



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**



**College of Graduate Studies**

**Obstacles Facing by English Teachers in Large Groups in  
Developing Speaking Skill**

**A Case Study of Secondary Schools in Khartoum Locality**

**المعوقات التي يواجهها معلمو اللغة الانجليزية لدى المجموعات الكبيرة في تنمية  
مهارة التحدث**

**دراسة حالة للمدارس الثانوية – معتمديه الخرطوم**

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Education (ELT)**

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# الآية

قَالَ تَعَالَى:

﴿ قَالَ رَبِّ اشْرَحْ لِي صَدْرِي ﴿٢٥﴾ وَيَسِّرْ لِي أَمْرِي ﴿٢٦﴾ وَأَحْلِلْ عُقْدَةً مِنْ لِسَانِي

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صدق الله العظيم

سورة طه الآية 25-28

# **Dedication**

This work is dedicated to my dearest wife **Duria Mohammed Musa Geli** .

Last, but not least, I would like to thank my family: my parents for giving me life in the first place, for educating me, for giving unconditional support and encouragement to pursue my interests; and and brothers for their patience , understanding, love and care.

## **Acknowledgement**

I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Mahmoud Ali Ahmed ,who has given me continuous support to complete the writing of this thesis as well as in carryingout the challenging research that lies behind it.

My special thanks also go to Dr. Hassan Mahil , all Sudan University of Science and Technology staff for their support and to all of my friends for sharing their experiences of the thesis writing endeavour with me.

## **Abstract**

This study aims at introducing the Obstacles Faced by Teachers of English in Developing Speaking Skill in Large Groups in Secondary Schools - Khartoum Locality . The researcher adopts from previous researchers to define " a large group as one in which characteristics and conditions present themselves as inter-related and collective constraints that impede meaningful teaching and learning " .

The methodology used by the researcher was the descriptive method. The questionnaire was used as a tool to collect the required data , the sample of the study was the English language teachers both male and female . The researcher distributed ( 60 ) questionnaires , he received back ( 57 ) , but only ( 50 ) of them were suitable for analysis . Also the researcher used interview , the sample of interview consists of ( 60) of English teachers and it includes ( 10 ) questions .

The research findings are that implementing approaches in teaching large classes can facilitates and solves some obstacles such as classroom size . Also using these approaches affect positively on student's performance, teachers can solve the obstacles of large classes by using different techniques , so these techniques help students to speak language and the content of the curriculum helps in developing speaking skill through the vocabulary ( words in the books ) , dialogues , etc..... and encourage them to practice speaking skill inside or outside classroom .

The researcher recommends that much effort should be done to build more schools in order to reduce all these numbers of students . Many English language teachers need to be trained in how to present and use the good techniques such as pair work , group work activities , drama , storytelling etc....

## Abstract

### (Arabic Version)

#### مستخلص الدراسة

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلي التعرف علي المعوقات التي يواجهها معلمو اللغة الانجليزية في تنمية مهارة التحدث في الصفوف الكبيرة لطلاب المرحلة الثانوية - معتمديه الخرطوم .

أعتمد الباحث علي المؤلفين السابقين في تعريف الصفوف الكبيرة وبعض المعوقات التي تعرقل عملية التعليم والتعلم . أستخدم الباحث المنهج الوصفي 'حيث قام الباحث باستخدام الاستبيان كوسيلة لجمع البيانات ' وكان مجتمع الدراسة يتكون من معلمو ومعلمات المرحلة الثانوية معتمديه الخرطوم 'أما العينة فكانت ( 50 ) من المعلمين والمعلمات ' ( 25 ) معلم و ( 25 ) معلمة .

قام الباحث بتوزيع ( 60 ) استبيان علي العينة واستقبل منها ( 57 ) استبيانه ولكن ( 50 ) استبيان فقط كانت صالحة للتحليل ؛ وأيضا استخدم الباحث المقابلة لجمع البيانات ' حيث قام بإجراء (60) مقابلة لمعلمي ومعلمات اللغة الانجليزية في المرحلة الثانوية واحتوت المقابلة علي (10) أسئلة .

وقد توصل الباحث إلي انه يجب تطبيق بعض النظريات في تدريس الصفوف الكبيرة لأنها تعمل علي تسهيل وحل لمعظم المعوقات مثل حجم الصفوف وأيضا أنها تؤثر إيجابا علي أداء التلاميذ وأن المعلمون يستطيعون حل معوقات الصفوف الكبيرة باستخدام أساليب مختلفة ' وهذه الأساليب تساعد التلاميذ علي تنمية مهارة التحدث من خلال الكلمات والحوارات والمحادثات الخ..... ' وتمنحهم الشجاعة علي ممارسة مهارة التحدث داخل وخارج الصف .

وقد أوصي الباحث ببذل مزيدا من الجهود من قبل الحكومة ووزارة التربية والتعليم ببناء مدارس جديدة حتى يقلل ذلك من أعداد الطلاب الكبيرة داخل الصفوف ' معظم أساتذة اللغة الانجليزية يجب أن يديروا علي استخدام أساليب أفضل مثل العمل الزوجي ' النشاطات من خلال المجموعات ' والتمثيل ورواية القص الخ... وأيضا يجب أن يكون المنهج الدراسي السوداني يحتوي علي حوارات ومحادثات.

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## **Definition of Terms**

- 1- **Developing** refers to a systematic changes in the individual approaches, methods, techniques in educational process .
- 2- **Teaching** means helping students to learn or showing them how to learn . Teaching needs at least two person -a teacher and a student .
- 3- **Learning** means acquiring knowledge of a subject .
- 4- **Secondary school level** –means school for young people between (14 to 18) year .
- 5- **CALL** Computer Assisted Language Learning .
- 6- **CLT** communicative language teaching .

# **Chapter One**

## **The General Framework Of the Study**

# Chapter One

## 1-0 Introduction

Most teachers agree that teaching a small class of students is easier , more enjoyable and less time consuming than teaching large classes .Unfortunately, due to the budgets space or lack of teachers causing additional obstacles in developing speaking skills in secondary schools . In large classes , your class look like a university lecture hall . Just like teaching small classes you must up with engaging activities that keep all of your students interested and participating with the goal of improving and developing speaking skill .

Large classes are a reality in Khartoum locality and they pose particular challenges . Teachers have been varying opinions on how large , the Large number of students should be in a so-called "large classes" as perceptions of this will vary from context to context .

Some people hold that 50 would be large enough for college class would argue that a large class could have as many as over 100 or even 150 students .How ever most teachers generally agree that a class with 50 – 60 or more is a large enough.

In this research a large class refers to a class with a number of students ranging from 60 – 150 .

Large classes presents special challenges to the teachers . Teachers face problems on how to develop ESL speaking skills during the time of the period in large classes.

Practicing language inside large classes faces extremely obstacles as Grogent (1997), stated that the behavioral problems may appear as a result of in appropriate skills which students learn by choosing inappropriate time and restricted learning opportunities offered to students .

Teachers do not generally want to give control to their students who are instructed that the mark of a good teacher is the teacher who controls the class then give a good chance in using language effectively (Felder 1997). The insufficient opportunities to speak English during periods and tutorials, lack of a focus on language of the language improvement in Sudanese curriculum and the input-poor of environment for spoken communication in English outside apparently contributed to the range of problems that closely related to the socio cultural, institutional and interpersonal contexts in which individual EFL students found themselves.

The knowledge and pedagogy-based EFL teachers training curriculum. They point to a need to incorporate a sufficiently intensive language improvement component in the current teacher preparation program for develop speaking skills in EFL intensively.

In such circumstances, the provision of adequate language training would be crucial to the students in developing their speaking skill in EFL.

Students should also be encouraged to organize extra-curricular activities using English as dramas shows performed in English so that students can helped to become aware that a better communicative command of English will not only allow them to communicate with a wider range of people but also provide them with greater opportunities for work, study, pleasure, and enjoyment in their personal lives .

### **1-1 Statement of the problem**

Nowadays teachers in secondary schools in Khartoum locality face many obstacles such as the large classes , and these obstacles stand as a big barrier of doing oral communication during the time of the period because the large amount of the students and the specified time (40 minutes) do not allow to use speaking skill easily also the lack of conversations, dialogues ,stories etc in

Sudanese curriculum threatens this important skill and also threatens educational system in most of secondary schools with large classes .

Large class size lends itself to discipline problems because teachers are not able to establish the consistency needed to promote good speaking skills. As teachers struggle and suffer to handle individual student needs it becomes very difficult to develop speaking skills, and the biggest problem is that students aren't getting their education they deserve in large classes .

### **1-2 The objectives of the study**

The objectives of this study is to investigate the obstacles of the large classes that facing teachers of the secondary schools in applying and in developing speaking skill in large classes and put better solutions and recommendations in order to absolve these obstacles.

The importance of this study is to locate and highlight the obstacles which encounter teachers in developing speaking skill in large classes and overcome them .

The study aims to providing teachers of secondary schools in dealing with the best effective techniques which serve in process in developing skill in large classes .

To encourage students in participating in learning activities of EFL in developing speaking skills in large classes.

### **1-3 The study questions**

1- To what extent do the obstacles that facing teachers in secondary schools stand as a barrier in developing speaking skill in large classes ?

2- To what extent does the process of using activities inside classrooms , like discussions encourage and develop speaking skill among students in large classes ?



3- To what extent does pair work serve in developing speaking skills in large classes ?

4- To what extent do the content of the curriculum affects in improving and in developing speaking skill in large classes?

#### **1-4 Study hypothesis**

1-The obstacles in large classes which face teachers are not stand as a big barrier in developing speaking skill .

2- Using discussion inside classroom back students up and encourage their motivation in using language.

3- Pair work help teachers in developing speaking skills among students .

4- The content of the curriculum affect positively in developing speaking skill in large classes .

#### **1-5 The significance of the study**

The significance of this research can be found in the general literature of communicative language teaching CLT . In the newly issued English curriculum criteria for English teaching, cooperative or collaborative learning is recommended. It seems that cooperative learning has been more and more attention. English teaching and learning in large classes is characterized with the lack of communication and practice that take place between students and teacher and well as between students and students. The achievement of developing speaking skill becomes a daily headache to all English teachers. Inevitably, the lack of students' participation leads to the teacher-centered learning in English class, therefore this study attempts to find the possible solution of the problem and how to get all students to speak in English language lesson and develop students' sense of participation and autonomy which are vitally useful in modern society. Furthermore, this study may help English teachers to create and select

flexible and useful techniques that motivate students to acquire better communication and help in developing speaking skill in large classes .

### **1-6 Limits of the study**

The limits of this study consists the teachers of the secondary schools (male and female) in Khartoum locality during the studying year 2014 to 2016.

### **1-7 Methodology**

The researcher will use descriptive method, content analysis, statistical method that will be carried out in treating data which will be gathered by questionnaire and interview .

# **Chapter Two**

## **Literature Review and Previous Studies**

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

Talking about the development of speaking skills in large classes during a teaching- learning process, it is necessary to consider a number of factors that influence this process. Oral production, the process of communication, number of interlocutors, interaction patterns, an amount of information processed, time span, teacher, student ,the conditions under which all these elements mutually interact are only a small part of what developing speaking skills makes. It is impossible to discuss all the factors related to this process in the thesis; therefore, an attention will be focused only on selected areas.

As it has just been suggested, there are several aspects that contribute to the development of students' speaking skills, one of them being, I personally believe, the effective organization of activities. Before dealing with the problematic of organizing activities focused on the development of speaking skills, however, I would like to consider the theoretical background of the skill of speaking, particularly theory of speaking (elements of speaking); furthermore, speaking in relation to communicative competence, and typology of activities proposed for the development of speaking skills.

Carrying out activities which aim at developing speaking skills is inevitably connected with the use of different organizational forms, of which some principal aspects will be proposed in the second part of the theoretical section. Each speaking activity is bounded to a certain progress, within which there can be traced stages and areas that can be positively or negatively influenced by the teacher. Therefore, the aim of the third part will be to propose principles related

to the organization of speaking activities that need to be taken into consideration when planning activities focused on the development of speaking skills.

The purpose of the practical section is to focus on one of the areas developed in third part of the theoretical section and present the data obtained in small-scale research by structured observation method. Speaking skills, like listening skills, are often neglected in the classroom or teachers assume that they are an area that does not require instruction or facilitation.

In order to communicate effectively through speaking, children must exhibit fluency, clarity, and an awareness of audience. Such verbal communication skills are learned through practice and observation of an effective speaker, such as the teacher.

When teaching young learners we constantly have to keep in mind the fact that what we have in front of us is a mixed class with varied abilities, expectations, motivation level, knowledge and last but not least, different learning styles. Thus, we need to vary our approaches and offer as much opportunity as possible to make the whole class find a little something to hold on to, expand and grow. Developing speaking skills definitely deserves a closer look and the article provides a few guidelines to keep all the students involved and interested.

Speaking is at the heart of second language learning. It is arguably the most important skill for business and government personnel working in the field, yet it appears particularly vulnerable to attrition. Despite its importance and its fragility, speaking was until recently largely ignored in schools and universities, primarily for logistical and programmatic real , such as emphasis on grammar and culture and unfavorable teacher- student ratios. Speaking was also absent from testing because of the difficulty in evaluating it objectively and the time it takes to conduct speaking tests (Clifford, 1987). Finally, speaking has been neglected in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) technology. Until

recently, CALL programs engaged students in listening, reading, and filling in blanks but not in producing oral language.

The current situation is different. An increased emphasis on the acquisition of communicative language skills calls for language learning software that is speech-enabled and engages learners in interactive speaking activities. Developing this software is now feasible with the deployment of automated speech recognition on PC platforms.

## **2.1 The definition of a large class**

People have varying opinions on how "large" the number of students should be in a so called "large class". "There can be no quantitative definition of what constitutes a "large" class, as perceptions of this will vary from context to context." (Hayes, 1997) Some people hold that 50 would be large enough for a college English class; others would argue that a large English class could have as many as over 100 or even 150 students. However, most English teachers generally agree that a language class with 50-60 or more is "large" enough. In this paper, a "large class" refers to a class with the number of students ranging from 60 to 150.

## **2.2 What is speaking ?**

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing *and* receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. It is often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving. However, speech is not always unpredictable. Language functions (or patterns) that tend to recur in certain discourse situations (e.g., declining an invitation or requesting time off from work), can be identified

and charted (Burns & Joyce, 1997). For example, when a salesperson asks "May I help you?" the expected discourse sequence includes a statement of need, response to the need, offer of appreciation, acknowledgement of the appreciation, and a leave-taking exchange. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (*linguistic competence*), but also that they understand when, why, and in what ways to produce language (*sociolinguistic competence*). Finally, speech has its own skills, structures, and conventions different from written language (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Carter & McCarthy, 1995; Cohen, 1996). A good speaker synthesizes this array of skills and knowledge to succeed in a given speech act.

### **2.2.1 What a good speaker does ?**

A speaker's skills and speech habits have an impact on the success of any exchange (Van Duzer, 1997). Speakers must be able to anticipate and then produce the expected patterns of specific discourse situations. They must also manage discrete elements such as turn-taking, rephrasing, providing feedback, or redirecting (Burns & Joyce, 1997). For example, a learner involved in the exchange with the salesperson described previously must know the usual pattern that such an interaction follows and access that knowledge as the exchange progresses. The learner must also choose the correct vocabulary to describe the item sought, rephrase or emphasize words to clarify the description if the clerk does not understand, and use appropriate facial expressions to indicate satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the service. Other skills and knowledge that instruction might address include the following: producing the sounds, stress patterns, rhythmic structures, and intonations of the language; using grammar structures accurately; assessing characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge or shared points of reference, status and power relations of participants, interest levels, or differences in perspectives; selecting vocabulary

that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed, and the setting in which the speech act occurs; applying strategies to enhance comprehensibility, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, or checking for listener comprehension; using gestures or body language; and paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as vocabulary, rate of speech, and complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener comprehension and involvement (Brown, 1994).

Teachers should monitor learners' speech production to determine what skills and knowledge they already have and what areas need development. Bailey and Savages *New Ways in Teaching Speaking* (1994), and Lewis *New Ways in Teaching Adults* (1997) offer suggestions for activities that can address different skills.

### **2.2.2 General outline of a speaking lesson**

Speaking to learners in large classes can follow the usual pattern of preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and extension. The teacher can use the *preparation* step to establish a context for the speaking task (where, when, why, and with whom it will occur) and to initiate awareness of the speaking skill to be targeted (asking for clarification, stressing key words, using reduced forms of words).

In presentation, the teacher can provide learners in large classes with a preproduction model that furthers learner comprehension and helps them become more attentive observers of language use. *Practice* involves learners in reproducing the targeted structure, usually in a controlled or highly supported manner. Evaluation involves directing attention to the skill being examined and asking learners to monitor and assess their own progress. Finally, extension consists of activities that ask learners to use the strategy or skill in a different context or authentic communicative situation, or to integrate use of the new skill



or strategy with previously acquired ones (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997; Carter & McCarthy, 1995).

### **2.2.3 Example of speaking a lesson**

#### **Choosing appropriate topics for small talk:**

##### **1- Preparation**

Show the learners a picture of two people conversing in a familiar casual setting. (The setting will be determined by a prior needs assessment.) Ask them to brainstorm what the people might be discussing (i.e., what topics, vocabulary, typical phrases).

##### **2- Presentation**

Present several video clips of small talk in casual situations. Have learners in the large classes complete a worksheet in which they describe or list the topics discussed, the context in which the speech is occurring, and any phrases that seem to typify small talk. Follow up with a discussion of the kinds of topics that are appropriate for small talk, the factors in the specific situations that affect topic selection (e.g., relationships of participants, physical setting), and typical phrases used in small talk. Chart this information.

##### **3- Practice**

Give learners specific information about the participants and the setting of a scenario where small talk will take place. In pairs, have them list topics that might be discussed by the participants and simple phrases they might use. Learners then engage in improvised dialogues based on these simple phrases.

## **4- Evaluation**

Give pairs a teacher-prepared dialogue based on their scenario from . Ask them to compare their improvised dialogues with the prepared dialogue, analyzing the similarities, differences, and reasons for both.

## **5- Extension**

Have learners go individually or in small groups into various contexts in the community (work, school, church, bus stop) and record the conversations they hear. Ask them to report their findings back to the class, and then have the class discuss these findings.

### **2.2.4 In-class speaking task**

Although dialogues and conversations in large classes are the most obvious and most often used speaking activities in language classrooms, a teacher can select activities from a variety of tasks. Brown (1994) lists six possible task categories:

#### **1- Imitative**

Drills in which the learner simply repeats a phrase or structure (e.g., "Excuse me." or "Can you help me?") for clarity and accuracy .

#### **2- Intensive**

Drills or repetitions focusing on specific phonological or grammatical points, such as minimal pairs or repetition of a series of imperative sentences .

#### **3- Responsive**

Short replies to teacher or learner questions or comments, such as a series of answers to yes/no questions.

#### **4- Transactional**

Dialogues conducted for the purpose of information exchange, such as information-gathering interviews, role plays , or debates .

#### **5- Interpersonal**

Dialogues to establish or maintain social relationships, such as personal interviews or casual conversation role plays .

#### **6- Extensive**

Extended monologues such as short speeches, oral reports, or oral summaries. These tasks are not sequential. Each can be used independently or they can be integrated with one another, depending on learners' needs. For example, if learners are not using appropriate sentence intonations when participating in a transactional activity that focuses on the skill of politely interrupting to make a point, the teacher might decide to follow up with a brief imitative lesson targeting this feature.

When presenting tasks, teachers should tell learners about the language function to be produced in the task and the real context (s) in which it usually occurs. They should provide opportunities for interactive practice and build upon previous instruction as necessary (Burns & Joyce, 1997). Teachers should also be careful not to overload a speaking lesson with other new material such as numerous vocabulary or grammatical structures. This can distract learners from the primary speaking goals of the lesson.

### **2.2.5 Assessing speaking**

Speaking assessments can take many forms, from oral sections of standardized tests such as the Basic English Skills Test (BEST) or the English as a Second Language Oral Assessment (ESLOA) to authentic assessments such as progress checklists, analysis of taped speech samples, or anecdotal records of speech in classroom interactions. Assessment instruments should reflect instruction and be incorporated from the beginning stages of lesson planning (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

For example, if a lesson focuses on producing and recognizing signals for turn-taking in a group discussion, the assessment tool might be a checklist to be completed by the teacher or learners in the course of the learners' participation in the discussion. Finally, criteria should be clearly defined and understandable to both the teacher and the learners.

Many students in large classes equate being able to speak a language as knowing the language and therefore view learning the language as learning how to speak the language, or as Nunan (1991) wrote, "success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the (target) language." Therefore, if students do not learn how to speak or do not get any opportunity to speak in the language classroom they may soon get less motivation and lose interest in learning. On the other hand, if the right activities are taught in the right way, speaking in class can be a lot of fun, raising general learner motivation and making the English language classroom a fun and dynamic place to be.

### **2.2.6 Speaking is fundamental to the learners in large classes**

Just think of all the different conversations you have in one day and compare that with how much written communication you do in one day. Which do you do more of? . In our daily lives most of us speak more than we write, yet

many English teachers still spend the majority of class time on reading and writing practice almost ignoring speaking and listening skills. Do you think this is a good balance ?

If the goal of your language course is truly to enable your students to communicate in English, then speaking skills should be taught and practiced in the language classroom. Dealing with common arguments against teaching speaking skills in the classroom . Students won't talk or say anything . One way to tackle this problem is to find the root of the problem and start from there. If the problem is cultural, that is in your culture it is unusual for students to talk out loud in class, or if students feel really shy about talking in front of other students then one way to go about breaking this cultural barrier is to create and establish your own classroom culture where speaking out loud in English is the norm. One way to do this is to distinguish your classroom from other classrooms in your school by arranging the classroom desks differently, in groups instead of lines etc. or by decorating the walls in English language and culture posters. From day one teach your students classroom language and keep on teaching it and encourage your students to ask for things and to ask questions in English. Giving positive feedback also helps to encourage and relax shy students to speak more. Another way to get students motivated to speak more is to allocate a percentage of their final grade to speaking skills and let the students know they are being assessed continually on their speaking practice in class throughout the term.

A completely different reason for student silence may simply be that the class activities are boring or are pitched at the wrong level. Very often our interesting communicative speaking activities are not quite as interesting or as communicative as we think they are and all the students are really required to do is answer 'yes' or 'no' which they do quickly and then just sit in silence or worse

talking noisily in their L1. So maybe you need to take a closer look at the type of speaking activities you are using and see if they really capture student interest and create a real need for communication.

Another way to encourage your students in large classes to speak in English is simply to speak in English yourself as much as possible in class. If you are shy about speaking in English, how can you expect your students to overcome their fears about speaking English? Don't worry if you are not completely fluent or don't have that elusive perfect native accent, as Swain (1985) wrote "We learn to speak by speaking" and that goes for teachers as well as students. The more you practice the more you will improve your own oral skills as well as help your students improve theirs.

When students in large classes work in pairs or groups they just end up chatting in their own language.

Is the activity or task pitched at the right level for the students? Make sure you give the students all the tools and language they need to be able to complete the task. If the language is pitched too high they may revert to their L1, likewise if the task is too easy they may get bored and revert to their L1. Also, be aware of the fact that some students especially beginners, will often use their L1 as an emotional support at first, translating everything word for word to check they have understood the task before attempting to speak.

Are all the students actively involved and is the activity interesting? If students do not have something to say or do, or don't feel the need to speak, you can be sure it won't be long before they are chatting away in their L1. Was the timing of the activity good? The timing of a speaking activity in a class can be crucial sometimes. How many teachers have discovered that their speaking activity ended up as a continuation of the students break-time gossip conducted in the L1? After break-time, why not try giving students an activity to

calm them down and make them focus before attempting speaking activities that involve groups or pair work. Another way to discourage students speaking in their L1 is to walk around the classroom monitoring their participation and giving support and help to students as they need it. If certain students persist in speaking in the L1 then perhaps you should ask them to stay behind after class and speak to them individually and explain to them the importance of speaking English and ask them why they don't feel comfortable speaking in English in the class. First of all separate the two points a noisy classroom and an out-of-control classroom.

A large classroom full of students talking and interacting in English, even if it is noisy, is exactly what you want. Maybe you just feel like you are losing control because the class is suddenly student centred and not teacher centred. This is an important issue to consider. Learner-centred classrooms where learners do the talking in groups and learners have to take responsibility for using communicative resources to complete a task are shown to be more conducive to language learning than teacher-centred classes (Long & Richards 1987). Nevertheless, many classrooms all over the world continue to be teacher centred, so the question you have to ask yourself is, how learner centred is my classroom?

Losing control of the classroom, on the other hand, is a different issue. Once again walking around and monitoring the students as they are working in groups in large classes can help, as you can naturally move over to the part of the classroom where the noise is coming from and calm the rogue students down and focus them back on the task without disrupting the rest of the students who are working well in their groups. If students really get too rowdy then simply change the pace of the class and type of activity to a more controlled task, for example a focus on form or writing task where students have to work in silence

individually. Once the students have calmed down you can return to the original or another interactive group activity.

### **2.2.7 The Importance of Speaking Skill**

The goal of language is communication and the aim of speaking in a language context is to promote communicative efficiency; teachers want students to actually be able to use the language as correctly as possible and with a purpose. Students often value speaking more than the other skills of reading, writing and listening so motivation is not always as big of an issue, but what often happens is students feel more anxiety related to their oral production. As speaking is interrelated with the other skills, its development results in the development of the others. One of the primary benefits of increased communicative competency is the resulting job, education and travel opportunities; it is always an asset to be able to communicate with other people.

While a picture may be worth a thousand words, those words will no doubt come in handy if the picture is distorted or poorly understood. After all, the most effective way to communicate is through speech.

The four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing are all interconnected. Proficiency in each skill is necessary to become a well-rounded communicator, but the ability to speak skillfully provides the speaker with several distinct advantages. The capacity to put words together in a meaningful way to reflect thoughts, opinions, and feelings provides the speaker with these important advantages:

Ability to inform, persuade, and direct. Business managers, educators, military leaders, lawyers, and politicians, among others, seek to develop their speaking skills to such a level that they are transformed into master communicators. Speaking clearly and confidently can gain the attention of an audience, providing the golden opportunity for the speaker to make the message known. Wise is the



speaker who gains and then holds the attention of an audience, with well-chosen words in a well-delivered presentation, forming a message that is effective, informative, and understood.

Ability to stand out from the rest. When one thinks of speaking skills, one tends to think of it as a common skill. Think again. The ability to stand before others and speak effectively is not an ordinary ability. Many people are deathly afraid of public speaking; others have little ability to form thoughts into sentences and then deliver those words in a believable way. The bad news is that at any given moment the world has precious few with the speaking talents of, say, Winston Churchill or John F. Kennedy. The good news is that a speaker whose skills are honed and developed with constant application and hard work can stand out.

Ability to benefit derivatively. Well-developed verbal skills can increase one's negotiation skills. Self-confidence is improved. A growing sense of comfort comes from speaking in front of larger and larger audiences.

A reputation for excellence in speaking can accrue over time, thereby imparting a certain credibility to the speaker.

