Güzel oluyordu. Bence insan böyle doğru yapınca, birinci olacak diye her şeyi doğru yapmaya çalışıyordu, sözlüğe bakıyordu, daha çok öğreniyordu.” (T19)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.15

“Öğretmen bir gün beni İngilizce’den anlamayan biriyle oturttu, çok zayıftık... Çok gürtüldü oluyordu. O zaman ben de yapamıyordum. İngilizce çalışsam da bile yapamıyordum.” (T1)

“Bazen tartışma çıkıyor, çok ses çıkıyor.” (T3)

“Dördütlü grupta çok karmaşa oluyordu. Kavga çıkıyordu.” (T5)

“Grup çalışması, ben kendi doğru bildiğim şeyi o yanlış bildiği için, aynı yerde ortak olamadığımız için bu zor... Sunduktan sonra bazen anlamadığım şey çıkıyordu karşıma, onu yapamıyordum. Bir de sunmak zor geliyordu.” (T6)

“Görevi sunarken düşünmek zorunda kalıyordum. Yanlış okuyacağım diye, onun için.” (T7)

“İkili çalışmayı beğenmedim. Yanımdaki arkadaşlarım bazen bana yardımcı olmuyordu.” (T8)

“Sunarken korkuya heyecana kapılıyorsun. Arkadaşlarına rezil olacaksın filan... Bazı gruplarda arkadaşlarımızın arasında tartışma çıkıyordu, laf kavgası oluyordu.” (T9)

“Dördütlü çalışmayı beğenmedim çünkü dördütlü olunca birisi söylüyordu birisi başka bir şey söylüyordu, karışıyordu. Anlaşamıyorduk.” (T10)

“Bir arkadaşım yardım etmiyor. Bir kişi yazıyordu, onunla ilgili değildi o. Katılamayanlar oluyordu, bir kişi yapmak zorunda kalıyordu. Bu da iyi değil.” (T11)

“İki kişi olduğumuz zaman beğenmiyordum... Çalışkan öğrenciler, iyi düşünen öğrenciler bir araya geldiği zaman sorun yok. Ama çalışmayan, takmayan öğrenciler bir araya gelince hiçbir şey çıkaramıyoruz. Kişiye bağlı biraz... Aslında bazen yaptığımıza güvenmiyordum. Güvenmediğim zaman sunmak istemiyordum ama ben bu hocanın gözünde iyi olmuştum bir kere, onu sunmam gerekiyordu. Ben onu sunuyordum, doğrularım da çıkıyordu. Hoca

yanlışlarımı hiç yüzüme vurmuyordu. Yani grup olarak yanlışlarımızı yüzümüze vurmuyordu. Doğrularımızı da çok güzel bir şekilde söylüyordu. Olumlu düşünüyorum yani.” (T12)

“Bir grupta çalıştım ben, herkesin kafasından ayrı ses çıkıyordu, ortak bir işimiz olmuyordu... Teypten dinliyorduk. Herkes konuşuyordu, bir şey anlamıyordum. Arkadaşlarım çok gürültü yapıyor... Bazı insanlar bizim sınıfta çok çekingenler, hiçbir şey yapmak istemiyorlar. Mesela bizim grupta ben okuyordum, bazıları okumuyordu.” (T13)

“Dinlemeleri beğenmedim. Zor geldi, teyp hızlı gidiyor ya.” (T14)

“Teypten dinlemeyi biraz beğenmedim. Çünkü hızlı hızlı geçiyor, anlaması zor oluyor.” (T15)

“Alıştırma yapmayı daha çok beğendim. Onda tek yapıyorsun, gruplar halinde yapmıyorsun. Gruplar halinde yapmayı beğenmiyorum... Birisi dedi ben yazacağım, birisi dedi ben okuyacağım. Öyle kavgalar çıktı. Bunları beğenmedim.” (T16)

“Ben sunarken korkuyorum, yanlış olur diye. Sen oku diyorlar, ben okumayacağım diyorum.” (T17)

“Tartışma grup çalışmasının olumsuz yönü. Diyelim bir de bizim bir yanlışımız çıktı, hemen gülüyorlar bağıra bağıra, ben ona sinir oluyorum.” (T18)

“Grup çalışmasında kavgalar oluyor genellikle. Dört kişi oluyorduk bazen, birisi diyordu ben sunacağım, birisi de yazıcı olacağım diyordu. İki kişi kalıyordu, onlar da yapmak istemiyordu, derse katılmıyorlardı, kızıyorlardı birbirlerine.” (T19)

