



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**College of Graduated Studies**

**College of Languages**

**Effects of Vocabulary Knowledge on Speaking Performance  
among Sudanese University Undergraduate Students**

**أثر معرفة المفردات على الأداء في المخاطبة لدى طلاب  
المرحلة الجامعية**

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of PhD in English (Applied Linguistics)**

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## Opening Verses from Holy Quran

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سورة العلق: ۱ - ۵

صَدَقَ اللهُ الْعَظِيمَ

## **Dedication**

To my parents

To my husband

To my daughters and sons

To my brothers and sisters

## **Acknowledgements**

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude and thanks to Allah Who gave me the ability to accomplish this work.

I would like to express my deepest and sincere thanks to my supervisor, **prof Mahmoud Ali Ahmed** who helped me to broaden my thinking and provided me with his precious advices and superabundant knowledge.

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Finally, I would like to express my special thanks to my husband for his great support and encouragement.

## **Abstract**

This study attempted to investigate how can vocabulary knowledge can enhance the speaking performance. It examined the degree to which English language (EL) speaking performance can be affected by the size and breadth of English vocabulary among university level of Sudanese EL learners. It aimed at exploring some possible vocabulary teaching strategies used by teachers' to develop students' oral ability. It also shed light on how students react to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies used by their tutors. The study subjects were (30) of Sudanese undergraduate students and (20) English language teachers. The tools the study used for collecting data were tests for testing students' vocabulary knowledge and speaking performance in addition to teachers' questionnaire. The study used the statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS) for analyzing data. The study results revealed that the learners with higher and stronger breadth of vocabulary knowledge performed better in speaking tests. Overall, the results indicated that learners need to have a good knowledge of words along with adequate additional vocabulary to comprehend and speak EL efficiently. The study recommends that the tutors have to demonstrate a positive attitude towards vocabulary learning and teaching strategies. Moreover the interaction strategies should be taught to learners together with instruction of essential vocabulary and adequate language support to help the students to perform EL efficiently.

## **Abstract**

## Arabic version

### مستخلص الدراسة

تناولت هذه الدراسة محاولة البحث في إمكانية المذخيرة اللغوية ودورها في تعزيز المخاطبة، وإلي أي درجة يمكن أن يؤثر حجم المذخيرة اللغوية في المخاطبة للناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية في أوساط الدارسين في المستويات الجامعية، وقد هدفت الدراسة إلي التعرف علي إستراتيجيات التدريس المتاحة والمستخدمه بواسطة الأساتذة والتي تهدف إلي تنمية قدرات ومهارات التخاطب الشفاهي للطلاب، وقد سلطت الدراسة الضوء علي كيفية تفاعل الطلاب مع طرق تدريس المذخيرة اللغوية والإستراتيجيات التي يتبعها الأساتذة أو المحاضرين، وقد أخذت الدراسة (30) عينة من طلاب الجامعات و (20) عينة من مجتمع أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية، وإعتمدت الدراسة علي شريحة الطلاب كمصدر لجمع البيانات الأولية وتم فحص العينات بإجراء إختبار للطلاب لمعرفة مستوي المذخيرة اللغوية والتخاطب بالإضافة إلي توزيع الإستبيان لأساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية، وإستخدمت الدراسة طرق تحليل حزم البيانات الإحصائية للعلوم الإجتماعية و الإنسانية لتحليل البيانات. وقد كشفت نتائج الدراسة أن الدارسين الذين يتميزون بمذخيرة لغوية عالية أحرزو نتائج جيدة في إختبارات المخاطبة ، وقد خلصت نتائج الدراسة إلي أن الدارسين يحتاجون إلي أكتساب قدر كافي من المذخيرة اللغوية الإضافية لتمكنهم من تحدث اللغة الإنجليزية بالقدر المطلوب. وعلية أوصت الدراسة أستاتذة الجامعات بإبراز الأدورا والمواقف الإيجابية تجاه تدريس علم المترادفات والمذخيرة اللغوية فضلا عن إستراتيجيات طرق تدريس المهارات اللغوية ، بالإضافة إلي تعليم الدارسين إستراتيجيات التفاعل وتقديم النصح والإرشاد حول أهمية المذخيرة اللغوية في دعم وتعزيز اللغة، بالإضافة إلي وضع وتبني إستراتيجيات فاعلة تعين الدارسين علي مهارة التحدث بكفاءة.

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## **Chapter one**

### **Introduction**

This introductory chapter provides a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

#### **1.0 Context of the Study**

Much of the literature on second language acquisition as a general process (e.g. Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 1999) pays little attention to vocabulary learning. This is not just a current phenomenon. O'Dell (1997: 258) comments that, "Vocabulary and lexis are absent from major books on the syllabus and theory of language teaching throughout the 1970s and 1980s". Meara (1980) suggested it dates from the development of structural linguistics, for much of the last half century or so, therefore, the consideration of vocabulary in the process of language learning, testing and teaching appears to have been sidelined.

According to (Mera 1980) there are three reasons for vocabulary omission. One is a product of the structural and other approaches to language teaching that have become highly pervasive in language teaching. Outside the area of specialist vocabulary studies there seems to be a long-standing idea that words are just words, and that learning words is unsystematic. Vocabulary is unchallenging as a pedagogical or an academic issue, as a consequence. In structural approach to learning, the part of language learning which is really important is how language rules and systems are acquired, and with this approach we need not be too concerned about the words to which these rules and systems apply. It is assumed that these rules develop regardless of which words, or how many words, were being used to form them. Commonly, a structural linguistic approach to teaching deliberately reduces the volume of

vocabulary input at the earliest stages of learning to only what is necessary for the presentation of language structures, or what is essential to motivate learners. So powerful has this approach been that it has pervaded later approaches where a greater emphasis on vocabulary ought to be apparent. Notional-functional and, in the UK, communicative approaches have likewise seen vocabulary learning sidelined

The second reason is the persistent belief among teachers, learners and educational administrators, that it is possible to become highly proficient in a foreign language, and even a sophisticated user, with only very limited vocabulary resources. The constant surprising, for example, by the number of teachers who quote Ogden's (1930) *Simple English* apparently in all seriousness, and are under the impression that they can teach a complete western European language with only 850 words. Ogden's *Simple English* even continues to crop up in the most recent academic literature, for example in Haacker's (2008) examination of the vocabulary loading of German course books. While Haacker recognizes that Ogden's 850 words cannot form a fully communicative lexicon for a modern European language, the idea that it can do so is widespread and even occurs in otherwise reputable media. A recent BBC news article by for example, suggested that since only 'about 100 words are needed for half of all reading in English' it would follow that a parrot with 950 words should cope 'with a wide range of English material'. Ogden's work, and structural linguistics, pre-date modern corpus analysis that gives a much better idea of the kind of vocabulary resources that learners need. These can tell us about the occurrence and frequency of words in language, and this provides reliable information on which words, and how many, are really used by normal speakers. It turns out that thousands of words are needed even for basic communication, let alone for fluency. But the idea that teaching modern foreign languages requires only a handful of words persists, probably because it is also a product of wishful thinking. Learning a

language is an enormous task to perform like a native speaker you need to learn thousands of words. The discovering words can take years of effort to achieve even basic levels of command and understanding. Teachers have to try to fit all of this into a restricted timetable and maintain the motivation of learners at all times. Everyone would like to believe that you can reduce the burden of learning to something much smaller, say, a few hundred words instead of many thousands, and still achieve worthwhile results. (Alex Kirby nirs 2004).

The third reason is the widely held belief that time spent in explicit vocabulary teaching is wasted because ‘few words are retained from those which are “learned” or “taught” by direct instruction’ (Harris & Snow, 2004: 55), and ‘most L2 vocabulary is learned incidentally, much of it from oral input’ (Ellis, R. nirs 1994: 24). The best way to deal with vocabulary, therefore, is not to teach it at all because learners will soak it up as though by osmosis from the language which surrounds them inside or outside class. This is also wishful thinking. The evidence suggests that the vocabulary uptake from truly incidental language exposure is usually negligible and that successful learners acquire large volumes of vocabulary from the words explicitly taught in the classroom and supplement their learning by targeting vocabulary in activities, like learning the words of songs, outside of class.

### **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

The fact of being deficient in second language vocabulary has been a common complaint or a problem for university pre year students across the world where English is learnt and taught as a second or foreign language. There is always a big gap between levels as secondary school graduates, and the courses students are supposed to study at the university’s pre year English program. A considerable percentage of university prep year students find difficulty in expressing themselves in English (L2) and consequently in coping with the activities in their daily classes. For students who just joined a

new course, it is frustrating to open their English books and see a majority of unfamiliar words. The individual differences among those students are huge due to the big differences in quality and quantity among the courses they have already studied as they were coming from different schools and areas. For all these reasons, developing vocabulary particularly for the purpose of oral production can be greatly beneficial.

A common complaint among teachers today is that most of their students are frustrated in speaking English language in the classroom. To avoid the frustration of a non-communicative conversation class, and therefore, teachers should work hard to develop students' communicative level through the enhancement of their vocabulary. The study was attempted to investigate the affects of vocabulary knowledge on speaking performance among Sudanese under graduate students. It examined to what extent vocabulary knowledge can effect on their EL speaking performance.

### **1.2 The Study Questions:**

This study is set out to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent vocabulary knowledge can enhance Sudanese under graduate students speaking performance?
2. To what extent Sudanese teachers' focus on vocabulary teaching strategies to develop students' oral skills?
3. To what extent Sudanese students perceive & interact to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies opted by their tutors?

### **1.3 The study Hypotheses**

For the purposes of investigating the study questions the following hypotheses are formulated:

- 1- Vocabulary knowledge enhances Sudanese under graduate students speaking performance.
- 2- Sudanese teachers' focus on vocabulary teaching strategies to develop students' oral skills.



- 3- Sudanese Students perceive & interact to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies opted for by their tutors.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The main end of this thesis is to proof whether vocabulary knowledge can enhance speaking performance or not. It aims at discovering the possible vocabulary teaching strategies used by teachers' to develop students' oral skills This research also shed light on how students react to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies opted by their tutors.

#### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

This study was focused on speaking problems that are encountered by the students and seeks to find out solutions to overcome those difficulties. It sheds light on the key role of vocabulary knowledge in enhancing speaking performance

It is hoped that the results of this research will have a say in foreign languages instruction and learning, especially in speaking skills. Moreover, the study can add in sights in materials preparation regarding the area of vocabulary knowledge to enhance speaking, and teaching& learning strategies.

Undoubtedly, vocabulary is not an optional or unimportant part of a foreign language. Still less is it an aspect of knowledge that can be disposed of without much effect on the language being learned. Words are the building blocks of language and without them there is no language. As Wilkins nirs succinctly notes (1972: 111), "*without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed*". Recent language learning theory suggests that reducing the volumes of vocabulary acquired by learners may actually harm the development of other aspects of language; for example, word learning may actually drive the development of structural knowledge. It is possible, then, to challenge at a theoretical level the approaches to learning that sideline vocabulary or reduce it to minuscule

levels. It is possible too, to use recent work on comprehension and coverage, to provide a very practical justification for teaching vocabulary in greater volumes. The measurements we have of learners' vocabulary resources challenge the myth that it is possible to be an accurate and highly communicative language user with a very small vocabulary. The measurement of second language vocabulary knowledge is not a recondite area of study, therefore, interesting only to a handful of scholars. It should be of interest to everyone involved in the business of language education. It can help teachers and administrators set appropriate targets for learning so that learners can have the language skills that are expected. It can help teachers and learners monitor progress so they can tell whether they have achieved the kind of knowledge needed for an examination or a trip to a foreign country. It can even help academics to understand the nature of language knowledge and the learning process.

### **1.6 Limits of the Study**

This study will be restricted to Sudanese undergraduate students at Khartoum town .The study is also confined to a representative sample of English language teachers at Sudanese universities.

### **1.8 Methodology of the Study**

In this study, experimental methods will be adopted. The proposed experiment will be conducted in a Sudanese university. Study will use multiple tests, measures, or tasks in assessing vocabulary knowledge and speaking performance. Speaking tasks will be designed to provide counts of specific linguistic features (fluency, accuracy, syntactic complexity, and lexical complexity measuring).The tasks will be scored as either successful or unsuccessful based on “the outcome(.discourse analytic and speaking performance measure).. The experiment is expected to take one month. Measuring vocabulary knowledge on learning, will be by trying to control all the variables (pupils level in English, test level), and then measuring the

improvement of the respective students in speaking ability. A questionnaire will be administered to both teachers and students. Furthermore, some language classes will be observed. The researcher will also confirm the validity and the reliability of the research tools before their application.

### **1.8 Summary of the chapter**

In this chapter a detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology.

## Chapter Two

### Literature Review

This chapter reviews relevant literature of vocabulary learning and its impact on speaking performance. **The chapter divided in to two parts, the first part is on the theoretical frame work and the second part is on previous studies.**

#### Part One: Theoretical frame work

##### 2.1 Vocabulary vs. Speaking

Vocabulary is central to English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. Wilkins (1972) wrote that “*.while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed*”(pp. 111–112). Lewis (1993) went further to argue that, “Lexis is the core or heart of language” (p. 89). Particularly students develop greater fluency and expression in English; it is significant for them to acquire more productive vocabulary knowledge and to develop their own personal vocabulary learning strategies. Students often instinctively recognize the importance of vocabulary to their language learning. As Schmitt (2010) noted, “learners carry around dictionaries and not grammar books” (p. 4).

Teaching vocabulary helps students understand and communicate with others in English. Voltaire purportedly said, “*Language is very difficult to put into words.*” *I believe English language students generally would concur, yet learning vocabulary also helps students master English for their purposes.*

Vocabulary has long been recognized as a vital component and a good indicator of second language (L2) performance and proficiency. (e.g., Schmitt, 2010; Stæhr, 2009). Vocabulary is one of the essential and fundamental components of communication (e.g., Levelt, 1993).

However, few studies have focused specifically on associations between vocabulary and speaking. The current study examines relationships between vocabulary knowledge and speaking according to Schmitt, "**Vocabulary knowledge is the knowledge to produce a word when one speaks and writes (e.g.)** Vocabulary knowledge is further divided into size and depth. Size refers to how many words are known with a primary meaning, whereas depth refers to the degree to which word aspects other than the primary meaning (e.g., associations and affixes) are known. This study examines how size and depth of vocabulary knowledge are related to speaking performance (i.e., fluency, accuracy, syntactic complexity, and lexical complexity.

### **2.1.1 The knowledge of word:**

Knowing and learning a word means knowing a word receptively and productively. Being able to understand a word while listening to a text is known as receptive knowledge on the other hand, being able to use a word in spoken and written form is understood as productive knowledge. (Schmitt 2000) further proposes the following list of the different kinds of knowledge that students must master in order to know a word:

1. The meaning of the word
2. The written form of a word
- 3 The spoken form of the word
4. The grammatical behavior of the word
5. The collocations of the word
6. The register of the word
7. The associations of the word

**Nation (2001)** suggests other aspects that are involved in knowing a word completely; Form- spoken, written and word parts, meaning -from and meaning, concepts and references, associations, Use- grammatical function, collocations and constraints on use. Based on aforementioned aspects of

knowing a word, we can say that a word is a complex item and the learner needs more than one exposure to learn and remember it.

The different forms of word knowledge need to be learned gradually over a long time. The different exposures to a word are a chance to accumulate the different types of lexical knowledge. Schmitt explains that the knowledge of the word is declarative; it is consciously known and can be built up through both incidental and formal study. It is a choice of particular word that determines the grammar and phonology of sentences and other important components of what it means to know.

Thirdly, this model underlines the importance of meeting words in use as a way of developing vocabulary knowledge and the contextualized learning of vocabulary is not sufficient, although it might be useful for knowing a word". No doubt that attention to form and meaning of the unknown lead to word retention. In some cases this may involve memorization of units that will later be analyzed and in other cases may involve learning a rule or pattern that is subsequently practiced and used. In any reading text, the large portions of words occur only once or more than once. The words that occur very often are high-frequency words. These words are very important because these words cover a very large proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds of uses of the language. Vocabulary knowledge is defined as "***The ability to go from the printed form of a word to its' meaning.***" Nation (2001). The concept of a word can be defined in various ways, but three significant aspects students need to be aware of and focus on *form, meaning, and use*. According to Nation (2001), the form of a word involves pronunciation (spoken form), spelling (written form), and any word parts that make up this particular item (such as a prefix, root, and suffix). An example for word parts can be seen with the word *uncommunicative*, where the prefix *un-* means *negative* or *opposite*,

*communicate* is the root word, and *-ive* is a suffix denoting that someone or something is able to do something. Here, they all go together to refer to someone or something that is not able to communicate, hence *uncommunicative*, so the form and meaning go together to produce new word with another new meaning.

**Nation (2001)** stated that *meaning* encompasses the way that form and meaning work together, in other words, the concept and what items it refers to, and the associations that come to mind when people think about a specific word or expression use, Nation noted, ***involves the grammatical functions of the word or phrase, collocations that normally go with it, and finally any constraints on its use, in terms of frequency, level, and so forth. For form, meaning, and use,***) he declared there is both a receptive and productive dimension, so knowing these three aspects for each word or phrase actually involves 18 different types of lexical knowledge, as summarized in (Table 2.1) What is involved in knowing a word” adopt, from Nation (2001: 27).

### **2.1.2 Dimensions of vocabulary knowledge**

Much of what is written on word knowledge goes back to the well-known vocabulary knowledge framework of Richards (1976). He set eight assumptions which characterize the relevant theoretical concerns of linguists at the time he was writing. These assumptions are listed below:

- The native speaker's language continues to expand their vocabulary in adulthood, whereas there is comparatively little development of syntax in adult life.
- Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print. For many words, we also know the sort of words most likely to be found associated with the *word*.
- Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.

- Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behavior associated with that word.
- Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of word and the derivatives that can be made from it.
- Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of associations between that word and the other words in language (sic.)
- Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of the word.
- Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with the word. (Richard p83).

It is easy to see how Richards' eight points arose directly out of research that was current in the mid- He identified seven aspects of word knowledge (e.g. syntactic behavior, associations, semantic value different meanings, underlying form and derivations).

Nation (1990) distinguished eight types of word knowledge ( e.g form, meaning grammatical pattern, , function, relation with other words), which were specified both for receptive and productive knowledge.

Chapelle (1998) argued that a trait definition of vocabulary should contain four dimensions: vocabulary size, knowledge of word characteristics, lexicon organization, and processes of lexical access.

Henriksen (1999) proposed three separate but related vocabulary dimensions: a” partial-precise knowledge dimension, a “depth of knowledge” dimension, and a “receptive-productive” dimension

Qian’s (2002) recent framework, developed on the collective strength of earlier models of vocabulary knowledge proposed that vocabulary knowledge comprises four intrinsically connected dimensions: vocabulary size, depth of vocabulary knowledge, lexical organization, and automaticity of receptive–productive knowledge.