Career enhancement. Employers have always valued the ability to speak well. It is, and always will be, an important skill, and well worth the effort in fully developing.

Speaking skills are important for career success, but certainly not limited to one's professional aspirations. Speaking skills can enhance one's personal life, thereby bringing about the well-rounded growth we should all seek.

"Given that class size is most unlikely to be reduced in the foreseeable future, teachers need to come to terms with their problems" (Hayes 1997) .

## **2.3 Attitudes towards teaching English in large classes**

Those teachers - and they are numerous - who have to cope with classes that contain 50 or more learners are therefore often ill-prepared to deal with the situation in which they find themselves in schools." (Hayes, 1999) Most English teachers tend to view teaching English in large classes rather negatively. They often associate large English classes with disorderliness, lack of control, lack of students' attentiveness, lack of teacher-student interactions, and therefore, lack in efficiency and effectiveness.

Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) wrote in their article *Teacher Attitudes and Change Implementation* that "what worries her (a Greek language teacher), however, is the size of the class since she believes that as soon as the number of groups passes a certain number, it is difficult to 'control what happens'." Phil Wankat (in Felder 1997) went even further by saying that "anything you can do in a large class you can do better in a small one".

However, not all English teachers think that class size matters. Such teachers would say that good teaching is good teaching: what holds true for small classes also holds true for large ones. Richard M. Felder(1997) holds that "there are ways to make large classes almost as effective as their smaller counterparts." Recent research shows (Kickbusch, 2000) that "Reductions in class size to less than 20 students without changes in instructional methods cannot guarantee improved academic achievement." and that "class size appears to have more influence on student attitudes, attention, interest, and motivation than on academic achievement." In reality, it is not very uncommon that some teachers enjoy teaching in large classes, and they feel that if proper strategies are adopted and the classes are well-organised, they may have a greater sense of achievement. As Felder (1997) stated that "the instructor's satisfaction may be even greater in the large classes: after all, many professors can teach 15 students

effectively, but when you do it with 100 or more you know you've really accomplished something."

## **2.4 Problems commonly perceived with the teaching of English in large classes**

The problems associated with teaching in large classes can be physical, psychological and technical. The teachers in large classes may feel physically weary; they may unknowingly speak louder and move more often or longer distances than they do in small classes etc. Psychologically, some teachers feel it intimidating to face a large "crowd" of students, especially when they don't have much idea who their students are and what their students are expecting from them. To the teachers in large classes, students are not "people" but "faces". Technically, teachers have to be capable of using microphones and OHPs properly to make their students hear and see clearly. Inadequate use of such classroom equipment may lead to the lack of interest and involvement of the students in the classroom learning. Other problems such as monitoring attendance and checking assignments are also constantly worrying many teachers involved in large class teaching.

Hayes (1997) summarized the problems with teaching in large classes as the following:

### **1- Discomfort**

Many teachers are worried by the physical constraints imposed by large numbers in confined classrooms. They feel unable to promote student interaction, since there is no room to move about. Some teachers also feel that teaching in large classes is physically very wearing.

## **2- Control**

Teachers are often worried by the discipline aspects of large classes. They feel they are unable to control what is happening, and that the classes become too noisy.

## **3- Individual attention**

Many teachers are concerned that they are neglecting the needs of their students as individuals.

Evaluation: Teachers feel a responsibility for checking all of their students' work, and are worried if they cannot do so.

Learning effectiveness: All teachers want their students to learn English. They are understandably worried if they don't know who is learning what.

However, problems such as these are not impossible to be solved, or at least partially. In fact, what the teachers perceive as problems associated with large classes sometimes may not be so problematic to the students. The following questionnaire shows what the students who are learning English both in large and small classes think about the large classes.

## **2.5 Aspects of classroom can help in developing speaking skill in large classes**

There are seven aspects that I intend to focus on as follows:

### **1 -Teacher and student talking time:**

In classrooms one of either the teacher or the students is responsible for any stretch of classroom talk. The relative balance between these two potential speakers can be seen by comparing teacher talking time and student talking time. In the literature, a high proportion of teacher talk is often seen as problematic (Senior, 1997; Scrivener, 1994; but cf. Lewis, 1993) since when the teacher is talking, students' opportunities to practise are reduced

(Hubbard et al., 1983). The problems of a high teacher talking time are even more apparent in large classes where encouraging teacher-student interaction is often seen as a problem (e.g. Touba, 1999, 1989; but cf. Kumar, 1992). Moreover, a high teacher talking time can be taken as evidence of a power imbalance between the teacher and the students (Phillips, 1997; Parry, 1998), whereby the more a teacher hogs the available talking time, the more she is exhibiting her power.

This last point is important, since from a naive viewpoint we could expect that more students in the classroom would lead to a higher student talking time.

However, the need for the teacher to exhibit her power with large groups probably overrides the effects of more potential student talkers in the classroom.

We might therefore expect that teacher talking time would increase in a large class.

## **2. Use of the L1:**

Teaching in large classes may force teachers to use the students' first language (L1) more than they might otherwise do (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Woodward, 2001). While the L1 may be used to serve certain pedagogical purposes, it is widely agreed that the majority of language use in the classroom should be conducted in the target language (see Auerbach, 1993; Watson Todd, 1997 for summaries of the arguments).

In large classes, teachers may feel that the problems of ensuring comprehensible communication with all students necessitate greater use of the L1. We may therefore expect that the classroom discourse of large classes may contain a greater proportion of L1 use than that of small classes.

### **3. Use of student names:**

Using the students' names can help to build positive relationships between the teacher and the students, a key factor in classroom learning (Allen, 1999; Epanchin et al., 1994).

In larger classes, however, the sheer memory load of learning all of the students' names may make this impossible (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hubbard et al., 1983; LoCastro, 1989).

While teachers may wish to address the students individually by name, in large classes we may expect that the teacher's use of students' names is less than in small classes.

### **4. Questioning and initiations:**

A frequent pattern of classroom communication is the IRF format first identified by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975), where the teacher initiates by asking a question, a student responds and the teacher gives feedback on the response. A quick glance through the classroom discourse examined in this study confirms that such IRF patterns are common in both lessons. Before we look at the characteristics of IRF communication, however, we need to consider whether the teacher is the only person who can initiate in the classroom. Although teachers exhibit their greater power by being responsible for almost all initiations in most classrooms (see e.g. Sinclair & Brazil, 1982), it is possible for students to also initiate (see Garton, 2002).

Given the greater chance of a student losing face (an important issue in Thai culture) in a large class, we may expect the students to make fewer initiations in large classes than in small classes.

Focusing on the teacher initiations, when asking a question a teacher has a range of choices available, some of which could be influenced by the size

of the class. One issue is the amount of open-endedness in the communication. Teachers in large classes can feel forced to use more teacher-centered and closed-ended approaches to teaching (Hubbard et al., 1983), and for questioning this might be reflected in a higher proportion of closed-ended questions as opposed to open-ended questions (see Moore, 1989; Tsui, Moore, 1989, Moore, 1989; Tsui, 1995; Watson Todd, 1997; Wu, 1993) in large classes.

Another potential effect of being forced to use a more teacher-centered and closed-ended approach involves display and referential questions.

A display question is one to which the teacher already knows the answer, and a referential question is one where the teacher does not know the answer (Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Tsui, 1995; Watson Todd, 1997; Wu, 1993).

As with closed-ended questions, we might expect a teacher in a large class to resort more frequently to using display questions. A further issue concerning question types is the level of cognitive demand of the question. It has been argued that large classes are appropriate for learning factual knowledge but not for higher-order thinking skills (e.g. Obanya et al., n.d). It might be expected, therefore, that higher-order questions occur less frequently in large classes.

There are two further issues about questioning that may be important. Firstly, the number of teacher questions which receive a response may be influenced by the size of the class. In a larger class, students may have more difficulties in hearing questions, the teacher may have more problems in hearing student replies, and students may feel shy in answering questions.

We might therefore expect that a lower proportion of teacher questions receive replies in large classes.

A final issue regarding teacher questioning is the extent to which questions may need to be modified before a response is received (see Cole & Chan, 1987; Watson Todd, 1997). In a larger class with more students and background noise, we might expect that the teacher would need to repeat or rephrase questions more often than in a smaller class.

## **5. Teacher feedback on student responses**

The teacher feedback moves in IRF discourse are a key factor in determining the effectiveness and function of stretches of such discourse (Cullen 2002; Nassaji & Wells, 2000). Such feedback moves may involve simple echoing of the student response (Cullen, 1998; Freiberg & Driscoll, 2000), judgments or evaluations on the student response (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982), restatements of the student response (Bowen & Marks, 1994), or requests for further clarification (Nassaji & Wells, 2000). Of these judgement feedback moves most explicitly signal the teacher's power, while requests for clarification are generally the most learner centred.

Given the pressures on teachers in large classes, we might expect that IRF sequences in the classroom discourse of large classes would contain more judgmental moves and fewer requests for clarification.

## **6. Surface forms of directives**

A further way in which teacher power can be manifested, albeit largely unconsciously, is through the strength of the directives used when the teacher gives instructions to the students (Watson Todd, 1996).

Examining the directives that teachers use in classrooms, Holmes (1983) categorises the directives according to their surface form into imperative, interrogatives and declaratives.



These categories can be further subdivided so that, for example, imperatives may comprise base-form imperatives, base-form imperatives plus 'please', present participle imperatives, verbalis, and let + first person pronoun imperatives. Some of these forms are pragmatically less polite and indicate a perceived greater distance between the speaker and the audience. Perhaps the strongest form is the base-form imperative, while modal interrogatives indicate a perceived closeness between the speaker and the audience.

Given the potential need for greater demonstrations of teacher power with large classes, we might expect that the teacher's directives with large classes would be manifested through stronger surface forms.

## **7. The language of classroom management and discipline**

Classroom management and discipline issues are perhaps the most widely perceived problems with teaching large classes (e.g. Coleman, 1989 b; Dudley and Evans & St. John, 1998; Hayes, 1997; LoCastro, 1989; Nolasco & Arthur, 1986; Sabandar, 1989; Ur, 1996; Woodward, 2001). To investigate how management and discipline issues are manifested in classroom discourse, there are two aspects we can examine. Firstly, the more discipline problems there are, generally the more explicit teacher utterances focusing on discipline there will be. With discipline problems more likely to occur in large classes, we may therefore expect a greater frequency of teacher utterances dealing with discipline in large classes.

Secondly, the way in which such utterances are manifested may differ between large and small classes. In large classes, these utterances may be more impersonal and address the whole class rather than individual students. Also, as with the surface forms of directives, the utterances may be expressed in stronger language in large classes. A further aspect of this last point

point is that utterances which aim to simultaneously build rapport and treat discipline problems, such as messages (see Guillaume , 2000), are less likely to occur in large classes.

The rationality of class size David (1997) holds that "Given that class size is most unlikely to be reduced in the foreseeable future, teachers need to come to terms with their problem " . All right ( 1989 ) argues that " class size may not be the problem many teachers think it to be."

In addition, Littlewood (1998) classifies English learning students in Southeast Asia into two categories: collectivism and individualism.

His research shows that "people in East Asian countries have emerged as showing a much stronger collectivist orientation than people in Western countries." Therefore, Littlewood concludes that "1. East Asian students will have a strong inclination to form in groups which work towards common goals. 2. In the open classroom, East Asian students will be reluctant to 'stand out' by expressing their views or raising questions. 3. East Asian students will perceive the teacher as an authority figure whose superior knowledge and control over classroom learning events should not be questioned. 4. East Asian students will see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learners. They will therefore find it normal to engage in modes of learning which are teacher centered and in which they receive knowledge rather than interpret it."

## **2.6 The effects of large classes on Student's a achievement**

The class size debate has included a broad spectrum of positions. On one edge of the spectrum is the view represented in Haddad's 1978 review of the literature for the World Bank. In summarizing his review, Haddad wrote that "an

increase in class size does not necessarily lead to a decrease in level of academic achievement.

Likewise, a decrease in class size does not guarantee an improvement in the social environment of learning. More important is what the teacher does with the opportunities provided by the size of the class. In the absence of a statistically established basis for an optimum class size. . . decisions regarding this issue are bound by fiscal and curriculum policies and conditions” (1978, p. 14).

The World Bank was not the only agency to present this view. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, for example, has argued that student achievement is either not related to class size or is higher with larger classes (OECD 1974). Smith’s analysis of 34 studies, part of a report originally prepared for the Committee on Research for the National Council of Teachers of English, argued that “for the most part the findings show that large classes versus small classes have little or no effect in student performance” (Smith 1971, p. i). Publication in 1978 of a major review of 41 studies on class size and achievement by the Educational Research Service also seemed to confirm that reducing class size alone would not increase pupil performance (Porwoll 1978).

Since that time , this position also has been advanced by Hanushek in a meta-analysis of 187 studies of production and expenditure relationships in schools(Hanushek 1989). In his paper, Hanushek claimed, “The results are startlingly consistent in finding no strong evidence that teacher-student ratios, teacher education, or teacher experience have the expected positive effects on student achievement” (1989, p. 47). Hanushek supported this assertion more recently by pointing out, “the teacher pupil ratio fell from one teacher to 26 students in 1960 to one teacher to 17 students in 1990, [and] during the same period, the percentage of teachers with a master’s degree more than doubled

from 23% to 56%. . . [but] reading achievement is essentially the same in the 1990s as it was in the early 1970s; science achievement has fallen; and math achievement is only slightly improved” (Hanushek 1995, p. 61).

A study of first-grade class in Toronto secondary schools found a similar lack of effects (Shapson et al. 1978). This study investigated the effects of class size on teachers’ expectations about the effects of specific class sizes; students’ attitudes and opinions; student achievement in reading, mathematics, composition, and art; students’ self-concepts; and other classroom variables. Shapson and his colleagues concluded that ,though teachers believed that reducing class size is beneficial, variations in class size in these grades resulted in few changes in classroom functioning or in student achievement, except in acquisition of mathematics concepts (Shapson et al. 1978). It appeared from their research that reducing class size means little if teachers continue to use the same instructional methods used in larger groupings and if teachers do not capitalize on the opportunity to individualize instruction (Gilman et al. 1988). Since this time, Hallinan and Sorensen (1985) have similarly reported that classroom pedagogical practices mediate the effect of class size on learning.

Three other studies are of note. Harder’s 1990 article suggests that quality of instruction may be more important than class size in determining student achievement.

Stern’s 1987 paper implied more strongly that student achievement was linked to where teachers were placed on local salary schedules and that raising teachers’ salaries would be more cost-effective than reducing class size. McIntyre and Scott echoed this contention when they argued that “Overall findings do not support the cost associated with universal class size reduction and indicate that smaller investments in other educational strategies may yield similar or greater achievement gains.” Rather than establishing an absolute class size policy, they advised that class sizes should be lowered in subjects that

require greater teacher-pupil interaction and that have high workloads (McIntyre and Scott 1989).

Not all researchers have concluded that class size has no effect. A number of researchers have argued that some relationships do exist between class size and student outcomes, and others argue that the evidence still is inconclusive.

In his review of data from Tennessee's Project Star and other research on class size and student achievement, Tomlinson, for example, maintained that findings provided "no support for the idea that 12 years of small classes would produce significant increase in student achievement" (Tomlinson 1990, p. 18). Nevertheless, he allowed that disadvantaged minority students seemed to benefit significantly from small classes. Berlin and Cienkus (1989) have likewise observed that "the need for smaller class size is inversely proportional to student's socioeconomic status." In addition, Hallinan and Sorensen have pointed out that, while class size seems to have a negative effect when instruction is delivered in whole-class and ability group settings, "when student race is controlled, the class-size effect disappears" (1985, p. 71).

Similarly moderate associations between class size and achievement have been reported by others. For example, Anderson and Walberg (1972) concluded that indicators of the social environment of learning were quite sensitive to variations in class size in the physics classes they studied. Slavin (1990) also suggested that reduced class size may change school tone and morale positively, though he concluded that reducing class size should not be regarded as a stand-alone policy for improving student achievement.

Thompson noted the generally inconclusive nature of class size research when he reported: While the desirability of small classes seems an 'article of faith' among educators, a review of the research indicates that class size in itself has rarely shown a substantial effect on educational achievement. The research itself has been flawed by the impossibility of determining or measuring all the variables

that changes in class size can affect. It may also be true that the positive effects attributed to smaller classes are not translatable into testable outcomes. In the end, educational goals, instructional strategies, and related contextual matters may be most important in determining optimum class size. (Carter 1995, p. i).

At the other side of the spectrum is the body of literature dating from the late 1970s that argues the existence of a relationship between class size and students' academic performance. One of the first major studies to make this assertion vigorously was Glass and Smith's 1978 article, based on a meta-analysis of 77 studies dating to the turn of the century from a dozen countries.

Glass and Smith showed that 60% of the comparisons for elementary and secondary students favored small classes; and they asserted, without qualification, that "creased academic achievement" (1978, p. iv). Cohen and Smith's methodology and conclusions met with considerable criticism, as well as strong counter-arguments offered by the Educational Research Service in 1996.

The class size-student achievement connection made by Cohen and Smith and, later, by Glass was supported in the 1980s by reports of two major longitudinal studies, Indiana's Prime Time and Tennessee's Project STAR (Student-Teacher Achievement Ratio) (Cohen 1996). In 1984-1985, Indiana reduced class sizes in all first-grade classes to a pupil-teacher ratio of 20:1, following a pilot program that had reduced class size in 24 secondary classes to a pupil-teacher ratio of 14:1.

Several studies examined the effects of reduced class size. One compared pupils' achievement in small first grade classes (18 pupils) to their achievement in larger classes (22 pupils). According to the final report for this study, the findings provide overwhelming evidence of the gains in scores for students in the 1984-

1985 small classes as compared to the larger classes of the 1983- 1984 school year (Burns & Joice 1997).

Since publication of the Prime Time study, however, Hayes, Gilman, and Lewis (1997) have sounded a note of caution about interpreting its results, as they put it

Further caution is encouraged because research continues to suggest that the relation between class size and achievement is difficult to characterize. For example, a federal study published after our study was conducted has concluded that reductions in class size by themselves are costly, unlikely to result in improvements, and have little effect on student achievement (Tomlinson 1988) .

. . Perhaps the gains we found were partially attributable to the novelty of the state program, teacher expectations, or the belief of secondary grade teachers that failure to produce student gains could result in the potentially negative effect of a return to larger classes. (1989, pp. 54-55).

Folger and Breda (1989), for example, suggest that the class size effect is concentrated in kindergarten and first grade and that, after first grade, the effects of reducing class size plateaus and then declines. Robinson and Wittebols (1986) also observed that the effects of smaller classes on student learning tails off as grade levels increase.

Jin and his colleagues (1998, p. i) concluded that programs to reduce class size in early schooling are “the only programs known to have lasting effects, at least through the third grade.”

Finally, a number of researchers argue that there may be a positive correlation between reduced class size and student achievement for some grades, but such a policy would cost too much. For example, Robinson and Wittebols (1986) noted that a policy of reducing class size might appear sensible, but it would have far-reaching financial consequences. Mitchell and Beach argued that, though class size has a “substantial and cumulative effect on student learning . . . responding

to this evidence is difficult because the cost of class size reduction is enormous. It is impossible to imagine public support for the level of funding needed to substantially reduce class size through expansion of school facilities and staff” (1990, p. 4).

Folger and Breda note that “reducing class size substantially is very costly . . . [and] that across-the-board class size reduction is an expensive way to make a modest improvement in student achievement.” They point out, in relation to Project STAR, “that when class size is reduced by a third, operating costs, mostly for additional teachers’ salaries, will rise 24%-28% annually and capital costs for extra classrooms, amortized over 30 years, will add another 5%-7% to costs annually” (1989, p. 17).

In a policy paper for the U.S. government, Tomlinson (1988) argued that the costs of class size reductions outweigh the benefits and, moreover, that reducing class size to improve student achievement is at variance with other policies to enhance teacher professionalism and to place greater responsibility on teachers.

### **2.6.1 Other Effects**

Few authors deal with the effects of reducing class size other than those on student achievement. While there is a wealth of research related to the effect of class size on student achievement, there is considerably less on student and teacher attitudes and teacher workload or stress. These tend to be linked within the literature.

Several publications reflect the broader discourse that challenges the use of achievement tests as measurement tools and, in particular, the use of such tests to describe the range of outcomes associated with student learning and the quality of life within classrooms.

The National Education Association’s position on class size and achievement stresses other factors.



Studies that conclude that class size makes no difference are based almost entirely on student achievement or cognitive scores, whereas those studies that find class size significant include other important factors such as creativity, decline of learning and behavior problems, better class control, problem-solving and retention, and the amount of opportunity for each child to participate and express himself orally. (NEA 1974, p. 2).

A similar position is found in a literature review by the South Carolina Department of Education. Acknowledging that “much of the research on class size is methodologically weak and should be evaluated in its own right before its results are accepted,” this review concludes:

studies revealing no effect on achievement due to class size are based almost entirely on measures of cognitive learning, while those that find class size significant measure other areas of growth as well, such as mental health, problem solving skills, and aesthetic, personal, and creative development. For the most part, class size is only one variable among a number of important variables affecting learning. These include student and teacher characteristics, the instructional program and its goals, the subject matter being taught, the reasons for altering class size, and economic factors. (South Carolina State Department of Education 1980, p. i).

Blatchford and Mortimore observed serious dangers in the ways that data on classroom processes are gathered and collated:

For one thing they take no account of context: the different ages and abilities of pupils, their school catchment characteristics and cultural backgrounds, and a host of other characteristics may all influence effects of different-sized classes. [There is also] need to consider effects in relation to class size reductions of different degrees of magnitude. Moreover, as we have seen, the quality of research itself varies, and it is very difficult to conclude which factors are most important, and which of the associations just listed are most reliable (1994, p. 425).

Inside classrooms, where researchers have concentrated their attention for the past 20 years, there appears to be an obvious dearth of more carefully elaborated studies that consider, as one researcher has written, “important mediating variables such as intra-classroom organization, curricular objectives, and teaching styles” (Folger 1989, p. 131).

Reductions in class size may improve mainstreaming special needs students in the regular classroom, can lessen teacher workloads in the initial years of teaching, and can reduce the amount of time English teachers require for planning and marking. English teachers’ associations have lobbied for smaller class sizes because of the additional workload associated with evaluating compositions. For example, a survey of California English teachers found that large class sizes were most frequently identified by teachers as detrimental to teaching composition and recommended limiting enrollment in composition classes to resolve the problem (Bamberg 1977). The major conclusion of the California survey was that the total student loads of most full-time teachers of English must be substantially reduced if composition is to receive the attention demanded by the public.

A decade later, in a 1987 position paper for the NCTE/SLATE Steering Committee on Social and Political Concerns, Maxwell wrote that unsatisfactory conditions for teaching writing likely explained why little progress has been made in the improvement of students’ writing, as reported by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Maxwell maintained that the research shows a need for radical reduction in class size and radically different methods of instruction. Despite Maxwell’s assertion, William Smith (1986), also writing for the NCTE, acknowledged the contradictory findings on class size in English and called for more research.

In 1984, Ferguson investigated the factors that caused stress for 406 teachers in Nova Scotia. In addition to such factors as paperwork and lack of administrative support, Ferguson found that the size of classes was frequently considered “very stressful” and among the most often stated changes teachers would like to make in their jobs (Smith 1986). Similarly, in describing his findings from two surveys of beginning teachers, Ayalon (1989) concluded that adequate planning time and reduced class size may reduce beginning teachers’ burnout and attrition. However, in a survey of 447 special education teachers, McIntyre (1983) argued that there was no significant correlation between the amount of daily student load and any of six aspects of burnout, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory.

Only recently have studies begun to consider the effect of class size on how teachers’ teach. One recent survey of secondary schools teachers in New Zealand found that changes in class size had several effects on teachers and the way they dealt with students. Although the adult-student ratio remained at 1:15, teachers’ noted that in larger classes they had less time to work with individual children and small groups (Renwick and McCauley 1995). Similarly, in a study of overcrowding in urban schools, Burnett (1995) found that crowded classroom conditions not only affected students’ ability to concentrate on their lessons, but also limited the amount of time teachers could spend organizing students for cooperative learning and group work or teaching anything beyond what was minimally required.

Burnett suggests that because they must constantly struggle to maintain order in an overcrowded classroom, the likelihood increases that teachers will suffer from burnout earlier than they might otherwise.

The effects of class size are intertwined with other factors in schools. Logan-Woods (1989) has noted the importance of connecting findings on class size with research findings on effective schools, effective teaching, and mastery learning. She cautions that policies on class size should be matched to student needs. Robinson (1990) has observed that, because smaller classes do not necessarily produce improved student achievement, emphasis should be directed toward understanding the effects of class size on student learning by grade, pupil characteristics, subject area, and teaching method. Make the best use of the manpower saved from large class teaching.

Teaching in large classes can minimize a lot of human resources. Take the foreign languages department of BUAA for example, if English were being taught all in small classes (25-45 students), then the average teaching hours per person per week would be 16; however, teaching in large classes actually makes it 10.5 hours per person per week. With the extra time, teachers can look more into their teaching materials and methodologies and can have more chances to collaborate with their colleagues or observe them teach. In fact, careful and thorough planning of a lesson is the first step to the effective teaching in large classes. Bring the teacher authority into full play and teach not only knowledge but also learning methods.

Since students in large classes tend to obey the teachers, and wait until they are being asked even in small classes, the teachers of large classes should make their teaching more of a lecture based or transmission style. In large classes, the teaching of knowledge is as important as the teaching of learning methods. Most teachers agree that telling the students how to fish is more important than merely giving them some fish, no matter how many fish they can give their students.

## **2.7 Collaborate with the students and build up a good learning atmosphere in large classes**

In a survey by Senior (1997), many teachers held that a good language class has an atmosphere of "a feeling of warmth", "mutual support", "an absence of fear", "a safe environment", "a feeling of comfort", "mutual respect", "people mindful of other people's abilities and limitations", "a feeling of cooperation", "a feeling of relaxation", "a feeling of trust" and "rapport between class members" etc. Senior further commented that "Surprisingly, the teachers ... seldom identified classes of quiet, compliant, hardworking students as good classes. Rather, they judged the quality of their classes according to how far the students cooperated with each other to form single, unified, classroom groups. They clearly perceived that any class with a positive whole group atmosphere was 'good', whereas any class which lacked a spirit of group cohesion was unsatisfactory, even if it was composed of high achieving students."

Communicate, discuss and share regularly the classroom management techniques with other teachers who are involved in large class teaching. Touba (1999) held that, "The teachers' skill in classroom management is the primary ingredient for success with group work in large classes." Many teachers who are teaching in large classes may come up with a few tips on the skills in classroom management. For example, teachers of large classes may come into the classroom a bit earlier and chat with a few students; they may move around the classroom while giving the lesson or move towards one or two students and tell the whole class what they have just talked about; they may also stay briefly in the classroom after the lesson to make themselves approachable, accessible and available. The more skills shared by the teachers, the more likely it would be for these teachers to apply them to their classroom management. They will automatically adopt those that work, and drop them if they don't.