STATEMENTS FOR TABLE 4.16

“Fotokopiler veriyor. O fotokopiler bizim için daha iyi. Öğrenmemizi sağlıyor.” (P1)

“Soru sormayı, söz almayı beğendim. Fotokopileri beğendim... Seviyorum çünkü onlarla soru sordukları zaman cevabını vermek için. Bir de soru sorduğu zaman öğretmen, mesela tahtaya kalktığımda heyecandan bir şey yapamıyorum.” (P2)

“Fotokopilerden çok zevk aldım, eğlenerek yaptım çünkü bunlar hepimiz için yararlı bir şey... Bence İngilizce böyle fotokopilerle, sözlü olarak, tahtaya fazla yazılmaması gerekir. Sözlü olması gerekir. Bizim için daha yararlı.” (P3)

“Öğretmenin bize gösterdiği ilgiyi beğendim. Sonra bize anlattığı dersi, onu nasıl anlattığını beğendim. Bana ilginç geldi.” (P4)

“Fotokopileri aldık mı bilgimiz daha çok yükseliyor.” (P5)

“Alıştırmalar daha çok kazandırıyor bize. Pratikler, öğretmenin söyledikleri, onlar da daha iyi.” (P6)

“Anlatımı çok beğendim. Öğretmenin verdiği fotokopi kağıtlar çok eğitici oldu. Onları çok beğendim. Çok farklıydı.” (P7)

“Birbirimize soru sorduk diyalog şeklinde, onu beğendim.” (P9)

“Bu öğretmen kağıtlar veriyordu. Doldurmayı beğendim. İyiydi. Kolay geliyordu bazıları.” (P11)

“Hepsini beğendim. Fotokopi çözmemiz, grup halinde çalışmamız. Grup halinde çalışmayı bir arada yapıyorduk. Fotokopi çözmek de güzel oluyor. Daha çabuk öğreniyoruz.” (P12)

“Sözlüyü çok beğendim. Bazıları zor geldi, yapamadım.” (P13)

“Fotokopileri beğendim. İngilizce konuşmamızı beğendim. İngilizce konuşurken daha açıcı geldi bana konu. Kendimi başkası hissettim.” (P15)

“Hepsini beğendim. Fotokopileri beğendim. Değişiklik oldu. Daha önce hiç böyle fotokopiler yapmıyorduk.” (P16)





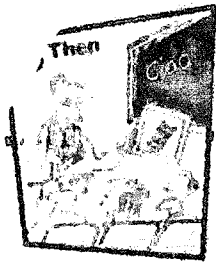
SAMPLES FROM STUDENTS' TASK WORK

Bursas 6/15
E9

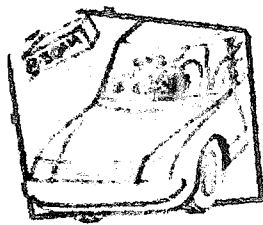
TASK 1



11



10



4



3



12



8



13



1



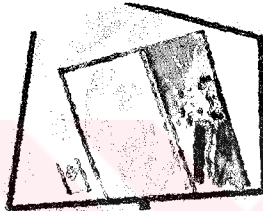
2



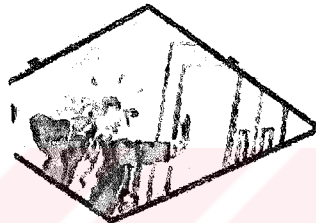
7



-



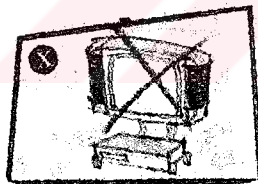
6



5



16



10



1



6



9



2



8



5



7

Susy Stressed

6-B

6-B

Susy gets up late. An she have shower. She doesn't have breakfast. She go sewer bay gar. She gets to work at five to nine. She you is the loft. At eleven o'clock. She have black coffee and sigareft. Susy have lung ot half out one. She finishis one at work six o'clock. Man she go are on itelyin class. She gets home late. Afterdeet she watch TV. She have dinner at eleven o'clock. She gose the bat.

Korkut
sık
1. Taskin
Akalin

Task 2 for the Simple Present Tense

Read the passage below carefully and classify the time words into two groups: underline the time words to answer the question 'When?' and circle the time words to answer the question 'How often?'