The place of vocabulary in language learning has been significantly revised over the last decade and current academic thinking is very much at odds with much classroom and textbook practice. Far from being an element which is merely incidental to language learning, current thinking advocates that vocabulary may be crucial to the development of language performance overall. In a recent version of generative grammar, According to Diamond and Gutlohn (2006), ***vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings***. “Stahl (2005) describes Vocabulary knowledge as the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world”.

Vocabulary knowledge is not something that can be fully mastered; it is something that expands and deepens over the course of a life time. In learning English language, lexis or vocabulary is recognized as a vital factor for ESL or EFL literary development (Coxhead, 2006; Horst et al., 2005; Lee & Munice, 2006). That is, L2 learners’ lexical knowledge may determine the quality of their listening, speaking, reading, and writing performances. Nevertheless, the nature of lexical knowledge, that is the question of what it actually means for a language learner to “know” a word, lies at the very heart of L2 vocabulary acquisition. As Laufer and Paribakht (1998, p. 366) observe, “No clear and unequivocal consensus exists as to the nature of lexical knowledge”, apart from the general agreement that it should be construed as some sort of continuum of several levels or dimensions rather than an all-or-nothing phenomenon.

**Table (2.1) Types of lexical knowledge:**

Aspect	Component	Receptive knowledge	Productive knowledge
<b>1.Form</b>	Spoken	What does the word sound like?	How is the word Pronounced?
	Written	What does the word look like?	How is the word Written and spelled?
	Word parts	What parts are Recognizable in this word?	What word parts are needed to express the Meaning?
<b>2.Meaning</b>	form and meaning	What meaning does this word Form signal? Think of?	What word form can be used to express This meaning?
	concepts and referents	What is included in this concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	What other words does this make people think of ?	What other words could people use instead of this one?
<b>3.Use</b>	Grammatical functions.	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must people use this word?
	Constraints	What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of words must people use with this one?
	Collocations on use (Register, frequency.)	Where, when, and how often would people expect to meet this word?	Where, when, and how often can people use this word?

The through the previous reviews the importance of various factors in these dimensions will vary according to the specific purpose of language use in all the frameworks reviewed; there is a clear consensus that vocabulary knowledge should at least comprise two dimensions, which are vocabulary breadth, or size, and depth, or quality, of vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary bread refers to the number of words the meaning of which a learner has at least some superficial knowledge. Depth of vocabulary knowledge is defined

as a learner's level knowledge of various aspects of a given word, or how well.

The learner knows this word. Vocabulary researchers normally differentiate between passive (receptive) and active (productive) vocabulary knowledge having passive vocabulary knowledge enables one to perceive the form of the word and retrieve its meaning(s) (Nation, 2001). Active vocabulary knowledge, on the other hand, enables one to retrieve the appropriate spoken or written word form of the meaning one wants to express (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004).

In other words, vocabulary knowledge can be viewed from quantitative and qualitative angles. Many people believe that knowing a word means knowing its meaning- breadth of knowledge. Nation and Waring (1997, p. 6) described quantitative vocabulary knowledge as being concerned with the question "How much vocabulary does a second language learner need?" However, Cook (2001, p. 61)) states that "a word is more than its meaning", according to him knowing a word involves four aspects:-

1. Form of the word such as pronunciation and spelling.
2. Grammatical properties such as grammatical categories of the word
3. Lexical properties such as word combinations and appropriateness
4. Meaning the general and specific meaning.

Clearly, "knowing a word requires more than just familiarity with its meaning and form" (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997, p. 4). Thus, the notions of Receptive (Passive) and Productive (Active) Vocabulary (RPV) are normally discussed in different ways:

First, RPV processes refer to subconscious mental processes involved in the recognition, recall, retrieval, comprehension, and production of lexical terms.

Second, the RPV abilities involve the control of what is received and what is produced.

Third, RPV skills denote the receptive skills of listening and reading from the productive skills of speaking and writing. Finally, the RPV product is represented by the RPV sizes and what we know about one's own RPV knowledge as viewed through language tasks (Waring, 1999). As a rule of thumb, the receptive vocabulary is at least twice the size of the productive vocabulary.

Another example is Meara (1996), who described vocabulary from two dimensions: size and organization (i.e., “the ‘network of associations between word and other words in the language,” p. 47).

The broadest framework can be seen in Chapelle (1994), who conceptualized Vocabulary ability as having three components: the context of vocabulary use, vocabulary knowledge and fundamental processes, and meta cognitive strategies for vocabulary use. The first aspect, the context of vocabulary use, includes not only the linguistic context (e.g., sentences with the target word) but also the pragmatic context (e.g., “differences across generations [teenagers vs. adults] and between colloquial and more formal uses of words”; Read, 2000, p. 31).

Vocabulary ability as having three components: the context of vocabulary use, vocabulary knowledge and fundamental processes, and meta cognitive strategies for vocabulary use. The first aspect, the context of vocabulary use, includes not only the linguistic context (e.g., sentences with the target word) but also the pragmatic context (e.g., “differences across generations [teenagers vs. adults] and between colloquial and more formal uses of words”; Read, 2000, p. 31). Vocabulary knowledge and fundamental processes, has four dimensions:

- Vocabulary size,
- Knowledge of word characteristics,
- Lexicon organization,

- Fundamental vocabulary processes.

The first two are described below. Lexicon organization is a way in which words are related to one another; whereas fundamental processes involve the automaticity. The first two are described below. Lexicon organization is a way in which words are related to one another, whereas fundamental processes involve the automaticity in accessing and utilizing each word. The third component of vocabulary ability categorized by Chapelle (1994) is meta cognitive strategies for vocabulary use. It is the same as Bachman's (1990) strategic competence, or "the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use" (Bachman, p. 84). While there are many types of classification, this study mainly analyzes vocabulary knowledge from two viewpoints: receptive vs. productive, sizes and depth.

The present study focuses on vocabulary knowledge and its relationships with speaking performance because productive vocabulary knowledge seems more relevant to speaking performance by its definition. As for relationships between the two types of vocabulary, there are two ways to look at them.

- First, receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary are considered to be located at opposite ends of the continuum of vocabulary development (Melka, 1997). In Melka's model, it is overall considered that receptive vocabulary gradually changes into productive vocabulary, and learners are gradually able to use productive vocabulary in speaking and writing, but there is overlap between receptive and productive vocabulary.
- Second, Meara (1990) regarded receptive and productive vocabulary as different entities that are activated by different stimuli (i.e., external stimuli, such as sound and spelling, vs. association with other words), not something that belongs to the continuum.

Although the general concept of receptive and productive vocabulary is consistent, previous studies have used definitions of the terms "receptive

(sometimes called passive)” and “productive (sometimes called active)” ambiguously or differently, which leads to difficulty in interpreting previous results (Read, 2000). There have been two attempts to address these problems. First, Read (2000) proposed a four-cell matrix of differentiating receptive and productive vocabulary (Read, 2000, pp. 154-157). He divided receptive vocabulary into two types: recognition and comprehension. He also separated productive vocabulary into two types: recall and use, depending on whether there is a context. The context here “includes whole texts and, more generally, discourse” (Read, 2000, p. 11). “Recall” refers to retrieval of vocabulary from memory in response to a stimulus word, whereas “use” refers to production of vocabulary in speaking and writing (Read, pp. 155 & 156).

**Table (2.1. 2) the four type of vocabulary knowledge:**

<b>Vocabulary</b>	<b>Respective</b>	<b>Productive</b>
Out of context	Recognition	Recall
In context	Comprehension	Use

Second, Laufer, Elder, Hill, and Congdon (2004) classified vocabulary knowledge into four types using two perspectives. The first perspective was what to retrieve using vocabulary knowledge (i.e., retrieve meaning from form vs. retrieve form from meaning). The second perspective was how to retrieve either meaning or form (i.e., recognition vs. recall). For example, when a person says “I like English,” meaning or concept comes first and the form “English” is recalled from it. This belongs to the upper cell on the left and what to retrieve is “form” and the retrieval method is “recall”.

**Table (2.1.2) Recognition vs. Recall**

<b>Vocabulary</b>	<b>Recall</b>	<b>Recognition</b>
Active (Productive) (Retrieval of form) Passive	Active recall e.g.,) Turn into water <i>m</i> (Answer: melt)	Active recognition e.g.,) <i>Turn into water</i> a. elect b. blame c. melt* d. threaten n
Passive recall ) Receptive) (Retrieval ( of meaning)	Passive recall e.g.,) When something <i>melts</i> it turns into (Answer: water)	Passive recognition e.g.,) <i>Melt</i> a. choose b. accuse c. make threats d. turn into water*

To be specific, productive vocabulary knowledge is defined as “knowledge to produce vocabulary forms,” whereas differences between knowledge and performance are specified as having the context or not. It should be noted that the definition of productive vocabulary knowledge is different from Laufer et al.’s in that their definition of productive vocabulary knowledge included both “active recall” and active recognition.” Another distinction of vocabulary knowledge is that it can be classified into two types: size and depth (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Nakanishi & Shimamoto, 2003). Vocabulary size is also called breadth, which is a quantitative dimension of vocabulary knowledge. It refers to the number of words with a primary meaning that a learner has (Nakanishi & Shimamoto, 2003, p. 32), or “the number of words for which the person knows at least some of the significant aspects of meaning” (Anderson & Freebody, 1981, p. 93). Vocabulary depth is a qualitative dimension of vocabulary knowledge and refers to the degree to which a learner knows a certain word in addition to knowing a primary meaning (Nakanishi & Shimamoto, 2003, p. 32). When size is focused on, there are four ways of counting words: tokens, types, lemmas, and word

families (e.g., Mochizuki, Aizawa, & Tono, 2003; Nation, 2001; Nakanishi & Shimamoto, 2003, p. 36). In counting tokens, all words that exist in a text are counted as one separate word, even when the same words are repeatedly used. In counting types, the same words are counted as only one word when repeatedly used, and a base form (i.e., headword) and inflected forms (e.g., the base form of *lives* is *live* and one inflected form of *live* is *lives*) are considered to be different types. In counting lemmas, a base form, inflected forms, and reduced forms (e.g., *n't*) are considered to be the same lemma and are only counted as one. In counting word families, a base form, inflected forms, reduced forms, and derived forms are considered to be the same word family and only counted as one. Therefore, the number is largest for tokens, followed by types, and word families have the smallest number (see Table 2.3). (Laufer, 1992, p.130, 1997, pp. 23- 24) .

Example: I have a friend. She is friendly. She has a dog.

**Table 2.3. Four Ways to Count Word:**

	I	have	a	friend	She	is	friendly	She	has	A	Dog
<b>Tokens</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<b>Types</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		8		9
<b>Lemmas</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				8
<b>Word families</b>	0	2	3	4	5	6					7



Depth includes word frequency, association, affix knowledge, syntactic characteristics, and other aspects (Nation, 2001). According to Nation, 2001 (p. 211) First, precision of meaning includes “having a limited, vague idea of what a word means and having much more elaborated and specific knowledge of its meaning”.

Second, comprehensive word knowledge refers to “knowledge of a word which includes not only its semantic features but also its orthographic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, collocation and pragmatic characteristics” (p. 211).

Third, network knowledge is defined as “the incorporation of the word into a lexical network in the mental lexicon together with the ability to link it to -- and distinguish it from – related words” (p. 212). This study only deals with the second and third aspects because the first seems closely associated with meaning and the size aspect.

The researchers generally agree with regard to the multi componential nature of vocabulary knowledge, various proposals have been put forward regarding what exactly constitutes vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Meara, 2005; Schmitt, 2010). One classification frequently employed involves the size and depth of vocabulary (e.g., Qian, 2002). Size, or breadth, expresses a quantitative dimension involving knowledge of a word form and a primary meaning, also described as the form-meaning link. Depth represents a qualitative dimension, defined as —how well a learner knows individual words or how well words are organized in the learner’s mental lexicon|| (Stæhr, 2009, p. 579), and includes knowledge of partial to precise meaning, word frequency, affix knowledge, syntactic characteristics, and lexical network. In addition to size and depth, another lexical aspect that has recently attracted attention and been incorporated into vocabulary frameworks is speed of processing, or how fast learners can recognize and retrieve knowledge stored in the mental

lexicon (e.g., Meara, 2005). Processing speed (often referred to as automaticity, efficiency, or fluency) of lexical access and retrieval is considered to play a crucial role in the use of vocabulary in real-life situations, as well as in L2 proficiency (e.g., Van Moere, 2012).

## **2.2 Differences in Words Frequencies:**

In normal language, some words used much more often than others, and a brief scan of any page of text, including this one, will usually serve to illustrate this. Words such as the articles *the* and *a/an*, prepositions such as *in* and *of*, conjunctions such as *and*, and pronouns such as *it*, occur very frequently. They occur millions of times in most large corpora. Other words such as *curiosity* and *gravel* are much less frequent. Table 2.1 lists, in frequency order, the 20 most frequent words in the British National Corpus (BNC) and another 20 words from the beginning of the 5000 word frequency band, to help illustrate the difference. Table 2.1 also helps to illustrate that the most frequent words are almost always function or structure words, which appear to carry little weight of meaning themselves, but are crucial to making grammatical and meaningful language. Less frequent words tend to be content or lexical words, nouns, main verbs and adjectives that, it might be thought, appear to carry a greater burden of meaning in any sentence. Both are important, of course, and both are essential to mastery of a foreign language. The most frequent words in English also tend to interconnect much more frequently.

Low-frequency words are all words that are not academic, not technical and not high-frequency words. In this group of words belong words like *zoned*, *pioneering*, and *perpetuity*, *aired* and *pastoral* and make about 5% of the running words in the text. There are thousands of low frequency words and is the biggest group.

Nation (2001) points out that the boundary between high-frequency and low-frequency vocabulary is an arbitrary one. Many low-frequency words are

proper names and approximately 4% of the running words in the Brown Corpus are words like Carl, Johnson and Ohio. Among the strategies recommended to each these words are guessing in context. However, this strategy is not without problems. Hulstijn (1992) points out that guessing in context are strictly speaking, a reading strategy, not primarily a vocabulary acquisition strategy, although its use involves semantic treatment of the input and therefore may facilitate incidental learning. What is more, experimental results do not unanimously show such an effect of guessing on vocabulary retention .He further states that teaching and learning low-frequency words, for learners whose first language is closely related to the second language, the learning burden of most words will be light. Generally, teachers can help reduce the learning burden of words by drawing attention to systematic patterns and analogies within the second language and by pointing out connections between the second and the first.

**Table 2.4 The most frequent words, and words from the 5000 word band, and their occurrences in the BNC**

<b>Word</b>	<b>Order</b>	<b>Occurrence s</b>	<b>Word</b>	<b>Order</b>	<b>Occurr ences</b>
<b>Regulatory</b>	1	6,187,267	the	5001	1188
<b>Cylinder</b>	2	4,239,632	be	5002	1188
<b>Cylinder</b>	3	3,093,444	of	5003	1187
<b>Resident</b>	4	2,687,863	and	5004	1185
<b>Narrative</b>	5	2,186,369	a	5005	1185
<b>Cognitive</b>	6	1,924,315	in	5006	1185
<b>Lengthy</b>	7	1,620,850	to	5007	1184
<b>Gothic</b>	8	1,375,636	have	5008	1184
<b>Dip</b>	9	1,090,186	it	5009	1184
<b>Adverse</b>	10	1,039,323	to	5010	1184
<b>Accountability</b>	11	887,877	for	5011	1184
<b>Hydrogen</b>	12	884,599	I	5012	1183
<b>Gravel</b>	13	760,399	that	5013	1183
<b>Willingness</b>	14	695,498	you	5014	1182
<b>Inhibit</b>	15	681,255	he	5015	1182
<b>Attain</b>	16	680,739	on	5016	1182
<b>Specialize</b>	17	675,027	with	5017	1181
<b>Steer</b>	18	559,596	do	5017	1180
<b>Selected</b>	19	534,162	at	5019	1180
<b>Like</b>	20	517,171	by	5020	1180

Every frequent verb such as *get*, for example, will link frequently with pronouns (*I get, you get, she gets*), will link frequently with prepositions to make phrasal verbs (*get up, get off, get on, get by*) and will link with noun phrases (*get married, get divorced, get a take-away meal*). By contrast, less frequent words, such as *gravel* and *cylinder*, are much more restricted in their use and will not collocate so widely, or may not appear to associate in the same way as *get*. (Anderson R.C, 1981).

What Table 2.4 also shows is just how different words can be in their frequency of occurrence. The frequent words, those at the top of the list in Table 2.4, are much more frequent than those at the bottom or even half way down the list. The most frequent words occur millions of times in the BNC, while the selection of words from the 5000 word band occur about 1200 times.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the scale of the difference, the corpus of modern French has about (1.1 million words) and calculated the average number of times that words in the first five 1000 word frequency bands occur (Baudot's 1992).

What emerges is that words in the first 1000 word band are roughly 11 times more frequent, on average, than words in the second band, and 40 times more frequent than words in the fifth frequency band. Words in the first band occur, on average, about 800 times in the corpus words in the second band 74 times and words in the fifth band only 20 times on average.

Even these differences disguise just how frequent the few most frequent words are. The most frequent word in the corpus, *de* occurs over 40,000 times and the second, the definite article *le*, over 25,000 times. The majority of words in this corpus occur only once or twice. With differences of this order, it is not surprising that learners very quickly become familiar, at least to some degree, with some of the most frequent words in a language. (Baudot's 1992).

**Table (2.1 3) The most frequent words, and words from the 5000 word band, and their occurrences in the BNC**

<b>Word</b>	<b>Order</b>	<b>Occurrences</b>	<b>Word</b>	<b>Order</b>	<b>Occurrences</b>
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<b>Lengthy</b>	7	1,620,850	to	5007	1184
<b>Gothic</b>	8	1,375,636	have	5008	1184
<b>Dip</b>	9	1,090,186	it	5009	1184
<b>Adverse</b>	10	1,039,323	to	5010	1184
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<b>hydrogen</b>	12	884,599	I	5012	1183
<b>Gravel</b>	13	760,399	that	5013	1183
<b>willingness</b>	14	695,498	you	5014	1182
<b>Inhibit</b>	15	681,255	he	5015	1182
<b>Attain</b>	16	680,739	on	5016	1182
<b>specialize</b>	17	675,027	with	5017	1181
<b>Steer</b>	18	559,596	do	5017	1180
<b>selected</b>	19	534,162	at	5019	1180
<b>Like</b>	20	517,171	by	5020	1180

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a .

.language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
- Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
- Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation.

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output.

*Language input* comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves. Language input may be content oriented or form oriented.

- Content-oriented input focuses on information, whether it is a simple weather report or an extended lecture on an academic topic. Content-oriented input may also include descriptions of learning strategies and examples of their use.
- Form-oriented input focuses on ways of using the language: guidance from the teacher or another source on vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar (linguistic competence); appropriate things to say in specific contexts (discourse competence); expectations for rate of speech, pause length, turn-taking, and other social aspects of language use (sociolinguistic competence); and explicit instruction in phrases to use to ask for clarification and repair miscommunication (strategic competence).