## **2.8 The role of correct pronunciation in developing speaking skill**

Pronunciation instruction tends to be linked to the instructional method being used (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). In the grammar-translation method of the past, pronunciation was almost irrelevant and therefore seldom taught. In the audio-lingual method, learners spent hours in the language lab listening to and repeating sounds and sound combinations. With the emergence of more holistic, communicative methods and approaches to ESL instruction, pronunciation is addressed within the context of real communication (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Morley, 1991).

Factors influencing pronunciation mastery research has contributed some important data on factors that can influence the learning and teaching of pronunciation skills. Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, (1996), Gillette (1994), Graham (1994) and Pennington (1994) discuss the following factors.

Age. The debate over the impact of age on language acquisition and specifically pronunciation is varied. Some researchers argue that, after puberty, lateralization (the assigning of linguistic functions to the different brain hemispheres) is completed, and adults' ability to distinguish and produce native-like sounds is more limited. Others refer to the existence of sensitive periods when various aspects of language acquisition occur, or to adults' need to re-adjust existing neural networks to accommodate new sounds. Most researchers, however, agree that adults find pronunciation more difficult than children do and that they probably will not achieve native-like pronunciation.

Yet experiences with language learning and the ability to self-monitor, which come with age, can offset these limitations to some degree. Amount and type of prior pronunciation instruction. Prior experiences with pronunciation instruction may influence learners' success with current efforts. Learners at higher language

proficiency levels may have developed habitual, systematic pronunciation errors that must be identified and addressed.

Individual capacity for learning languages has been debated. Some researchers believe all learners have the same capacity to learn a second language because they have learned a first language. Others assert that the ability to recognize and internalize foreign sounds may be unequally developed in different learners.

Learner attitude and motivation. Nonlinguistic factors related to an individual's personality and learning goals can influence achievement in pronunciation. Attitude toward the target language, culture, and native speakers; degree of acculturation (including exposure to and use of the target language); personal identity issues; and motivation for learning can all support or impede pronunciation skills development.

Native language. Most researchers agree that the learner's first language influences the pronunciation of the target language and is a significant factor in accounting for foreign accents.

So-called interference or negative transfer from the first language is likely to cause errors in aspiration, intonation, and rhythm in the target language.

The pronunciation of any one learner might be affected by a combination of these factors. The key is to be aware of their existence so that they may be considered in creating realistic and effective pronunciation goals and development plans for the learners. For example, native-like pronunciation is not likely to be a realistic goal for older learners;

a learner who is a native speaker of a tonal language, such as Vietnamese, will need assistance with different pronunciation features than will

a native Spanish speaker; and a twenty-three year old engineer who knows he will be more respected and possibly promoted if his pronunciation improves is likely to be responsive to direct pronunciation instruction.

### Language Features Involved in Pronunciation

Two groups of features are involved in pronunciation: segmentals and supra segmentals. Segmentals are the basic inventory of distinctive sounds and the way that they combine to form a spoken language. In the case of North American English, this inventory is comprised of 40 phonemes (15 vowels and 25 consonants), which are the basic sounds that serve to distinguish words from one another. Pronunciation instruction has often concentrated on the mastery of segmental through discrimination and production of target sounds via drills consisting of minimal pairs like /bd/-/bt/ or /sIt/-/sît/.

Supra segmental transcend the level of individual sound production. They extend across segmental and are often produced unconsciously by native speakers. Since supra segmental elements provide crucial context and support (they determine meaning) for segmental production, they are assuming a more prominent place in pronunciation instruction (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Gilbert, 1990; Morley, 1991). Supra segmentals include the following:

Stress—a combination of length, loudness, and pitch applied to syllables in a word (e.g., Happy, FOOT ball); rhythm—the regular, patterned beat of stressed and unstressed syllables and pauses (e.g., with weak syllables in lower case and stressed syllables in upper case: they WANT to GO Later.); adjustments in connected speech—modifications of sounds within and between words in streams of speech (e.g., “ask him,” /skhIm/ becomes /skIm/); prominence—speaker’s act of highlighting words to emphasize meaning or intent (e.g., Give me the BLUE one. (not the yellow one); and intonation—the rising and falling of voice pitch across phrases and sentences (e.g., Are you ready ?).



### **2.8.1 A lesson on word stress, based on this framework, might look like the following**

1. The teacher presents a list of vocabulary items from the current lesson, employing both correct and incorrect word stress. After discussing the words and eliciting (if appropriate) learners' opinions on which are the correct versions, the concept of word stress is introduced and modeled.
2. Learners listen for and identify stressed syllables, using sequences of nonsense syllables of varying lengths (e.g., da-DA, da-da-DA-da).
3. Learners go back to the list of vocabulary items from step one and, in unison, indicate the correct stress patterns of each word by clapping, emphasizing the stressed syllables  
with louder claps. New words can be added to the list for continued practice if necessary.
4. In pairs, learners take turns reading a scripted dialogue. As one learner speaks, the other marks the stress patterns on a printed copy. Learners provide one another with feedback on their production and discrimination.
5. Learners make oral presentations to the class on topics related to their current lesson.

Included in the assessment criteria for the activity are correct production and evidence of self-monitoring of word stress.

In addition to careful planning, teachers must be responsive to learners needs and explore a variety of methods to help learners comprehend pronunciation features.

Useful exercises include the following:

Have learners touch their throats to feel vibration or no vibration in sound production, to understand voicing.

Have learners use mirrors to see placement of tongue and lips or shape of the mouth.

Have learners use kazoos to provide reinforcement of intonation patterns .

Have learners stretch rubber bands to illustrate lengths of vowels.

Provide visual or auditory associations for a sound (a buzzing bee demonstrates the pronunciation of /z/).

Ask learners to hold up fingers to indicate numbers of syllables in words.

### Creating a Positive Environment for Speaking Skills

The key to encouraging speaking skills in the classroom is creating the proper environment. Children should feel relaxed, and social interaction with peers should be encouraged. One teacher of fourth grade suggests these goals:

1 - To speak clearly with proper pronunciation in order to communicate with others .

2 - To speak expressively with feeling and emotion and avoid the monotone .

3 - To speak effectively in different situations: with individuals, small groups, and the whole class.

4 - To utilize speaking in all the communication arts and content areas to further learning.

5 - To achieve these goals, the teacher organized her instructional program around two criteria: a positive, receptive teacher attitude and a physical environment conducive to language use.

### **2.8.2 Correct pronunciation role in developing speaking skill**

Pronunciation instruction tends to be linked to the instructional method being used (Celce- Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). In the grammar-translation method of the past, pronunciation was almost irrelevant and therefore seldom taught. In the audio-lingual method, learners spent hours in the language lab listening to and repeating sounds and sound combinations. With the emergence of more holistic, communicative methods and approaches to ESL instruction, pronunciation is addressed within the context of real communication (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Morley, 1991).

### **2.8.3 The importance of pronunciation learning and teaching on learner's improvement of speaking skills in large classes**

The most important part of learning a second language rests on pronunciation (Pennington, 1996) thus speaking is so important in acquiring and using a language ( Dan , 2006 ). Dan claims that language competence covers many aspects . Phonetics both in theory and practice constitute the basis of speaking above all other aspects of language and pronunciation is the foundation of speaking.

Good pronunciation may make the communication easier, more relaxed and more useful. Within the field of language teaching, ideas on the value of teaching pronunciation are often at variance. Some believe that teachers can do little to influence the natural course of English phonological development with it, often less than satisfactory results. Arguments against the explicit teaching of pronunciation rely on two basic assumptions about the acquisition of second language phonology (Jones, 2002).

Firstly it is virtually impossible for adults to acquire native like pronunciation in a foreign language (Burrill,1985). This is supported by Elliot (1995), Guiora, Brannon, and Dull (1972),Major (1987),and Oyama (1976)pointing out that factors such as age , personality,cognitive style and native language phonology have been shown at best useless and at worst detrimental.

Others believe that teaching can play an important role in helping learners develop ways of improving their pronunciation and shaping their attitudes toward the importance of pronunciation (Richards & Renandya,2002). The usefulness of teaching pronunciation is also a widely debated subject

in the language teaching context . Fraser ( 1999 ) concluded that most ESL teachers agree that explicit pronunciation teaching is an essential part of language courses and confidence with pronunciation allows learners to interact with native speakers , which are essential for all aspects of their linguistic development.

The field of development research indicates that teachers can make a noticeable difference if certain criteria, such as the teaching of supra segmentals and the linking of pronunciation with listening practice, are fulfilled. Pronunciation instruction has tended to be linked to the instructional method being used. Pronunciation was almost irrelevant and therefore seldom taught in the grammar translation method. With the emergence of more holistic, communicative methods and approaches to ESL instruction, pronunciation is addressed within the context of real communication (Celce Murcia, Brinto & Goodwin, 1996; Morley, 1991). It is effective pronunciation teaching that offers learners a genuine choice in how they express themselves (Fraser, 1999). Carter and Nunan ( 2001) describe the complexity of the process of second language acquisition as an organic rather than linear process and students need to start pronunciation lessons early and continue through high level Academic English levels.

In addition, pronunciation teaching methods should more fully address the issues of motivation and exposure by creating awareness of the importance of pronunciation and providing more exposure to input from native speakers (Jones, 2002).

Pronunciation is the foundation of speaking . English , both written and spoken, has been accepted as the dominant means of communication for

most of the world but some misunderstandings have been caused by inappropriate pronunciation (Yong, 2004). Poor pronunciation can condemn learners to less social, academic and work advancement than they deserved (Fraser, 1999, 2000).

Good pronunciation may make the communication easier and more relaxed and thus more successful ( Dan , 2006 ). Almost all learners rate pronunciation as a priority and an area in which they need more guidance (Willing, 1993; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1997). Although the study of foreign accents has always been a fascination for some researchers , the teaching of pronunciation and oral skills in general in foreign and second language , classroom has often been low on the list of priorities (Peterson , 2000 ). Gilbert (1994:38) claims that:Pronunciation has been some things of an orphan in English programs around the world .Why has pronunciation been a poor relation? I think it is because the subject has been drilled to death, with too few results from too much effort.

Most of the literature on pronunciation deals with what and how to teach , while the learner remains a silent abstract in the classroom.

Morley(1994) underlines that the prevalent focus on pronunciation teaching nowadays should be on designing new wave instructional programs.

More over she stresses that these instructional designs should take in to account not only language forms and functions , but also issues learners of learner self. Involvement and learner strategy training. In other words ,students who have developed the skills to monitor and modify their speech patterns if necessary should become active partners in their own learning . Yule, Hoffman and Damico (1987) assert that self-monitoring is critical for creating independent and competent learners and is a necessary part of the consciousness raising process. Finally, expansion activities are made

for students to incorporate the language in their own use ( Harmer , 2001 ; CelceMurcia, 1991; RichardAmato, 1988; Krashen, 1987).

Kriedler (1989) states that correct and clear pronunciation are considerably important in language learning. Without them, learners may not be understood and may be poorly perceived by other English speakers. They need to have confidence in their ability to speak. Good pronunciation takes time to build up, as there are many factors involved.

Learners need to hear a lot of English before they can develop a feel for the sounds of English. The learners become more confident and motivated in learning the language because of the teaching aids and materials such as tape recordings of native speakers, pictures of mouth and articulations used in the class along with the provision of positive reinforcement ( Phinit-Akson , 2002; Quilter, 2002 ; Estrada& Streiff, 2002; Wu, 2002; and Jay, 1966).

Pronunciation is a very important factor in the speech process (spoken language) when the speaker achieves the goal to communicate effectively by being understood. The speech process is a process that involves several stages, beginning with the speaker's ideas and ending with the understanding of those ideas by the listener (Dauer, 1993).

Dauer (1993:8) states that the speaker thinks, decides what he or she is going to say and puts the ideas into words and sentences of a particular language. The speaker's brain then transforms the words and sentences into nerve impulses that it sends to the muscles in the speech organs.

The speaker's speech organs move, the lungs push air up through the larynx and into the mouth and nose. The air is shaped by the tongue and lips and comes out of the speaker's mouth as sound waves.

The sound travels through the air. Sometimes, the sound is changed into electrical signals, as in a telephone or tape recorder, and then is changed

back in to sound waves by an electronic speaker.

The listener hears the sounds when the sound waves hit his or her ear. The ear changes the sound waves into nerve impulses and sends them to the brain. The listener understands the message. The listener's brain identifies specific speech sounds, interprets them as words and sentences of a particular language, and figures out their meaning.

The importance of good pronunciation starts from the process of the speech organs move (pronunciation) which is related to the proficiency of the speakers until the sounds travels through the air.

Factors influencing pronunciation mastery research has contributed some important factors that can influence the learning and teaching of pronunciation skills. Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, (1996), Gillette (1994), Graham (1994) and Pennington (1994) discuss the following factors.

Age. The debate over the impact of age on language acquisition and specifically pronunciation is varied. Some researchers argue that, after puberty, lateralization (the assigning of linguistic functions to the different brain hemispheres) is completed, and adults' ability to distinguish and produce native-like sounds is more limited. Others refer to the existence of sensitive periods when various aspects of language acquisition occur, or to adults' need to re-adjust existing neural networks to accommodate new sounds. Most researchers, however, agree that adults find pronunciation

more difficult than children do and that they probably will not achieve native-like pronunciation.

Yet experiences with language learning and the ability to self-monitor, which come with age, can offset these limitations to some degree. Amount and type of prior pronunciation instruction. Prior experiences with pronunciation instruction may influence learners' success with current efforts. Learners at higher language proficiency levels may have developed habitual, systematic pronunciation errors that must be identified and addressed.

Aptitude. Individual capacity for learning languages has been debated. Some researchers believe all learners have the same capacity to learn a second language because they have learned a first language. Others assert that the ability to recognize and internalize foreign sounds may be unequally developed in different learners.

#### **2.8.4 Learner attitudes and motivation**

Nonlinguistic factors related to an individual's personality and learning goals can influence achievement in pronunciation. Attitude toward the target language, culture, and native speakers; degree of acculturation (including exposure to and use of the target language); personal identity issues; and motivation for learning can all support or impede pronunciation skills development.

Native language. Most researchers agree that the learner's first language influences the pronunciation of the target language and is a significant factor in accounting for foreign accents.

So-called interference or negative transfer from the first language is likely to cause errors in aspiration, intonation, and rhythm in the target language.

The pronunciation of any one learner might be affected by a combination of these factors. The key is to be aware of their existence so that they may be considered in creating realistic and effective pronunciation goals and development plans for the learners. For example, native-like pronunciation is not likely to be a realistic goal for older learners a learner who is a native speaker of a tonal language, such as Vietnamese, will need assistance with different pronunciation features than will a native Spanish speaker; and a twenty-three year old engineer who knows he will be more respected and possibly promoted if his pronunciation improves is likely to be responsive to direct pronunciation instruction.



## 2.8.5 Language Features Involved in Pronunciation

Two groups of features are involved in pronunciation: segmentals and supra segmentals. Segmentals are the basic inventory of distinctive sounds and the way that they combine to form a spoken language. In the case of North American English, this inventory is comprised of 40 phonemes (15 vowels and 25 consonants), which are the basic sounds that serve to distinguish words from one another. Pronunciation instruction has often concentrated on the mastery of segmental through discrimination and production of target sounds via drills consisting of minimal pairs like /b-d/-/b-t/ or /sIt/-/sît/.

Supra segmental transcend the level of individual sound production. They extend across segmental and are often produced unconsciously by native speakers. Since supra segmental elements provide crucial context and support (they determine meaning) for segmental production, they are assuming a more prominent place in pronunciation instruction (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Gilbert, 1990; Morley, 1991). Supra segmentals include the following:

stress—a combination of length, loudness, and pitch applied to syllables in a word (e.g., Happy, FOOTball); rhythm—the regular, patterned beat of stressed and unstressed syllables and pauses (e.g., with weak syllables in lower case and stressed syllables in upper case: they WANT to GO Later.); adjustments in connected speech—modifications of sounds within and between words in streams of speech (e.g., “ask him,” /sk hIm/ becomes / s kIm/); prominence speaker’s act of highlighting words to emphasize meaning or intent(e.g., Give me the BLUE one. (not the yellow one); and intonation—the rising and falling of voice pitch across phrases and sentences (e.g., Are you REAdy?).

## **2.8.6 Incorporating Pronunciation in the Curriculum**

In general, programs should start by establishing long range oral communication goals and objectives that identify pronunciation needs as well as speech functions and the contexts in which they might occur (Morley, 1998). These goals and objectives should be realistic, aiming for functional intelligibility (ability to make oneself relatively easily understood), functional communicability (ability to meet the communication needs one faces), and enhanced self-confidence in use (Gillette, 1994; Jordan, 1992; Morley, 1998). They should result from a careful analysis and description of the learners' needs (Jordan, 1992; Morley, 1998). This analysis should then be used to support selection and sequencing of the pronunciation information and skills for each sub-group or proficiency level within the larger learner group (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996).

To determine the level of emphasis to be placed on pronunciation within the curriculum, Programs need to consider certain variables specific to their contexts.

The learners (ages, educational backgrounds, experiences with pronunciation instruction, motivations, general English proficiency levels) the instructional setting (academic, workplace, English for specific purposes, literacy, conversation, family literacy) institutional variables (teachers' instructional and educational experiences, focus of curriculum, availability of pronunciation materials, class size, availability of equipment) linguistic variables (learners' native languages, diversity or lack of diversity of native languages within the group) methodological variables (method or approach embraced by the program).

Incorporating Pronunciation in Instruction Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996) propose a framework that supports a communicative- cognitive approach to teaching pronunciation. Preceded by a planning stage to identify learners' needs, pedagogical priorities, and teachers' readiness to teach pronunciation, the

framework for the teaching stage of the framework offers a structure for creating effective pronunciation lessons and activities on the sound system and other features of North American English pronunciation.

Description and analysis of the pronunciation feature to be targeted (raises learner awareness of the specific feature) listening discrimination activities (learners listen for and practice recognizing the targeted feature) controlled practice and feedback (support learner production of the feature in a controlled context) guided practice and feedback (offer structured communication exercises in which learners can produce and monitor for the targeted feature) communicative practice and feedback (provides opportunities for the learner to focus on content but also get feedback on where specific pronunciation instruction is needed).

A lesson on word stress, based on this framework, might look like the following:

1. The teacher presents a list of vocabulary items from the current lesson, employing both correct and incorrect word stress. After discussing the words and eliciting (if appropriate) learners' opinions on which are the correct versions, the concept of word stress is introduced and modeled.
2. Learners listen for and identify stressed syllables, using sequences of nonsense syllables of varying lengths (e.g., da-DA, da-da-DA-da).
3. Learners go back to the list of vocabulary items from step one and, in unison, indicate the correct stress patterns of each word by clapping, emphasizing the stressed syllables with louder claps. New words can be added to the list for continued practice if necessary.
4. In pairs, learners take turns reading a scripted dialogue. As one learner speaks, the other marks the stress patterns on a printed copy. Learners provide one another with feedback on their production and discrimination.
5. Learners make oral presentations to the class on topics related to their current lesson.

Included in the assessment criteria for the activity are correct production and evidence of self-monitoring of word stress.

In addition to careful planning, teachers must be responsive to learners needs and explore a variety of methods to help learners comprehend pronunciation features.

Useful exercises include the following:

Have learners touch their throats to feel vibration or no vibration in sound production, to understand voicing.

Have learners use mirrors to see placement of tongue and lips or shape of the mouth.

Have learners use kazoos to provide reinforcement of intonation patterns .

Have learners stretch rubber bands to illustrate lengths of vowels.

Provide visual or auditory associations for a sound (a buzzing bee demonstrates the pronunciation of /z/).

Ask learners to hold up fingers to indicate numbers of syllables in words.

## **2.9 Theory of Speaking**

The aim of the part concerning theoretical background of speaking will be to determine the position of speaking skill among the other skills and to analyze the elements that speaking as a skill includes. The following part will present the theory of communicative competence and its relation to speaking, primarily based on Lyle F. Bachman's (1994) theoretical inputs.

Finally, activities in which speaking skills can be developed will be dealt with by drawing upon William Littlewood's (1991) typology of activities. 1.1. Speaking – Bygate vs. Harmer . Almost entire libraries have been written on speaking, however space provided here does not allow to cover all the theories and notes in this work. peaking, together with writing, belongs among productive skills. (Harmer, 2001) Gower at al.(1995, 99-100) note down that from the communicative point of view, speaking has many different aspects including two

major categories – accuracy, involving the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation practiced through controlled and guided activities; and, fluency, considered to be ‘the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously’. This is, however, rather a superficial view of this skill..For the purpose of the thesis, I have decided to draw upon the theories provided by Jeremy Harmer, . The Practice of English Teaching (2001), and, more importantly, Martin Bygate, Speaking (1987), whose theoretical inputs concerning the elements of speaking will be analyzed and their views compared.

### **1- Bygate’s theory**

According to Bygate (1987, 3), in order to achieve a communicative goal through speaking, there are two aspects to be considered –knowledge of the language, and skill in using this knowledge. It is not enough to possess a certain amount of knowledge, but a speaker of the language should be able to use this knowledge in different situations.

We do not merely know how to assemble sentences in the abstract: we have to produce them and adopt to the circumstances. This means making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly, and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in our path. (Bygate 1987, 3) .

Being able to decide what to say on the spot, saying it clearly and being flexible during a conversation as different situations come out is the ability to use the knowledge ‘in action’, which creates the second aspect of speaking – the skill, Bygate notes (p.4).

Bygate views the skill as comprising two components: production skills and interaction skills, both of which can be affected by two conditions: firstly, processing conditions, taking into consideration the fact that ‘a speech takes

place under the pressure of time'; secondly, reciprocity conditions connected with a mutual relationship between the interlocutors (Bygate87, 7).

The processing conditions (time pressure) in certain ways limit or modify the oral production; it means the use of production skills.

For that reason, speakers are forced to use devices which help them make the oral production possible or easier through 'facilitation', or enable them to change words they use in order to avoid or replace the difficult ones by means of 'compensation', Bygate says (p.14).

There are four elementary ways of facilitating that Bygate distinguishes: simplifying structures, ellipsis, formulaic expressions, and using fillers and hesitation devices. On the other hand, when a speaker needs to alter, correct or change what he or she has said, they will need to make use of compensation devices. These include tools such as substitution, rephrasing, reformulating, self-correction, false starts, and repetition and hesitation. Bygate concludes that incorporation of these features, facilitation and compensation, in the teaching-learning process is of a considerate importance, in order to help students' oral production and compensate for the problems they may face:

All these features [facilitation, compensation] may in fact help Learners to speak, and hence help them to learn to speak . . . In addition to helping learners to learn to speak, these features may also help learners to sound normal in their use of the foreign language. (Bygate 1987, 20-21)

Facilitation and compensation, both devices which help students make the oral production possible or easier, or help them to change, avoid or replace the difficult expressions, besides these elementary functions also help students to sound more naturally as speakers of a foreign language.

Interaction skills according to Bygate (1987, 22), both speakers and listeners, besides being good at processing spoken words should be 'good

communicators’, which means ‘good at saying what they want to say in a way which the listener finds understandable’. This means being able to possess interaction skills. Communication of meaning then depends on two kinds of skill: routines, and negotiation skills. To begin with, routines are the typical patterns in which speakers organize what they have to communicate. There are two kinds of routines: information routines, and interaction routines. The information routines include frequently recurring types of information structures involved in, for example, stories, descriptions, comparisons, or instructions. Bygate further divides information routines according to their function into evaluative routines (explanations, predictions, justifications, preferences, decisions), and expository routines (narration, descriptions, instructions). The interaction routines, on the other hand, present the characteristic ways, in which interactions are organized dealing with the logical organization and order of the parts of conversation. Interaction routines can typically be observed in, for example, telephone conversations, interviews, or conversations at the party. (Bygate 1987, 23-27) .While routines present the typical patterns of conversation, negotiation skills, on the other hand, solve communication problems and enable the speaker and listener to make themselves clearly understood. In fact, according to Bygate, negotiation skills get routines through by the management of interaction and negotiation of meaning.

The first aspect of negotiation skills ‘management of interaction’, Bygate notes, refers to ‘the business of agreeing who is going to speak next, and what he or she is going to talk about’ (p.27). These are two aspects of management of interaction that Bygate distinguishes: agenda of management and turn-taking. On one hand, participants’ choice of the topic, how it is developed, its length, the beginning or the end is controlled by the agenda of management. On the other hand, effective turn-taking requires five abilities: how to signal that one wants to speak, recognizing the right moment to get a turn, how to use

appropriate turn structure in order to one's turn properly and not to lose it before finishing what one has to say, recognizing other people's signals of their desire to speak, and, finally, knowing how to let someone else have a turn. (Bygate 1987, 35-40).

The second aspect of negotiation skills - 'the skill of communicating ideas clearly and signaling understanding or misunderstanding during a conversation' - is referred to as negotiation of meaning (p.27). There are two factors that ensure understanding during oral communications, according to Bygate; they are: the level of explicitness and procedures of negotiation. (Bygate 1987, 29). The level of explicitness refers to the choice of expressions with regard to interlocutors' knowledge. As regards the procedures of negotiation, i.e. how specific speakers are in what they say, this aspect of negotiation of meaning involves the use of paraphrases, metaphors, on the use of vocabulary varying the degree of precisions with which we communicate. (Bygate 1987, 29-34).

To sum it up, there are two basic aspects that Bygate distinguishes when considering the skill of speaking. These include the knowledge of the language and the skill in using this knowledge. The knowledge of producing the language has to be used in different circumstances as they appear during a conversation by means of the skill. The ability to use the knowledge requires two kinds of skills, according to Bygate – production skills, and interaction skills.

Production skills involve two aspects – facilitation and compensation, brought about by processing conditions. Both devices help students, besides making the oral production easier or possible, sound more naturally. Interaction skills, on the other hand, involve routines and negotiation skills. Routines present the typical patterns of conversation including interaction and information routines. Negotiation skills serve as a means for enabling the speaker and listener to make themselves clearly understood. This is achieved by two aspects: management of interaction and turn-taking.



## **2- Harmer's theory**

Harmer (2001), when discussing the elements of speaking that are necessary for fluent oral production, distinguishes between two aspects – knowledge of ‘language features’, and the ability to process information on the spot, it means ‘mental/social processing’. The first aspect, language features, necessary for spoken production involves, according to Harmer, the following features: connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language. For a clearer view of what the individual features include, here is a brief overview:

Connected speech – conveying fluent connected speech including assimilation, elision, linking ‘r’, contractions and stress patterning – weakened sounds);- expressive devices – pitch, stress, speed, volume, physical – non-verbal means for conveying meanings (super segmental features);- lexis and grammar – supplying common lexical phrases for different functions (agreeing, disagreeing, expressing shock, surprise ,approval, etc.);- negotiation language – in order to seek clarification and to show the structure of what we are saying.(Harmer 2001, 269-270).

In order to wage a successful language interaction, it is necessary to realize the use of the language features through mental/social processing – with the help of ‘the rapid processing skills’, as Harmer calls them (p.271). ‘Mental/social processing’ includes three features– language processing, interacting with others, and on-the-spot information processing. Aga in, to give a clearer view of what these features include, here is a brief summary:- language processing – processing the language in the head and putting it into coherent order, which requires the need for comprehensibility and convey of meaning (retrieval of words and phrases from memory, assembling them into syntactically and proportionally appropriate sequences);- interacting with others – including

listening, understanding of how the other participants are feeling, a knowledge of how linguistically to take turns or allow others to do so;- on-the-spot information processing – i.e. processing the information the listener is told the moment he/she gets it.(Harmer 2001, 271).