Sam's Life

My name is Sam Smith. I am a director in a big company. I live in a small apartment. I get up at 7 in the morning. I always take a shower and brush my teeth. I have breakfast at 7:30 in the morning. I usually take the bus and go to the company, but I sometimes walk. I finish work at 5:30 in the evening, and I get home at 6 every day. I have dinner. I sometimes watch TV, or I read a book at night. I visit my parents and grandparents every Saturday, and I go to the movies every Sunday. I often meet my friends after the movie. I never smoke. I have a happy life.

Write a similar passage about one of your group members and use appropriate time expressions and frequency adverbs.

Semih's Life

His name is Semih Akalin. He is a student. He live in a big apartment. He gets up at 8:30 in the morning. He has breakfast 10.00 in the morning. He usually runs and go to school sometimes take the car. He finish school at 5:30 in the evening, and He gets home at 6 every day. He has dinner. He watch TV, or he reads a studies. He use computer every Saturday. and often meet her friends every Sunday. He never smoke.

Name and Surname: Emrah Korkmaz, Tayfun O Kobak, Yesim Baba, Hakan Karuguc

Class: 6/1B

Task 3 for the Simple Present Tense.

Read the following passage carefully and find the six mistakes between this passage and the one you have just listened to on the tape.

My name is Richard Smart. I am a student at a high school. I get up early in the morning. I have a shower every morning. I don't have breakfast. I don't walk to school, but I take the bus. My lessons start at 8:00 and finish at 1:00 o'clock. I come home at 1:30 and have a rest. I love sports. After lunch, I go to a sports club. I have dinner at 6:00. Then, I don't watch TV, but I read books until 10:00 at night. I go to bed early.

1. +

2. -

3. +

4. -

5. -

6. ?

7. +

8. -

9. -

10. ?

Name and Surname: Seda Bursa, Dilan Isik
Class: 6/B

Task 4 for the Simple Present Tense

Read the following sentences and group the sentences to have two different dialogues between two different persons.

Hello, Jane.

Hi, Tom.

Hello, Mr. Jackson.

Hi, Mrs. Smith.

Do you work in this department at the hospital, Mrs. Smith?

Do your lessons start at 12:30 at school, Jane?

No, it doesn't. I work on the evening shift. I come to the hospital at 5:00 in the evening.

The same. I come to school at 12:30.

Yes, they do. And I have six classes every day. What about you, Tom?

Yes, I do. I start work at 7:00 at the hospital. Does your work start early in the morning too, Mr. Jackson?

Do you do your homework in the evening, Tom?

Yes, I have many patients. I finish work at the hospital very late at night.

No, I don't. I do my homework in the morning before school.

Do you have many patients, Mr. Jackson?

See you, Tom.

See you, Jane.

See you, Mr. Jackson.

See you, Mrs. Smith.

Hello Jane.

Hello Tom.

Do your lessons start at 12:30 at school, Jane?

No, it doesn't. I come to school at 12:30.

Do you do your homework in the evening, Tom?

Yes, I do. I finish work at the hospital very late at night.

No, I don't. I do my homework in the morning before school.

Do you have many patients, Mr. Jackson?

See you, Tom?

Mr Jackson = Hello! Mrs Smith:

Mrs. Smith = Hi Mr Jackson

Mr Jackson = Do you work in this department at the hospital?

Mrs Smith = Yes. I do. I start work at 7.00 at the hospital. Does your work start early in the morning too.

Mr Jackson = No, it doesn't. I work on the evening shift. I come to the hospital at 5:00 in the evening.

Mrs Smith = Do, you have many patients Mr Jackson?

Mr Jackson = Yes I have many patients. I finish work at the hospital very late at night.

See you, Mr Jackson.

See you, Mrs Smith

Name and Surname: Gökhan TAŞKIN, Emrah KORKMAZ
Class: 6/B

Task 5 for the Simple Present Tense

Fill in the blanks with appropriate question words and true answers to yourselves.

Q: When do you get up in the morning?

A: I get up at 7:00 o'clock. And I have a quick breakfast.

Q: What do you have for breakfast?

A: I have a sandwich for breakfast.

Q: Where do you live?

A: In Buca. After school, I come home and do my homework. But I sometimes make mistakes.

Q: Who corrects your mistakes?

A: My father does. And then, I watch TV.

Q: When do you watch TV?

A: Every evening.

Q: When do you go to bed?