According to ( Kilppel,F,1983) In the presentation part of a lesson, an instructor combines content-oriented and form-oriented input. The amount of input that is actually provided in the target language depends on students' listening proficiency and also on the situation. For students at lower levels, or in situations where a quick explanation on a grammar topic is needed, an explanation in English may be more appropriate than one in the target language.

*Structured output* focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced.



Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. Instructors often use structured output exercises as a transition between the presentation stage and the practice stage of a lesson plan. Textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities.

In *communicative output*, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.

In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself. (Levelt W.J.M 1993).

In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning. Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one person asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question. (Hymes.D.H,1992).

In contrast, the purpose of real communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must manage uncertainty about what the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an information gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding.

To create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, instructors need to incorporate a purpose and an information gap and allow for multiple forms of expression. However, quantity alone will not necessarily produce competent speakers. Instructors need to combine structured output activities, which allow for error correction and increased accuracy, with communicative output activities that give students opportunities to practice language use more freely. (Altis,J.E,1967).

### **2.2.1 Structured Output Activities**

According to the National Capital Language Resource Center, Washington, 2004) Two common kinds of structured output activities are information gap and jigsaw activities. In both these types of activities, students complete a task by obtaining missing information, a feature the activities have in common with real communication. However, information gap and jigsaw activities also set up practice on specific items of language. In this respect they are more like drills than like communication.

#### **1. Information Gap Activities**

- Filling the gaps in a schedule or timetable: Partner A holds an airline timetable with some of the arrival and departure times missing. Partner B has the same timetable but with different blank spaces. The two partners are not permitted to see each other's timetables and must fill in the blanks by asking each other appropriate questions. The features of language that are practiced would include questions beginning with

"when" or "at what time." Answers would be limited mostly to time expressions like "at 8:15" or "at ten in the evening."

- **Completing the picture:** The two partners have similar pictures, each with different missing details, and they cooperate to find all the missing details. In another variation, no items are missing, but similar items differ in appearance. For example, in one picture, a man walking along the street may be wearing an overcoat, while in the other the man is wearing a jacket. The features of grammar and vocabulary that are practiced are determined by the content of the pictures and the items that are missing or different. Differences in the activities depicted lead to practice of different verbs. Differences in number, size, and shape lead to adjective practice. Differing locations would probably be described with prepositional phrases.

These activities may be set up so that the partners must practice more than just grammatical and lexical features. For example, the timetable activity gains a social dimension when one partner assumes the role of a student trying to make an appointment with a partner who takes the role of a professor. Each partner has pages from an appointment book in which certain dates and times are already filled in and other times are still available for an appointment. Of course, the open times don't match exactly, so there must be some polite negotiation to arrive at a mutually convenient time for a meeting or a conference.

## ***2. Jigsaw Activities***

Jigsaw activities are more elaborate information gap activities that can be done with several partners. In a jigsaw activity, each partner has one or a few pieces of the "puzzle," and the partners must cooperate to fit all the pieces into a whole picture. The puzzle piece may take one of several forms. It may be one panel from a comic strip or one photo from a set that tells a story. It may be one sentence from a written narrative. It may be a tape recording of a

conversation, in which case no two partners hear exactly the same conversation.

- In one fairly simple jigsaw activity, students work in groups of four. Each student in the group receives one panel from a comic strip. Partners may not show each other their panels. Together the four panels present this narrative: a man takes a container of ice cream from the freezer; he serves himself several scoops of ice cream; he sits in front of the TV eating his ice cream; he returns with the empty bowl to the kitchen and finds that he left the container of ice cream, now melting, on the kitchen counter. These pictures have a clear narrative line and the partners are not likely to disagree about the appropriate sequencing. You can make the task more demanding, however, by using pictures that lend themselves to alternative sequences, so that the partners have to negotiate among themselves to agree on a satisfactory sequence.
- More elaborate jigsaws may proceed in two stages. Student's first work in input groups (groups A, B, C, and D) to receive information. Each group receives a different part of the total information for the task. Students then reorganize into groups of four with one student each from A, B, C, and D, and use the information they received to complete the task. Such an organization could be used, for example, when the input is given in the form of a tape recording. Groups A, B, C, and D each hear a different recording of a short news bulletin. The four recordings all contain the same general information, but each has one or more details that the others do not. In the second stage, students reconstruct the complete story by comparing the four versions.

With information gap and jigsaw activities, instructors need to be conscious of the language demands they place on their students. If an activity calls for language your students have not already practiced, you can brainstorm with them when setting up the activity to preview the language they will need,

eliciting what they already know and supplementing what they are able to produce themselves.

Structured output activities can form an effective bridge between instructor modeling and communicative output because they are partly authentic and partly artificial. Like authentic communication, they feature information gaps that must be bridged for successful completion of the task. However, where authentic communication allows speakers to use all of the language they know, structured output activities lead students to practice specific features of language and to practice only in brief sentences, not in extended discourse. Also, structured output situations are contrived and more like games than real communication, and the participants' social roles are irrelevant to the performance of the activity. This structure controls the number of variables that students must deal with when they are first exposed to new material. As they become comfortable, they can move on to true communicative output activities.

### **2.2.2. Communicative Output Activities**

Communicative output activities allow students to practice using all of the language they know in situations that resemble real settings. In these activities, students must work together to develop a plan, resolve a problem, or complete a task. The most common types of communicative output activity are *role plays* and *discussions*.

In role plays, students are assigned roles and put into situations that they may eventually encounter outside the classroom. Because role plays imitate life, the range of language functions that may be used expands considerably. Also, the role relationships among the students as they play their parts call for them to practice and develop their sociolinguistic competence. They have to use language that is appropriate to the situation and to the characters.

Students usually find role playing enjoyable, but students who lack self-confidence or have lower proficiency levels may find them intimidating at first. To succeed with role plays:

- Prepare carefully: Introduce the activity by describing the situation and making sure that all of the students understand it
- Set a goal or outcome: Be sure the students understand what the product of the role play should be, whether a plan, a schedule, a group opinion, or some other product
- Use role cards: Give each student a card that describes the person or role to be played. For lower-level students, the cards can include words or expressions that that person might use.
- Brainstorm: Before you start the role play, have students brainstorm as a class to predict what vocabulary, grammar, and idiomatic expressions they might use.
- Keep groups small: Less-confident students will feel more able to participate if they do not have to compete with many voices.
- Give students time to prepare: Let them work individually to outline their ideas and the language they will need to express them.
- Be present as a resource, not a monitor: Stay in communicative mode to answer students' questions. Do not correct their pronunciation or grammar unless they specifically ask you about it.
- Allow students to work at their own levels: Each student has individual language skills, an individual approach to working in groups, and a specific role to play in the activity. Do not expect all students to contribute equally to the discussion, or to use every grammar point you have taught.
- Do topical follow-up: Have students report to the class on the outcome of their role plays.

- Do linguistic follow-up: After the role play is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Discussions, like role plays, succeed when the instructor prepares students first, and then gets out of the way. To succeed with discussions:

- Prepare the students: Give them input (both topical information and language forms) so that they will have something to say and the language with which to say it.
- Offer choices: Let students suggest the topic for discussion or choose from several options. Discussion does not always have to be about serious issues. Students are likely to be more motivated to participate if the topic is television programs, plans for a vacation, or news about mutual friends. Weighty topics like how to combat pollution are not as engaging and place heavy demands on students' linguistic competence.
- Set a goal or outcome: This can be a group product, such as a letter to the editor, or individual reports on the views of others in the group.
- Use small groups instead of whole-class discussion: Large groups can make participation difficult.
- Keep it short: Give students a defined period of time, not more than 8-10 minutes, for discussion. Allow them to stop sooner if they run out of things to say.
- Allow students to participate in their own way: Not every student will feel comfortable talking about every topic. Do not expect all of them to contribute equally to the conversation.
- Do topical follow-up: Have students report to the class on the results of their discussion.

- Do linguistic follow-up: After the discussion is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.
- Through well-prepared communicative output activities such as role plays and discussions, you can encourage students to experiment and innovate with the language, and create a supportive atmosphere that allows them to make mistakes without fear of embarrassment. This will contribute to their self-confidence as speakers and to their motivation to learn more.

### **2-3 .1 Characteristics of speaking**

Of all the basic four skills , speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know the language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language as if speaking included all other skills ; and may , if not , foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak . In this regard Swan (1996:1) referred to all those who are interested in English around the globe as speakers of English language:

*People learn English in different parts of the world, under different conditions and for different purposes..... However, most people who speak English have taught this a long side another language as a second language or as a mother tongue.*

Speaking skill is necessary to communicate with others. Speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney & Burk, 1998, p.13). According to Florez & Ann (1999), the form and the meaning of speech are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes of speaking. He adds that speaking is often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving.



There are many sub-skills under the heading of „speaking skill“ such as pronunciation and fluency. In fact, Brown (1994 as cited in Florez & Ann, 1999) suggests that speaking might include the following skills: 21

- 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.
- Paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as vocabulary, rate of speech, and complexity of grammatical structures to maximize listener comprehension and involvement.

Levelt (1989) suggests four main processes of speech production. These are conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and self-monitoring. In addition, Zuraidah (2008, p.1) says that “Speaking is a productive skill which requires a lot of back-up factors like knowledge, confidence, self esteem and enthusiasm”. Furthermore, Richards and Schmidt (2002) discuss the characteristics of an effective speech act. They say that an effective speech act should involve a combination of four competencies: grammatical competence (grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and semantics), sociolinguistic competence (appropriateness, pragmatics, and role relationship), discourse competence (speech events, cohesion, and coherence), and strategic competence (knowledge of strategic competence to compensate weakness).

Moreover, AbuGhararah supports the idea that teaching speaking is ignored in schools. According to AbuGhararah (1998, p.33), “Speaking is generally

discouraged in schools and classrooms. Speech in class is used only when learners are called upon to repeat or answer a question.”

According to Brown , G. and G . Yule ( 1983 ) Geddes ( 1988 ) , Debska ( 1983 ) , Thornbury ( 1999 ) , Brown , ( 1994 b ) , spoken English has special idiosyncrasies which it different from the written English and which in turn make listening somewhat difficult to acquire . Some of these basic differences are listed below:

**1- The Sounds:** In English as with other languages, there are sounds which do not exist in EFL learner’s languages. Therefore they fail to distinguish them from other familiar sounds or even fail to hear them at all. Learners may have difficulty with the vowel sounds of English and need more practice in distinguishing between them for example, sit /seat; foot / food. Fortunately, context helps in making out such distinctions.

**2- Stress, Rhythm, Intonation and Paralinguistic Features:** These are some of the most **important** features of English pronunciation. The English language derives much of its rhythm from the use of stressed syllables, with purpose of highlighting words which carry the main information the speaker wishes to convey, and changing the stress can alter the meaning of an utterance even where the words remain the same.

**3- Organization:** Speaking is a creative process. When people speak naturally they know what they want to say but often they intuitively improvised how they are going to say it. Therefore they are, almost always, in the position of formulating and adjusting their speech in midstream against the feedback they receive from their listeners, or as a result of added thoughts of their own.

**4- Hesitations, Pauses and Fillers:** When people are thinking of what they want to say they use expression such as " er ...." / Um / “actually " etc. Simply to avoid long silence, which are generally thought to be rather embarrassing in English speech? Silent pauses, voice – filled pauses and

fillers also give listeners time to think about what has just been said and relate it to what has gone before.

**5- Reduced Forms:** Contractions, elision, ellipsis etc are some of the grammatical features of spoken English.

**6- Colloquialism:** It is a good idea to acquaint EFL learners with words, idioms and phrases of colloquial English and these they get practice in producing these forms.

**7- Formality / Informality:** Normally a distinction is made between the language spoken in ' formal ' situations and the language used in 'informal' situations, for example, a lecture and chat between friends.

A lecture is expected to consist of a well organized speech using more structural language than would be heard in ordinary conversation, because most public speakers plan in advance. Therefore the language they use pertains more to written language than that is used in every day talk and is often described as ' formal ' contrasted with ' informal ' language.

Formality/ informality can be viewed as a continuum with ranges of levels, the usage of which is determined by nuances of variables such as the social setting, the relative ages , sexes , and status of the speaker and listener, their attitudes to each other and the topic, their shared background knowledge, and the physical context.

Many EFL learners have limited exposure to the English in informal contexts .In the classroom they tend to use formal language because this is what is expected when teachers and students talk to each other, and so they face difficulty in the production and perception of informal spoken discourse. They have particularly difficulty when switching from one level of usage to another. Similarly, for the FL listener judging the importance of these informal utterances is a problem.

### **2.3. 2 Importance of speaking**

The human being has many characteristics. One of the main characteristics is his ability to communicate. Communication between people involves the passing of different types of messages and information. The exchange of this information between people occurs by sensory stimulation or by auditory and visual stimulation. Thus, speaking is one of the main features of humans (Gimson, 1980, pp.1-2).

There are four important language skills. These are reading, writing, speaking, and listening. These skills can be divided into productive skills and receptive skills. Productive skills include speaking and writing. On the other hand, reading and listening are considered to be receptive skills. According to Allen and Corder (1975, p.26), “Speech is the primary medium in that it is older and more widespread than writing, and children always learn to speak before they learn to write.” 23

In language teaching, speaking is the most used skill in the classroom. It is used as part of teaching reading, writing, and listening. So, teaching speaking skills should be considered an essential part of language courses in schools since it is essential as a means of developing classroom interaction.

One of the primary sub-skills of speaking is pronunciation because it facilitates classroom communication. Indeed, Harper (2004) observes that beginners have the most difficulty in learning a new sound system, and that good pronunciation helps students to communicate effectively in classroom activities. The student will be more confident if his pronunciation is excellent. Thus, good pronunciation will help develop effective interaction in the classroom.

Speaking is considered to be important in the development of other language skills. Cayer, Green and Baker (1971) focused on the relationship between learning speaking and learning other language skills. They discovered that learning speaking can improve reading and writing skills.

However, it is obvious that teaching speaking is ignored. Egan (1999, p.277), claims that "Speaking is the heart of second language learning ... Despite its important...speaking was until recently largely ignored in schools and universities."

As English is universally used as a means of communication especially in the internet world, English speaking skills should be developed along with the other skills so that these integrated skills will enhance communication achievement both with native speakers of English and other members of the international community. Because of the significant role of speaking in action, Bailey (2005) and Goh (2007) detailed how to enhance the development of speaking by means of syllabus design, principles of teaching, types of tasks and materials, and speaking assessment. In the context of learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), instructors regularly ask the question why the majority of undergraduate students are unable to speak

English confidently, especially for communication in real situations with international speakers. One among many reasons to take into consideration might be a lack of confidence in terms of anxiety about making errors as stated by Trent (2009) and in other related studies.

The important of the language is that it is a tool for communication and through speech we communicate with others, express our ideas, and know others' ideas as well. Communication takes place, where there is speech. Without speech we cannot communicate with one another. The importance of speaking skills hence is enormous for the learners of any language. Without speech, a language is reduced to a mere script. Any gap in communication results in misunderstandings and problems. For a smooth running of any system, the speakers of a language need to be especially and purposefully trained in the skill of speaking. In-order to become a well-rounded communicator one needs to be proficient in each of the four language skills., listening , speaking, reading and writing, but the ability to speak skillfully, provides the speaker with several distinct advantages.

The capacity to express one's thoughts, opinions and feelings, in the form of words put together in a meaningful way, provides the speaker with these advantages. Speaking skills are important for career success, but certainly not limited to one's professional aspirations. Speaking skills can also enhance one's personal life. While reading and listening are considered to be the two receptive skills in language learning and use, writing and speaking are the other two productive skills necessary to be integrated in the development of effective communication. Of all the four macro English skills, speaking seems to be the most important skill required for communication (Zaremba, 2006). Effective communication by means of speaking usually creates a number of benefits for both speakers and business organizations. For example, effective speaking skills result in achievements during ceremonial speaking activities, job training activities, job interviews, and many other

business purposes (Osborn, Osborn, & Osborn, 2008). Zaremba (2006) also pointed out a study indicating that speaking skills or communication skills were usually placed ahead of work experience, motivation, and academic credentials as criteria for new recruitment for employment. Students who study English as a foreign language (EFL) usually have limited opportunities to speak English outside the classroom (Zhang, 2009) and also limited exposure to English speakers or members of the international community. This might be one reason for teachers to provide more situations and activities for students to strengthen their speaking competence speaking for special communication usually occurs in contexts where speaking performance is conducted for an audience in differing circumstances.

The principles of public speaking are also intertwined with the development of speaking for special communication. When a speech involving an audience is taken into consideration, the act of speaking is considered to be more complicated than general everyday conversation and a number of other skills are therefore included in the speaking delivery process, e.g. choosing topics, organizing thoughts, tailoring the message and adapting to listener feedback (Lucas, 2001).

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). 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").so , speech has its own skills, structures and conventions different from written language (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Carter McCarthy, 1995; Cohen, 1996). So we can say that speaking is the productive skill in the oral mode. It, like the other skills, is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words here are some of the micro-skills involved in speaking. The speaker has to Pronounce the distinctive sounds of a language clearly enough so that people can distinguish them. This includes making tonal distinctions tress and rhythmic patterns, and intonation patterns of the language clearly enough so that people can understand what said use are the correct forms of words. This may mean, for example, changes in the tense, case, or gender put words together in correct word order use vocabulary appropriately use the register or language variety that is appropriate to the situation and the relationship to the conversation partner make clear to the listener the main sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, by whatever means the language uses make the main ideas stand out from supporting ideas or information make the discourse hang together so that people can follow what others are saying. Speaking refers to "a process of *oral language production*" (Tarone, 2005, p. 485), and speaking performance is defined as actual instances of producing oral language in real time (adapted from McNamara, 1996, p. 54).

Speaking performance, or oral production, is a popular research target and has been assessed in many fields. For example, with the advent of task-based learning and teaching, a substantial amount of research has been conducted into task effects on speaking performance in second language acquisition (SLA) field (e.g., Robinson, 2001; Skehan & Foster, 2001). Speaking performance has been the focus not only in SLA research, but also in language testing (e.g., O'Loughlin, 2001; Wigglesworth, 1998) and in other

research areas dealing with language use (Ortega, 2003) are classified the aspects of speaking performance as follow:

### **1. Fluency**

Lado (1961: 240) points out that speaking ability is described as the ability to report acts or situation, in precise words, or the ability to converse or to express a sequence of ideas fluently.

Thornbury (2005:6-7) Research into listener's perception suggests that pausing is one of the factors of fluency. People can be said as fluent speakers if they fulfill the following features:

- a. Pauses may be long but not frequent.
- b. Pauses are usually filled.
- c. Pauses occur at meaningful transition points.
- d. There are long runs of syllables and words between pauses .

Foster and Skehan in Nunan (2004:87) propose a model in assessing speaking in which fluency is measured by considering the total number of seconds of silence and time spent saying 'um' and 'ah' by subjects as they complete a task.