From Harmer's point of view the ability to wage oral communication, it is necessary that the participant possesses knowledge of language features, and the ability to process information and language on the spot. Language features involve four areas – connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language. Supposing the speaker possesses these language features, processing skills, 'mental/social processing', will help him or her to achieve successful communication goal. Processing skills include these features – language processing, interacting with others, and on-the-spot information processing.

The both Bygate and Harmer agree that for a speaker, in order to be able to wage a successful fluent oral production, it is necessary to possess knowledge of the language and skill in using this knowledge.

Harmer and Bygate approach the speaking from the viewpoint of a skill that involves several elements to be considered during language teaching. Harmer makes a distinction between knowledge of language features (skills) and the ability to process information and language on the spot via mental/social processing. According to Bygate, the skill of speaking involves production skills and interaction skills. While Harmer includes under the term language features connected speech, expressive devices, knowledge of lexis and grammar, and negotiation language; Bygate, on the other hand, distinguishes between two devices that are involved in production skills – facilitation and compensation.

The second group of skills that Harmer distinguishes includes rapid processing skills that help speakers process the information and language on the spot. These involve language processing, interacting with others and on-the-spot information

processing. Bygate, on the other hand, recognizes the term interaction skills and involves here routines, the typical patterns for organizing utterances, and negotiation skills that realize these routines through management of interaction and negotiation of meaning so that understanding and thus communicative goal is achieved. The first chapter was devoted to an analysis of the elements that speaking involves. Next chapter aims at viewing the skill of speaking in relation to communicative competence.

## **2.10 Speaking in Relation to Communicative Competence**

Beginning with Noam Chomsky (1967) and his distinction between competence - ‘a speaker’s intuitive knowledge of the rules of his native language’, and performance - ‘what he actually produces by applying these rules’, the theory of communicative competence has gone through a serious development so far (Revell, 1991:4).

Brown (1994) refers to several theories of communicative competence as they developed through periods of time, of which the most notable ones include the studies by Hymes (1967, 1972), Savignon (1983), Cummins (1979, 1980), or Canale and Swain (1980). Nevertheless , as Brown suggests, the newest views are probably best captured by Lyle F. Bachman (1990) in his schematization of what Bachman calls ‘language competence’. (Brown 1994, 227-229).

For the purpose of the research, I drew upon Lyle F. Bachman’s *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing* (1994).

As a useful source of information for helping with the interpretation of Bachman’s framework of communicative competence, I made use of Douglas H. Brown’s *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (1994).

According to Bachman (1994, 84), communicative competence, ‘communicative language ability’ (CLA), comprises two basic features – firstly,

knowledge, competence in the language, and, secondly, the capacity for implementing or using the competence. Bachman proposes three components that in his view communicative language ability' framework includes, they are: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanisms.

While language competence is a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language, strategic competence is the term that Bachman uses to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use; the third component, psycho physiological mechanisms present the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon. (Bachman 1994, 84).

Bachman divides language competence into two categories: organizational and pragmatic competence .Organizational competence, further splitting into grammatical and textual competence, presents those abilities involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognizing grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content, and ordering them to form texts. (Bachman 1994, 87).

Grammatical competence includes the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology and graphology all of which govern, according to Bachman, the choice of words to express specific significations, their forms, arrangements in utterance, to express propositions, and their physical realization. Textual competence, on the other hand, includes the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together to form a text structured according to rules of cohesion and rhetorical organization, Bachman (Bachman 1994, 87-88).

According to Brown (1994, 229), what Bachman proposes here is a group of rules and systems that 'dictate' what a communication can do with the forms of

language, whether they are sentence-level rules (grammar) or rules which control how, for example, spoken ‘string’ of sentences together (discourse).

Both competences than, in relation to oral production, provide devices for creating cohesive relationships in oral discourse and organizing such discourse in ways that are ‘maximally efficient in achieving the communicative goals of the interlocutors’, Bachman concludes (p.89).

The second category of language competence that Bachman distinguishes, pragmatic competence, also splits into two further competences – illocutionary competence, and sociolinguistic competence. Both competences concern ‘the relationship between utterances and the acts of functions that speakers . . . intend to perform through these utterances’ (p.89).

While illocutionary competence deals with the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions (ideational, heuristic, manipulative, imaginative), sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing these language functions in a given context with regard to the sensitivity to dialect or variety , register, naturalness, and cultural references and figures of speech. (Bachman 1994, 92-98) .

Brown interprets illocutionary competence as functional aspects ‘pertaining to sending and receiving intended meanings’ while sociolinguistic aspects of pragmatic competence relate to ‘such considerations as politeness, formality, metaphor, register, and culturally related aspects of language’ (p.229).

## **2.11 Communicative Language Teaching and Speaking Activities**

As Brown (1994) describes, it has been the philosophy of communicative language teaching (CLT) for many years to teach foreign languages through communicative approach which focuses ‘on speaking and listening skills, on

writing for specific communicative purposes, and on authentic reading texts' (p.226).

The most important features of CLT then Brown defines by means of four characteristics:

Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence;

2) Language techniques are designed to engage learners

in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes.

Organizational language forms Doff (1991, 141) confirms that learners feel secure within the group where they create a part of a whole. There is a real chance that learners who would never say anything in a whole-class activity participate at least partially during the group work.

Ur (1991) agrees that group work provides some learners with confidence and courage: 'students who are shy of saying something in front of the whole class, or to the teacher, often find it much easier to express themselves in front of a small group of their peers' (p.7).

Another point taken by methodologists concerns the amount of learners' participation and mutual co-operation among learners during activities carried out in groups.

Richards and Lockhart (1999, 153) say that group work is likely to increase the amount of student participation in the class and promote collaboration among learners; furthermore, learners are given a more active role in learning, teacher's dominance over the class decreases, while the opportunities for individual student practice of new features of the target language increase.

Doff agrees and claims that group work is likely to create such conditions, in which learners help each other and are encouraged to share their ideas and knowledge. (1991, 141) .

Harmer (1992), and Richards and Lockhart (1999) also discuss allocating learners to groups according to their level of knowledge – mixed ability groups

and shared ability groups. Harmer assumes that learners working in mixed ability groups will both benefit from the arrangement. He admits that weaker learners may be overpowered by stronger learners; but, at the same time, Harmer claims that stronger learners will not be unnecessarily hindered 'from getting the maximum benefit from the activity' (p.246).

Brown and Yule (1991) justify the opinion of grouping learners into mixed level groups.

## **2.12 The main reason in sharing the possessed knowledge by an advanced learners in large classes**

The opportunities for practice, if teacher is the only 'senior' conversationalist available, are obviously limited. It seems likely that any serious attempt at practicing spoken English would involve mixing learners at different levels for conversation practice, so that students in large classes would take the senior role in a conversation and support the weak students. (Brown and Yule 1991, 32). On the other hand, same ability groups provide some space for sharing the knowledge and interests on the learners same level claims Harmer.(1992, 246).

Next area of focus that methodologists consider is a suitable number of learners within a group. Methodologists have not set a definite number, 'magic number', but range the number of learners per group between four and seven. (Harmer 2001, 75) Byrne (1991, 75) suggests that the number of learners range from four to eight learners per group. The actual number should consequently depend on the particular activities.

Richards and Lockhart agree that the 'optimum size' depends on the kind of activity learners are working on, and add: 'If the group is too large, student

interaction is affected; only a few students may participate, the others remaining silent or passive' (p.153).

Harmer confirms Richards and Lockhart's words and claims that the border line might be established on number seven, because 'groups of more than seven can be unmanageable'. (Harmer 1992, 246).

To sum it up, when considering the specifics of group work, methodologists discuss the settlement of students within the groups as flexible or fixed. Ur, for example, recommends that teachers set up fixed or at least semi-permanent groups that are likely to prevent some problems connected with their creating and consequent misbehavior. Group work tends to support cooperative learning, and may give confidence and courage to shy students when handling the target language. Still, methodologists do not provide a concrete number of learners that a group should include.

### **2.13 Pair work**

To begin with, Byrne (1991) divides pair work into three kinds: 'open pairs', 'fixed pairs', and 'flexible pairs'. During 'open' pair work, learners talk to one another across the class under the teacher's control. While working in 'fixed pairs', learners work with the same partner in order to complete a task (for example, dialogue). Finally, working in 'flexible' pairs presupposes that learners keep changing their partners (for example, interviewing other classmates).

On the other hand, Doff (1991), to compare with, distinguishes between 'simultaneous pair work' and 'public' or 'open' pair work and defines both kinds of pair work as follows:

In pair work, the teacher divides the whole class into pairs. Every student works with his or her partner, and all the pairs work at the same time (it is sometimes called 'simultaneous pair work') . . . this is not the same as 'public' or 'open'



pair work, with pairs of students speaking in turn in front of the class. (Doff 1991, 137).

Similarly as with group work, Harmer (1992, 224) claims that pair work increases the amount of learners' practice, encourages co-operation, which is important for the atmosphere of the class and for the motivation it gives to learning with others, and enables learners to help each other to use and learn the language. In addition, the teacher is able to act as an assessor, prompter or resource, Harmer believes.

Byrne (1991) adds that pair work facilitates learners' independence; and, moreover, sees pair work as an interaction similar to real-life language use: they [learners] can face and talk directly to one another, so it is much closer to the way we [people] use language outside the classroom. (Byrne 1991, 31).

The problem concerning noise and indiscipline during pair work depends, according to Harmer, on the task set by the teacher and teachers attitude during the activity. (1992,244).

However, Ur (1991) strongly disagrees with the claim that the choice of activity influences the discipline and noise in the classroom and shifts the problem onto the teacher's personality: As regards discipline: this basically depends on the personality of the teacher, her class, and the relationship between them, not on the type of activity. (Ur 1991, 8).

In addition to noise, Doff (1991) provides some interesting comments. Doff claims that noise is a side effect of the group work (and pair work) and 'cannot be helped'. He points out that 'usually the students themselves are not disturbed by the noise', and adds that "the noise created by pair work and group work is usually 'good' noise – students using English, or engaged in a learning task" (p.141-2).

Another frequently discussed problem concerns the use of learners' mother tongue. While conducting communicative activities, Byrne (1991) believes that

learners' use of mother tongue is a natural factor of group and pair work activities: 'Of course the students will sometimes start to use their mother tongue to express an idea - especially if they get excited' (p.34).

Harmer (1992) adds that it is pointless if learners do not use the target language for the communicative activity, however, for example, comparing answers to reading comprehension questions or vocabulary-matching exercise should not make teachers unnecessarily restless. Harmer claims that learners in such a case concentrate on the language in question and adds that 'if a bit of their own language helps them [learners] to do this in a relaxed way that is all to the good' (p.247). Harmer emphasises that it is important that learners know that teacher's attitude depends on the activity, otherwise they will not be able to recognize the reasons and the moments when teachers are insisting solely on the target language.

The problematic concerning the use of mother tongue, it means how to avoid its use and how to support the use of the target language will further be considered in the following part ,specifically, as one of the focus areas of 'during-activity stage'.

Similarly to group work, methodologists distinguish between several kinds of pair work, Byrne, for example, describes open, fixed, and flexible pairs, while Doff divides pair work into simultaneous and public or open pair work. Pair work is believed to encourage students cooperation and presupposes that teachers will have to take on several roles while using this organizational form. In addition, noise and the use of mother tongue have been discussed in relation to pair work often presenting inevitable drawbacks that teachers have to tackle.

It has been the aim of the second part of the theoretical section to introduce the specifics of the three most frequently discussed organizational forms – whole-class teaching, group work, and pair work. All of the organizational forms have their advantages and disadvantages, and their specifics may positively or

negatively influence the achievement of communicative goal set for an activity. Nevertheless, bearing on mind the theoretical inputs concerning the different organizational forms, all of them are an inseparable aspect for conducting activities focusing on the development of speaking.

It is the aim of the last part of the theoretical section to discuss the aspects concerning the organization of activities focused on the development of speaking skills.

which discusses attitudes towards mother tongue use in the classroom, and actions that can be taken to promote the use of English will be included in this stage.

### **1- Pre-activity stage .**

The first stage, pre-activity stage, includes two focus areas: engage-instruct-initiate sequence, and grouping students. First area concerns engagement of students, it means the techniques for drawing attention or involving students, providing students with instructions and initiating students to start the activity. The second area deals with setting students into groups, providing this is required by the nature of the activity.

### **2- Engage-instruct-initiate sequence**

For the majority of theoreticians, for example Gower et al.(1995), Scrivener (1994), or Parrot (1993), the primary aspect when dealing with the theory of instructions is their clarity, economical structure, logical order, and comprehension check. In relation to problem behavior, Penny Ur (1996), I think clearly explains how instructions should be conducted:

Problems sometimes arise to student uncertainty about what they are supposed to be doing. Instructions, though they take up a very small proportion of lesson time, are crucial. The necessary information needs to be communicated clearly

and quickly, courteously but assertively: this is precisely what the task involves, these are possible options, those are not.(Ur 1996, 264).

To begin with, there is an ‘engage-instruct-initiate sequence’ that Harmer (2001, 59) proposes for the beginning phase of an activity. Firstly, engagement, according to Harmer, means “making it clear that something ‘new’ is going to happen”. As regards giving instructions, this involves a number of aspects that need to be considered for achieving the maximal effectivity of activities, consequently the development of speaking skills.

Firstly, the use of language (mother tongue or target language) that is used for providing instructions will be considered. It is basically agreed, for example Ur (1991) and Byrne (1991), that explaining instructions in mother tongue is acceptable especially with classes whose knowledge of the target language is not on a sufficient level yet. The aim is primarily to find ‘a more accessible and cost effective alternative to sometimes lengthy and difficult target-language explanations’ (Ur 1996, 17). Parrot(1993, 109) thinks that instructions should be given in both languages, but at the same time is afraid that students may ‘switch off’ knowing that they will be repeated in their own language.

Secondly, there is a length of instructions. Optimal choice, according to Scrivener (1994) is based on sequencing instructions in a sensible order, using short sentences and avoiding or separating instructions clearly from ‘the other chit-chat, telling off, joking, etc.’ (p.98). All of these is necessary because as Ur (1991, 18) warns the concentration span of students is limited; and, therefore, the instructions should be clear and concise.

Furthermore, support for instructions, such as, visual clues, physical movement, aural input or gestures that the teacher makes need to be considered. Gowerat al.(1995, 41) propose that instructions should be supported with visual clues ‘whenever possible’, among which real objects, pictures, gestures and

mime or instructions written on the cards or pieces of paper are included. In addition, Atkinson (1993) notes that for giving concise instructions in English, techniques, such as gestures and mime play an important role in their comprehension. According to Ur (1996, 12), restatement of the main points or repeating is important for accurate perception of instructions.

The use of comprehension check on provided instructions is the last area that is frequently commented upon. Scrivener's (1994) words are I think more than clear about expressing the importance of comprehension check. Scrivener points out that 'even the clearest instructions' can be difficult to comprehend (p.17). Ur and Scrivener agree that checking comprehension by asking general questions such as 'do you understand?' is not satisfactory, because positive answers may carry different implications (shyness, nervousness, etc.) (Ur 1996, 17). It is therefore more appropriate to have students repeat, paraphrase or summarize instructions after the teacher. The best way, however, both Ur and Scrivener agree is demonstrating instructions. Gowerat al . (1995, 41), in addition, proposes different forms of demonstrating the instructions, for example, by the teacher herself, teacher and a chosen student, usually a stronger one, or by students themselves .

As a part of initiation, it is most appropriate to tell students how much time they have got and exactly when the students should start the activity. (Harmer, 2001:59) .

To sum it up, for the 'engage-instruct-initiate sequence', it is necessary to activate students by phrases offering a rationale for the activity together with paying a careful attention to providing instructions with a final time allocation . Instructions will be the aim of the practical section. For the purpose of the research, there will be four areas investigated. The aim will be focused on the use of language (target language, mother tongue, or combination of both

languages); the length of instructions (short, long); support for instructions, which based on the theoretical notes will include five categories: paralinguistic support (hand-gesture, eye-contact, body-movement, facial expressions); visual support (textbooks, objects for the use in the activity, and space for other forms of visual support); though written clues can be considered as visual support, I include them into a special form of support for instructions involving written clues prepared beforehand (on the cards, pieces of paper, etc.), written on the blackboard and other forms; and finally, repetition, paraphrasing or restatement of the main points as the last category of support for instructions. The last investigated area will include the use of comprehension check: using general questions (for example, Do you understand?; Ok?; All right?; or in Czech, Ano?; Rozumíte?, etc.); when students are asked to repeat, paraphrase or summarize instructions; lastly, demonstrating instructions as a form of comprehension check will be involved (teacher herself, teacher + student(s), and student(s) themselves).

### **Grouping students**

The second area of focus, I have included in the pre-activity stage concerns grouping students. There are different ways of grouping learners, it means dividing them into pairs or groups. To begin with, Harmer (2001 120-122) suggests four basic ways - friendship, streaming, chance, and changing groups. The first method provides enough space for students to choose their friends and thus create groups. On the other hand, streaming method assumes that students will be divided into groups according to their abilities, thus creating the same ability groups or mixed ability groups. Counting out avoids the ability differentiation within groups, this method Harmer calls 'chance'. Finally, changing groups presupposes that students keep changing while the activity continues. Frederick Klippel (1991, 9-10) when considering grouping students for communicative activities, particularly discussions, describes some main types

such as buzz groups, hearing, fishbowl, network, onion, star, market, opinion vote, or forced contribution.

What both Klippel and Harmer suggest is a couple of theoretical methods for dividing students into groups or pairs, which will inevitably in many cases require students' change of positions.

Byrne (1991, 32-33), on the other hand, prefers as little students' movement as possible, suggesting that it is reasonable, taking into consideration a time factor influenced by moving students and frequency of the use of pair work and group work, to make use of the existing classroom arrangement. Byrne advises to get students to work with a neighbor or neighbors and move students only if it is absolutely necessary. It is important for students to be able to form pairs and groups quickly and without any fuss, Byrne concludes.

Drawing upon my personal experience, I agree with Donn Byrne that it is important to give learners a very limited number of opportunities for moving around the classroom with relation to the process of dividing students to groups or pairs. Once allowing students to move around the classroom in order to form groups or pairs, it may be rather difficult to draw students' concentration back on the activity together with the time that is likely to be lost.

Therefore, the use of the existing arrangement seems to me to be the best solution.

### **3- During-activity stage**

The second stage, during-activity stage, will include three focus areas – the role of the teacher, providing feedback during the activity and the use of mother tongue. In this stage, I think it is important to focus the attention on teacher's attitude, consequently the role he or she takes during the activity Secondly, I

think it necessary to consider the feedback though some theories suggest postponing the actual feedback after the activity.

Finally, I have included the use of mother tongue, which is still a ‘hot’ topic especially when considering the use of communicative activities. Though this issue has already been discussed in relation to various organizational forms, in this part the aim will be to mention some of the didactic principles.

## **2.14 The role of the teacher**

The roles of the teacher can be categorized from several points of view, for example, according to the type of the activity, stage of the activity, or the interaction pattern selected for the particular activity. Nunan and Lamb (1996) point out that the roles that the teachers adopt are dynamic, not static, and are subject to change according to the psychological factors brought by the participants. (Nunan, Lamb, 1996:134) In addition, Byrne (1991) compares the teacher to an actor claiming that the teacher ‘will have to play different roles at different times’ (p.13).

Byrne (1991, 13) divides the roles of the teacher according to the type of interaction activity distinguishing between fluency and accuracy activities. During fluency activities the teacher most frequently adopts the roles of stimulator, manager and consultant, reminding that the main reason for taking part in such activities is to get students to interact, set up the activities and to be available for help and advice if students need and ask for it. On the other hand, the roles that the teacher carries out during accuracy activities will primarily include the roles of conductor, organizer and monitor. Teacher’ s main task will therefore be to make sure that the students know what to practice, and that they practice effectively, together with organizing the activities and checking while students are performing.



Based on the reflection of the students' behavior in the classroom. Nunan and Lamb (1996) grade the roles of the teacher from the most problematic, in terms of participants' roles and behaviour. They include the roles of: controller, entertainer, disciplinarian, and a developer of a sense of independence and responsibility.

The teacher continually establishing control, giving directions, threats and punishment, is labelled as 'controller'. Still noisy but positive atmosphere, where the teacher introduces games and recreational activities, or reading stories, shows the teacher as 'entertainer'.

The 'disciplinarian' establishes rules to be followed and is quick to notice any misbehavior; while the teacher who spends time by teaching, not requiring a close supervision and in case of noise providing only a simple reminder with effectivity, Nunan and Lamb label as 'developer of a sense of independence and responsibility'. (Nunan and Lamb 1996, 135-136).

In relation to fluency speaking activities, Harmer (2001, 275-276) mentions three basic roles that teachers take on including: prompter, participant, and feedback provider.

While taking the role of a prompter, the teacher offers discrete suggestions or lets students struggle out of a difficult situation (when students get lost, cannot think of what to say next, lose fluency), which can stop the sense of frustration when coming to a 'dead end' of language ideas. A teacher acting as a participant prompts covertly, introduces new information to help the activity along, ensures continuing students' engagement, and generally maintains a creative atmosphere. Harmer warns that when acting as a participant, the teacher should be careful not to participate too much, thus dominating the speaking and drawing all the attention to himself or herself.

Finally, feedback provider, Harmer says, may inhibit students and take the communicativeness out of the activity by over-correction; therefore, the

correction should be helpful and gentle getting students out of difficult misunderstanding and hesitations.

As regards the roles of the teacher, methodologists do not remain united in labeling the different roles that the teacher can take on when conducting activities focused on the development of speaking. There are several approaches to be taken when describing teacher's roles, e.g. according to its type, stage, interaction pattern or even behavior during activities as Nunan and Lamb present:

### **a- Providing feedback**

According to Richards and Lockhart (1999, 188), feedback on students' spoken language can be either positive or negative and may serve not only to let students know how well they have performed but also increase motivation and build a supportive climate.

Harmer (2001, 104) says that the decision about how to react to students' performance will depend upon the stage of the lesson, the activity, the type of mistake made, and the particular student who is making that mistake.

Different methodologists look at providing feedback from several aspects; most often, however, feedback is seen from the viewpoint of accuracy (form of the language used) and fluency (content of spoken production) activities.

To begin with, Richards and Lockhart (1999, 189) distinguish between the feedback on content, and feedback on form, suggesting strategies and decisions to be considered for both kinds. The strategies that Richards and Lockhart suggest for feedback on content include: acknowledging a correct answer, indicating an incorrect answer, praising, expanding or modifying a students' answer, repeating, summarizing, or criticizing.

On the other hand, feedback on form represents focusing on the accuracy of spoken production including decisions about 'whether learners' errors should be

corrected, which kinds of learner errors should be corrected, and how learner errors should be corrected' (p.189). Richards and Lockhart provide different ways for accomplishing feedback on form:

- 1- Asking the student to repeat what he or she said.
- 2- Pointing out the error and asking the student to self-correct.
- 3- Commanding on an error and explaining why it is wrong, without having the student repeat the correct form.
- 4- Asking another student to correct the error.
- 5- Using a gesture to indicate that an error has been made. (Richards and Lockhart 1999, 190).

Similarly, Byrne (1991, 35) describes providing feedback from the viewpoint of accuracy and fluency activities. During accuracy activities, Byrne notes down, the teacher may provide feedback immediately on how well or badly students have done, or make a note of mistakes and shift the feedback onto a future lesson. In addition, teacher should not forget that the students may want to ask some questions or say what they think of the activity.

On the other hand, when conducting a fluency activity, Byrne suggests that the teacher makes notes of anything serious and re teach it in another lesson and lets the students to take responsibility for what they are doing by not interfering. (Byrne 1991, 79) .

For the feedback provided during fluency work, according to Harmer (2001, 105), it is important that the teacher does not interrupting 'mid-flow', since it interrupts the communication and drags an activity back to the study of language form or precise meaning.

The techniques for correcting students during fluency work that Harmer suggests include gentle correction, such as prompting students forward, reformulating what a student has said, and recording mistakes with further analysis.

During accuracy work, according to Harmer, it is necessary to point out and correct the mistakes the students are making, but at the same time the correction should not be too intensive, because it can be just as unpleasant as during fluency work. Harmer goes on by suggesting several ways of correcting students during accuracy work, among which he includes showing in correctness by repeating, echoing, giving statement and question, making a facial expression, or hinting. (Harmer, 2001, 105-108).

Methodologists often distinguish between feedback on accuracy and fluency activities in relation to speaking, though sometimes differently labelled, for example, Richards and Lockhart make a distinction between the feedback provided on the content and form, while Harmer and Byrne describe feedback provided for accuracy and fluency activities. Nevertheless, most of the teaching specialists agree that providing feedback during spoken performance depends on several aspects, of which the most important are the type of activity and the kind of mistake that is made.

### **b- The use of mother tongue**

To begin with, Nunan and Lamb (1996, 98-100) note down that it is almost impossible to know how, when, and how frequently to use student's first language; however, agree that the first language use to give brief explanations of grammar and lexis, as well as for explaining procedures and routines, can greatly facilitate the management of learning.

Harmer (2001, 132) agrees with Nunan and Lamb pointing at the fact that it is not wise to stamp out the mother tongue use completely. Harmer thinks that such an approach will not work; and, what is more, it may discourage those students who feel the need for it at some stages. However, while doing an oral fluency activity, the use of language other than English makes the activity pointless, therefore, it should be a teacher's duty to try and insist on the use of the target

language. On the other hand, it is appropriate to be more relaxed about using the target language in other pedagogic situations, though the teacher should continue to encourage students to try to use it as often as possible. Teachers are a principal source of comprehensible input playing an important part in language acquisition, therefore, the teacher should speak in the target language as much as possible in the class, especially since if he or she does not, students will not see the need to use the target language either. At lower levels, the use of mother tongue may help both the teacher and students, such as in an explanation or discussion of methodology, or giving of announcements to communicate the meaning more easily. (Harmer 2001, 132).

In relation to mother tongue use, Byrne (1991,78) says that it is natural for students to use their mother tongue if they want to communicate, especially if they get too excited.

In addition to Byrne, Penny Ur (1996, 121) also tries to give reasons why students are liable to using the mother tongue claiming that it is easier to use the mother tongue, because it feels unnatural to speak to one in a foreign language, and because the students feel less ‘exposed’ if they are speaking their mother tongue. Ur concludes by admitting the fact that it can be uneasy to persuade some students ‘particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones’ to make use of the target language (p.121). In order to avoid students using their mother tongue, Harmer (2001) suggests several actions to promote the use of the target language.

Firstly, the teacher needs to ‘set clear guidelines’, making it straightforward when mother tongue is permissible and when it is not.