A: At 10:00 o'clock.



1 sur Karucu 1 ADR 3

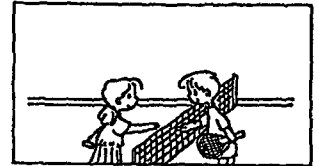
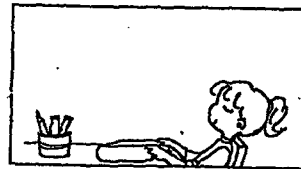
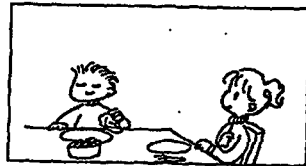
Isik

(not) (ing) (ene)	(who) Person (kisi)	(Where) Place (yer)	(When) time (zaman)	(How often) frequency (sıklık)
rice ce	-my mother ^{does} -my father ^{does} -my brother ^{does}	-in Karsiyolu -school	-At time the 22 -11:30 in the -mornings -at ten o'clock	-sometimes -always -every morning

Name and Surname: Dillon Isik, Emrah Korkmaz, Cennet Er, Fatma Polat
Class: 61B

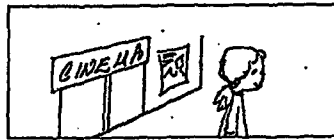
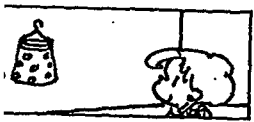
Task 6 for the Simple Present Tense

Write a passage about what Jane does at weekends. The pictures below will help you to remember the tape recording about her activities.



always

often



ten

always

Jane's weekend

Jane gets up at 6:00 o'clock. Jane has breakfast
olive, honey, omelet, cheese. Jane does his homework every
weekend. Jane plays tennis every weekend. Jane often wears
sirt; Jane goes to CINEMA. Jane goes to department store,
Jane goes to bed at 11.00 every night.

lan kık, Emrah Korkmaz, Lennet Cr, Fatma Rabit
İB

TASK 6

- » you usually go swimming? ✓
- » you often go to school by bus? ✓



Name and Surname:

Class:

Task 7 for the Simple Present Tense

Read the following passage very carefully. Write down the underlined words.

Mr. Johnson's Life

Michael Johnson is a teacher at a high school. He always gets up at 7:00 in the morning. He has a sandwich for breakfast at home. He gets to school at 8:30. Mr. Johnson has four classes in the school every day. He teaches history. He gets home at 1:00 and has lunch. After lunch, he usually checks his students' exam papers. He sometimes goes to the library before dinner. He cooks for dinner at 5:00 in the evening. Mr. Johnson sometimes invites his friends for dinner. After dinner, he usually watches TV. He sometimes reads a history book. Mr. Johnson usually cleans his house at 10:00. He goes to bed at 11:00 at night.



nan TAŞKIN, Okan ÜLÜTATİŞ, Cennet ER, Serpil KORKU

always

twice

201

5:30

00

15

5

student's exam papers

times

library

5:00 in the evening

Johnson

story book

leave at 10:00

1:00 at night.

He teaches history at a high school.

He gets up at 8:20 in the morning.

When does he go to bed?

Who teaches a history?

Mr. Jackson goes to bed at 11:00 o'clock.

Mr. Jackson teaches history.

Name and Surname: Gülistan Bayram and Buket Emekligil
Class: 618

Task 8 for the Simple Present Tense

Have an interview with your pair. Write 6 questions and give the answers. Use the verbs *get up, have breakfast, get to school, have dinner, do homework, watch TV, go to bed*.

tan: Do you get up early in the morning?

= Yes, I do. I get up at 10.00 in the morning.

n: What do you have for breakfast?

= I have a tea, cheese, olives every morning.

tan: How often do you go to school?

= I go to school at 12.30 every afternoon.

n: What do you have for dinner?

= I have dinner macarina every evening.

n: When do you homework?

= I do homework at 6.00 o'clock.

n: How often do you watch TV?

= I often watch TV after dinner.

n: When do you go to bed in the night?

Write a paragraph using the information in the interview.

I go to bed at 11.00 o'clock
BUKET

= She gets up at 10.00 in the morning. She has a tea, cheese, olives every morning. She goes to school at 12:30 every afternoon. She has dinner macarina every evening. She does homework at 6:00 o'clock. She often watches TV after dinner.

Semih Akalin
Aslı GÜLNAR