### **1. Pronunciation:**

Thornbury (2005:128-129) Pronunciation refers to the student's ability to produce comprehensible utterances to fulfil the task requirements.

Harmer (2001:28-33) Pronunciation becomes important because it gives meaning to what is being said. Wrong pronunciation may cause people involved in a conversation are offended or misunderstanding.

### **2. Grammar:**

Brown (2001:362) Grammar is the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. In relation to contexts, a speaker should consider the following things:

- a. Who the speaker is?
- b. Who the audience is?

- c. Where the communication takes place
- d. What communication takes place before and after a sentence in question?
- e. Implied versus Literal Meaning
- f. Styles and Registers

**Table (21.4) Factors of Fluency**

Written Grammar	Spoken Grammar
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sentence is the basic unit of construction</li> <li>• Clauses are often embedded (subordination)</li> <li>• Subject + Verb + Object Construction</li> <li>• Reported speech favored</li> <li>• Precision favored</li> <li>• Little ellipsis</li> <li>• No question tags</li> <li>• No performance effects</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clause is the basic unit of construction</li> <li>• Clauses are usually added (co-ordination)</li> <li>• Head + Body + Tail Construction</li> <li>• Direct speech favored</li> <li>• Vagueness tolerated</li> <li>• A lot of ellipsis</li> <li>• Many question tags</li> <li>• Performance effects, including               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1.Hesitations</li> <li>2.Repeats</li> <li>3.False stats</li> <li>4.Incompletion</li> <li>5.Syntactic blends</li> </ol> </li> </ul>

### 3. Vocabulary

Thornbury (2005:22) suggests three usual things used by speakers in what they are being said:

- When people speaking, they are involving high proportion of words and expressions that express their attitude (stance) to what is being said.
- Speakers usually employ words and expressions that express positive and negative appraisal because a lot of speech has an interpersonal function, and by identifying what people like and dislike, they are able to express solidarity.

- A speech also usually employs deictic language, i.e. words and expressions that point to the place, time, and participants in the intermediate or a more distant context.

#### **4. Interactive Communication:**

Thornbury (2005:129) ,Interactive communication refers to the ability of a candidate to interact with the interlocutor and the other candidates by initiating and responding appropriately and at the required speed and rhythm to fulfill the task requirements.

Brown (2001:269), the most difficulties faced by students in speaking is the interactive nature of communication. In speaking, especially when they are having conversation they are engaging in a process of negotiation of meaning. Thus, learners usually have problems in how to say things, when to speak, and other discourse constants. Although they have difficulties in this aspect, assessing students through the way they interact is good to train them to have natural speaking.

#### **5. Appropriateness**

Harmer (2001:24), the term of appropriateness is related to some variables.

When people are communicating they have to see what effects to achieve the communicative purpose. Those variables are:

- a. setting
- b. Participants
- c. Gender
- d. Channel
- e. Topic

#### **6. Complexity:**

Halliday (1985:87) ,It is wrong that written language is highly organized, structured, and complex while spoken is disorganized, fragmentary, and simple. Brown, Anderson, Shillock, and Yule is Nunan (2004:86) ,What made speaking difficult were related to the type of information that had to be

conveyed and were concerned the scale of the task and interrelationships among the different elements involved. The spoken language is complex in a different way. The complexity of written language is static and dense, while spoken is dynamic and intricate. Levelt's (1993) model of speaking process is first, described, followed by various aspects of speaking performance from a few perspectives. One of the most influential models of the speaking process from a psycholinguistic perspective which is highly valued by many researchers (e.g., de Bot, 1992, p. 2; Ellis, 2005b, p.11; Katagiri, Komuro, Takayama, Takeda, & Takei, 1997, p. 76), Levelt (1989) summarized previous findings related to speaking and proposed a model from a psycholinguistic perspective. He then revised it in 1993 and included both speaking and listening processes. Since the current research focuses on speaking, only the relevant parts are described. In Levelt's (1993) model, there are three stages of speech production.

- a. Conceptualization
- b. Formulation
- c. Articulation

Form messages in the conceptualize, and put them in a form of language in the formulator, which are pronounced and expressed in the articulator. In the second stage, the lexicon plays a crucial part. The lexicon contains all the information related to vocabulary and is divided into two constituents: lemmas and lexemes. The lemmas consist of information on meanings and syntax, while lexemes constitute information on morphology and phonology. After messages are formed in the conceptualize, lemmas are searched for words, and grammatical structures are derived accordingly, which results in surface structures. Next comes phonological encoding, in which morphological and phonological information is incorporated by the use of lexemes. The resulting product is called a phonetic plan, articulator plan, or internal speech, which is articulated later as overt speech. During the

different processes of speaking, outcomes are monitored. Formed messages are checked according to their appropriateness, and the internal and overt speeches are also monitored. Levelt stated that these processes are conducted in parallel and done automatically.

Moreover, it is one of the primary principles of modern linguistics that spoken language is more basic than the written Language. This does not mean, however, that language is to be identified with speaking alone. A distinction must be drawn between language signals and the medium in which these signals are expressed. Thus what is written can be read aloud orally and what is spoken can be written down (ibid:97) .

Many linguists are inclined to make vocal signals as the defining feature of natural language, for they see it as their responsibility to correct the bias of traditional grammar and traditional language teaching.

Until recently grammarians have been concerned almost exclusively with literary style and usage as the norm and have taken little account of, or condemned colloquial usage as ungrammatical (Brown and Yule, 1983a).

In fact, the origins of the great literary languages are derived from the spoken languages of particular communities. Therefore, Lyons (1981: 11) considers the primacy of speech over writing in the following terms:

**1- Historical Priority:** There is no human society known

To have managed without the capacity of speech.

**2- Structural Priority:** In terms of correspondence of phonology to graphology, spoken language is structurally more basic .

**3- Biological Priority:** Human beings are genetically predisposed not only to acquire language but also as a part of the program to produce and perceive speech sounds.

Despite the priority of spoken language, according to Brown and Yule (1983 b: 1), for the most of its history language teaching has been based mainly, on

the analysis of the written language and its features . This has influenced the models of acquisition learners were exposed to. Most of the texts selected to study were nearly all written in the late nineteenth and earlier twentieth century and were selected from writers who wrote Standard English.

Spoken language as a subject for teaching EL began to be considered decisively after the end of the Second World War. Initially, major attention was devoted to the teaching of pronunciation, first in isolation, then in short isolated sentences. Later on, stress patterns were added and eventually practice of intonation patterns. During the last three decades, however, teaching of spoken skill has improved relatively on a world wide scale. Students are not only taught to pronounce, but they are given practice in listening to examples of carefully spoken English with practice on identification of selected features. Moreover, many courses have begun to use extracts from texts of authentic conversation; radio broad casts, lectures etc , instead of using written texts read aloud. Rather than basing their oral production on the written mode, learners are encouraged to use the spoken language forms spontaneously.

This dramatic development provides many learners with the ability to communicate naturally with speakers of the FL practically. However, teachers face many hurdles due to lack of a tried – and – tested teaching tradition to depend upon, for example:

- 1- What is the appropriate variety of spoken English to give learner practice in?
- 2- How important is pronunciation? Is it more important than teaching appropriate handwriting in the FL?
- 3- Is it possible to give learners any sort of meaningful practice in producing the spoken language?
- 4- How are the materials for listening comprehension to be selected? Can they be graded?

5. What is to be done about the frequent redundancy and ungrammaticality of spontaneous native speech? Bends of the rules by the native speakers?

Talk about performance variability? The list of potential problems in teaching speaking is limitless, for there is no influential description of spoken English comparable in status to the grammars of written English. In addition, speech variability is due to dialectal diversity (geographical or social dialects). For example, the speech of Scots is different from 'RP' in many aspects. The speech of different age groups is also different; the speech of highly educated adults who spend their lives immersed in written language may frequently have a great deal in common with the written language. It is not surprising since they spend so much of their time reading and writing it. If one only listens to speech produced by these people as they are speaking fluently and confidently on matters they have expressed themselves on many times before, it would not be unreasonable to assume that teaching speaking skill, does indeed only mean teaching the learners to speak the written language with a few features of spoken phrases.

However, the normally every day speech of most people in the native language context does not strongly resemble written language. It is clearly the case that the vast majority of speakers of English are not written language immersed, therefore, they produce speech which includes the features of spoken language.

### **2-3-3 Types of Spoken English**

Conventionally, many course books, which attempt to teach speaking focus mainly on the analysis of the mechanism of conversation. However other types are as important, for example, monologues, either planned (as speeches, lectures and news broadcasts) or unplanned (as improvised speech), whereby hearers must process long stretches of speech without interruption. Dialogues may be classified into interpersonal familiar / unfamiliar, with the purpose of promoting social relations or transactional



familiar / unfamiliar, to convey propositional and factual information; Brown (1994 a: 238). In each case interlocutors may have a good deal of shared knowledge, background information and cultural schemata and information. Therefore, the familiarity of the interlocutors will produce speeches with more assumptions, implication of hidden meanings. However, speeches among unfamiliar participants call for more explicitness of reference and meanings in order for effective O.C. to take place. Brown, G. And Yule (1983 a ) , distinguish between two types of spoken discourse :

#### **a) Interactional**

The emphasis is mainly on creating apathetic communion between the participants rather than on communicating information. The goal for the participants is to establish social relations and make interaction comfortable and none threatening.

#### **b) Transactional**

It involves message oriented language usage fundamentally common to most uses of written language.

In order to prepare pupils to cope with these wider social and functional needs, teachers must also look for ways of extending the possibilities for communicative interaction in the classroom. Pupils might be asked to imagine themselves in real life situations, from simple occurrence like meeting a friend in the street to much more complex events such as business negotiations.

### **2.3.4 Phases of Spoken English**

Speaking activities are to be carefully planned in systematic gradation, right from the mechanical phonological level up to conversation classes. According to Littewood ( 1981 : 50 ) , Gower et al ( 1995 : 100 ) , Broughton et al ( 1994 : 65 ) , oral production can be divided into three phases : controlled , guided and free . Practice should always be seen in relation to the functional and communicative use to which the learners will have to put their

spoken English. The speech produced by the learners should be tightly controlled at first by the teacher then as progress is made there should be lesser rigorous teacher intervention until reaches a situation where the learners are free to use appropriate language creatively :

**1- The Controlled Phase of Oral Production:** Repetitive practice of phonological, lexical and grammatical items prompted by picture or word cues to improve accuracy and to foster confidence are examples of controlled activities. One of the important techniques for controlled practice at both presentation and practice stage is the dialogue. Dipietro (1986 : 70 ) points to its importance as an effective tool for teaching the lexical , grammatical and even stylistic levels of language , in the attempt to improve speaking . He argues that: “The dialogue is a pedagogic device or tool which might be used in a number of ways with the aim of improving communicative competence”. Dialogue has further advantages in that it can be used for guided or free, and by its nature it is a language interaction between people which fulfills communicative criteria. Activities in dialogues can be graded from controlled, less controlled to free creative language production, ( Little wood , 1981 : 50 ) . Communicative oral practice applies not only to substitution dialogues but also to other purely manipulative exercises. They become more valuable when directed to talking about real events and potential language needs of the learners. For example , when they are practicing talking about likes and dislikes they can be choose from a number of activities ( going to the theatre , playing football , etc ) , things they really like doing rather than mechanically repeating .

**2- The Guided Phase of Oral Production:** It aims at giving the learners a limited freedom to use and practice what they have learned, yet still be subjected to some restrains. For example, model dialogues which the learners can change to talk about them and to communicate their own needs and ideas; tasks which the learners carry out using language structures and / or

vocabulary which has been taught beforehand. The level of the learners usually determines the nature of language control.

Indeed it is very helpful to provide the general situation and context of what is to be said and allow some freedom in the mode of expression. Learners can be asked to perform the dialogue in different ways and in different moods: for example, sad, happy, bored, etc. Then the actual words and ideas of the text can be substituted. For less confident learners guided oral practice through dialogue is an effective means to get them saying utterances within a wide variety of contexts.

**3- The Free Phase of Oral Production:** It is the final phase in language production stages. It involves the activities designed to make the learners produce naturally the language which has been presented to them and which they have practiced in various, more or less controlled situations. These activities usually cater for providing either creative practice opportunities for practical language items or general fluency practice where accuracy is less relevant. At more advanced levels learners feel they have the basic machinery to say what they want rather than what they are channeled into saying, and therefore they insist on moving rapidly to free production. Usually the teacher plays a vital role in planning a free stage to follow the introduction and more controlled practice of language items. For example, a discussion about favorite television programs can follow the presentation and practice of vocabulary items such as comedy, soap opera, documentary, etc. Group work is an effective tool for minimizing introversion and visual stimuli (such as *maps, photographs, pictures, cartoons, even slides and films*) are useful initiators of free oral production.

Moreover, other types of stimulus include authentic written texts, for example, magazines, popular newspapers and aural stimuli from sample of spoken English in form of dialogues. Materials with English culture and

some aspects of the native culture can be exploited by the teacher in any achievable way in the classroom.

Visually attractive magazines and materials from media are some examples for excellent stimuli to animate. Freer activities, however, need careful planning, by carefully setting up tasks (role, play, picture description, debate, etc) and providing the reasons, purpose and guidelines within which the learners can speak more freely. Gower et al (1995: 103) advocate that the teachers should plan and monitor creating speaking activities at three stages: before, during and after the activity as follows:

**A) Before the Activity**

- I – Decide on your aims .....
- II – Try to predict what the students will bring to the activity.
- III – Prepare the materials.
- IV – Work out your instructions.

**b ) During the Activity**

- I- Arouse the students' interest through visuals, a short lead – in talk, a newspaper headline, etc. Try to relate the topic to the students own interest and experience.
- II- Remind students of any structures or vocabulary that might be useful.
- III- Monitor the activity: don't interrupt except to provide help and encouragement if necessary.
- IV- Evaluate the activity and the students' performance in order to provide feedback later but don't jump in with instant corrections.

**c) After the Activity**

- I – Indicate how each person communicated, comment on how fluent each was, how well they argued, as a group.
- II- If possible, record the activity on audio or video cassette and play it back for discussion.

III-Note down recurrent errors in grammar, pronunciation, use of vocabulary, and appropriateness. Individual mistakes might be discussed (in private) with the students concerned. Mistakes which are common to the class can be mentioned and then practiced another day when there is a chance to prepare a suitable remedial lesson.

The guidelines at three stages are by no means exhaustive lists. Teachers may manage their speaking class creatively according to the level of the learners and availability of teaching materials. As well as more serious speaking activities , such as discussions , role plays , simulations and information gap activities , boredom can be avoided by including less serious tasks such as games , songs and puzzles.

### **2.3.5 The causes of language learners' errors**

Generally, learners make mistakes when they learn any language. These mistakes or errors arise for different reasons. Accordingly, Norrish (1983, pp.21-39) identified many possible causes of language learners' errors such as the following:

1. Carelessness: Carelessness is one of the important causes of error in language learning and it is related to a lack of motivation.
2. First language interference: Learning a first or a foreign language is a matter of habit formation. Thus, if language is a set of habits and when the learner learns new habits the old ones will interfere with the new ones. So, interference between learning the first language and learning the second or foreign language may cause language learning problems.
3. Translation: Errors due to translation may occur when the learner translates words from the first language to the target language literally.
4. Overgeneralization: Errors can occur when the learner over generalizes rules.

5. Material-induced errors: There are two types of errors which may be induced by teaching materials. These are the ignorance of rule restrictions and false concepts. For example, the use of the present continuous tense in the wrong situation is an example of an error that occurs as a result of a false concept.

6. Errors as part of language creativity: Learners may make mistakes when they create new sentences, since they have limited experience in the target language.

7. Foreign language errors: Learning the target language as a foreign language indicates that the learner learns the language mainly in the classroom. Learners of a foreign language may make a number of different mistakes. These mistakes are concerned with the formation of inter language. In addition, FL learners' errors may happen as a result of weakness in the textbook or on the part of the teacher who may, for example, mispronounce words or make grammatical mistakes.

8. Second language errors: Second language learning means learning the language in an environment where the language is in regular use outside the classroom. Second language learners may make errors because there are different varieties of the target language that are used for communication purposes outside the classroom.

### **2.3.7 Factors That Affect Speaking Performance:**

There are a number of factors relating to speaking skills to be considered for effective English speaking performance. Pronunciation, vocabulary, and collocations are singled out as important factors to be emphasized in building fluency for EFL speakers. Providing students with a variety of situations and frequent speaking tasks plays a significant role in the improvement of students' fluency when speaking. (Tam, 1997) .Confidence and competence usually lead to strengths of English speaking skills. Patil (2008) asserted that building up the learner's confidence to eliminate fear of making errors was a

priority that the teacher should consider in order to make the learner feel comfortable with their language use. Confidence and competence in speaking could be developed from appropriate syllabus design, methods of teaching, and sufficient tasks and materials (Bailey, 2005; Songsiri, 2007).

For effectiveness of speaking, Shumin (1997) pointed out a number of elements involved, listening skills, socio cultural factors, affective factors, and other linguistic and sociolinguistic competence such as grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. In order to convey meaning, EFL learners must have an understanding of words and sentences; that is, they must understand how words are segmented into various sounds, and how sentences are stressed in particular ways. This grammatical competence enables speakers to use and understand English language structures accurately and unhesitatingly which contributes to their fluency, which, in turn, develops confidence in speaking Performance models. Performance refers to “actual instances of language use in real time” (McNamara, 1996, p. 54). Performance is affected by many factors and is produced through complex interactions of the factors (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). In order to locate the focus of this study among the various factors, a general model of language performance (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) is reviewed first' Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model is a modified version of Bachman's (1990) model (see McNamara, 1996, for differences in the two models). According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), performance is affected by two major factors and is produced through interactions of the two. The factors are language users or test takers, and language use tasks and test tasks (p. 61) speaking performance is affected by three main factors:

- a. Test taker's internal factors
- b. External or contextual factors
- c. Interactions between (a) and (b).

language use tasks and test tasks” in Bachman and Palmer, 1996, and “task factors,” “other factors,” “factors of rating scale/band descriptors,” and “rater(s)’ factors” in Fulcher, 2003) on speaking performance has been called for (e.g., Chalhoub-Deville, 2003; Swain, 2001). Among components of “language knowledge,” this study focuses on “vocabulary knowledge” because of its theoretical and empirical importance.

### **1. Correction of Speech Errors**

To encourage learners to express themselves orally in an FL, the teacher has to restrain any urge to intervene at every slip of the tongue, hesitation or false start. It is inhibiting, hampering and frustrating beyond belief to be consistently checked and corrected when the learner is struggling with ideas in a FL. In fact, some learners are fearful of the criticism or losing face or simply shy of the attention their speech attracts when they speak in long turns. It is during the controlled and guided phases of oral production, that immediate correction should be made. It is then that learners are made conscious of possible errors and can be familiarized with acceptable sequences. Then they are enabled to monitor their own production and work towards its refinement in spontaneous interaction.