Secondly, it is important to ‘choose appropriate tasks’, i.e. tasks which the students, at their level, are capable of doing in the target language. Harmer points out that it is not wrong to ‘stretch’ students ‘with challenging activities which engage them, but it is clearly counter-productive to set them tasks they are

unable to perform' (p.133). Furthermore, it is advisable to create an English atmosphere. Harmer suggests giving students names in the target language and making English the classroom language as well as the language to be learnt. Using friendly encouragement persuasion might also play its role, such as going around to students and saying things like: 'Please, speak English!, Stop using Turkish/Arabic, etc.'(p.133).

In case these strategies do not work, Harmer suggests stopping the activity and telling students there is a problem, which might change the atmosphere so that students go back to the activity with a new determination. (Harmer 2001, 132-133) . Nevertheless, the best way to keep students speaking the target language is, Ur says, simply to be at students' hand as much as possible, reminding and modelling the language use because 'there is no substitute for nagging!' (p.122).

To sum it up, students' use of the first language often presents a difficult obstacle for many teachers, however, not in all cases this 'problem' has to be perceived as a drawback, as Harmer or Byrne suggest. The recent theories suggest that in certain phases, such as giving instructions or providing explanations, the mother tongue use may play an important role for a better communication between students and the teacher; on the other hand, where the language is the target point of learning, the mother tongue use should be avoided.

Concerning organizing activities focused on the development of speaking skills will include two focus areas that several methodologists, e.g. Ur (1991), Harmer (2001), Gowerat al.(1995), comment on when describing the ending phase of an activity: stopping the activity, and providing.

## **c- feedback after the activity**

### **Stopping the activity**

Before the actual process of bringing the activity to the end, however, some pairs or groups may finish earlier than others.

In such a case, it is important to be prepared and ‘have some way of dealing with the situation’, primarily, in order to show students ‘that they are not just being left to do nothing’ (Harmer 2001, 124-125). Ur (1996) agrees and emphasises that in any case ‘these reserve occupations should be ready to hand; and their preparation is an essential part of the lesson plan as a whole’ (p.22). Such extra work may include, for example, a further elaboration of the task, getting students to read their books, or asking students to get on with their homework. (Ur, 1996:22) Harmer also suggests that tired students may be told to relax for a bit while the others finish. (Harmer2001,124) .

As far as accuracy work is concerned, Byrne (1991, 34) suggests that the activity should not go on for too long giving an estimate for the appropriate length of the activity from three to five minutes. Nevertheless, stopping the fluency work, on the other hand, is dependent on the time that the teacher allocates for the activity, Byrne says.

Both for accuracy and fluency activities, it is not desirable to let the activities drag on nor give an opportunity for some students to get bored. (Byrne 1991, 79).

Ur (1991) notes down that it may be best to wait until all the groups have completed the task, however, sometimes this may take too long, and it is better to stop the last ones before they finish. Ur continues that sometimes, on the other hand, it is necessary to quit students’ work while they are all occupied, e.g. for the reason that the teacher wants to organize a ‘fruitful session’ (p.22). Ur believes, though this might not be the best thing to do, that this intervention will

leave students with a taste for more, and thus ‘heightened enthusiasm, or at least willingness’ (p.22).

Basically, in addition to time allocation, Ur agrees with Donn Byrne (1991) that time solves the problem of appropriate end of the activity, though this may also bring about some inappropriacy. However, students should be let to know in advance, in order to save protests and delays when the time comes. (Ur 1991, 22)

On the whole, Ur concludes that it is up to the teacher to be flexible and rely on common sense considering the end of an activity. From my limited practical experience, I prefer allocating the time limit for an activity before starting the activity, though not always remembering to do so, I admit. As Ur advises, in relation to extra activities, I agree that it is very important to have them ready at hand in order to make students busy not disturbing others, though, especially for beginning teachers this might be sometimes rather time consuming.

#### **d- Feedback after the activity**

Generally, in order to bring about self-awareness and improvement in students, Gower et al. (1995, 63) suggest that it is important to provide ‘positive feedback’, i.e. positive points to comment on, such as successful communication, accurate use of grammar points, use of vocabulary, appropriate expressions, good pronunciation, or expressive intonation, good use of fluency strategies in conversation, etc.

As an inseparable part of the feedback, Harmer(2001, 109) proposes getting students to express what they found easiest or most difficult.

Putting some of the recorded mistakes on the board, asking students to recognize the problems and putting them right should follow, Harmer notes down.

Similarly to feedback provided during activities, methodologists commonly draw a distinction between the feedback on accuracy and fluency activities, for example, Ur (1991), Harmer (2001).



To begin with, both Harmer (2001) and Gower et al. (1995) agree that it is not necessary to say which students made the mistake or error, but more importantly, focus on common ones, or ones in general interest, and provide students with individual notes and instructions on how to correct them, or where to find them (in dictionaries, grammar books, or on the Internet).

As regards the fluency activities, Gower et al. (p. 103) propose that the teacher should indicate how each person communicated, comment on how fluent each was, how well they argued as a group, and so on.

In addition, Harmer (2001, 124) suggests that it is also advisable to have a few pairs or groups quickly demonstrate the language they have been using with the teacher correcting it, if and when necessary.

Such a demonstration gives both the students and the rest of the class goal information for future learning and action, Harmer says. In case of discussing an issue or predicting the content of a reading text, it is important to encourage students to talk about their conclusions with the teacher and the rest of the class since by comparing the different solutions, ideas, and problems, everyone gets a greater understanding of the topic. What a feedback is and what form it should take, Ur (1991) describes as follows:

What the groups have done must then be displayed and related to in some way by teacher and class: assessed, criticized, admired, argued with, or even simply listened with interest! (Ur 199, 23) .

In relation to feedback on fluency activities, Penny Ur (1996, 23) distinguishes between three focus areas of feedback to be provided: on the result, on process, and on the language use. There are different approaches towards organizing the individual forms of feedback.

Firstly, the feedback on the result can be organized by, for example, giving the correct results, getting groups to assess their own success, trying to collate proposals and versions of outcomes, or comparing or displaying conclusions. The feedback on process, on the other hand, it means on the organization and performance of, for example, debate, requires more etc.

## **2.15 Speaking Skills - Strategies and Activities**

Most oral language instruction takes place indirectly; that is, the teacher creates the positive climate and the motivational activity, and the students do the rest.

### **1- Conversation and Discussion:**

The teacher seeks to engage students in talk with other children in a relaxed atmosphere. Socialization skills as well as language are enhanced when students engage in conversations and discussions.

Conversation is informal, spontaneous, and relatively unstructured. Discussion is more formal and usually topic-centered talk. It focuses on a specific topic or purpose. Both are similar in that they build on the student's home-learned experiences and serve to give practice in pronunciation, fluency, expression, and vocabulary. They also help children build confidence to express themselves orally.

### **Here are some classroom guidelines:**

- a- Speak loud enough to be heard in your group but not so loud as to disturb others.
- b- Only one person speaks at a time.
- c- While one person is speaking, the other members of the group must actively listen to the speaker.

- d- No one insults or offends any other member of the group.
- e- To practice conversation, a teacher could schedule several “talking times” each week. During these times, several students get in
- f- a circle and talk about whatever interests them. This is the “inner circle.” Sitting around them in the “outer circle” are the rest of the students who listen and observe. At the next “talking time” groups are switched.

In the discussion strategy, sticking to the point is essential. The goal of a discussion is to reach a conclusion or solve a problem. Before starting the discussion, the topic should be clearly defined and understood by everyone. Usually, it is stated in the form of a question (Should children have to do chores to earn an allowance?). Great discussion topics come from literature, school events or problems, experiences, current news, etc. Students discuss the topic and try to reach some sort of consensus. Other types of discussions are panel discussions and debates.

For transactional literature discussions, the following six steps are a good guideline for students:

- a- Get ready. Skim the book for topics to discuss, using pictures, chapter names, etc. Make oral predictions and test the reasons for each prediction.
- b- Read and stop to think aloud. The teacher models what he or she is thinking as the group reads in order for students to learn how to think about the text as they read.
- c- Write a response. Time is given to students to write short responses to the reading on Post-its. These are self-selected responses, not responses to a set of teacher-directed questions.
- d- Engage in a discussion. Students spend 15 to 30 minutes discussing their responses using the RQL2 strategy (Respond about likes or dislikes;

Question aspects of the story they did not understand; Listen to classmates; Link story to one's life).

- e- Write. Based on the discussion, students are given time to write in their journals.
- f- Review. As a group, the students review what they learned about human nature, about things in nature, about themselves, or about any concepts in the reading.

## **2- Brainstorming:**

One of the best ways to generate a number of ideas in a short amount of time is through the brainstorming strategy. Brainstorming helps to stretch a student's imagination, encourages group cooperation, and leads to creative thinking through spontaneous contributions by all group members. Key principles of brainstorming include the following:

- 1- Select a problem or topic and react to it quickly.
- 2- Designate one person in the group as the recorder of ideas.
- 3- Accept and record all ideas or suggestions.
- 4- Build on other people's ideas.
- 5- Do not criticize anyone else's ideas.
- 6- Remember that, initially, quantity of ideas is more important than quality.

Many teachers are familiar with brainstorming but do not utilize it effectively or frequently enough. Plan to make the brainstorming strategy part of your teaching practices. Model the process for students:

- 1- Begin with a whole-class brainstorming session where each student records his or her own ideas.
- 2- Provide a problem question as a stimulus and a time limit to eliminate frivolous ideas and daydreaming.

- 3- When time is called, let each student share his or her list. Second, open up the brainstorming session to everyone.
- 4- The teacher records the ideas for the whole class at the chalkboard to model the role of the recorder.
- 5- You may begin to evaluate some of the ideas in terms of their effectiveness in solving the initial problem .

### **3- Interviewing:**

Most information students gather for school projects comes from traditional sources like the encyclopedia or internet. Students need to learn that another way of gathering information is through interviewing, or asking someone for information or opinions.

Donald Graves recommends teaching young children about interviewing by having them poll their fellow classmates for information. In this simple polling technique, students choose a different interview or polling question to ask their classmates each day. (Which is your favorite meal—breakfast, lunch, or dinner? What is your favorite color?) After polling, a bar chart could be made to show the results of the survey.

Most students are familiar with interviews because of the many that are shown on television. You could show models of good interviews and analyze them as a class. Good interviewers keep in mind the following points:

- 1- Gather background information on the subject.
- 2- Learn something about the interviewee (person being interviewed).
- 3- Decide ahead of time on the information desired.
- 4- Formulate appropriate questions.
- 5- Anticipate follow-up questions based on the interviewee's responses.
- 6- Determine how to begin and end the interview politely.

Interviewing is an important strategy for gathering information and conducting research on many topics. However, you must eventually tie interviewing to real projects so that students can see a relevance to the research they are doing. Here are two group projects that make interviewing authentic:

1. **Creating a Newscast:** The focus for this project is on fluent, distinct speaking so that each speaker is clearly understood. The teacher divides the students into groups. Each group researches its assigned segment of the news (local news, national news, weather, sports, etc.). Then the group collaboratively writes a script for its segment. Students practice so that their newscast is clear and fluent. It's important that each member of the group has a speaking part. If the teacher can videotape each segment, the class can analyze the whole newscast together.

2. **Campaigning:** Students learn the power of oral persuasion through campaigning for a change within the school. Students can divide into teams to write and create a campaign slogan and a 30-second campaign advertisement for the change. Students should practice the advertisement so that it is clear and fluent. The teacher then videotapes each one and plays them for the class. They can be analyzed to determine why they are persuasive. It's important in critiquing for students to first name one or two things they really liked about the ad and why, and then to suggest one or two things the group could do to make it even better.

#### **4 - Dialogue Improvisation and Patterned Conversation:**

In dialogue improvisation, students create new dialogue for the characters in a familiar story as they act out a part of the story.

In patterned conversation, the teacher chooses literature with predictable texts. Students can use puppets or props to help them become one of the characters. They use the pattern-phrases from the text to retell the story . . . or to take it in new directions.

## **5- Show-and-Tell & Sharing:**

These are the oldest and most popular oral language activities used in the primary grades. Generally the activity is a brief talk by a student describing a favorite object brought from home. Although it is familiar and widely used, it is not a particularly effective oral language activity. This is because it traditionally involves one child at a time getting up in front of the rest of the class. The rest of the students are expected to listen attentively. To make show-and-tell a truly meaningful activity, divide the students into small groups. Then set aside time a few mornings a week for show-and-tell.

To teach the strategy, bring something from your own home that is meaningful to you. Show it to a small group of children and talk about it. Allow the children to handle the object and to ask you questions about it. In this way, they learn how to conduct the small-group show-and-tell activity in which everyone gets a chance to talk and share about his or her object. Small groups are also less intimidating to young children.

Another way to make this oral language activity truly meaningful is to ask caregivers to help their child prepare for show-and-tell. The topic could be based on an experience or a small item found on a nature hike instead of an expensive toy. As children become more and more familiar with this activity, their presentations improve and their talks are more organized.

## **6- Drama and Oral Language Development**

Television has made us a nation of spectators. The current craze for video games has intensified this situation. It is more important than ever that we make opportunities available for children to experience participation in the arts. Drama is truly one of the great oral communication forms.

Drama can take many forms in the classroom, from the simple dress-up play of preschoolers to full-blown theatrical productions with costumes, scenery, and memorized scripts. Whatever the form, the objectives of drama in the classroom **remain the same:**

1- to encourage creative and aesthetic development .

2- to improve children's abilities to think critically .

to create an environment in which social and cooperative skills flourish .

to improve the general communication skills of students .

to enhance the individual child's knowledge of self .

### **7- Pantomime:**

Pantomime is the art of conveying ideas without words and incorporates gestures and expressions. It is more like theater acting in the sense that an entire story can be told through the movements of the characters. Props and simple costumes can be used, but no speaking is allowed.

In preparing for their skit, students plan and talk among themselves. They choose parts; decide on the movements they will use to convey their story; and make simple props, signs or costumes, if necessary. This aspect of the preparation involves verbal communication. But once the group gets onstage (the front of the class), no talking is allowed. This is the real challenge of pantomime.

Another kind of group pantomime skit can be based on a familiar story that the class has heard or read.

### **8- Choral Speaking:**

There are several kinds of choral speaking activities to choose from:

1- Antiphonal or dialogue: Poems with two parts or a question-and-answer format are appropriate here. Often the deep voices take one part while the



light voices take the other. This usually means the dialogue takes place between a group of girls and a group of boys.

- 2- Line-a-group or line-a-child: In this approach, individuals or small groups read one line of a poem at a time. They work to keep in harmony and tempo.
- 3- Refrain: Narrative poems with a chorus are good candidates for refrain. A teacher or student can recite the story, with the other children in the class joining in on the chorus.
- 4- Unison: Although unison speaking appears simple, it really requires skill for the students to keep together. Since everyone speaks every line, the rhythm and timing have to be perfect. Almost every poem is appropriate for unison speaking.
- 5- Cumulative speaking: One speaker begins, with other speakers, one by one, joining the first speaker. This type of speaking helps the student who may be nervous or shy in front of classmates to gain confidence by speaking with others.

You may want to start choral speaking by just repeating some favorite poems to the children and having them join in with you. With longer poems, you may want the students to have copies of the text for reference. One pitfall you need to guard against is allowing this activity to become merely a test of oral fluency. The true goal is to help children understand the meaning of poems and to interpret that meaning through oral expression.

## **9- Storytelling:**

Storytelling is one of the oldest forms of entertainment. It was the television and radio of long ago. Today the art of storytelling has been revitalized in the United States. Professional storytellers are appearing at festivals (like Weber State's Storytelling Festival in November!), in concerts, and in elementary and secondary classrooms to share their art form. Teaching children to tell stories to

their classmates is one of the most effective ways to develop speaking skills in young children.

To teach storytelling to children, it is not necessary to be a great storyteller yourself. It is helpful, however, if you can demonstrate to children some of the characteristics of an effective storyteller. A good storyteller should do the following things:

- Select a story that he or she really enjoys and that is appropriate for the audience.
- Be thoroughly familiar with the story; memorize only key phrases, not the entire story.
- Be imaginative and include gestures and facial expressions to convey meaning.
- Speak with expression, feeling, and emotion.
- Look directly at the audience; gaze about so that everyone feels involved in the story.

After you have demonstrated storytelling techniques, divide your class into small groups and have students practice telling stories to one another. Storytelling is an art form that develops through practice. When ready, the children can share their stories with the entire class. Here are some activities to involve students in the art of storytelling:

- a- **Talk boxes:** Provide the group with three boxes containing index cards. The cards in the first box contain brief descriptions of characters. Those in the second box contain brief plot descriptions, and those in the third box contain descriptions of settings. Each child in the group chooses one card from each box. They should study their cards for a few minutes and then make up a story that incorporates the character, plot, and setting listed.
- b- **Story boxes:** Teachers place a variety of objects into a box or large bag. Each child closes her or his eyes, reaches into the box or bag, and pulls out one object. After the children examine the object and think about it for a

while, they should each make up a story that includes the object in some manner.

- c- **Wordless books:** A wordless book tells a story through pictures alone. While turning the pages slowly, the “reader” adds the narration and dialogue to create a complete story with beginning, middle, and end. Once students see the wordless book strategy modeled by the teacher, they quickly pick up on it and begin telling stories themselves.
- d- **Liar’s goblet:** Most children are familiar with tall tales (Paul Bunyan, Pecos Bill, etc.). They love to expand on and embellish their own adventures. This activity builds on the idea of a the tall tale and on children’s enjoyment of exaggeration. It can be taught in the form of a game. First, you need a goblet (a cup, glass, or mug will do). One person in the group takes the liar’s goblet and makes up a short but exaggerated tall tale. The next person in the group takes the goblet and says, “That’s nothing; why I remember . . . .” Each student tries to top the previous story; each story, though different, grows more exaggerated.
- e- **Serial stories:** This storytelling activity is based on a game that many students are familiar with. One person, usually the teacher or designated group leader, begins a story. At any point, the person stops and the next person in the group continues the story.

A variation on this activity utilizes a ball of yarn. When the first storyteller stops, he or she tosses the yarn to any other person in the group while still holding on to his or her section of yarn. The next person then continues the story. The ball of yarn is tossed back and forth, making a web design. Finally, one person tosses the ball of yarn back to the person who originally began the story; this is the signal that the story is about to end. The final storyteller concludes by say, “And that’s the end of this yarn.

- f- Chalk or draw-along stories: In this activity, the storyteller begins the tale by drawing a circle or line on the board. As the story continues, the teller adds more details to the drawing. Eventually, when the story is completed, there is a finished drawing on the chalkboard. To teach this activity, draw and tell the entire story to a small group of children. When the students have learned the story and the picture drawing, they can tell it to another group of children who have not heard it yet.
- g- New versions and new endings: Another storytelling activity involves changing elements in the story plot and/or altering the endings of familiar stories. It works particularly well with folktales and fairy tales. To start this activity, read a number of different versions of the same story to your students. For example, you could read a traditional story of the Three Little Pigs and then read Jon Scieska's book *The True Story of the Three Little Pigs*.

## **10- Puppetry and Storytelling:**

Like storytelling, puppets and masks have traditionally been associated with oral dramatic presentations. Like so many oral activities, creating the proper environment is the essential ingredient to a successful puppetry experience. Begin by creating a simple puppet stage in one corner of your classroom. This could be as easy as draping an ordinary table with an old tablecloth or with colored butcher-block paper. You could also cut out the bottom of a large cardboard box, cover the box with colored paper, and make a simple cloth curtain to hang over the front. Once your puppet stage is in order, the students will naturally gravitate toward it.

The next step is to gather some simple materials for creating easy-to-make puppets. Literally any scrap material can be used in the construction of puppets. Here are several kinds of puppets that students can make:

- 1- **Sock puppets:** Have each child bring an old sock from home. Demonstrate that by placing your hand inside the sock—your fingers in the toe, your thumb in the heel—you can make the puppet come alive simply by opening and closing your hand. Next add cloth, felt, buttons, beads, yarn, and so on to make the eyes, mouth, nose, and ears. Additional material can be added to extend over the puppeteer's arm.
- 2- **Finger puppets:** The simplest way to make a finger puppet is with an old glove. On each finger, draw, color, or paint facial features of different characters. You can add bits of yarn, sequins, or buttons. Each finger should contain a face with a different expression or look. In this way, you have large groups of tiny character puppets that can talk back and forth.
- 3- **Paper-bag puppets:** Paper-bag puppets are easy and inexpensive. Depending on the size of the paper bag used, you can create all types of puppets. Large bags (never plastic!) can be placed over children's heads and worn as full masks. Holes for eyes, nose, and mouth can be cut and the bags decorated with crayons or other materials. Smaller paper bags lend themselves as hand puppets.
- 4- **Stick-and-ball puppets:** With a wooden dowel, tongue depressor, or bent coat hanger plus a plastic foam ball or old tennis ball, you can teach children to construct a stick-and-ball puppet. First cover the ball with felt or cloth and draw in the facial features. Then decorate with string, small buttons, and so on. Next insert the stick to support the head. (With a tennis ball, you have to cut a small hole to insert the stick.) Finally, cover the stick with a loose cloth, decorated to form a distinctive costume for your puppet. Insert your hand beneath the cloth and grasp the stick. Your puppet is ready.

5- Shadow puppets: To create a shadow puppet, you will use stiff cardboard or oak tag. Cut your puppet shape from the flat pattern in profile because only this outline is seen by the audience. Intricate facial features are not necessary; the unique characteristics of the puppet come from the cut outline. Next, attach the cutout to a stick to be held by the student puppeteer. The unique effect created by the shadow puppet depends on the special stage that you create by stretching a sheet of translucent cloth tightly in a frame. Stand behind the frame and place a bright light behind the puppet and the screen. The audience sees a dark silhouette or shadow against the light screen.

### **11- Improvisation:**

In improvisation, the dialogue of the various characters is improvised by the actors as the story unfolds; however, an improvisation is not totally unplanned. Generally the story is known in advance, and the actors alter the dialogue as they see fit. In improvisation, unlike theater acting, a script does not have to be memorized. However, simple props, costumes, and even scenery can be used, and students enjoy creating these in class.

### **12- Readers Theater:**

This is another form of dramatic presentation that increases children's comprehension of literature as well as develops oral language. Readers theater is a presentation by two or more participants who read from scripts and interpret a literary work in such a way that the audience imaginatively senses characterizations, setting and action. Vocal intonation and facial expressions can also be used to enhance the quality of the presentation. A narrator is often used to direct the various reader-actors on and off the stage and to communicate scene changes to the audience.

Children's literature is a treasure chest of material to use with readers theater. Adapting the book to create a script entails a lot of conversation and collaboration. Sometimes creating an entertaining script calls for adding new dialogue and new scenes, utilizing students' imaginations and sense of story.

### **13- Theater Acting:**

Theater Acting includes many of the previously described oral language activities. It also adds perhaps the most difficult aspect of acting: the memorization of a script. It is recommended that theater acting come after students are already familiar with the other forms of oral expression. A school play or program should be part of the learning process that leads children to a greater appreciation of literature. It builds confidence in oral communication abilities and enhances social growth, including cooperative learning skills.

To introduce theater acting it is best to begin with discussion. Talk about the work to be performed. Encourage children to make suggestions and decisions about characters, the setting, the staging, and so on. Then improvise the play or story until everyone has a sense of the action, the movement of characters, and the overall theme of the play. Do not be afraid to revise lines, to change parts, or to recast characters.

Theater acting represents the culmination of a dramatics unit. It brings together and integrates listening, speaking, reading and writing skills like no other single activity. It gives students a heightened awareness of the power of literature to evoke emotions from an audience. It engages youngsters in critical thinking and discussion. However, choosing to do a full-scale play production in your class means a commitment of time and energy. You cannot squeeze it between spelling tests, worksheets and basal reader lessons. The sacrifices you make, however, are balanced by the excitement, enthusiasm, and genuine learning that takes place when students discover their talents as actors.

## **14- Shadowing a Tape or a CD**

Many textbooks for young learners offer shorter texts written as comics, introducing characters learners can relate to and through which they get to know the language, the culture and the people of a certain country. Instead of simply following the text (with books either open or closed), I often divide the class into various parts or teams (e.g. A and B, depending on the number of roles in the comics) and then the learners read with the tape. Choral reading has always proved a lot of fun and children are excellent at imitating, thus producing brilliant copies of the original. Do not forget to change roles after the text has been read a few times. Further on, as you see learners getting familiar with the topic and vocabulary, make them work in pairs. If they want to, they can also perform in front of the class – keep in mind that at an early age they are mostly extroverts and love showing off their English. However, there may be students who are terrified of being exposed, some are in the so-called silent phase – never force these students to speak in front of the whole class. Instead, give them some other role – e.g. they "act" as a ringing phone in the comics, appear as the voice of a dog or the like. I can tell from my own experience that this does bring results and eventually also these students come out of their shell and express themselves in English. Needless to say, each and every attempt should be accompanied by our approval and appraisal, the same being the case with other speaking activities the learners are involved into. Do encourage them constantly as this builds their motivation and self-awareness.

A slow progression from choral shadowing to smaller-group shadowing and finally to pair-work is advisable as students gain confidence through each stage and providing them with a lot of opportunities widens our chances of success in trying to provide a stimulating environment for all – the courageous and the shy ones.



## **15- Learning the Dialogues**

Textbooks are usually filled with situation dialogues, helping the students learn language in real-life situations, therefore offering them the tool which opens many doors to various subjects. But learning these dialogues by heart is a definite no-no. It is much better and far more useful to substitute the words so that they are true to students and their world. Thus each student uses his/her own variation, there is an obvious transition from pure imitation to conscious changing, which speeds up remembering and offers varied communicative opportunities. By imitating, sharing and discussing students benefit – modeling, understanding and picking it up seem to be natural. Through imitating, interacting and internalizing the process is later on understood explicitly on a higher level, by practising social phrases in everyday situations the learners are building a basis on top of which new information is to be added from lesson to lesson. Note: with young learners, grammatical points should be taught implicitly only, after they are 11 and up, the explicit approach can be used as well.

## **16- Songs, Poems, Rhymes and Chants**

Throughout our English lessons students are learning to speak, express ideas, share opinions and exchange information. Using songs, poems, rhymes and chants is a wonderful way of making students sing/talk and at the same time (unconsciously) work at their grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation. Try to include the above-mentioned activities by providing learners with those that require total physical response, shortly known as "TPR". Year by year, children get highly enthusiastic about songs like: "Row, Row, Row Your Boat" and "Head, Shoulders, Knees and Toes") where (excessive) body movements are required. Confidence and motivation are built through the process. Sometimes new lyrics can be added to traditional songs, making things a bit different and

out of the expected. e.g. "Row, row, row your boat" can easily be changed into "Fly, fly, fly your plane" the movements change accordingly and so does the rest of the lyrics. It is basically the teachers' call what and how to change the song, and it is always welcomed by the learners. After telling them the new lyrics is your own invention, maybe they can try and come up with another version as a part of their home assignment (trust me: even parents get involved in the process and the list of newly written songs has become endless and a true inspiration when a bit bored with the originals). Note: There never seems to be enough of the TPR-based activities in class – they are a great tool in satisfying different learner types: visual, aural and kinesthetic (the so-called VAK distinction), further expanding positive opportunities for the varied classroom.

## **2.17 Previous studies**

A lot of studies that written in the area of the obstacles facing teachers in teaching large classes , will be introduced in this section , however the researcher selects some of them .

The first study was conducted by McLeod (1989). He collected data by questionnaire from 113 teachers in tertiary education from Japan, Nigeria and other African countries. The questions concerned problems teachers might encounter from teaching in large classes i.e. problems of individual learners, physical constraints, quality of marking and control, learning and teaching, and classroom interaction.

The results reveal that 43.3% of the subjects thought they might have might have problems of effective teaching which concerns the process of teaching and learning. 33% of them revealed that it required effort to teach in in large classes. Affective factor was another face that the 23.7% of the subjects were concerned with.

Another study under the same project was undertaken by Coleman (1989). Similarly to McLoed, he found that English teachers in Nigeria who taught in classes of 100-200 students encountered a wide range of difficulties in teaching. These concerned relationships with students, control of the class and assessment. The subjects reported positively that with the class size at an ideal level they could work more comfortably and easily. This indicates that teachers preferred to teach in a small class with an ideal size as they did not need to struggle and face the difficult circumstances of teaching in large classes.

Peachey (1989) also studied teachers' perceptions of ideal class size and the problems they might find when teaching in large classes. The study was undertaken in South Africa. Similarly to McLoed and Coleman, teachers found teaching in large classes problematic.

1 - Mohammed Suleiman Al amarat 2008 " The classroom problems faced teachers of the public schools in Tafila province , and proposed solutions " , faculty of education , Tafila technical university , Tafila , Jordan .

The purpose of this study was aimed to investigate the classroom problems faced school teachers in Tafila province and proposed solutions for the academic year 2008 . The community of this study was all teachers working in Tafila province and they were 2400 male and female teachers . The sample of the study consisted of 240 male and female teachers which formed 10% of the total number of community . The sample selected randomly from all the schools in the Directorate . The researcher adopted questionnaire in collecting data .

The findings of the research were the lack of educational facilities such as equipments and one of the most serious factors facing component of the educational process such as parents , teachers , educational administrators and supervisors .

2- Abdullah Ibrahim Ali ( 2006 ) "The effects of English language teaching methods used in crescent texts books on achievement of Qatar preparatory class pupils in Qatar " . M.A un published , faculty of education , Omdurman Islamic University .

The aims of this study were to evaluate the crescent texts books - first pre class students in Qatar . It also to know the effect of method of teaching the crescent books on the achievement pre- class students . The researcher used teachers – students questionnaire descriptive and statistical analysis .

The evaluation scales are for the teachers and another for students were developed and validated through a pilot study . The teachers scales contained ( 69 ) items covering eleven of good texts books . The pupil's scale consisted of ( items ) . The sample of the study consisted of ( 120 ) pupils , ( 60 ) males and ( 60 ) females . The sample also included ( 138 ) supervisors and teachers . The results of this study revealed that the main score of experimental group is greater than the control group . The researcher found that the short dialogue , the teaching aids and the colorful pictures help the pupils to communicate easily and directly . The study also showed that there are statistical significant differences between the responses of male and female pupil's interaction is greater among female .

3- Ibrahim Mohammed Hussein ( 2000 ) "Language skills and their teaching methods in intermediate schools in Somalia " . Faculty of education , University of Khartoum . The study aims to specify the treatment of weakness level among pupils in languages skills listening , verbal expressions , ( speech ) reading , and writing . The study presented language skills and the methods of teaching of non-Arabic speakers . The study used interview , student's questionnaire , the pre-test and post-test and observation. Also the study displayed grammar , translation method , direct method and audio lingual method . The sample of the study were the pupils in intermediate schools in Somalia .

4- Jatin R Gamit " A study of the problems faced by English language teachers of Gujarati medium secondary schools of Vadodara city " . PhD , faculty of education , and psychology , University of Vadodara ( India ) .

The study aims to :

- 1- Using text books and other resources and materials .
- 2- Using methods , approaches and techniques in teaching English and teachers training .
- 3- Developing communication skills .

The researcher used a questionnaire for collecting data . The sample of the study was the teachers of English selected from the medium and secondary schools of Vadodara city . The results of the study were :

- 1 - Most of the teachers believed that the lessons and the word meaning provided in text books are as per the level of students .
- 2 - Most of the teachers feel difficulties like the recitation , explanation , and relating the context of poem to students .
- 3 - Most of the teachers have problems with unsuitable time and improper organization of programme .
- 4 - Most of the problems that facing teachers are the lack of using techniques .

## **2.17 Conclusion**

Teaching English in large classes is presently still not being preferred by most teachers. In other words, many teachers choose not to, but have to teach in large classes, because they take it for granted that many problems arise along with the increase in class size. However, from the literature of teaching in large classes and from the questionnaire and the teaching practice of the present author, there does exist rationality in the teaching in large classes. On the one hand, teaching in large classes can reasonably save human and material resources to ease the problems caused by the lack of teaching staff and

equipment and classrooms etc. On the other hand, many renovations in teaching methodologies can be applied to large classes teaching just as well as to small classes. The large size of a class should not be an excuse of not improving on the traditional methods or not trying various other methods apart from the traditional ones. In fact, not all students, including teachers in China are against the learning and teaching in large classes. So long as the teachers know the characteristics of the teaching in large classes, and adjust what and how they teach accordingly, they can make their teaching just as effective.

# **Chapter Three**

## **Research Methodology**

## **Chapter Three**

### **Research Methodology**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to give a precise picture to what has been done by the researcher; concerning the methodology used to carry out the study, description of the sample, data gathering tool, the techniques which will be used for data analysis and tool validity and reliability.

#### **3.1 Procedures of designing a questionnaire and interview**

Since the researcher has started teaching English language in secondary schools he gained a lot of experiences that help him to design the statements of a questionnaire and interview which in obstacles faced by teachers in teaching large classes , also benefit a lot from literature review which supported researcher with a lot of information to design the questionnaire and interview . The statements of a questionnaire and interview showed to many referees who managed to check them .

The items of a questionnaire and interview gained reliability and validity by amendments from the referees which finally checked by the supervisor that led to the final improved and refined version of these instruments and procedures which were used to identify validity and reliability of the questionnaire and interview items .

A questionnaire which was distributed among (50) and interview was done through ( 60 ) English teachers from governmental secondary schools in Khartoum locality .

#### **3.2 Population and the Sample of the study**

The researcher prepared a short questionnaire to find out what attitudes the teachers towards the obstacles facing teachers in teaching large in developing



speaking skill . Therefore, the data have been collected from the English language teachers who have been working in governmental secondary schools. The sample of this study consists of ( 50) , while interview consist of ( 60) English teachers both male and female who are distributed around .

### **3.3 procedures of distributing and collecting the questionnaire**

The researcher distributed (60) questionnaire forms to the teachers of secondary schools . (57) forms were received back, but only (50) of them were suitable for analysis. This questionnaire was prepared to achieve the objectives of the study and to find out appropriate solution for the problem of the study.

A questionnaire consist of fourteen questions and interview consists of ten questions which are designed and distributed to the teachers of English language including both male and female to collect data and to achieve objectives of the study. Teachers could answer the questions in interview , but in a questionnaire teachers could choose one of five options which are: strongly agree, agree, not sure , strongly disagree and disagree (See appendix 1).

The data which was collected with a questionnaire and interview will be analyzed statistically. In addition, the descriptive statistic is used, too. The results of the analysis, the percentages table and figures will explain in detail in chapter four.

### **3.4 Tool , Validity and Reliability**

The questionnaire and interview are adopted for this study should be valid and reliable as a measuring criterion. Therefore, here the researcher aims to present both validity and reliability for both a questionnaire and interview .

### **3.5 Validity**

The questionnaire and interview were shown and emailed to three university lectures as referees. They examined the design, the content of questionnaire and

interview and made some modifications. Furthermore, they offered important comments and agreed with the items in a questionnaire and interview and their relationship with the research hypotheses.

### **3.6 Reliability**

There are several types of methods that can be used to estimate reliability of the items of a questionnaire and interview. For the questionnaire and interview used in this study, the researcher calculated the product moment correlation.

According to Cecco (1974: 463) the reliability of the questionnaire can be achieved by applying the following Formula :

$r$  = co-efficient of correlation

the sum of =  $\sum$

$x - m$  = differences between each score on x test and the mean

$n$  = the number of pair of scores

$S_x$  = the standard deviation of text x

$S_y$  = the standard deviation of text

The result shows that the items questionnaire and interview are reliable.

# **Chapter Four**

## **Data Analysis**

# **Chapter Four**

## **Data Analysis , Results , and Discussion**

### **Introduction**

Addresses the researcher in this chapter describes the method and procedures followed by the implementation of this study, including a description of the community school and appointed, and the method of preparation of its tool, and actions taken to ensure the validity and reliability, and the way it was done to implement it, the statistical and processors under which the data were analyzed and extract the results, as specifically, a description of the curriculum includes study section.

#### **4-1 Data Analysis of a questionnaire**

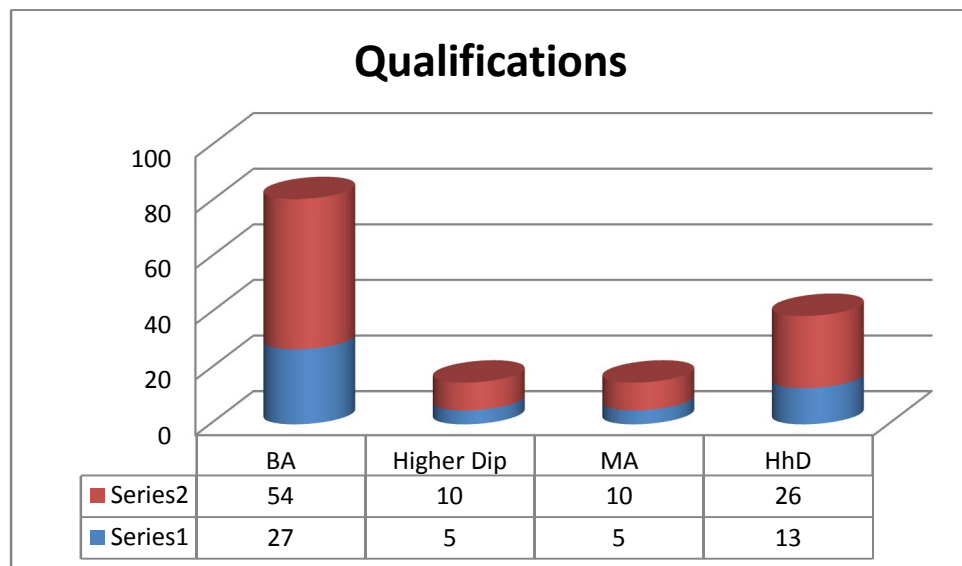
First, the community and the study sample Means the community college study group of elements that the researcher is seeking to circulate them related to the problem studied the results.

Teachers are original study of society and their number is made up (50) - 25 male and 25 female.

The study sample was selected at random from the study population, where the researcher distributed number (50) questionnaire , targeted to the teachers was part of the retrieval the questionnaire number (50) individuals representing (100%) to become almost their original study sample, where the returned questionnaires after filling in all the required information.

The table shows the number (1) and Figure (1) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Qualifications .

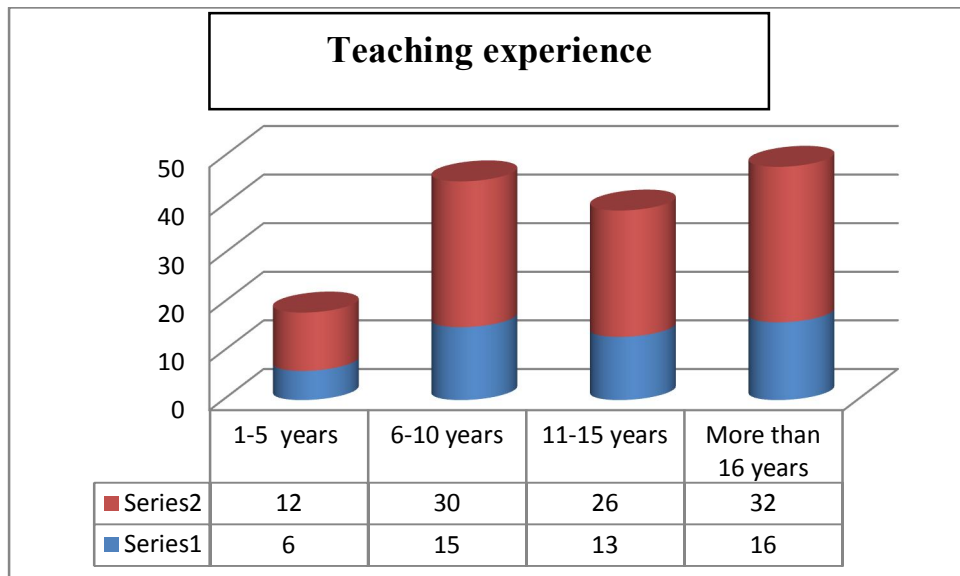
| Qualifications | No | %    |
|----------------|----|------|
| BA             | 27 | 54%  |
| Higher Dip     | 5  | 10%  |
| MA             | 5  | 10%  |
| PhD            | 13 | 26%  |
| Total          | 50 | 100% |



The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer BA the number of iterations reached (27) representing (%54) then Category (PhD) the number of iterations reached (13) representing (26) then Category (Higher Dip) and (MA) the number of iterations reached (5) representing (10) .

The table shows the number (2) and Figure (2) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Leaching experience

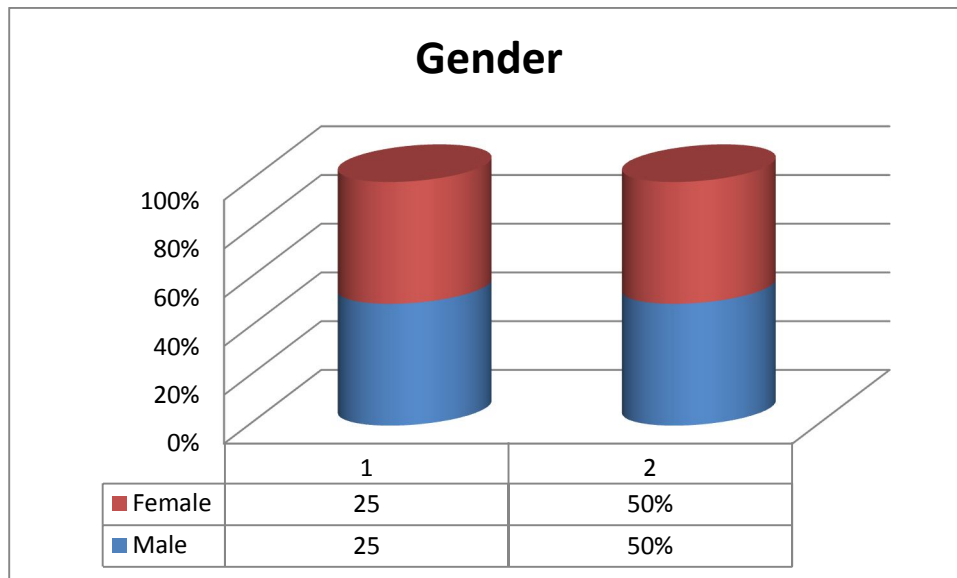
| Experience         | No | %    |
|--------------------|----|------|
| 1-5 years          | 6  | 12%  |
| 6-10 years         | 15 | 30%  |
| 11-15 years        | 13 | 26%  |
| More than 16 years | 16 | 32%  |
| Total              | 50 | 100% |



The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (More than 16 years) the number of iterations reached (16) representing (32%) then Category (6-10 years) the number of iterations reached (15) representing (30) then Category (11-15 years) the number of iterations reached (13) representing (26) then Category (1-5 years) the number of iterations reached (6) representing (12) .

The table shows the number (3) and Figure (3) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Gender .

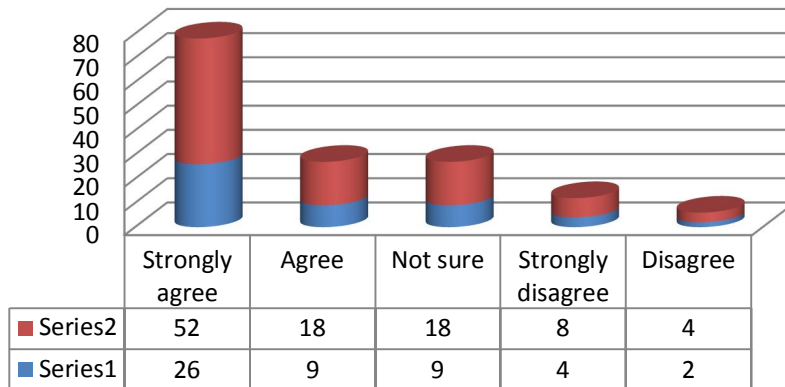
| Gender | No | %    |
|--------|----|------|
| Male   | 25 | 50%  |
| Female | 25 | 50%  |
| Total  | 50 | 100% |



1. The table shows the number (4) and Figure (4) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Eclectic approach can solve some obstacles such as classroom size .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 26 | 52%   |
| Agree             | 9  | 18%   |
| Not sure          | 9  | 18%   |
| Strongly disagree | 4  | 8%    |
| Disagree          | 2  | 4%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

### 1-It becomes very difficult to control a large class .



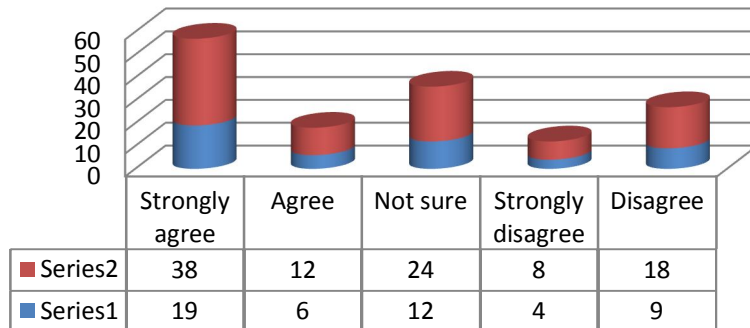
The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (26) representing (52%) then Category (Agree) and (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (9) representing (18) then Category (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (4) representing (8%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (2) representing (4%) This confirms that the It can be very difficult to control a large class .

The table shows the number (5) and Figure (5) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Large classes are not stand as a big barrier in developing speaking skill

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 19 | 38%   |
| Agree             | 6  | 12%   |
| Not sure          | 12 | 24%   |
| Strongly disagree | 4  | 8%    |
| Disagree          | 9  | 18%   |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |



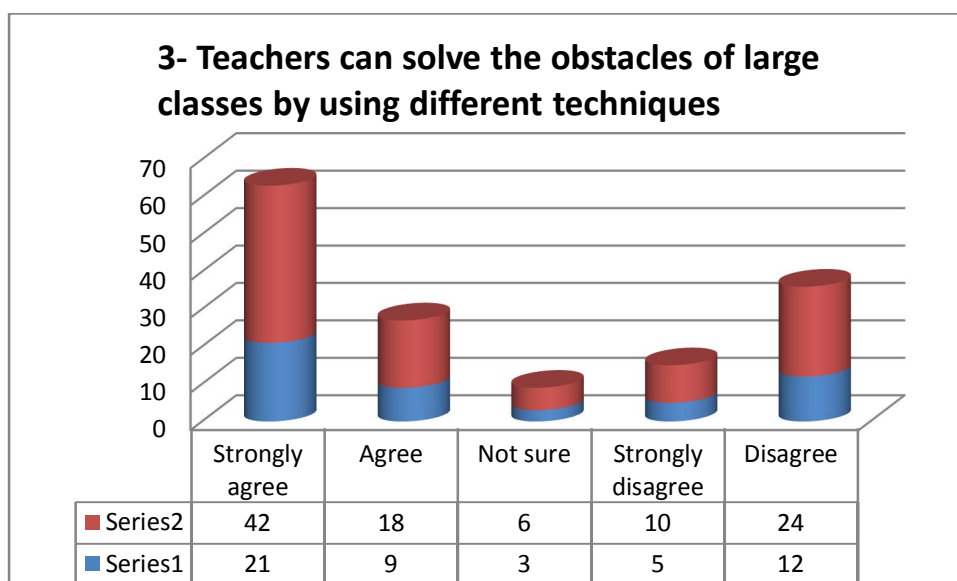
## 2-Teachers in large classes are not less likely to notice exceptional learning abilities .



The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (19) representing (38%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (12) representing (24%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (9) representing (18%) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (6) representing (12%) then Category (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (4) representing (8%) This confirms Teachers in large classes aren't less likely to notice exceptional learning abilities

- The table shows the number (6) and Figure (6) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Teachers can solve the obstacles of large classes by using different techniques .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 21 | 42%   |
| Agree             | 9  | 18%   |
| Not sure          | 3  | 6%    |
| Strongly disagree | 5  | 10%   |
| Disagree          | 12 | 24%   |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

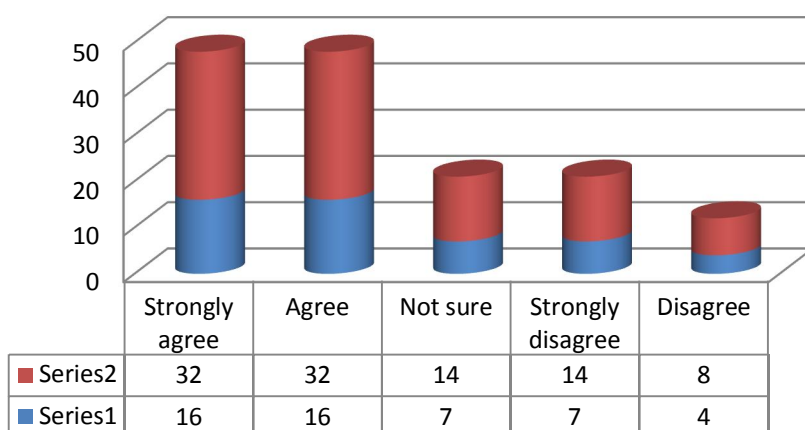


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (21) representing (42%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (12) representing (24) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (9) representing (18%) then Category (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (5) representing (10%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (3) representing (6%) This confirms that the Teachers can solve the obstacles of large classes by using different techniques.

- The table shows the number (7) and Figure (7) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Topics of discussion give students more opportunity to speak English language in large classes.

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 16 | 32%   |
| Agree             | 16 | 32%   |
| Not sure          | 7  | 14%   |
| Strongly disagree | 7  | 14%   |
| Disagree          | 4  | 8%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

**4- Topics of discussion give students more opportunity to speak English language in large classes .**

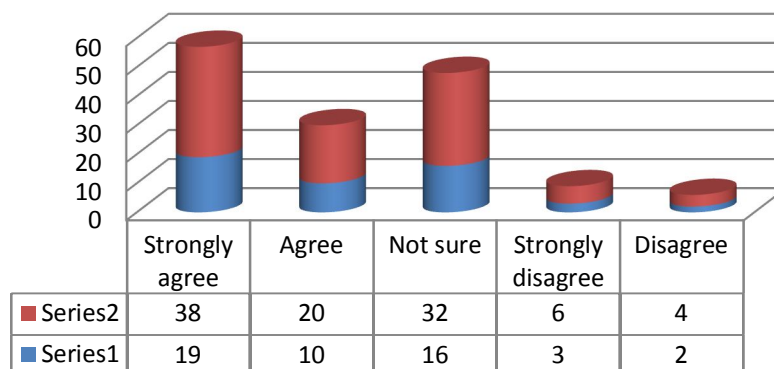


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) and (Agree) the number of iterations reached (16) representing (32%) then Category (Not sure) and (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (7) representing (14%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (4) representing (8%) This confirms that the Topics of discussion give students more opportunity to speak English language in large classes.

4. The table shows the number (8) and Figure (8) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Using mother tongue through discussion inside classroom reduces learner desire to learn the language large classes .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 19 | 38%   |
| Agree             | 10 | 20%   |
| Not sure          | 16 | 32%   |
| Strongly disagree | 3  | 6%    |
| Disagree          | 2  | 4%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

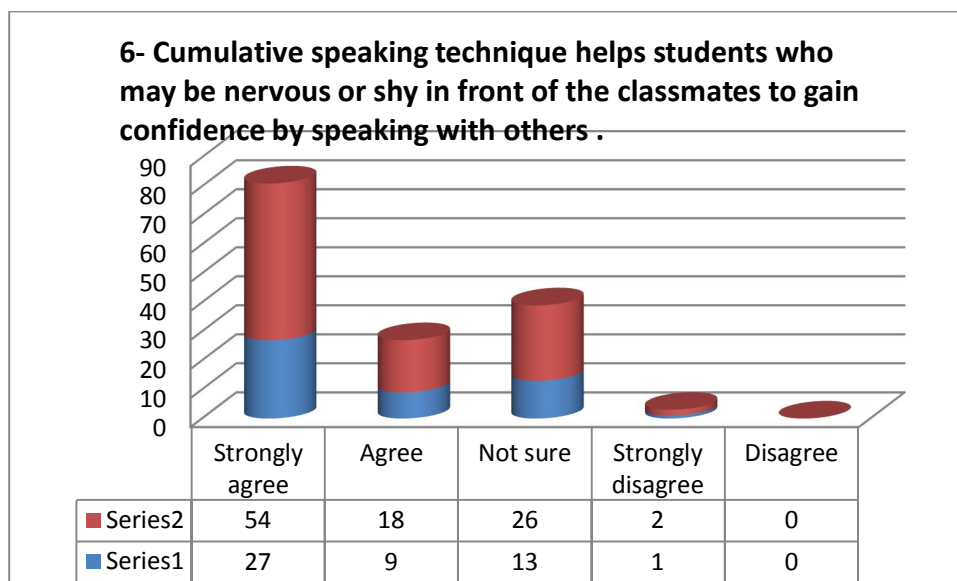
**5- Using mother tongue through discussion inside classroom reduces learner,s desire to learn the language in large classes.**



The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (19) representing (38%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (16) representing (32%) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (10) representing (20%) then Category (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (3) representing (6%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (2) representing (4%) This confirms that the Using mother tongue through discussion inside classroom reduces learner desire to learn the language large classes.

- The table shows the number (9) and Figure (9) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Cumulative speaking technique helps students who may be nervous or shy in front of the classmates to gain confidence by speaking with others.