### **2. Mother Tongue Use**

In classes where all or a number of the learners share the same MT, they may tend to use it because it is easier and it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a FL. However, the teacher can persuade the learners to use the FL as an effective means for satisfying their communicative needs if he uses it himself in and outside the classroom to satisfy communicative needs

### **3. Visual Stimuli and Oral Production**

Visuals represent a very useful source for the stimulation of speech production in the EFL classroom. A stimulus is something that is intended to encourage the learners to speak, usually by providing a subject, an object or a picture to talk about .After all, verbal language is only a part of the way, we



usually get meaning from contexts. Things we see play an enormous part in affecting our feeling and thought and giving us information. We predict, deduce and infer not only from the reservoir of what we remember having seen. Visuals are not just an aspect of method, but through their representation of the social and physical contexts – places, objects and people – they motivate the learners to get involved in O.C. and create a specific reference point of stimulus and interest. Many types of visual stimuli can contribute to a sense of language context, for example, pictures, photographs, doodles, symbols and maps, etc.

#### **4. Pictures and Photographs**

Pictures are important stimuli of speaking activities. Wright (1989: 17) outlines some roles for pictures when the emphasis is on the stimulation of speaking skill:

- 1- Pictures can motivate the student and make him or her want to pay attention and want to take part.
- 2- Pictures contribute to the context in which the language is being used. They bring the world into the classroom for instance, (a street scene, a train).
- 3- Pictures can cue response to questions or cue substitutions through controlled practice.
- 4- Pictures can stimulate and provide information to be referred to in conversation, discussion and storytelling.

The English language teacher can, with little effort, build up a rich picture library. Learners themselves can be asked to bring pictures for the picture library from different sources.

Pictures provide challenging opportunities for the learners to use language communicatively and authentically as they try to describe, identify, compare, match, order and memorize the components. Subjectively, pictures can provide opportunities for the expression of experiences, feelings and personal

opinion. Wright ( ibid : 109) suggests non finality and mystery of speculative pictures, if enthusiastic speech production to gather momentum : “.....picture chosen for ‘speculation ‘must be ambiguous, and; most importantly, the teacher must not have a fixed interpretation of the picture. This would restrict the imagination of the students .....” .

Different interpretations give strong impetus for speaking and listening. Photographs or paintings from color magazines are rich source of such materials; or the teacher may make his / her own. For instance, pictures of one person simulate conjecture as to what sort of person he is. Pictures of famous people can be used to talk, for instance, about their identities: reasons for their fame, achievement, evaluation of what they have done/ are doing.

### **5. Symbols and Maps**

Pictures of symbols and maps can be found in road traffic booklets, geography books, and journals, etc. They are very helpful aids for stimulation of speech production. For example, general things to talk about may include: what does a certain symbol mean? How do you think? How can you get there? All these question coupled with pictures are likely to stimulate students to produce speech.

### **6. Stick Drawings and Cartoons**

Many actions can be portrayed by simple stick drawing of people, animals and objects. For instance, a simple country scene involving the drawing of cows, trees, rivers or indoor scene involving the positions of furniture and simple objects might form a useful basis for speaking activity.

It is useful to build up an interesting story instead of limiting the oral production stimuli to unrelated drawings. On the other hand, humorous cartoon strips cut out of magazines, newspapers and old books are potentially useful sources for stimulating speech. First of all, the teacher can ask questions to help the learner grasp the meaning of a cartoon strip. Advanced

students can discuss the technique of the cartoonist in his / her representation of the people and the setting and the relationship between drawings and words.

The teacher and / or the learner can draw their own cartoons and stick figures on the board without preparation, and images on it are immediately visible to the whole class. Wright (ibid: 206) contends that the greatest advantage of the board is that “pictures can grow before one’s eyes and parts can be erased and substituted”. This flexibility makes it possible to cue for varied types of practice and provides a creative stimulus for more open speaking.

Cundale (1999: 37) outlines the usefulness of visuals in stimulating learners to communicate orally whether they are working as a class, in groups or in pairs . Firstly, they provide accessible input and contextualization for the learners. Secondly, visuals are very economical stimuli in that the teacher is able to greatly reduce his / her talking when introduction or developing a topic. Thirdly, in animated oral involvement; learners usually focus on the content of what they say, not on language per se. It has been argued that in such conditions, language acquisition takes place, Krashen (1982 b ) . Fourthly, it is known that students learn in different ways, and obviously pictures help those who are visually oriented. Finally , visuals are effective means for brining the outside world into the classroom and generating the desire to speak ; even on reading the newspapers in our first language , they are the first thing that attract our attention . The importance of visual stimuli led Wright (1989: 212) to advocate formation of picture files, as part of the teachers’ visual resources for later use .

The use of visuals in the EFL classroom is, therefore, not only innovatory but also an indispensable for motivating the learners and promoting practice.

### **2.3.7 Teaching EFL speaking**

One of the important issues in teaching English is the issue of teaching EFL speaking. Teaching EFL speaking skills is not an easy task. Such a claim is

substantiated by the argument that teaching speaking is meant to help students improve their communicative ability. Indeed, Bygate (1987 as cited in Wang, 2006, p.47) makes a “distinction between knowledge about a language, and skill in using it.” He offers an analogy of knowing the controls of the car and using it.

The skill to drive the car. Thus, teaching speaking means to train the learner to speak, rather than to teach him about speaking.

According to Nunan, teaching speaking is to teach EFL / ESL students “to produce the English speech sounds and sound patterns, to use word and sentence stress, to select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter, to organize their thoughts in a meaningful and logical sequence, to use language as a means of expressing values and judgments, and to use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called as fluency” (Nunan, 2003 as cited in Kayi, 2006, p.1).

Hence, teachers should pay a great deal of attention to teaching speaking. They should realize that teaching speaking is different from teaching other language skills such as writing and reading. In this regard, Kayi (2006, p.4) offered some important recommendations for teachers with regard to teaching speaking:

1. Provide maximum opportunity to students to speak the target language by providing a rich environment that contains collaborative work and authentic materials.
2. Try to involve each student in every speaking activity and practice different ways of student participation.
3. Reduce teacher speaking time in class while increasing student speaking time.
4. Indicate positive signs when commenting on a student's response.

5. Ask eliciting questions such as "What do you mean?" in order to prompt students to speak more and more.
6. Provide written feedback which includes positive comments.
7. Do not correct students' pronunciation mistakes very often while they are speaking.
8. Correction should not distract student from his or her speech.
9. Involve the students in speaking activities, not only in class, but also outside the classroom.
10. Circulate around the classroom to ensure that students are on the right track and to see whether they need your help while they work in groups or pairs.
11. Provide the vocabulary beforehand that students need in speaking activities.
12. Diagnose problems faced by students who have difficulty in expressing themselves in the target language, and provide more opportunities to practice the spoken language.

Furthermore, Abu Ghararah (1998, p.36) suggests important procedures for teachers to follow while teaching speaking:

1. Say the model sentence two or three times orally and select sentences which are short and easy to say.
2. Say the sentence at normal speed without exaggeration of lip movements when pronouncing the words.
3. Ask good students to speak before asking the weaker ones to give the latter a chance to practice the responses correctly.
4. Ask students to act as both listener and speaker.
5. Use various interesting oral exercises and techniques to reduce classroom tension and boredom.

6. Correct your students' speech gently, and do not correct every mistake a student might make.

In teaching EFL speaking, teachers should focus on both accuracy and fluency. They should provide practice in pronunciation, stress and intonation, as well as fluency. Moreover, Cotter (2007) suggests that teachers should work towards maintaining a balance between fluency (getting the words out) and accuracy (using grammar and vocabulary correctly).

Yan (2007) observes that since the target of learning English is to communicate with others, it is important to help the learners build confidence in the skill of speaking in order to encourage them to be more willing to exchange their ideas in the target language. Thus, he concludes that accuracy and fluency should be integrated within classroom activities.

### **2-3.8 Speaking Activities**

Oral fluency can be developed by using various types of "information gap" and "opinion gap" activities terms widely used to describe features essential to communication, (Wright, et al 1984:2). We speak because we want to pass information or convey an opinion which we conceive the receiver may be interested in. If the receiver is of the same opinion and is familiar with what is to be said, there is no gap and there is no motive for interaction.

Moreover, oral fluency can be stimulated by using task – based activities, which are essentially goal – oriented, (Ur, 1981: 39). It requires the group , or pair , to achieve an objective that is usually expressed by observable results , such as brief notes or lists , arrangement of jumbled items , and spoken summaries. The result should be attainable only by interaction among participants, in their attempt to reach or find out every one's opinion. A task is often enhanced if there is some kind of visual stimuli to base the talking on.

In terms of the learner's involvement in oral production, activities can be divided into brain storming and task - based .

#### **1. Brain Storming Activities**

These activities based on the collection of different ideas from all the participants, in the first stage. In the second stage these ideas have to be pooled, ordered and evaluated to support subsequent speech production.

Brain storming activities aim at reducing the learners' double fold responsibility in dividing their attention between language and ideas. Klippel (ibid: 97) argues that they increase mental flexibility and encourage original thinking. Here are some examples:

**1-Characteristics:** The procedure for this activity involves the following steps:

(a) Division of the class into pairs or groups. Each group is asked the same question. A possible question is what are the characteristics of a good teacher/mother?

(b) Each group reads out their list of characteristics, and then they are written on the board.

(c) Each group is required to put the characteristics in order of priority, then cut them down to the most important ones or expand them to describe exhaustively the most preferred teacher, ruler, etc.

(d) Each group chooses a characteristic and discusses it according to the priority in their list. Ur (1981: 38) exemplifies some of possible characteristics of the preceding subjects:

A wife / husband: Tolerant, considerate, hard working. Well educated, etc.

Soldier: disciplined, strong, brave, etc.

Teacher: Intelligent, pleasant to look at, etc.

The learner can be asked questions such as how you would rate the following qualities in a ..... ? Assessment of the relative merits of the characteristic is far more subjective and dependent on the background and the personalities of the learners. Therefore it is impossible to give "right" answer; and this generates impetus for discussion.

**2- Foreseeing Results:** It refers to brainstorming the learners' ideas on possible eventualities such as can you think of all the implications of events such:

1- The end of war in Sudan.

2- Smoking.

This activity can be performed as a straight forward discussion or through role – playing various characters each of who is interested in the effects on his or her own life or sphere of activity.

**3- Picture/ Sentence Sequence:** In picture sequence activity each member of the group is given a picture from a series which, when assembled, forms a logical sequence of events without actually displaying their pictures to one another. Learners describe their contents and thereby try to discover the correct order solely through oral interaction, Ur, (ibid: 52). Similarly, sentence or parts of sentences can be ordered into sequence using a comparable technique.

Perhaps the most convenient way of preparing this is to take a short typed passage, cut it up and give each member of the group a sentence on a strip of paper to learn by heart. The strips of paper are then confiscated, and the group is left to work out the original order. Participants have to do a lot of talking before they are able to fit the sentence or the pictures together in the right way.

### **2.3.9. Task Based Activities**

The most natural and effective way for learners , who are studying English in a non – English speaking setting, to practice talking freely in the FL, is by thinking out some situations which will provide stimulus for spontaneous speech.

In task based activities participants are asked to perform something, where the discussion process is a means to an end. This motivates the learners and provides them with an enjoyable and challenging sense of purpose. Task -



based activities also prepare learners for the possibilities of communicative interaction outside the classroom. Role play, games and simulation are some examples.

### 1- **Role play:**

According to Dixey (1978), Heyworth (1978) Lynch (1977) , Maley and Duff (1982), Little wood (1981) Klippel (1983), Ur (1981), role play is used to refer to all sorts of activities where learners imagine themselves in a situation outside the classroom , sometimes playing the role of someone other than themselves, and using the language appropriate to this new context.

Ur (1981: 9) argues that the use of role play has added a tremendous number of possibilities for communication practice. Learners are no longer confined to the kind of language used solely in the classroom:

They can be shopkeepers or spies, children, authority figures or subordinates, they can be frightened, disapproving or affectionate ... they can be on a ship or on the moon, etc. The language can correspondingly vary along several parameters: according to the profession, status, according to the physical setting imagined, and according to the communicative functions or purpose ` required.

As the learners take part in situations acting out conversations, their speech is unscripted although the general ideas about what they are going to say might be prepared beforehand. These might well come out of a text or a previous context. Role play can be used to:

- a. Remind the learners of situations they might be in.
- b. Give the learners an opportunity to try out language recently introduced or revised and practiced in a more controlled way.
- c. Give the learners the opportunity to improve their fluency, through a wide range of language functions, in a variety of situation and with different persons.

**Example:**

Simple role – plays where learners are put in situations they may be faced with, when they in an English – speaking country (for examples, buying, things from a shop, asking for directions, etc.) In such role play there is no need for detailed character definition. The activity works best if there is no fixed conclusion to be reached, or if there is something unexpected in the exchange. Gower et al (1995: 105) , provides the following procedure for performing role play, using role cards.

**Step 1:** prepare the following cards:

<b>Student A</b>	<b>Student B</b>
At the situation You want to get to London by 3, o' clock. It is now 12:15. you are hungry and would like to have lunch, either at the station or on the train. Ask the ticket clerk about the train to London.	At the station You are a ticket clerk. To get to London, Passengers must change at Cambridge. There is a train at 12:30 which arrives at 3:13. Passengers can buy sandwiches and drinks on the train.

**Step 2:** English the context of a railway station, perhaps using a picture or by talking about the student's experience.

**Step 3:** Divide class into pairs. Each pair consists of student A and student B.

**Step 4:** Student A and student B read their cards silently and digest the information written down without giving anything away to one another.

**Step 5:** Get the students to act it out in pairs. Monitor unobtrusively.

**Step 6:** Possibly get one or two pairs to act it out in front of others.

**Step 7:** Provide general feedback.

**2- Simulation:** It is not easy to draw a dividing line between role play and simulation. Both are forms of activities mirroring a picture of reality. Simulation is different from role play in that the learners are not playing roles but being themselves. They are faced by a task or a problem to be solved and

they must do what they would do in the circumstances. Simulation is more highly structured and contains more diverse elements in its content and procedure. Davison and Gardon (1978: 55) define simulation as: "simplified patterns of human interaction or social process where the players participate in roles". Most simulation demands that the participants are supplied with background information and materials to work from, both before and during the assimilation. Learners assume the roles, functions, duties and responsibilities as a vice – chancellor, president, reporter etc. within a structured situation involving problems solving and decision – making. Jones (1982) provided an excellent account of the benefits of using simulation as an effective activity; for increasing personal involvement and motivation. He maintains that simulation provides the participants with the mutual need to communicate. The need is inherent in the activity; this is not a teacher directed need; the participants do not communicate to please the teacher or in order to learn language skills, but because of the duties inherent in their functions. This in turn breaks the teacher- student orientation, brings together learners, who otherwise would say little to each other and demises the barrier of shyness as Jones (ibid: 11) puts it:

One of the main reasons why teachers of foreign language find simulations so useful is that they destroy the teacher-student orientation, and kick the teacher out of the classroom. Inhibitions and fears tend to diminish and may vanish altogether because participants are talking to each other, not to the teacher. And their talk is not casual chat, but related duties.

There are a number of commercially available simulations especially in the form of computer software. However, teachers can develop their own materials bearing in mind cross cultural considerations. Generally, the more realistic they are the more likely the learners will be able to take part in.

**Example 1:****Level:** Intermediate / Advanced**Organization:** Group/ class

A restaurant in your school is losing money and will have to close soon if changes are not made. In your group make some suggestions of what could be done to keep it open. If possible learners should refer to the restaurant in their school. If it doesn't have one, the teacher will have to feed in some information what it sells, prices, quality of services, etc.

**3- Discussions:** They are topic based activities, in which the learners are asked to talk about controversial subjects, the main aim being practice of oral fluency. Most of these fully - discussions take a lot of preparation if the teacher is going to dominate. Gower. et al (1995:107) say that discussions can be successful if the teacher can ensure that :

(a) The students are interested in the subject and have ideas of their own about it.

(b) The activity has sufficient motivating factors in its structure to create the need to speak.

(c) The students have the language to discuss what they are supposed to discuss. This may include particular structure and vocabulary.

(d) The students have been prepared for the discussion and have been given time to organize their thoughts.

(e) The activity is managed so that the discussion is not dominated by one or two students.

If the teacher doesn't think about these factors he will end up doing all the talking. Discussion often takes place most effectively in small groups where learners feel less nervous about speaking and possibly making mistakes. As far as topics are concerned, sensitivity is required to draw the right balance between extremely (local) and international topics. On the other hand, fictionalized topic with problems often work better than abstract ones, for

example, “the *age at which young people are allowed to marry*” might be an interesting topic, but learners might find it difficult to relate the topic to the abstract issue. However, if the same topic is introduced by telling a story which involves young people who want to marry and parents who want to stop them, and then ask groups to give advice, this is more likely to lead to animated involvement and communication. Besides, discussion can be stimulated by the following methods of structuring proposed by Gower et al (ibid: 108) :

**a) Modifying Statement**

The learners are given a list of, say, ten controversial statements around the subjects, ‘parents’: for example, ‘parents should teach boys to cook and girl to mend the car’. Groups are then asked to modify the statements so that all of the members of the groups agree with them. If there is time, groups can then comparing their statements.

**b) Sequencing Statements**

The students are given a list of say, ten non- controversial statements: for example, “*students go to school to learn discipline and order*”. They are then asked, in groups to sequence (1- 10) in order of priority the most important reasons for going to school.

**c) Defending Statement**

Different controversial statements are written on piece of paper and then put into a box: for example, “*children should be encouraged to leave home at sixteen*”. The students are told to pick out a statement and then spend a few minutes preparing for arguments to defend it.

**d) Problem – Solving**

Students can be presented with a problem and given a set time to discuss possible answer. For example: “One of your classmates has got suddenly ill and must be taken to hospital at once. The college cars and buses have gone

to town. You are about 5 kilometers from the hospital. Discuss what you should do”, (Hisn et al, 1988: 36) .

**4- Games:** Games are not merely enjoyable activities which can be brought in when the teacher observes that students are tired of “ *hard work of learning* ” and need a change , but actually they are interesting devices for providing intense and meaningful practice of language.

Wright et al (1984), argues that games can be found to give global practice in all the skills, in all stages of teaching / learning sequence and for many types of communicative functions.

Games are wrongly assumed to be fit only for children. In fact, they are not restricted by age. Some learners regardless of age may be less fond of games than others. Many learners are prepared to take part in games which they would consider a little juvenile or rather boring in the mother tongue. However, so much depends on the appropriateness of the games and the roles of the players. Stevick (1982:128) distinguished between two types of games: competitive and noncompetitive, “in a competitive game the goal is defeating on opponent. In a non- competitive game all players work together in order to bring light out of darkness or order out of chaos”. This experience of solving problems is virtually an important short term motivation for speaking. Games are a rich source of such experience, which generates talk naturally, because they combine language practice with fun and excitement. Here are some examples of game types:

**(a) Guessing Games**

The basic rule for guessing games is very simple: one person knows something that another wants to find out. How this is done is determined by an additional set of rules, which lay down, for example, the type and number of questions. The thing to be guessed differs greatly from one game to another. It can be something one player is thinking of, an object seen only by one person, a word, an activity- or many other things.