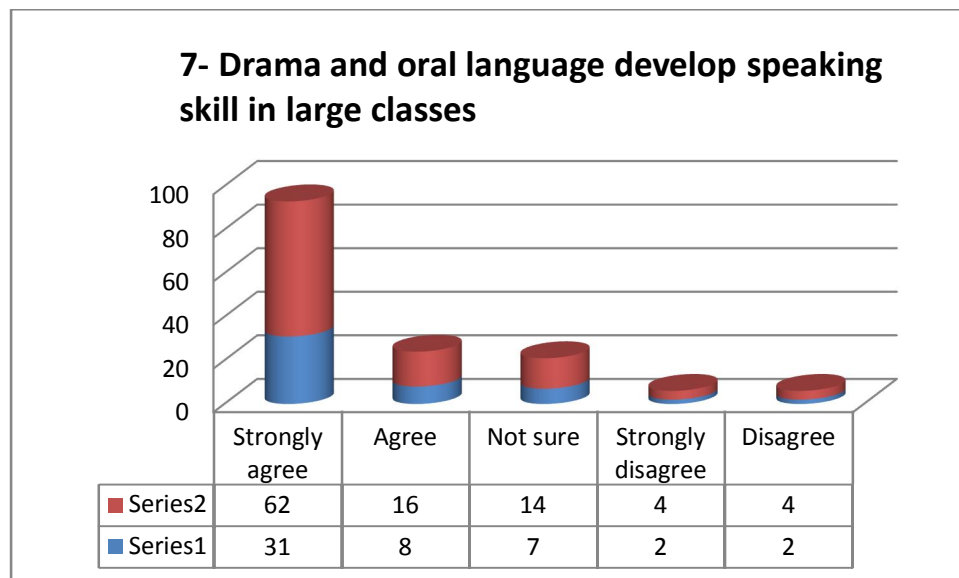
| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 27 | 54%   |
| Agree             | 9  | 18%   |
| Not sure          | 13 | 26%   |
| Strongly disagree | 1  | 2%    |
| Disagree          | 0  | 0%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |



The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (27) representing (54%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (13) representing (26%) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (9) representing (18%) then Category (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (1) representing (2%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (0) representing (0%) This confirms that the Cumulative speaking technique helps students who may be nervous or shy in front of the classmates to gain confidence by speaking with others.

6. The table shows the number (10) and Figure (10) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Drama and oral language develop speaking skill in large classes .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 31 | 62%   |
| Agree             | 8  | 16%   |
| Not sure          | 7  | 14%   |
| Strongly disagree | 2  | 4%    |
| Disagree          | 2  | 4%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

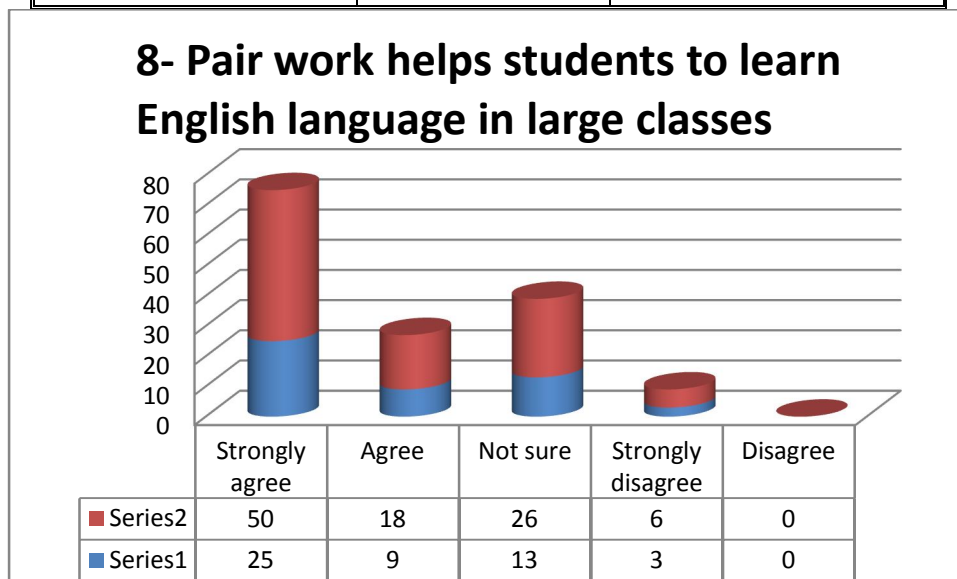


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (31) representing (62%) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (8) representing (16%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (7) representing (14%) then Category (Strongly disagree) and (Disagree) the

number of iterations reached (2) representing (4%) This confirms that the Drama and oral language develop speaking skill in large classes.

The table shows the number (11) and Figure (11) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Pair work helps students to learn English language .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 25 | 50%   |
| Agree             | 9  | 18%   |
| Not sure          | 13 | 26%   |
| Strongly disagree | 3  | 6%    |
| Disagree          | 0  | 0%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

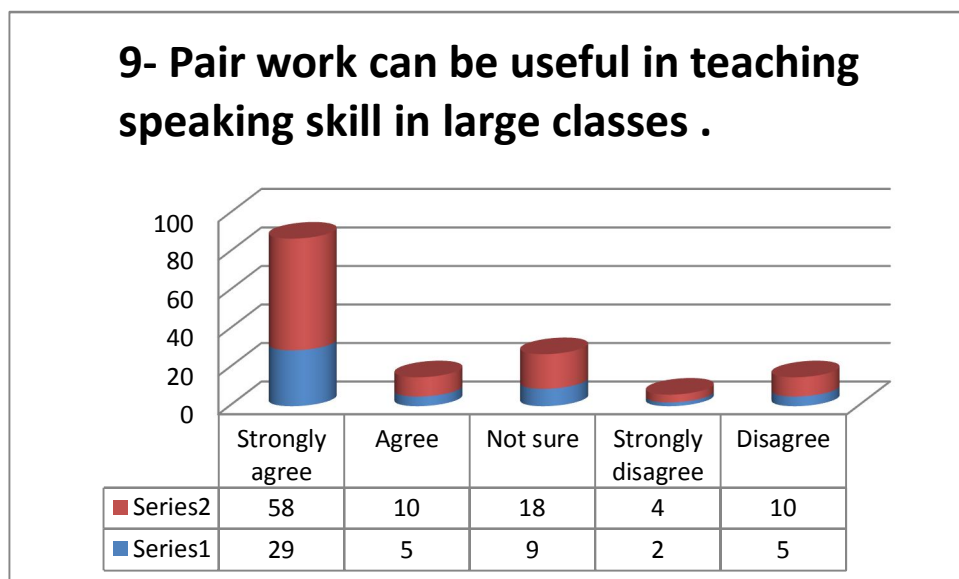


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (25) representing (50%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (13) representing (26%) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (9) representing (18%) then Category (Strongly disagree) and the number of iterations reached (3) representing (6%) then Category

(Disagree) and the number of iterations reached (0) representing (0%) This confirms that the Pair work helps students to learn English language.

9 . The table shows the number (12) and Figure (12) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Pair work can be useful in teaching useful in teaching speaking skill .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 29 | 58%   |
| Agree             | 5  | 10%   |
| Not sure          | 9  | 18%   |
| Strongly disagree | 2  | 4%    |
| Disagree          | 5  | 10%   |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |



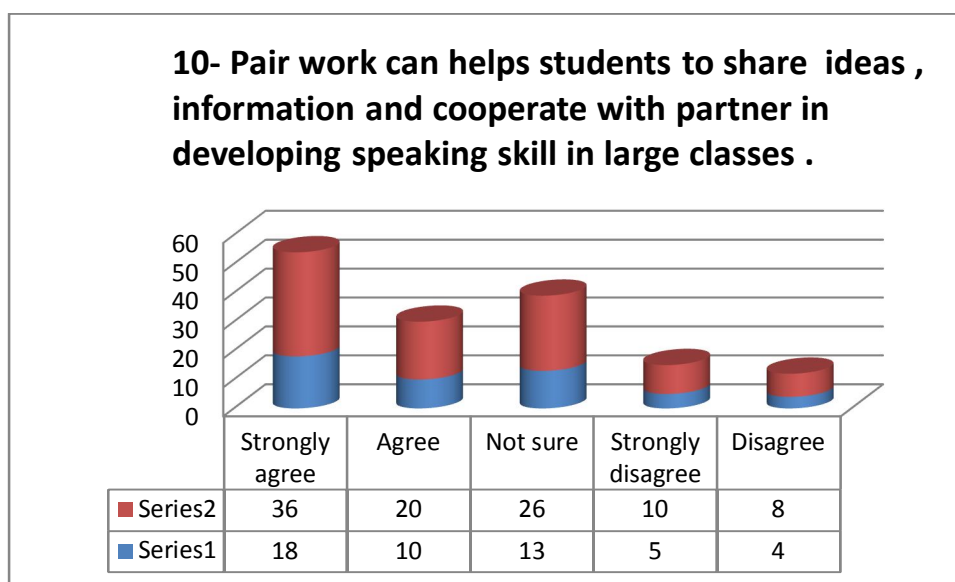
The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (29) representing (58%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (9) representing (18%) then Category (Agree) and (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (5) representing (10%) then Category (Strongly



disagree) and the number of iterations reached (2) representing (4%) This confirms that the Pair work can be useful in teaching useful in teaching speaking skill.

10 . The table shows the number (13) and Figure (13) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Pair work can helps students to share ideas, information and cooperate with partner in developing speaking skill.

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 18 | 36%   |
| Agree             | 10 | 20%   |
| Not sure          | 13 | 26%   |
| Strongly disagree | 5  | 10%   |
| Disagree          | 4  | 8%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

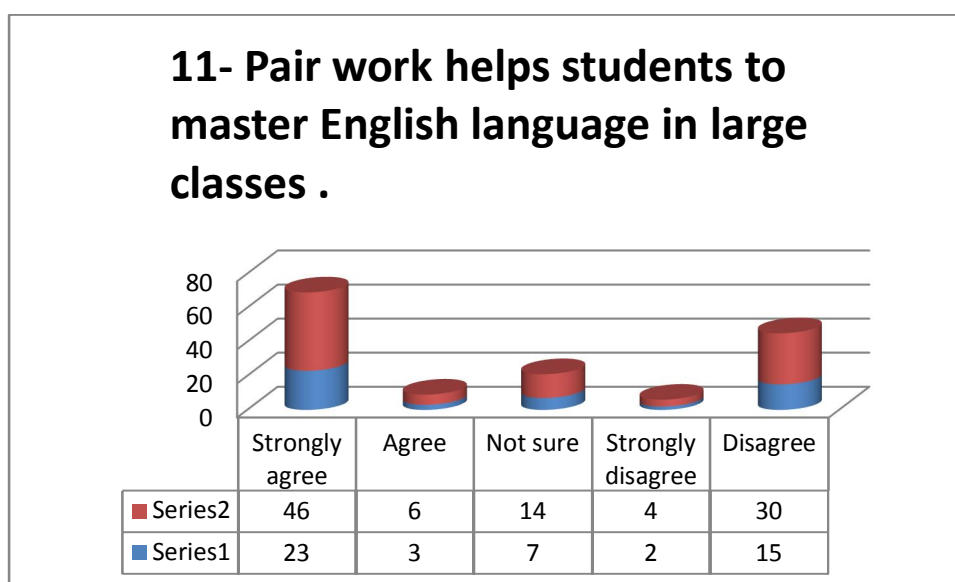


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (18) representing (36%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations

reached (13) representing (26%) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (10) representing (20%) then Category (Strongly disagree) and the number of iterations reached (5) representing (10%) This confirms that the Pair work can helps students to share ideas, information and cooperate with partner in developing speaking skill.

**11.** The table shows the number (14) and Figure (14) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Pair work helps students to master English language in large classes .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 23 | 46%   |
| Agree             | 3  | 6%    |
| Not sure          | 7  | 14%   |
| Strongly disagree | 2  | 4%    |
| Disagree          | 15 | 30%   |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

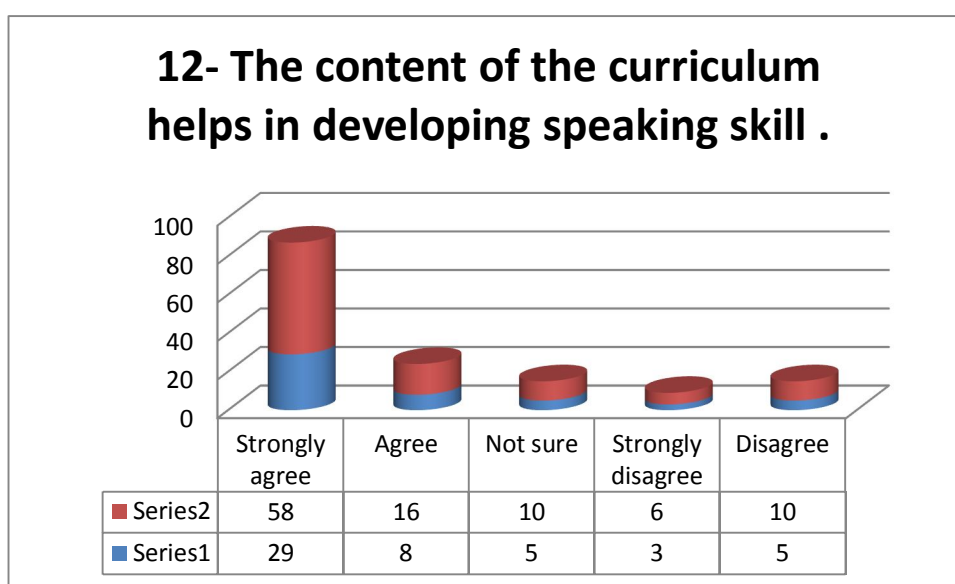


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached

(23) representing (46%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (15) representing (30%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (7) representing (14%) then Category (Agree) and the number of iterations reached (3) representing (6%) then Category (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (2) representing (4%) This confirms that the Pair work helps students to master English language in large classes.

12 . The table shows the number (15) and Figure (15) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable The content of the curriculum help in developing speaking skill .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 29 | 58%   |
| Agree             | 8  | 16%   |
| Not sure          | 5  | 10%   |
| Strongly disagree | 3  | 6%    |
| Disagree          | 5  | 10%   |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

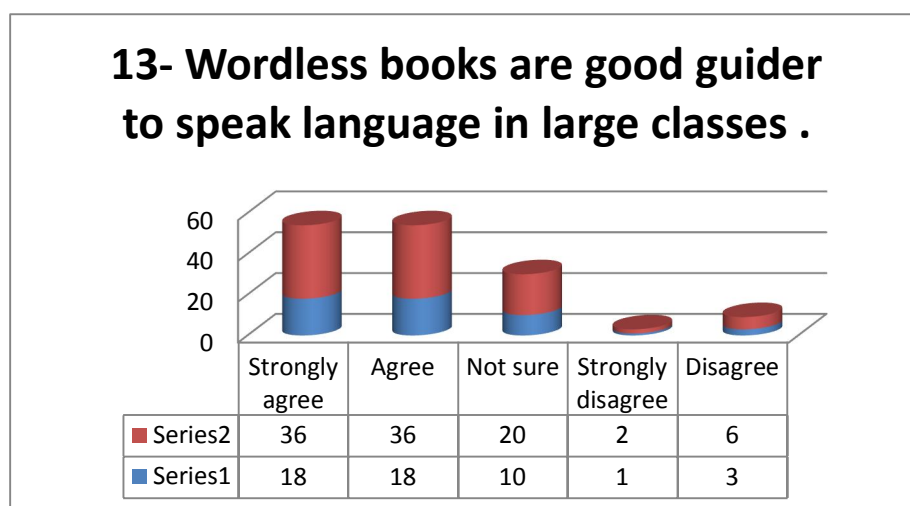


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (29) representing (58%) then Category (Agree) the number of iterations reached (8) representing (16%) then Category (Not sure) and (Disagree) the number of

iterations reached (5) representing (10%) then Category (Strongly disagree) and the number of iterations reached (3) representing (6%) This confirms that the content of the curriculum help in developing speaking skill.

**13 .** The table shows the number (16) and Figure (16) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Wordless looks are good guider to speak language in large classes .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 18 | 36%   |
| Agree             | 18 | 36%   |
| Not sure          | 10 | 20%   |
| Strongly disagree | 1  | 2%    |
| Disagree          | 3  | 6%    |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |

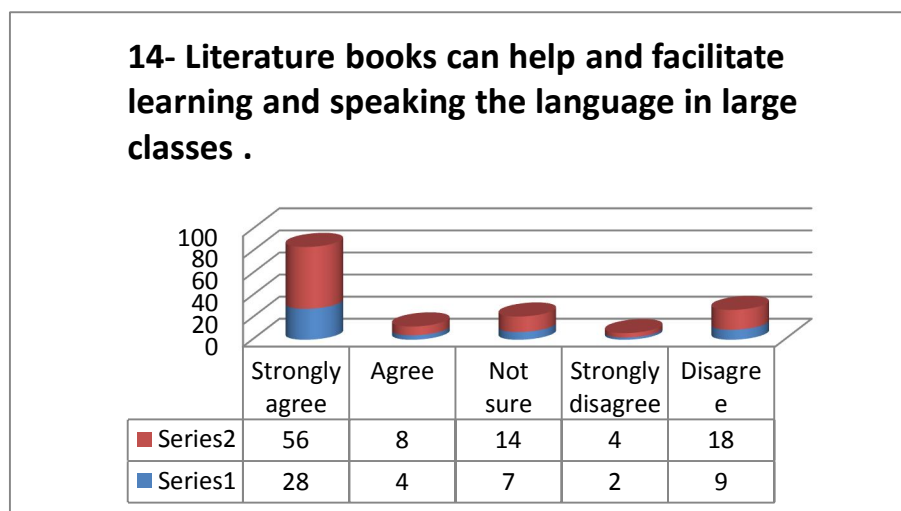


The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) and (Agree) the number of iterations reached (18) representing (36%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (10) representing (20%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (3) representing (6%) then Category (Strongly

disagree) and the number of iterations reached (1) representing (2%) This confirms that the Wordless looks are good guider to speak language in large classes.

14 . The table shows the number (17) and Figure (17) Recurring distribution to members of the study sample in accordance with the variable Literature books can help and facilitate learning and speaking the language in large classes .

| Options           | No | Total |
|-------------------|----|-------|
| Strongly agree    | 28 | 56%   |
| Agree             | 4  | 8%    |
| Not sure          | 7  | 14%   |
| Strongly disagree | 2  | 8%    |
| Disagree          | 9  | 18%   |
| Total             | 50 | 100%  |



The shape of the table above for the researcher turned out that the majority of respondents chose to answer (Strongly agree) the number of iterations reached (28) representing (56%) then Category (Disagree) the number of iterations reached (9) representing (18%) then Category (Not sure) the number of iterations reached (7) representing (14%) then Category (Agree) and the number of

iterations reached (4) representing (8%) then Category (Strongly disagree) the number of iterations reached (2) representing (4%) This confirms that the Literature books can help and facilitate learning and speaking the language in large classes.

## **4.2 Analysis of Interview Data**

The analysis was done through descriptive statistics frequency distributions. The response categories, for all the questions, are ranged from (agree, strongly agreeing, disagree, strongly disagree).

The researcher distributed 60 interview forms to the teachers of the Secondary Schools in Khartoum Locality. The interview contained of 10 questions (see appendix 2). The researcher analyzed the data of the interview using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and the Excel, the computer programmes. The individual questions from the interview will be analyzed to elicit the percentages of the teachers' responses.

## **4.2 Results and Discussion in Terms of Tables and Figures**

**Statement NO.1:**

**Using communicative activities is a useful technique in learning process.**

**Table (1)**

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 27        | 45%     | 1.55 | .50  |
| Strongly Agree    | 33        | 55%     |      |      |
| Disagree          | 0         | 0%      |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 0         | 0%      |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |

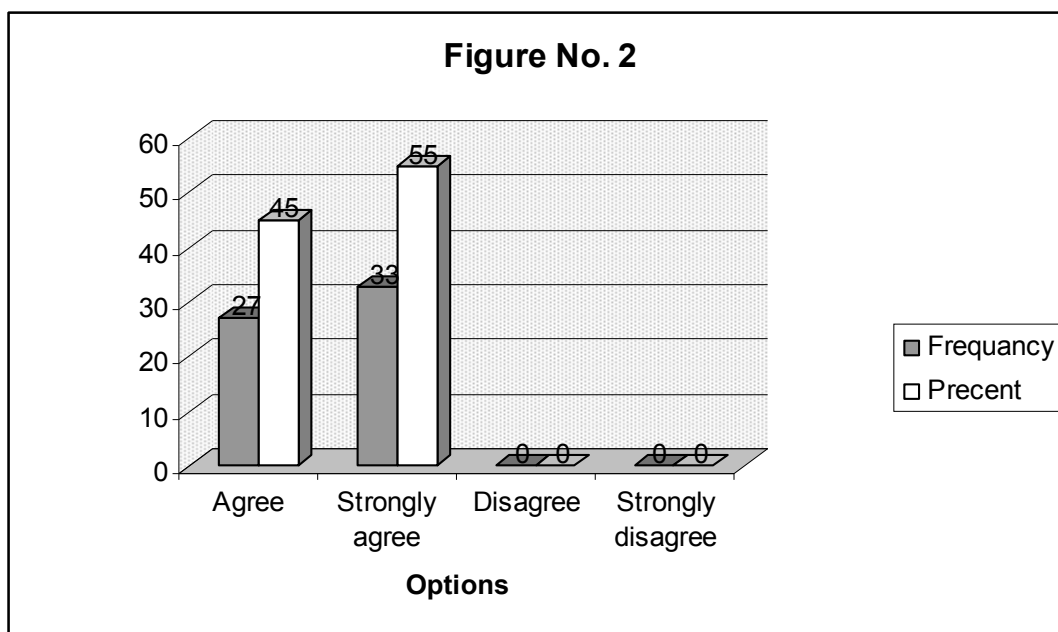


Table (1) and figure (2) reveal strong agreement on using communicative activities in learning process. 60 (100%) teachers agree on usefulness of this technique in learning process. The absence of disagreement indicates that pair work and group work are suitable for learning language in a communicative way.

**Statement No.2:**

**Pair work and group work help students to use the language quite .**

Table (2)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 20        | 33.3%   | 1.88 | .80  |
| Strongly Agree    | 30        | 50%     |      |      |
| Disagree          | 7         | 11.7%   |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 3         | 5%      |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |

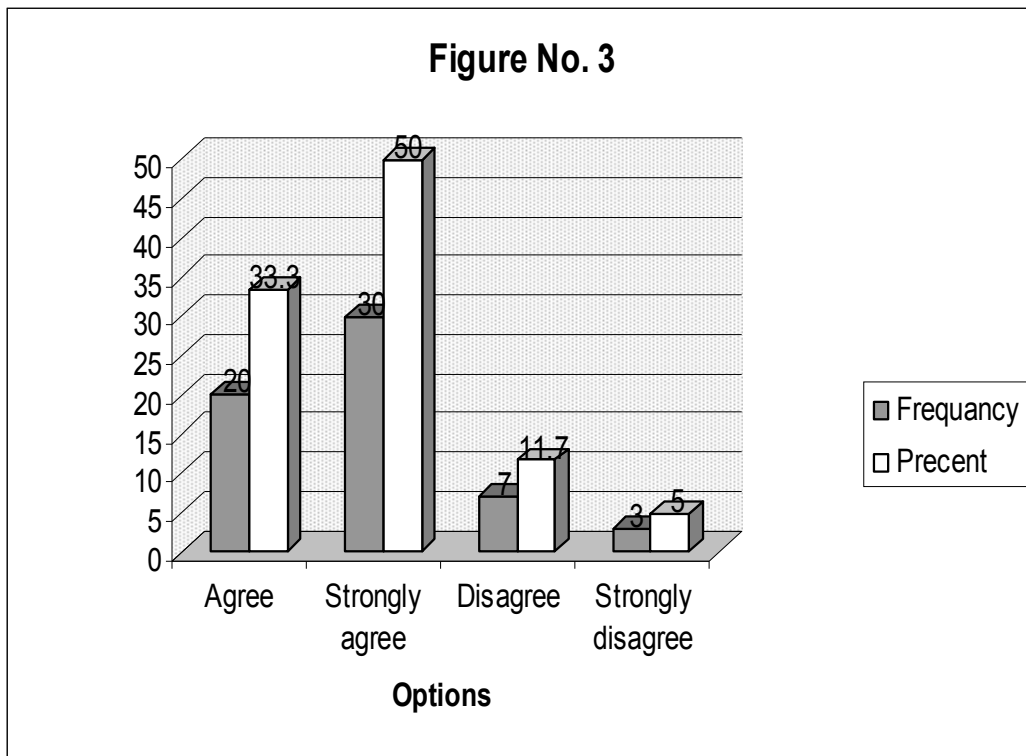


Table (2) and Figure (3) show that the fast majority of the teachers (83.3%) think that pair work and group work support using language more than knowing about it. This indicates a positive affect towards using pair work and group work in English classroom. Only 10 (16.7%) teachers disagree and the reason for this fact is that still many teachers teach in traditional way.

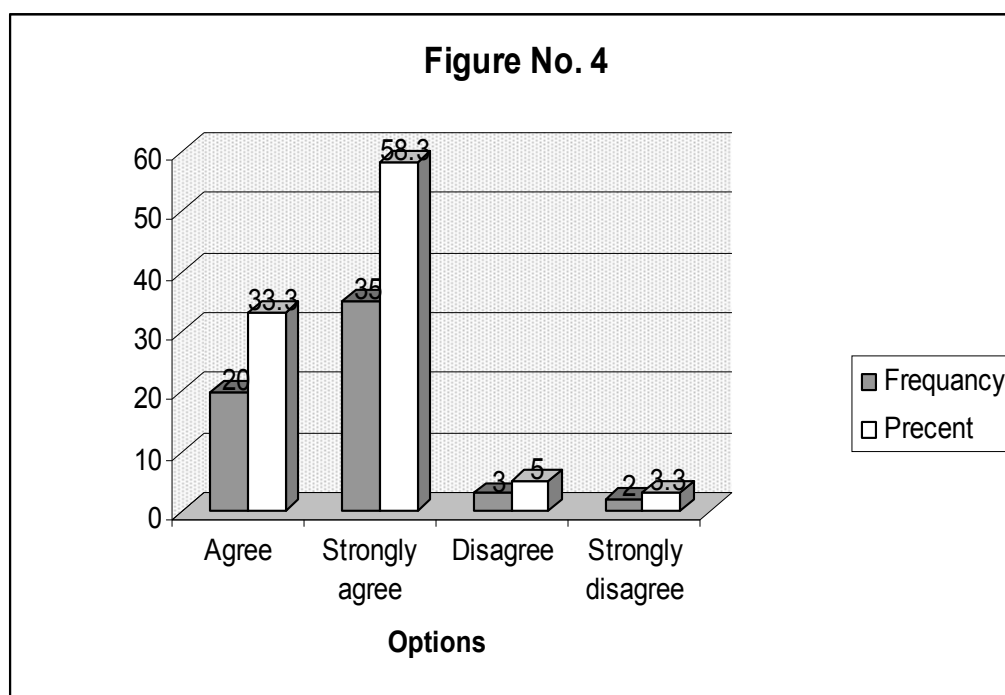
**Statement No.3:**

**As a teacher you must include remarkably the use of pair work and group work activities.**



Table (3)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 20        | 33.3%   | 1.78 | .69  |
| Strongly Agree    | 35        | 58.3%   |      |      |
| Disagree          | 3         | 5%      |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 2         | 3.3%    |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |



Referring to Table (3) and Figure (4), it is noticed that 55 (91.6%) of the teachers agree that a teacher must involve use pair work and group work during English lesson. Only 5 (8.3%) disagree with what is said. The strong agreement reveals the importance of involving pair work and group work activities.