### **(b) Memory Games**

For example, the learners have to try to remember certain facts (e. g. from a text) or what something is like (a place, a person, etc.)

### **(c) Picture Games**

For example, those games which are based mainly on the use of pictures, mostly they involve: comparing and contrasting, considering possible relationships between pictures such as narrative sequence ; describing key features so that someone else may identify them or represent them in a similar way . Most picture games involve the learners in the relatively creative use of the language at their command.

### **2.3.10. Performance Models**

Performance refers to “actual instances of language use in real time” (McNamara, 1996, p.54).

Performance is simulated by numerous factors and is produced through complex interactions of those factors (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

According to Bachman and Palmer (1996) performance is affected by two large factors and is created through interactions of the two. The first major factor (language users or test takers) consists of four single characteristics: language ability, personal characteristics, topical knowledge, and affective schemata (p.64). While the second major factor is produced of five elements (p.47): setting, test rubric, input, expected response, and a relationship between input and response. Among some parts of language knowledge this study also highlights on vocabulary knowledge mainly because of its theoretical and empirical importance.

### **1. Language Ability**

In this parts of “language ability” are reviewed in order to find the area of “vocabulary knowledge” in the framework. Although several researchers (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale & Swain 1980; Hymes, 1972; Taylor, 1988; and etc.) all have suggested their own categories of language ability,

(McNamara, 1996) summarized their views and specified components into two groups, following Hymes, (1972): language knowledge and ability for use. But according to Bachman & Palmer's (1996) model, "language knowledge" is made of (1) organizational knowledge and (2) pragmatic knowledge. The first one is the knowledge to use a language in order to comprehend and create grammatical utterance, sentences, and discourse, while consisting of grammatical knowledge. As the second one involves the knowledge to interpret and create discourse by connecting together utterances, sentences, and texts with meanings and intentions, and is separated into functional and sociolinguistic knowledge (pp. 66-67).

"Ability for use" is the ability to use one's knowledge of language. Bachman & Palmer (1996) incorporated it into a broader of strategic competence (p.70). It also includes the ability to (1) set goals (2) asses and (3) plan. There are various aspects of a speaking activity that is produced using language ability are explained based on Bachman and Palmers terms.

#### **2.4. Aspects of Productive Vocabulary Knowledge**

This segment describes dynamic vocabulary knowledge from two different perspectives "receptive vs. productive" and "size vs. depth". Vocabulary can be conceptualized in several ways (e.g., Henricksen, 1999; Nation, 2001; and etc.). For instance, Qian (2002) summarized past categories and proposed a framework that consists of the following four views: (1) vocabulary size, (2) depth of vocabulary knowledge, (3) lexical organization , and (4) automaticity of receptive-productive knowledge. Another example is Meara (1996), who described vocabulary from two dimensions: size and organization. Framework can be seen at its broadest in Chapelle (1994), who conceptualized vocabulary ability as having three components: the context of vocabulary use, vocabulary knowledge and fundamental processes, and meta cognitive strategies for vocabulary use. The first aspect, the context of vocabulary use, not only does it include the linguistic context but also the



pragmatic context and between colloquial and more formal uses of words”; Read, 2000, p. 31). The second constituent, vocabulary knowledge and fundamental processes, has four dimensions: (1) vocabulary size, (2) knowledge of word characteristics, (3) lexicon organization, and (4) fundamentals vocabulary processes. The first two dimensions are described below. The way in which words are related to each other is Lexicon organization, whereas fundamental processes involve the automaticity in accessing and utilizing each word. Chapelle (1990) categorized the third component of vocabulary ability which is meta cognitive strategies for vocabulary use.

While there are numerous types of classification, this study on vocabulary knowledge is mainly analyzed from two different viewpoints: (a) receptive vs. productive, and (b) size vs. depth. As for the distinction between receptive and productive (e.g., Nation, 2001, pp. 24-26, 2005, pp. 584-585; Read, 2000, p. 154; Schmitt, 2000, p. 4), receptive vocabulary knowledge is the type of knowledge to understand a word in reading and listening, whereas productive vocabulary knowledge is the knowledge to produce a word when one speaks and writes .

The main focus on this study is on vocabulary knowledge by dealing with its relationships with speaking performance because productive vocabulary knowledge seems more relevant to speaking performance by its definition.

Although the whole concept of receptive and productive vocabulary is consistent, definition of the terms from past studies have used “receptive” and “productive” differently, which leads to difficulty in interpreting previous results. Laufer et al. (2004) further subdivided Read’s “recall” into two types according to what is to be retrieved (i.e., form or meaning). Their classifications are highly valuable, and they are a basic use in this study.

Another difference of vocabulary knowledge is that it can be classified into two types: size and depth (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Nakanishi &

Shimamoto, 2003). Vocabulary size is also called breadth, which is a quantitative dimension of vocabulary knowledge. It refers to the number of words with a key meaning that a learner has (Nakanishi & Shimamoto, 2003, p. 32), or “the number of words for which the person knows at least some of the significant features of meaning” (Anderson & Freebody, 1981, p. 93). Vocabulary depth is a qualitative dimension of vocabulary knowledge and refers to the degree to which a learner knows a specific word in addition to knowing a principal meaning.

When size is focused on, there are four ways of counting words: tokens, types, lemmas, and word families. In counting tokens, all words that exist in a text are counted as one separate word, even when the same words are repeatedly used. In counting types, the same words are counted as only one word when repeatedly used, and a base form and inflected forms (e.g., the base form of *lives* is *live* and one inflected form of *live* is *lives*) are considered to be different types. In counting lemmas, a base form, inflected forms, and reduced forms are considered to be the same lemma and are only counted as one. In counting word families, base, inflected, reduced, and derived forms are counted as one.

Depth includes word frequency, association, affix knowledge, syntactic characteristics, and other aspects (Nation, 2001). While size seems to consist of spoken and written form ((a) to (d)) and form and meaning ((g) and (h)), depth is made up of the other aspects. Presented another classification and divided depth into three aspects: precision of meaning, comprehensive word knowledge, and network knowledge. First, precision of meaning includes “having a limited, vague idea of what a word means and having much more elaborated and specific knowledge of its meaning” (p. 211). Second, comprehensive word knowledge refers to “knowledge of a word which includes not only its semantic features but also its orthographic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, collocation and pragmatic

characteristics” (p. 211). Third, network knowledge is defined as “the incorporation of the word into a lexical network in the mental lexicon together with the ability to link it to -- and distinguish it from – related words” (p. 212).

To Summarize, the importance of size and depth, size, is essential knowledge of a primary meaning and a form of a word, has been considered the most important aspect of vocabulary knowledge (Laufer et al., 2004) and others argued that size is the only important dimension when novices know a small number of words in English, and that “once this critical threshold is reached, vocabulary size seems to become less important” (p. 45.)

#### **2.4.1. Tests to Assess Productive Vocabulary Knowledge**

Meaningful and consistent tests are needed in order to examine vocabulary knowledge empirically. Although some tests have been made, they have not all gone through a validation process some have been rather vague (Read, 2000). Therefore, different results using different tests have been tricky to interpret (Shimamoto, 2005).

In connection with this, nine current tests were analyzed using Read’s (2000) framework. A summary was made only for tests in which test takers are required to produce forms. Therefore, receptive vocabulary tests, such as the Euro centers Vocabulary Size Test (Meara & Buxton, 1987), , and receptive vocabulary depth tests, such as, Shimamoto (2000), were not included.

There are nine core tests of productive vocabulary knowledge that assess distinct aspects of vocabulary. To begin with, the Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP), examiners write an essay of more than 200 words. Then “the percentage of words a learner uses at different vocabulary frequency levels” (p. 311) is computed using computer software, and the ratio obtained is interpreted as “free productive ability” (Laufer & Nation, 1999, p. 37).

Sixthly, a format containing knowledge of suffixes and word associations was used by Schmitt and Meara (1997). With this, a stimulus word was

provided to examiners and they were required to write (a) all suffixes that they thought could be added to the stimulus word, and (b) three word associations incited from the stimulus. Scores were based on a judgment by native speakers. Although the single problem with this format is that examiners can write as many suffixes as they wanted, so the scores may reflect on individual characteristics. For example, those who tend to write more than others, even when they are not sure of their accuracy may or may not be rewarded depending on scoring methods. An additional problem is that it may be a little tricky to compare the results of suffixes and word associations due to differences in obtaining responses (i.e., the examiners can write as many suffixes as they want and can have limited associations ). An individual interview format Laufer and Goldstein (2004) except that first letter of the word was not given. The second format (b) seems to have the same problem that Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) have for the purpose of this research. The third and fourth formats (c and d) seem capable because the number of responses is specified as one and what the format assesses seems clearer, although empirical examination is needed to examine this.

Ninthly, test formats were used by Shimamoto (2005) to measure two types of prolific vocabulary knowledge: paradigmatic and syntagmatic knowledge. Shimamoto had a problem that was similar as the first one in Schmitt and Meara (1997): the likely effects of individual characteristics and scoring methods on test scores.

So far, nine tests or formats (formats, hereafter) to evaluate productive vocabulary knowledge have been examined. Each format assesses different aspects of productive vocabulary knowledge and that aspects assessed are limited. These nine prolific vocabulary test formats, which assess different aspects of productive vocabulary, certainly have their own values. Though some formats tend to excel over others.

This study decides to use the formats that seem able to measure the knowledge of vocabulary that are projected to measure as a basis, and its association to enhance speaking.

## 2.5 Speaking Performance

Speaking is often referred as “a process of *oral language production*” (Tarone, 2005, p.485). Performance can be defined as actual instances of producing oral production in real times (McNamara, 1996, p.56). Speaking performance has been assessed in several fields and is a well-liked research target.

With task-based learning and teaching, a significant amount of research has been conducted into task effects on speaking performance in second language acquisition (SLA) field. This specific unit will review on the aspects of speaking performance and its assessments.

Wide aspects of speaking performance can be described from a few points of views. One of the most significant models of the speaking process from a psycholinguistic perspective is Levelt’s (1993), which is greatly valued by numerous researchers and others and have used it on a basis for recent research. Past findings were summarized by Levelt, in relation to speaking and proposed a model from a psycholinguistic perspective. Revised by him later in 1993 he included both speaking and listening processes. Given that, research focuses primarily on speaking, related parts are only described. In Levelt’s (1993) model, there are three stages of speech production: (a) conceptualization, (b) formulation, and (c) articulation. People type messages in the conceptualize, and put them in a form of language in the formulator. In the second stage, playing a vital part is the lexicon. It contains all the information linked to vocabulary and is divided into two constituents: lemmas<sup>2.9</sup> and lexemes.<sup>2.10</sup> the lemmas consist of information on meanings and syntax, while lexemes compose information on morphology and phonology. After that comes phonological encoding, in which morphological

and phonological information is incorporated by the use of lexemes. The result is called a phonetic plan, articulator plan, or internal speech, which is articulated later as overt speech. Formed messages are checked according to their appropriateness while internal and overt speeches and outcomes of speaking are monitored. Next, speaking performance is split into monologues and dialogues depending on whether there is communication between the speaker and the listener. Also speaking performance is divided into utterances with and without planning time.

Monologues are selected because dialogues are more often affected by external factors. While speaking performance without planning time is chosen to examine relationships with creative vocabulary knowing and speaking presentation if planning time was provided it would lead to even stronger relationships. Lastly is linguistic aspects on speaking performance there are numerous linguistic aspects but fluency and accuracy have been regarded the most essential. Fluency is more linked with “getting the task done” (Skehan & Foster, p.91) while accuracy is more connected with use of an inter language system at a particular level.

### **2.5.1 Assessment of Speaking Performance**

Speaking performance is graded using speaking tasks in a speaking test. A speaking test is defined as a test in which oral utterances are elicited and rated. There are different formats, either where a test taker talks to an interviewer or where he or she can record his or her voice on a recorder. These tests are the complete opposite of pencil-paper tests. Two methods are often used when assessing speaking performance: rating scales and speaking performance measures. Three primary methods were summarized by Ellis (2003) of assessing speaking performance: (a) direct assessment of task outcomes, (b) discourse analytic measures, and (c) external ratings (p. 296). The first method tasks are scored based on their outcome. This method is quite similar to a rating scale of task achievement; a rating scale is basically

the scale on the description in your language proficiency. There are two main types of rating scales: holistic and analytic rating scales. The holistic scale produces only one score that covers overall aspects of performance, whereas each analytic scale is constructed for each aspect, and after speaking performance is evaluated, more than one score is derived.

There is more benefit when using both rating scales and discourse analytic measures; discourse analytics have use for two causes. For this study, suitable test will be used bearing in mind the level of students and the situation of English as a foreign language in Sudan.

Fluency is defined as how fast and how much a learner speaks without fluency markers. Fluency measures can be separated into two categories: “temporal” and measures of “a degree of freedom from various fluency markers” (Lennon, 1990b, p. 403). It should be noted that the term “fluency” does not represent the overall proficiency but only one feature of speaking performance. How much a learner speaks without errors in real-time communication is accuracy and there are two types of associated measure: general measures and specific measures.

As for complexity it is defined as the degree to which a learner uses varied and sophisticated structures and vocabulary in speaking and is divided into syntactic complexity and lexical complexity. The final can be separated into three types: lexical diversity or lexical variation, and lexical sophistication. However, no studies have examined the virtual effect of each factor on speaking performance measures.

The research is currently focused on effects of tasks. In other words, to what limit do tasks affect speaking performance? If they sway speaking performance to a large degree and the results of speaking performance measures change considerably across tasks, this means that the measures lack generalize ability across tasks.

## **2.6 The Relation between Vocabulary and Speaking Performance**

This part will review relationships between vocabulary and speaking. Four clear points need to be made before this review. Firstly, the studies reviewed were the ones that analyzed language that was produced orally first. Second, even though the fact that each study interpreted speaking performance in its own way, all are reviewed as “speaking performance” because this interpretation had the fewest assumptions. Third, as for types of vocabulary, the term “productive” was only used when test takers were required to produce a form. Fourth, although vocabulary can be seen from a multi-word level (e.g., Ota, Kanatani, Kosuge, & Hidai, 2003). As well as an individual level, only relationships between vocabulary and speaking are reviewed.

There is a theoretical background to the relationship between vocabulary and speaking performance. Multiple theoretical models described the relationship between them distinctively. Additionally empirical studies have classified the relationships between them into two types: studies that dealt with (a) vocabulary used in speaking performance, and (b) relationships between vocabulary knowledge and speaking.

### **2.6.1 Vocabulary Used in Speaking Performance**

In this area it will describe the vocabulary used in speaking performance from studies. Some studies examined distinctiveness of vocabulary in spoken dialogue. For instance, Adolphs and Schmitt (2003) reported that roughly 95% of words in the utterances belonged to 2,000 word families or 3,000 single words. Their studies imply that a moderately small number of words are needed for speaking performance.

Additional studies examined relationships between some learner characteristics and vocabulary in the spoken corpus. In relation to language proficiency, Read (2005) and Iwashita (2005) reported a trend of test takers with higher proficiency producing better vocabulary use in speaking performance. Kimura (2004) analyzed spoken texts and demonstrated that the



types of vocabulary used were different across oral skill levels. For instance, the proportions of nouns and lexical words used were greater than those of verbs and function words at lower levels, whereas at intermediate levels, the trend of the proportions became inverted, followed by an increase of lexical variety at advanced levels? Adams (1980), and Higgs and Clifford (1982) made a model that showed the importance of various elements such as vocabulary and grammar to overall skill. The results showed close relationships, and even closer for vocabulary as part of the whole speaking presentation. There are 3 studies that consistently indicate these strong relationships targeting Japanese pupils at beginner levels. First, Koizumi and Kurizaki (2002) found strong relations between speaking test scores and the amount of words they uttered in the test itself. Second, Takiguchi (2003) analyzed components using speaking exam scores and performance measures in interactive tasks. And lastly, Usuda (2002) found a strong connection between the amount of tokens uttered and their overall test scores in certain tasks of monologue. Even though these three studies clearly show strong relationships of “vocabulary use in speaking performance” there are still questions that whether “overall speaking” can be generalized or what it is made of. These concerns certainly will be heavily studied on in the future.

### **2.6.2 Affects of Vocabulary Knowledge on Speaking Performance**

We will focus on the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and speaking performance. There are nine different studies that have looked in to this topic.

First, in Vermeer (2000) the connections were practically zero on the aspects of speaking performance. So its participants took 2 vocabulary tests: (1) A receptive test in which the taker selects a picture and responds to it orally and (2) a definition test in where you describe the meaning of a given word.

Second, Ukrainetz and Blomquist (2002) found that among American children that there were some connections between productive and receptive

test scores. They analyzed this after testing them. Third, Durán et al. (2004) studied the relationships between lexical diversity and receptive test scores. It was later analyzed from recordings of natural dialogue at home.

Fourth, in Ishizuka (2000), they found relationships between receptive test and interview test scores. The other studies have also found similarity between these two using their own different procedures.

In addition each study seemed to be affected by the following 4 problems; first, there actually haven't been any examined relationships between the size and depth of vocabulary knowledge and speaking performance. The limit was seemed that only linguistic aspects of speaking performance can be examined. Second, a question remains on whether speaking test scores show their overall performance or if "overall speaking" can be generalized. While all the aspects in their scores are clear each incorporated different aspects at a much wider range. So it was assessed at a more narrow range but it lacked the empirical model of speaking performance. Without the model it would be to deal with the notion of "overall speaking performance".

Third, several studies have lacked enough information on speaking tests. This is crucial for interpreting outcomes if your test reliability is low than weak connections can occur due to that low reliability. Fourth, the participation was limited from past studies while several studies only focused on students from one school.

By looking at the numerous problems that vary of these results, it is clear to say that future studies will be needed for design modification. To attain more interpretable results it would be required to utilize multiple tests, examine from different perspectives, and collect more participants to embody the population.

## **2-7 Previous Studies about Vocabulary Knowledge and speaking performance**

June (2001) conducted a study entitled' *Relationships between Productive Vocabulary Knowledge and Speaking Performance of American Learners of English at the Novice Level*". The results showed that learners always scored higher in the receptive test than in the controlled productive tests. As learners' vocabulary increased, their receptive vocabulary grew progressively larger than their productive vocabulary. However, learners with larger vocabulary sizes and learners with smaller vocabulary sizes did not differ greatly in the relative proportion of receptive to productive vocabulary.

Laufer, Batia,( 2004) conducted a study entitled' *Comparing the Development of Passive and Active Vocabulary Knowledge of Israeli EFL Learners*". Laufer used two types of tests, passive vocabulary Knowledge was measured by the VLT( Nation:,1993:56). The results showed that passive vocabulary progressed very well. The learners with an additional year of instruction had a much larger passive vocabulary.

**Lafuer (2009) conducted another study entitle” ,*The Influence of Language Contact and Vocabulary Knowledge on the Speaking Performance of Japanese Students of English*)**

This study examined the influence of language contact and vocabulary knowledge on the speaking performance of 73 Japanese students in English language schools in New Zealand. The results revealed that vocabulary knowledge correlated with fluency, accuracy, complexity and global impression aspects of speaking performance. Time spent on the following were also found to correlate positively with various aspects of speaking performance: studying English, staying in English-speaking countries, speaking English outside of school, speaking English with non-native English speakers, and reading. In contrast, time spent watching television was found to negatively correlate with speaking accuracy.

**Rie Koizum,(2013) “Predicting speaking ability from vocabulary knowledge”**

The present study had three purposes: (a) to examine the extent of the relationship between speaking ability and two types of vocabulary (i.e., productive vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary performance), to investigate to what extent productive vocabulary knowledge can predict speaking ability and to explore how much the ability to use vocabulary knowledge is involved in speaking ability The results indicated the existence of (a) a substantial effect of productive vocabulary knowledge on speaking ability, and (b) a substantial effect of speaking ability on vocabulary performance, and that the impact is significantly stronger.

**Afif Fauzi (2007) conducted study “The correlation between students vocabulary achievement and speaking ability”** . The study aimed at finding out the correlation between students’ vocabulary achievement and speaking ability The research implied when students vocabulary increased , there is improvement in their speaking ability became week .However this finding need further research. "Gholum-Ali

**Tahmasebi,Mehdi Ghaerahmat and Hamidreza Haqverd i(2012) “The relationship between language proficiency and Iranian EFL learners’ knowledge of vocabulary depth”**

The study intended to examine the relationship among language proficiency, vocabulary depth, and vocabulary breadth of Iranian EFL learners. The results of the correlation coefficients indicated that there was a significant relationship between vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth, and language proficiency of the learners. In addition, the results of multiple regressions revealed that vocabulary depth is a better predictor of learners’ language proficiency than of vocabulary breadth.

**Petrus Plain (2010). "The Correlation between Vocabulary Mastery And Speaking Proficiency of The Six Grade Students at Sandalwood Learning Center "**

This thesis aimed to investigate correlation between vocabulary mastery and students' speaking proficiency. The study measured the relationship between both items above through giving test. The fourth grade students at Sandalwood Learning Center were given tests both oral (interview) and written (multiply choices) individually. The study revealed a correlation between vocabulary mastery and speaking proficiency was good. It was caused by their good vocabulary knowledge which was shown by the good result (scores) of their vocabulary test.

**Taeko Oya<sup>1</sup>, Emmanuel Manalo,<sup>2</sup> and Jackie Greenwood (2009). "The influence of Language Contact and Vocabulary Knowledge on the Speaking Performance of Japanese Students of English"**

This study examined the influence of language contact and vocabulary knowledge on the speaking performance. The population of the study was Japanese students in English language schools in New Zealand. The participants completed a language contact profile questionnaire and a vocabulary test, and were administered a story retelling task (which constituted the measure of speaking performance). The results revealed that vocabulary knowledge correlated with fluency, accuracy, complexity, and global impression aspects of speaking performance. Time spent on the following were also found to correlate positively with various aspects of speaking performance, studying English, staying in English-speaking countries, speaking English outside of school, speaking English with non-native English speakers, and reading.

**Eunice M. Aclan (2014).*Why and How EFL Students Learn Vocabulary in Parliamentary Debate Class.***

This qualitative study was conducted to explore why and how EFL students learn vocabulary in classroom debate. The data were gathered through end-of-course evaluation and focus group interview with seven participants from the Middle East, African and Asian countries. The findings showed that students learned vocabulary due to debate's interactive nature requiring contextualized and meaningful language use from preparation to actual debate. EFL students described how they learned vocabulary through debate which has implications for SLA and language teaching. The findings of this study showed that the nature of debate as an interactive activity prompts the students to learn new vocabulary even if they were not instructed to do so. The participants of this study recognized this necessity to be effective in their speech and they also showed their motivation in learning new words that they believed they would use in actual debate. Such recognition and motivation are important factors in second or foreign language learning.

**Pınar Kapsor Asapoglu Akyol.(2010).”*Using Educational Technology tools to improve Language and Communication skill of ESL Students*”.**

The focus of this qualitative case study research project was to find out how educational technology tools use to improve their language and communication skills. More specifically, this study is based on this research question: “On their own, outside of the structure of ESL classes, to what degree do International students use technology to practice English language and communication skills?” The results of this study suggested that students are using technological tools in their daily lives for many purposes, especially for their education. It is also seen that using educational technology tools will help both to the students and to the teachers to be more successful, efficient and practical people in their lives.

**Dian Karyani Astuti. (2010). *The Gap between English Competence & Performance (Performance: The Learners` Speaking Ability)*.**

The objective of this study is to investigate the factors influence the lack of performance of English speaking in contrast the students have English competence (Grammar and vocabulary) in terms of English as a foreign language. In this case study, the writer studied the Indonesian students in State Islamic University Jakarta as they learn English as a foreign language for more than seven years. The study found that students confess that they feel shy unconfident and nervous to speak in English. They worry to make mistake in speaking due to the lack of knowledge of English Grammar and vocabulary. Moreover, the lack of motivation to create the English condition is another factor too for the learners..

**Yo In'nami &Rie Koizumi. (2013).”*Vocabulary Knowledge and Speaking Proficiency among Second Language Learners from Novice to Intermediate Levels*”.**

The study investigated the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and speaking proficiency, it examine the degree to which second language (L2) speaking proficiency can be predicted by the size, depth, and speed of L2 vocabulary among novice to intermediate Japanese learners of English. The research question concerned the extent to which L2 speaking proficiency is predicted by L2 vocabulary knowledge, size, depth, and speed, with a focus on Japanese learners of English at novice to intermediate levels, the results suggested the centrality of vocabulary knowledge affect on speaking proficiency. Evidence was presented that vocabulary knowledge explains speaking proficiency, the results may be restricted to the design of the studies in this article, including the target learners, tests, and measures selected.

**Hassan Ibrahim Ali (2011).”*Causes of EFL speaking weakness in Saudi Secondary Schools in Al-Gunfuthah City*”**

The major aim of this study is to investigate the causes of EFL speaking weakness in Saudi secondary schools in Al-Gunfuthah City. Four instruments were used in this study: students' questionnaire, teachers' questionnaire, students' interview and teachers' interview. The study found that Saudi secondary school students are generally weak in speaking English. Speaking difficulties faced by the students are related to: pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and fluency. Other reasons for students' weakness in terms of speaking in English are associated with the English textbook used in the secondary level.

**Omran Akasha & Pullman. (2013). “*Exploring the Challenges Facing Arabic-Speaking ESL Students & Teachers in Middle School*”.**

The purpose of this study was to uncover challenges facing Arabic-speaking ESL students as well as teachers in the middle school classroom. Two Arabic-speaking ESL students and eight teachers in a public middle school located in Washington State participated in this exploratory study. The study questions focused on the needs of the Arabic-speaking ESL students, the factors that influence their learning, and the problems the teachers face in supporting these students. Data sources included teacher and student interviews, classroom observations, and a parent survey. The results showed that the students face challenges to learn English language, the culture, and curricular content using their limited English according to the lack of grammar and vocabulary knowledge. The study concluded that several important challenges for teachers and students exist, including time, language support, and language knowledge.



**Elaheh Sotoudeh nama Akram Ramazanzadeh. (2010) “*The Effect of Oral Dialogue Journals on Iranian EFL Learners’ Communicative Competence.*”**

This study investigated the effect of oral dialogue journals on communicative competence of Iranian EFL learners. The results revealed that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group significantly. Moreover it was revealed that this technique (oral dialogue journal) was significantly more beneficial for the low proficient speakers of English than the high ones though useful for the high ones, too.

**Çargri Tugrul Mart. (2012) “*Developing Speaking Skills through Reading*”.**

The study investigated the relationship between reading and speaking skills. The study focused on how printed words relate to spoken. This study highlights vocabulary and grammar knowledge among these elements. The study came out with the following: reading and vocabulary knowledge are two essential factors of foreign language learning, and they influence learner’s speaking performance.

**Alkhedr , Abdulmahmoud Ali Azzubeir .(2012).*Factors Hindering Sudanese EFL Secondary School Students’ Oral Communication.***

This study aimed at investigating factors that hinder oral communication among Sudanese EFL students. The researcher used the descriptive analytic method for data analysis by designing two questionnaires. The first one is for the teachers of English in the Locality of Bahri and the second is for EFL secondary school students in the same locality. The study tried to find answers to the following questions: -To what extent does lack of exposure to the target language affect EFL students’ ability to communicate orally? -What is the role of the teacher in providing students with a variety of activities that reinforce oral communication? -To what extent does secondary school English syllabus help to develop oral communication? -To what extent does

an overcrowded classroom hinder students from practicing oral communication? The study has come out with the following results: -Students' lack exposure to authentic communication situations. -Teachers do not provide students with activities to develop their oral ability.

**Abdulgadir, Alhadi Abdulateaf Gorashi. (2014). *Investigating English Speaking Problems Encountered by Basic School Pupils.***

This study aimed at investigating English speaking problems encountered by basic school pupils in Khartoum town. The tool of data gathering was a questionnaire and the sample were the English teachers in Khartoum town. The researcher analyzed the data and the result approved that the teacher's inaccurate pronunciation is a cause of English speaking problems. More, the circumference environment might have an effect on speaking skill.

**Muawia Mohammad Alhasan Gaily. ( 2001 ). *Teaching English Speech Acts In Sudanese EFL Context: A Focus On Apology, Request, Refusal And Complaint Forms.***

The study investigated how programmed pedagogical sessions could lead to promoting the participants performance of the four target speech acts apology, request, complaint and refusal. A group of 20 male Sudanese EFL learners studying at different five Sudanese universities participated in this study. Data were collected via Two kinds of tools: Discourse Completion Test and Multiple Choice Pragmatic Comprehension Test, which they were used both as a pre-test and post. The results obtained revealed noticeable development in the participant's performance of the target four speech acts in the post test.

**Dhahawi Salih Ali.( 2003). *Investigating Third Year Students' Vocabulary Learning Strategies at Some Sudanese Universities in the Capital Khartoum.***

This study investigated the types of meaning discovery and consolidation strategies which are mostly used by the 3rd year students studying English at

some universities in the capital, Khartoum. On introspection-based questionnaires, the researcher has found out that student neither widely employ effective determination strategies to discover meaning nor do they use effective consolidation strategies to retain meanings they learn. The researcher has further concluded that there is a great difference between the strategies mostly used by the students and strategies recommended as most useful by their teachers. The findings have also shown that the students are in a pressing need for receiving vocabulary learning strategy instruction to raise their awareness in choosing strategies suitable for university students' meaning learning practices.

**Elbadri Abbas Elzubier.(2014). *The communicative Language teaching and Its Dilemma in Sudanese Classroom* .Omdurman Islamic University-Sudan.**

This study attempted to explore the principles of communicative language teaching as used by Sudanese university teachers. The results of this study have shown that instruction in Sudanese EFL classroom is still based on the traditional approach (grammar translation method). In addition, the principles of CLT are not always applicable in all EFL contexts because the basic ideas of CLT are different from the educational values and traditions of many EFL settings.

## **2.10 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter reviewed some of the literatures written about vocabulary learning and the speaking skills. It seeks to outline the factors that affect stimulating oral production & speaking activities. It highlights the association between vocabulary knowledge and oral ability. Therefore, it sets a theoretical framework for the subject under investigation.

## **Chapter Three**

### **The Research Methodology**

#### **3.0 Overview:**

This chapter describes the methodology of the study. It presents a concise description of what has been done by the researcher about the methodology. It describes the target subjects, research instruments and procedures for data collection. Then it goes further to present tools, validity and content of the test. The researcher will use statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS) to analyze the research data. The researcher's tools used for collecting data are the pretest and post –test in addition to questionnaire.

### **3.1 Research Design:**

This study depends on the quantitative and qualitative method to meet its aims by using tests and a questionnaire to gather information from purposive sample of (60) students and (20) English language teachers.

### **3.2 The Subjects:**

This includes the samples who responded to the tests and the questionnaire. A purposive sample of (30) students at Khartoum Locality will adopt for the study. The students' shares common characteristics. They are female and males, studying at the university level. The undergraduate students learning English Language for four years in EFL art and Translation College . They are studying during the academic year 2015, but they are studying in different classes. The second sample is (20) of Sudanese English teachers who have wide experiences in teaching.

The researcher used two main streams in vocabulary knowledge and Communicative area and their influence on students language acquisition the main purpose of the study to investigating the relation between vocabulary knowledge and speaking performance among Sudanese EFL students.

### **3.3 Tools of Data Collection:**

The tools that will be used for collecting data are

- Two tests (pre and post): for testing students' vocabulary knowledge and Speaking performance.
- Teachers' questionnaire

### **3.4 The speaking Tests:**

Testing speaking ability is most important aspect of language. There are two types of tests pretests and post tests for testing student s' speaking performance the two tests are conducted for control group and experimental group of students. The tests composed five types of oral tasks each task has its own instructions (interview, role play, loud reading description and discussion group). The students' performance divided into an individual and pair presentation in addition to group discussion. The five scales in this very popular instrument include: Vocabulary and Grammar, Pronunciation, interaction and Fluency & Coherence it composed five categories (Excellent, v. good, adequate and very good) .The test will apply the assessment scale that will be dived in to (1, 2,3,4, 5) for each aspect the high rate is no1 and the lowest rate is no 5 the students level are measured according to the student's participations.

For discussion group there is a direct observation for each student's speaking performance from the teacher that consider as enter locater the ten students will be divided in two groups equally for discussing two general topics in 5 minutes for each topic . For role play and interview tasks two students for each will hold them. In addition to individual test for aloud reading and description tasks, this task s are conducted for all the students in the group one by one.

### **3.5. Speaking Test procedure:**

Speaking test is testing students on communicative skills, observing social conventions, conveying facts, discussion, seeking and giving information, expressing disagreement, making suggestions and recommendations and others.

There are two sections for the speaking component test :

▪ **An individual presentation (Task 3&4)**

Each task is taking (5) minutes There are three tasks in this part and each part fulfils a specific function in terms of interaction pattern, task input and students output the researcher chooses three types of oral test first is interview second test is aloud reading for each students in the groups to test their pronunciation , third test is mini presentation it gives instructions, description and explanation for students list of two topics and assessor ask students talk about them . For pair task is role –play direct, face-to-face exchange between two students. It follows a pre-determined structure but still allow both students a degree of freedom to say what they think. Teacher should not interrupt the student while speaking when he or she makes mistakes.

▪ **Group discussion (Task B)**

It tests the ability of the students to interact and take turns, to negotiate meaning, to manage discussion and to close the discussion. Most of our learners, through observation, are able to communicate their ideas and thoughts fairly well in the individual task (Task 5). The speaking tests prepared as the purpose of checking student’s ability to participate effectively in group discussion and their ability to interact in discussion group . It aims also to explore to know to what extent lack of vocabulary can affect of students to play an effective part in the group discussion ; in order to know if The English Teacher provide students with interactive strategy training. The groups of students will take part in group discussions. Each group will give a social issue with four choices or alternative solutions to discuss for

sample of speaking situations). They will then give 10 minutes to discuss and come to a decision. The group discussions will observe before and after the training. The researcher will observe to identify and examine

### 3.6 Vocabulary Tests

Two vocabulary tests (pre test & post test) are prepared for the vocabulary that had been already explained and practised they based on Grammatical and transaction structure. The tests aimed at testing production of words, and active use of Sudanese EFL students' vocabulary knowledge at various levels from beginning to advanced, the applying techniques include, Such as definition, word formation, translation, Gap Filling, Matching Set of words

#### ▪ Vocabulary Pre and posttests:

There are some techniques which aimed at testing production of words, and the active use of Sudanese EFL student's vocabulary knowledge. Such as definition, word formation, translation and competition. The researcher will design (5) parts with 15 questions in vocabulary with a variety tasks to examine Sudanese EFL students' words knowledge through selected passages like definition meaning, Word formation, Gap Filling, Matching and translation. Part one aims at examine students' ability of defining words. Part two intends to check the students' ability to recognize words synonyms/antonyms. Part three is testing student's ability in deriving words by using prefix and suffixes. Part four intends to the ' assess student's production of vocabulary; it requires students to read the sentence and then write in the correct or best response. The purpose of question five examines students' ability to supply equivalent of words in either their first language or EFL by translation words.

### 3.6 Lesson Plan for Multiple Intelligences method:

For the purposes of this studies the researcher determine two groups (control and experimental group of undergraduate students at university level consists of 60 students with comparable social status, motivation and other factors, which could be of any influence on language learning process. The researcher will choose target topic in both groups in group ,researcher use Lesson plan for Multiple Intelligences method .The experiment will consist of 45-minutes (three lessons) following with a test. The test focused on all aspects of the word knowledge meaning, usage, formation and grammar and pronunciation. The researcher tests the vocabulary that will be already explained and practised. Multiple Intelligences method will use in this kinds of test and it will simple and include theses activities such as Synonyms, Definitions , Gap filling , Word formation ,Guessing the meaning from the context .

▪ **Lesson plan for Multiple Intelligences Method :**

The researcher used the following steps in this lesson:

**1- Aims**

- To develop understanding of individual learning preferences and how these can help the learners.
- To build their vocabulary with gerunds for activities.

**2- Presentation:**

- Ask students to do some of the English learning activities they thought of work sheet.
- Ask them to learn a list vocabulary, perhaps the list of activities from the lesson.
- Give students a choice of things they can do to learn the words, for example, they could choose two from this list.
- Underline the new words.
- Put the new words in alphabetical order.



- Identify their part of speech
- Ask students to read them in a loud.
- Ask them to translate their meaning.
- Ask students to write a sentence using at five of them.
- Ask students to make word cards for new words.

### **The Procedures:**

- The experimental group will teach 45 mins for three lessons per a day for one week
- The experimental group will give a pretest before the researcher started teaching
- Using the previous method to measure students' level.
- The researcher prepares a post test for the final measurement of students' level.

### **3.7 Lesson plan for Communicative Method:**

- For the Communicative Method) different activities will use such as: Pictures to facilitate learning of new words, group discussion, debating topics according to students' own interest they will practice the new word that they trained before .

#### **▪ The Procedures :**

- The group will teach 3 hours for three lessons for 1 week.
- The group will give a pretest before the researcher started teaching
- Using the previous method to measure students' level.
- The researcher prepares a post test for the final measurement of students' level.

### **3.8 The Teachers' Questionnaire:**

The teachers' questionnaire consisted of 18 items. These items are structured into two parts. The first part contains three items designed to gather personal data about the teachers who took part. The second part of the teachers'

questionnaire contains 15 items. In these items, the teachers are asked to select from the following choices: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) disagree and (4) strongly disagree. In addition, these items were involved teachers' opinions about their learning strategies and techniques that they use to overcome Sudanese students weakness due to the poor vocabulary in addition to know if The English teacher provide students with interactive strategy training. The items are designed to elicit the teachers' opinions about their students' level in terms of English speaking. On the other hand, teachers' experience was considered as important factor during responding the questionnaire.