**Statement No.4:**

**Using oral activities can enhance students' speaking ability.**

Table (4)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 15        | 25%     | 1.83 | .56  |
| Strongly Agree    | 40        | 66.7%   |      |      |
| Disagree          | 5         | 8.3%    |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 0         | 0%      |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |

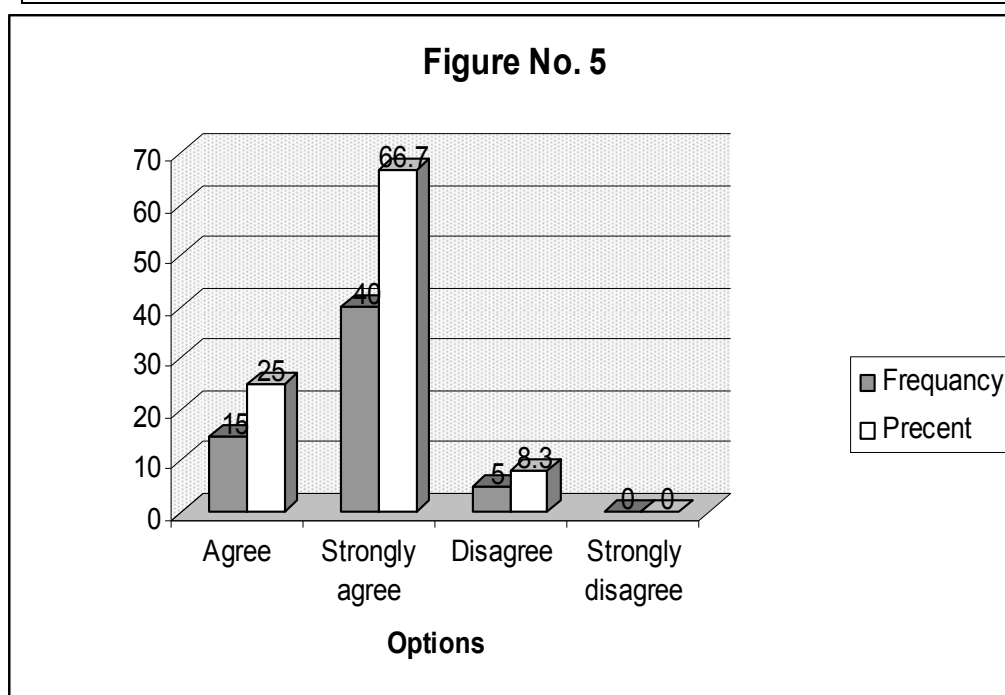


Table (4) and Figure (5) point that 55 (91.7%) of the teachers agree about enhancing students' speaking ability through pair work and group work. On the

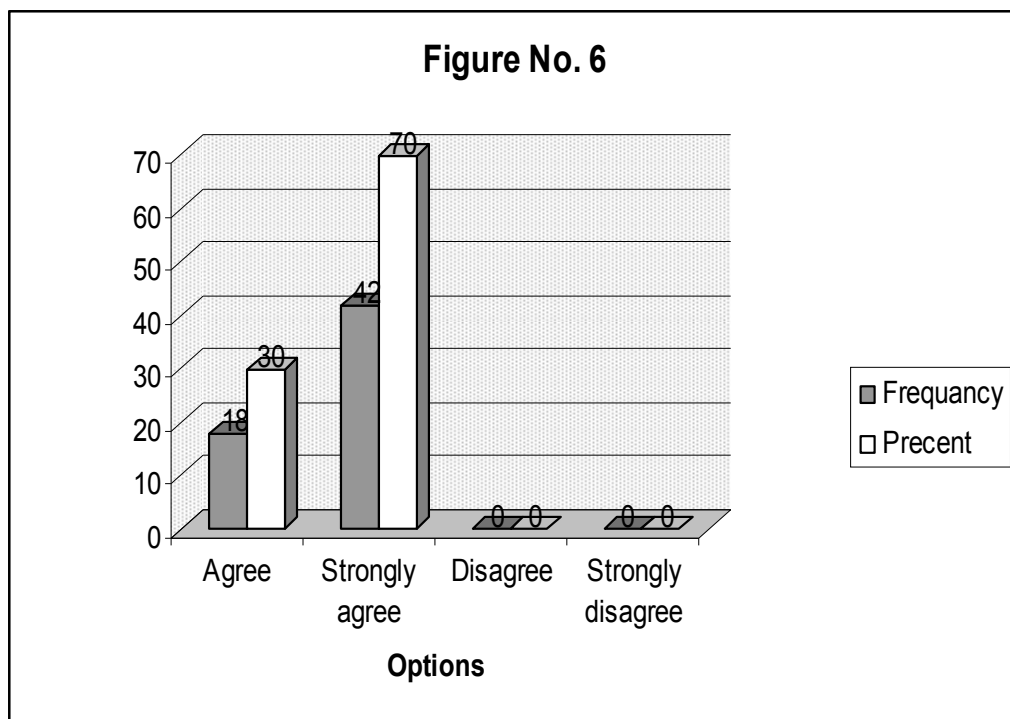
other hand, only 5 (8.3%) disagree. These positive responses indicate that oral activities are an effective way to increase students' speaking ability.

**Statement No.5:**

**Students always feel shy or hesitant when speaking in English.**

Table (5)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 18        | 30%     | 1.70 | .46  |
| Strongly Agree    | 42        | 70%     |      |      |
| Disagree          | 0         | 0%      |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 0         | 0%      |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |



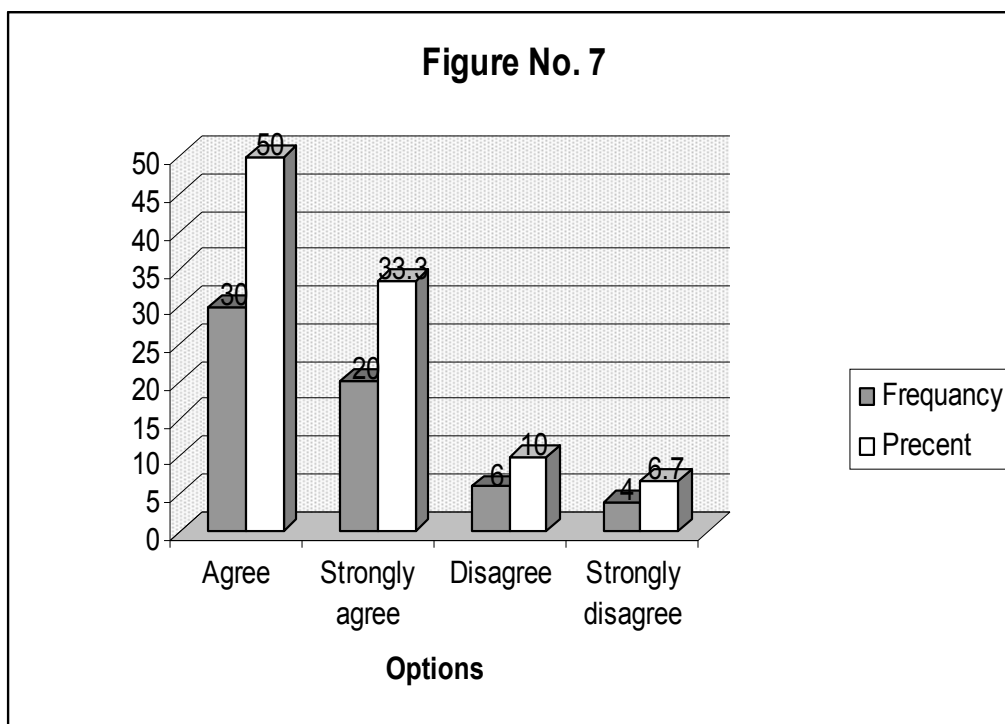
Tale (5) and Figure (6) show that all respondents 60 (100%) agree upon shyness or hesitation that student feel when asked to speak in English. The reason for this fact is that students are accustomed to know about English more than to use it. They accustomed to memorize grammatical items, translating texts or doing written exercises.

**Statement No. 6:**

**Some Students usually prefer whole class activities.**

Table (6)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 30        | 50%     | 1.73 | .90  |
| Strongly Agree    | 20        | 33.3%   |      |      |
| Disagree          | 6         | 10%     |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 4         | 6.4%    |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |



Tale (6) and Figure (7) show that large majority 50 (83.3%) of teachers agree with what is said. The answers from this question are very similar to the researcher expectations. The reason for this fact is that there are many teachers still prefer teaching all students together and students are accustomed to this kind of work.

**Statement No.7:**

**Believing in pair work greatest value will gear the learning process.**

Table (7)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 27        | 45%     | 1.55 | .50  |
| Strongly Agree    | 33        | 55%     |      |      |
| Disagree          | 0         | 0%      |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 0         | 0%      |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |

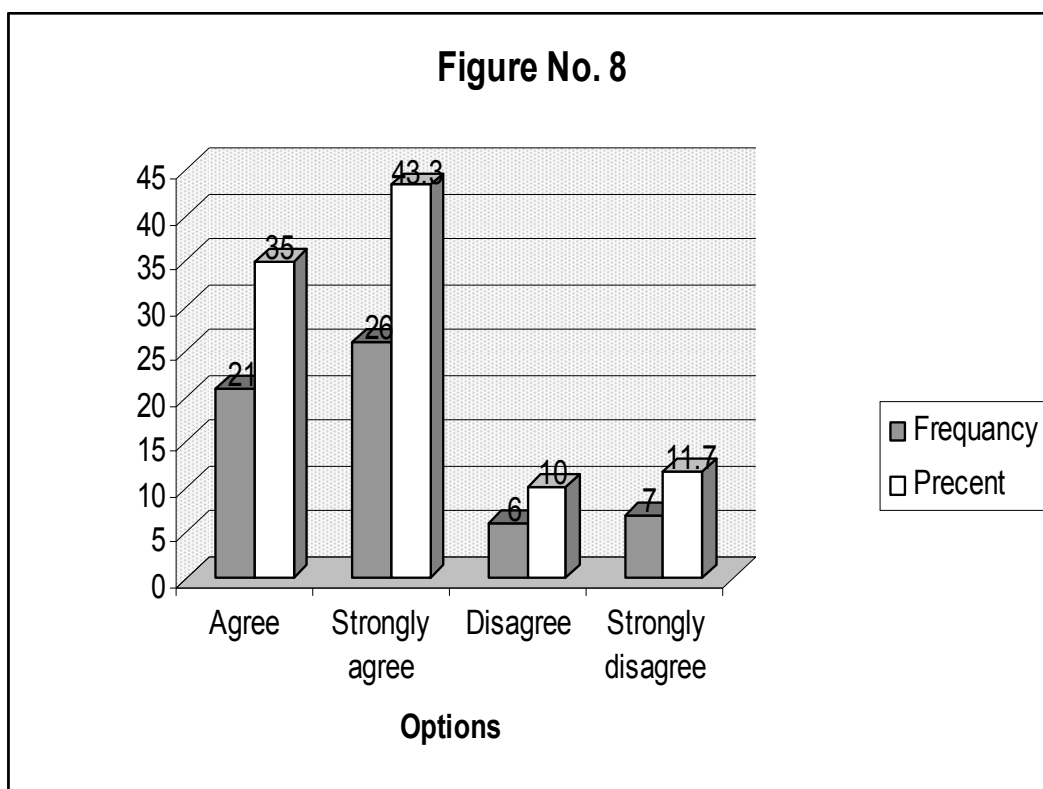


Table (7) and Figure (8) reflect that the number of teachers who believe in pair work and group work is quit high 47(78.3%) and those who don't believe is only 13 (22.7%). This strong agreement reveal that pair work and group work with their great value will gear the learning process.

**Statement No.8:**

**Pair work and group work make English language learning fun.**

Table (8)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 32        | 53.3%   | 1.60 | .76  |
| Strongly Agree    | 22        | 36.7%   |      |      |
| Disagree          | 4         | 6.7%    |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 2         | 3.3%    |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |

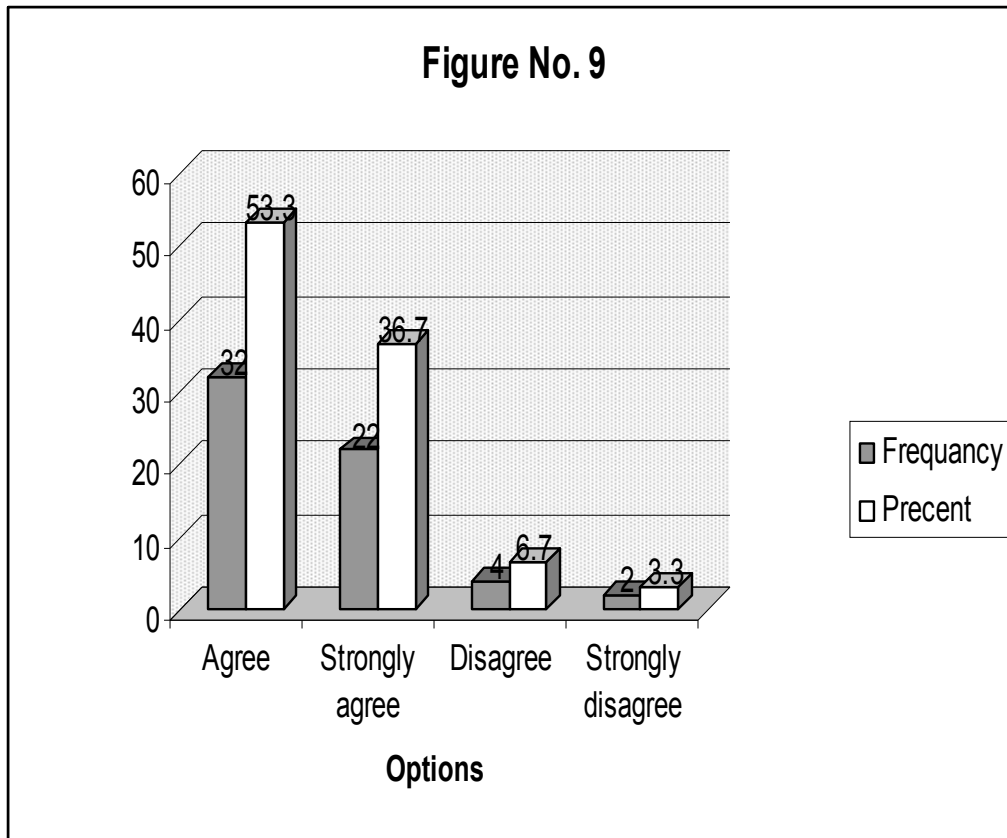


Table (8) and Figure (9) indicate that 54 (90%) of the teachers strongly believe that pair work and group work make English language fun. This shows the positive orientation towards using pair work and group work in English classroom by the majority of teachers. Only 6 (10%) of the respondents disagree on what is said.

**Statement No.9:**

**Learning through groups creates interesting and excitement.**

Table (9)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 25        | 41.7%   | 1.70 | .72  |
| Strongly Agree    | 30        | 50%     |      |      |
| Disagree          | 3         | 5%      |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 2         | 3.3%    |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |

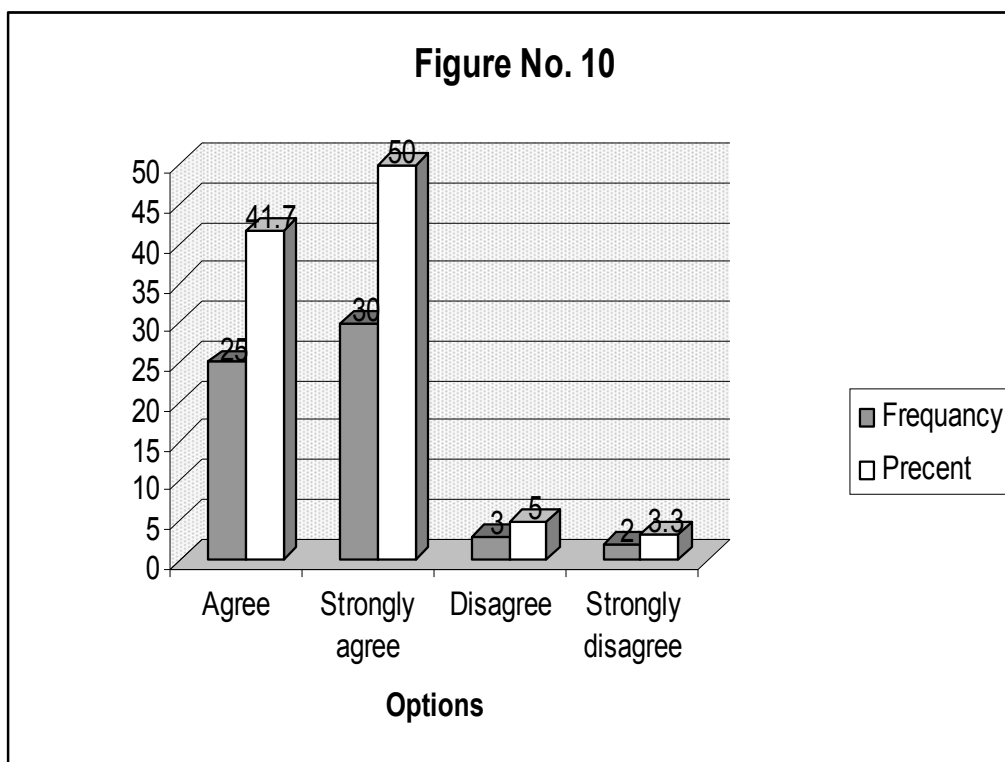


Table (9) and Figure (10) show that 55 (91.7%) of the teachers agree that learning through groups sounds very interesting and creates excitement. Only 5 (8.3%) of them disagree. This strong agreement is considered as a positive sign towards learning through pair work and group work.

**Statement No.10:**

**The teacher should spend a lot of time on role play/ games/ group and pair work instead of explicit teaching structures.**



Table (10)

| OPTIONS           | FREQUENCY | PERCENT | MEAN | S.D. |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| Agree             | 15        | 25%     | 2.28 | .98  |
| Strongly Agree    | 20        | 33.3%   |      |      |
| Disagree          | 18        | 30%     |      |      |
| Strongly Disagree | 7         | 11.7%   |      |      |
| Total             | 60        | 100%    |      |      |

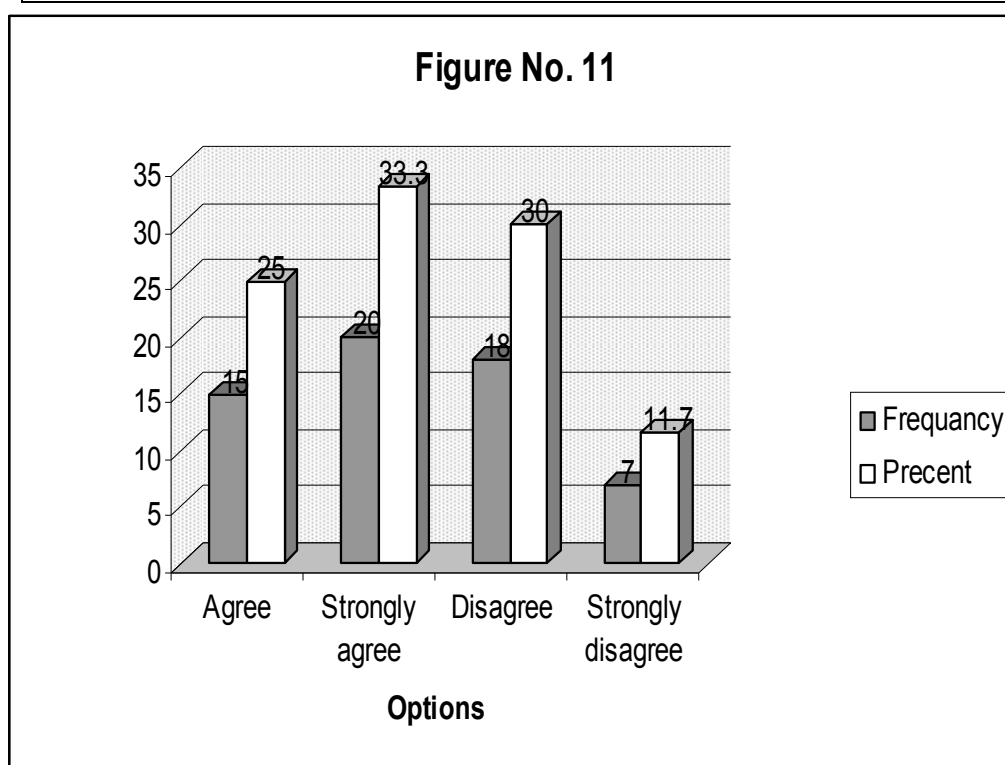


Table (10) and Figure (11) show that 53 (58.3) of the teachers agree that teacher should spend a lot of time on communicative activities. 25 (41.7%) of the teachers disagree on what is said. The researcher think that the number of teacher who disagree is high enough to indicate that many teachers still focus on reading and writing; grammar and translation; memorization of vocabulary.

# **Chapter Five**

**Summary , Conclusion ,  
Findings and Recommendations**

## **Chapter Five**

### **Summary, Conclusion, Findings and Recommendations**

This chapter gives a summary of the study . It consists of a summary , conclusion, the main findings , recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

#### **5.1 Summary and Conclusion**

The aim of this thesis was to find out the Obstacles Facing Teachers In Large Classes In Developing Speaking Skills . It also aims to investigate the attitudes of the English language teachers towards using different techniques in order to develop speaking skill in large classes.

The study comprises five chapters: chapter one states the problem, objective, questions, hypothesis, methodology, the limit of the study and abbreviations. Chapter tow handles the literature review. It discusses what has been written on communicative language teaching in terms of the Obstacles Facing Teachers In Large Classes In Developing Speaking Skills . Chapter three displays the methodological procedures, the sample and the tool which was used for data collection. Chapter four aims at presenting both the analysis of the practitioners' responses and testing the hypothesis of the study. Finally, chapter five presents the findings, recommendations and some suggestions for further studies.

## **5.2 Findings**

The main findings the researcher came out with from the analysis are as follows:

- Implementing approaches in teaching large classes can facilitate and solve some obstacles such as classroom size also using of these approaches affect positively on student's performance.
- Teachers can solve the obstacles of large classes by using different techniques , so these techniques help students to speak language , we can help our students to see that language usage is more important than sum of its grammatical unites.
- By using of pair work can be useful in teaching speaking skill , and using of group work activities will remove shyness from the most of students and enhance the speaking ability of them.
- The content of the curriculum helps in developing speaking skill and encourages motivation because ; the participants have freedom to choose the meanings they want to express through the vocabulary ( words in the books ) , dialogues , etc..... and give them bravery to practice speaking skill inside or outside classroom .
- The study also found that there are many teachers still believe in using traditional methods in developing speaking skill in large classes and the content of the educational curriculum should include literature books .

## **5.3 Recommendations**

In the light of the previous findings the researcher recommends the following:

- Much effort to be done from the government and ministry of education to build more schools in order to reduce all these numbers of students .
- Teachers should expect lots of noise during communicative activities . Therefore, they need to encourage their students to speak and practice

language . Encouragement can achieve if a teacher's tone is friendly and humorous.

- Many English language teachers need to be trained in how to present and use the better technique such as pair work , group work activities , pantomime . story telling etc ..... in order to develop speaking skill .
- Teachers should use different techniques such as pair and group work, etc.... but they should intervene only in the case when students ask them for help.
- Students should be given a chance to express what they want to say independently without shy in front of their classmates and their teachers ,this can helps in developing speaking skill .
- Students must know that the aim of English is not to pass through the final examination. So , they need hard efforts to change their mind from this misconception .
- Educational Sudanese syllabus should include dialogues, conversation and literature books .

#### **5.4 Suggestions**

**For further studies the researcher suggests the following:**

- Studies should be conducted to present and improve speaking skill in large classes .
- Studies should be prepared to develop student-centered approach rather than teacher directed.
- Studies should be conducted to reinforce students' attitudes towards competence rather than performance.
- Studies should be prepared to encourage students to become more active participants in a lesson and to pay cooperative learning more attention.

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# **Appendices**



## Appendix 1



### Sudan University of Science and Technology

#### College of Graduate Studies

### Obstacles Facing by English Teachers in Large Groups in Developing Speaking Skill

#### Questionnaire

#### Dear teacher ,

I would be very grateful if you could kindly respond to this questionnaire by ticking the alternative that best shows your point of view .

Thank you very much for your cooperation and help .

#### Qualifications

B.A

Higher Dip

M.A

PhD

#### Teaching experience

1-5

6-10

10-15

More than 15

#### Gender

Male

Female



| <b>Statement</b>  | <b>Strongly agree</b> | <b>Agree</b> | <b>Not sure</b> | <b>Strongly disagree</b> | <b>Disagree</b> |
|---|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------|
| 1- It can be very difficult to control a large class.   |                       |              |                 |                          |                 |
| 2-Teachers in large classes aren't less likely to notice exceptional learning abilities .   |                       |              |                 |                          |                 |
| 3 -Teachers can solve the obstacles of large classes by using different techniques .  |                       |              |                 |                          |                 |
| 4 - Topics of discussion give students more opportunity to speak English language in large classes .  |                       |              |                 |                          |                 |
| 5 - Using mother tongue through discussion inside classroom reduces learner's desire to learn the language in large classes .                     |                       |              |                 |                          |                 |
| 6 - Cumulative speaking technique helps students who may be nervous or shy in front of the classmate to gain confidence by speaking with others . |                       |              |                 |                          |                 |

|   |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| <b>7</b> -Drama and oral language develop speaking skill in large classes .   |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>8</b> - Pair work helps students to learn English language .   |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>9</b> - Pair work can be useful in teaching speaking skill .   |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>10</b> - Pair work can helps students to share ideas , information and cooperate with partner in developing speaking skill . |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>11</b> - Pair work helps students to master English language in large classes .  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>12</b> -The content of the curriculum help in developing speaking skill .  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>13</b> -wordless books are good guider to speak language in large classes .  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>14</b> -Literature books can help and facilitate learning and speaking the language in large classes .                       |  |  |  |  |  |



## Appendix 2



### **Sudan University of Science and Technology**

#### **College of Graduate Studies**

### **Obstacles Facing by English Teachers in Large Groups in Developing Speaking Skill**

#### **Dear Teacher :**

This interview aims to collect data to obtain PhD degree in ELT. The study is intended to find out The Obstacles Facing Teachers In Large Classes In Developing Speaking Skill . Can you please give your own point of view for the task by answering the following questions .

| No | Statement   | Agree | Strongly agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|----|---|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|
| 1  | Using communicative activities is useful technique in learning process.             |       |                |          |                   |
| 2  | Pair work and group work help students to use the language more than know about it. |       |                |          |                   |
| 3  | As a teacher you must involve use pair work and group work activities               |       |                |          |                   |
| 4  | Using oral activities enhance students' speaking ability.                           |       |                |          |                   |
| 5  | Students always feel shy or hesitant  |       |                |          |                   |

|           |   |  |  |  |  |
|-----------|---|--|--|--|--|
|           | when speaking in English.   |  |  |  |  |
| <b>6</b>  | Some Students usually prefer whole class activities.  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>7</b>  | Believing in pair work greatest value will gear the learning process  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>8</b>  | Pair work and group work make English language learning fun.  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>9</b>  | Learning through groups creates interesting and excitement.   |  |  |  |  |
| <b>10</b> | The teacher should spend a lot of time on role play/ games/ group and pair work instead of explicit teaching structures . |  |  |  |  |