### **3.8 Validity and Reliability of the Test and the Questionnaire:**

Validity refers to the degree to which a test and the questionnaire measures what is supposed to measure. The researcher will pilot the tests and hand them to two PHD.A holders as lectures at variety Universities and then the supervisor. That is for examining the content validity for the designed questions. They will request to review the phrasing, suitability, thoroughness, and ease of questions. The supervisor will note that the tests and the questionnaire are convenient and comprehensive to the purpose of the study. Some changes will make in the structure of the questions', a few statements will delete and others will add. Hence, the final copies of the two tests and the questionnaire will develop and distribute to the subjects and handed over to each English teacher. The total number of the teachers will (30) teachers both males and females. The students will test inside the classrooms.

### **3.9 Summary of the Chapter:**

This chapter describes the methodology used in this study. It gives information about the population, the sample and how the subjects will select. It also describes instruments, the procedures uses in the study and the rationale for using them, and concludes with the relevant measurements that will take to maintain the validity and reliability.

## **Chapter Four**

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

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, teachers' questionnaire, and classroom observations .

#### **4.1 Analysis of the experiment.**

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering a vital question: To what extent does vocabulary knowledge enhance speaking performance? To answer this question, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction.

To inform the present study, data was mainly collected via: Speaking Comprehension Test (SCT), and Vocabulary Size Test (VST), not to mention a questionnaire that was distributed to the tutors. These instruments were primarily used for the sole fact that the study was chiefly conducted to find out the inter-correlations among learners' scores in reading comprehension and speaking; and vocabulary size. This in itself is expected to lead to which aspect can as relating to vocabulary size VS or Depth of vocabulary knowledge can enhance oral abilities.

Pearson product-moment correlation, and regression coefficient analysis and t-test have been the main instruments or statistical procedures the statistical procedures principally used to analyze data in the resent study. First, a two-tailed Pearson correlation was performed on the scores obtained from the participants' performance on vocabulary size (VS), depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK) and speaking performance (R&SP) to establish the correlation between the three variables. Second, a t-test was carried out to compare the means obtained from two groups' speaking performance with

high and low breadth of vocabulary knowledge. For this step of data analysis, participants were divided into two groups (High and low) according to their scores on the breadth of vocabulary knowledge test (VLT). To do this, a cutoff point had to be determined. Based on –Schmitt&&Clapham (2001).mastery criterion of 86% on an earlier version of the test, 75% was chosen as an appropriate cut off point in this study. For that reason, participants were divided into two groups. Participants who scored at or above 75 % were classified high achievers and those who obtained below 75% were classified as under achievers. This cut off point was chosen because the overall performance of the participants in this study was rather weak; only 12 participants scored at or above 75%. Therefore 75% is considered a reasonable cut point for the purposes of this study. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the two groups. Third, a regression coefficient analysis was run out to judge on contribution of both size and depth of vocabulary knowledge on affecting, namely improving speaking performance of the participants.

#### **4.2 Establishing the relation between the variables (DVK, VC, SP)**

This stage of analysis is to establish the correlations between the scores obtained on the speaking comprehension (SP), vocabulary size (VS), and depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK). A two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis was conducted .To this aim, the relationship among the study variables were calculated at .05 level of significance. The results obtained from these computations are presented on the following tables.

#### 4.2.1 The relationship between (Vocabulary Size) and (Speaking Performance)

Table (4.1): Pearson correlations between (VS) and (SP):

Variables		Mean	Std. Deviation	SP	VS
RC	Pearson Correlation	8.8544	2.63984	1	.450**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000
	N			103	103
VS	Pearson Correlation	56.7184	15.34915	.450**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	
	N			103	103

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table (4.1) above the correlation between the two variables appear to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). The table shows a positive correlation (.45 ) between the scores on the (VS) and (SP). This means that the SC increases as the (VS) increases. It further emphasizes the positive association and interconnection of these two measures.

#### 4.2.2 The relationship between (Vocabulary Size) and (Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge)

Table (4.2) Statistical results of correlation between depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK) and vocabulary size (VS):

Correlation		Mean	Std. Deviation	DVK	VS
DVK	Pearson Correlation	50.4951	12.10159	1	.239*
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.015
	N			103	103
VS	Pearson Correlation	56.7184	15.34915	.239*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.015	
	N			103	103

Table 4.2 shows the correlations between breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge scores to elucidate the strength of association between the two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge. Going through the table, one can see

that the learners' VS was positively and significantly correlated with their DVK ( $r = .24$ ), which is statistically considered rather weak correlation.

*Table (4.3) statistical t-test results of high and low proficiency groups*

Group	N	Mean	stdtd. Deviation	df	T-test	Sig.(t-tailed)
Low	89	8.65	2.659	101	-1.993-	.049
High	14	10.14	2.179			

The above table (4.3) compares between high and low proficiency groups of the study participants on vocabulary breadth test and consequently their performance on the reading test. It compares between those who scored 75 % and above and their counterparts who scored less than 75% on VS test. It shows that the mean score for high group is (10.14), and the standard deviation is (2.179). Whereas the mean for low group is (8.65) and the standard deviation is (2.659). The calculated t-test is significant at (0.05). It shows that the overall mean of reading success for high group is significantly higher than that for low group. This indicates that the learners with higher and stronger vocabulary depth knowledge performed better in reading comprehension tests. Consequently, it could be argued that the difference in reading comprehension scores of two groups (having high and low depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge) can be related to the difference between the two in terms of their depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, the scores on depth of vocabulary knowledge can improve the prediction of reading comprehension levels.

#### **4.3 Determining the predictive power of both DVK and VS on SP performance of the participants:**

To determine which dimension of vocabulary knowledge, depth or breadth, made a more important contribution to reading comprehension success, a multiple regression analyses was carried out. In which reading

comprehension was used as the dependent variable, and depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge were used as independent variables.

#### 4.3 .1 Determining Contributions of VS versus DVK to SP success of the participants:

This section aimed to know the weight of any one of the independent variables on the variance in the dependent variable, that is, to indicate which factor (breadth or depth is a better predictor of reading comprehension. Table (4.5) indicates the results.

Table (4.4) Regression analysis of predictive factors of SP VS versus DVK: Coefficients:

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	R	R Square	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error					
1 (Constant)	4.465	.898		.450 <sup>a</sup>	.202	4.974	.000
VS	.077	.015	.450			5.064	.000
1 (Constant)	10.320	1.117		.133 <sup>a</sup>	.018	9.241	.000
DVK	-.029	1.349	-.133			-1.349	.180

Predictors: (Constant), DVK, VS

Dependant variable: SP

Table 4.5 reports the results of regression coefficient of predictive power of VDK versus VS in reading comprehension. The table reveals which one of the two aspects of vocabulary knowledge is stronger predictor of reading comprehension of the study participants. It indicates that VS appeared to significantly predict language proficiency of the learners at  $p < 0.05$  while DVK does not. The correlation coefficient between the SP and VS is (.45), the value that was higher than that of SP and DVK ( $r = .13$ ). This result reveals that VS predicted (0.45) or 45% of the reading comprehension scores. This means that there was an increase in reading comprehension scores by (.45) for every extra point in the level of vocabulary breadth. The table also indicates that depth of vocabulary knowledge did not explain any significant amount of variance in reading comprehension of the participants at  $p < 0.05$ , as the Sig. index is (.180). A look at Beta indices reveals that depth of vocabulary knowledge predicted only (0.13) or (13%) of the reading comprehension scores. This means that there was an increase in reading comprehension scores by .13 for every extra point in the level of vocabulary depth. This level of effect (0.13) accounted for by depth of vocabulary knowledge is very weak and not considered significant according to statistical measures.

To sum up, the results of multiple regression analyses indicate that VS was individually predictor of SP While DVK does not. VS alone accounted significantly for 45% of the explained variance in SP, but DVK accounted only for 13% of the variance, which is extremely weak variance and not considered statistically significant. Hence, one can state that VS is a more powerful predictor of SP than DVK of the study participants.

#### **4.3.2 Determining the joined predictive power of both DVK and VS on SP performance of the participants:**

**Table (4.5) Regression analysis of predictive factors of S; VS and DVK:**



This section is intended to find out to what extent the EFL learners' knowledge of reading comprehension was accounted for by the combination of the two factors of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge. Results are shown below:

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	R	R Square	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error					
(Constant)	6.680	1.158				5.771	.000
SIZE	.088	.015	.511	.514 <sup>a</sup>	.264	5.783	.000
DEPTH	-.056	.019	-.255			-2.887	.005

As shown **SP** in Table (4.6.), there is a significant relationship between the two independent variables (VS and DVK) and the dependant variable (SP). Overall, these two variables, jointly account 51.4 % of variance in reading comprehension. It is noteworthy that the combination of the two variables i.e. VS and DVK led to an increase in the percentage of explained variance by 6.4 % points above the variance accounted for by VS a lone (see table 4.5). It can be concluded that when the vocabulary knowledge dimension are combined together, it provides greater predictive power than individual variable does.

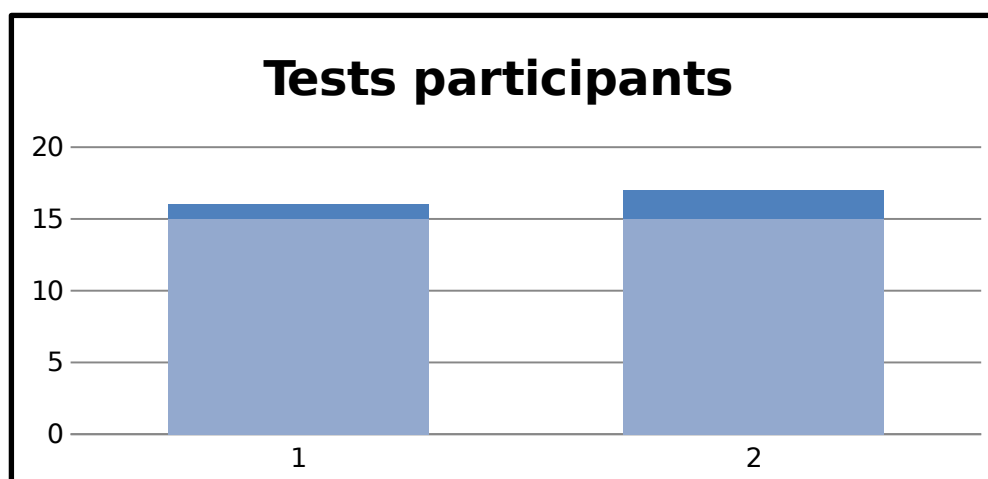
#### 4.7 Analysis and Results of Speaking Tests and VK TEST

**Table (4.6) Shows the Descriptive Statistics of the Tests groups**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control Group	15	1.5000	.50855
Experimental Group	15	3.9667	1.03335
Valid N	30		

Table (1) shows the descriptive statistical distributions of the students groups that took the speaking test the students were divided in two groups (1) Control group and (2) Experimental group the total numbers of the two groups were 30 students. The control group mean was 1.5000 with std .deviation (.50855), while experimental group mean was (3.9667) with (1.03335) std .deviation.

**The figure (1) shows the Descriptive Statistics of Tests participants**

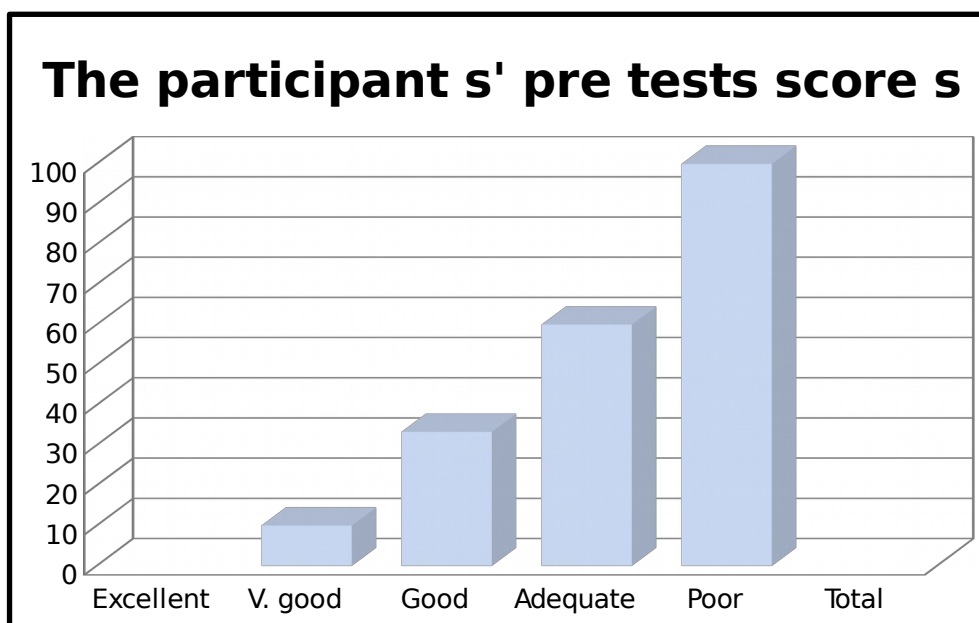


The mean scores for the Control group and the Experimental groups were computed and as it stated above there was significant difference in two groups. The mean value of group (1) in pretest was lower (3.8000) Comparing with the mean of group (2) (4.1333). For std deviation of group ((1) was lower (.9904) than std deviation of group (2) (1.082).The mean value of group (1) in posttest was lower (1.8000) Comparing with the mean of group (2) (2.333). For std deviation of group ((1) was lower (.8997) than std deviation of group (2) (9411). According to the above figures there was significant difference between two groups tests performance.

**Table (4.7) shows the participants the Pre Test score**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Excellent	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	V. good	3	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Good	7	23.3	23.3	33.3
	Adequate	8	26.7	26.7	60.0
	Poor	12	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Figure (3) shows the participants the speaking Pre Test score



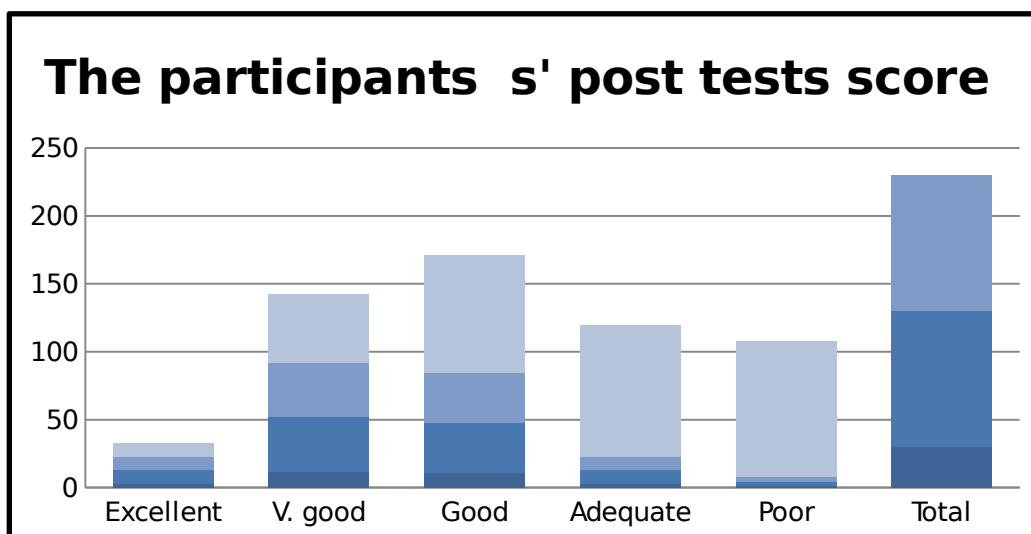
As singled out above in table (3) there was clear vocabulary deficiency and difficulty in participant's written vocabulary test performance. The participant in experimental group didn't have any training or practice on vocabulary they did the tests according to their back ground that they own about vocabulary .The scores were low , the higher score was 40% for participants who got poor degree and 26%for who got adequate degree and 23% for who got good degree , comparing with the lower scores for v good 10% , excellent t is represent the lowest score 0%no one got excellent

degree. The participant's higher standard in vocabulary test was between adequate and poor. The results identified that lack of vocabulary as a major obstacle and this at a highly problem. Students with sufficient vocabulary they perform good in the test while the student who had poor vocabulary they perform poor that indicated lack in vocabulary one of reason that let students fail in doing test properly .

**Table (4.8) Shows The participant's Post Test score**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Excellent	3	10.0	10.0	10.0
V. good	12	40.0	40.0	50.0
Good	11	36.7	36.7	86.7
Adequate	3	10.0	10.0	96.7
Poor	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

**Figure (2) Shows The participant's Post Test score**



The Post Test was used to determine if there were any significant differences in vocabulary knowledge scores between the two groups in the study the difference at the table shows that there is a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group scores. The percent of students who got higher score after conducted to train and practice was 40% while the student who got lower score was 3.3% the was reduced comparing with the participants scores in the pre test. For participants who got 36.7 they were in good level and for adequate level after conducting practice and training the percent was 10%. One explanation for these results might be that the participants in this study were improved according to the practice and training on vocabulary knowledge that they had after the pretest, they were familiar with the tests, this would actually help the participants make inferences. The results of the study indicated that vocabulary knowledge is more important when it comes to help second language learners improve their language comprehension (see Table 4).

**Table (4.9) compared students score in the speaking pre and posttests of percentage in groups as.**

		Control Group	Pre Test	Post Test
		Experimental Group		
control group Experimental Group	Pearson Correlation	1	-.164-	-.254-
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.386	.176
	N	30	30	30
Pre Test	Pearson Correlation	-.164-	1	.555**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.386		.001
	N	30	30	30
Post Test	Pearson Correlation	-.254-	.555**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.176	.001	
	N	30	30	30

The above table shows the correlation of two groups of students. It reveals the significant difference between two groups in performing the pre test and post tests; It demonstrated the correlations between components of the different constructs. The degree of correlation varied from almost zero

relationships to strong ones and from negative to positive one. The strong correlations were found between the post Pearson\*(386) for group (2) and Pearson for pre test was (176) there was significant difference between the values of two groups. Correlation is significant at the (0.01) level (2-tailed) . The lower correlation for group (1) was represented in (164 in pre test and post test (254) .The results showed that there is obvious effect of vocabulary knowledge in students performing vocabulary tests, group ( 2) was conducted for training and practice so the performance was good in contrast group (1)didn't conduct for training and practice they did the test with their back ground and this affected in their performing the tests in poor way .

#### **4.4 Discussion**

This section discusses the study findings and links them to the literature reviewed earlier.

A) Relationship among the three variables (Speaking Performance, Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge, of the study: According to the statistical results in (table 4.1), VS and SP show a correlation of (.41) .This finding suggests that students' speaking performance was associated with their vocabulary knowledge. In other words, if students have more vocabulary knowledge, then their speaking performance test scores may be higher. The account for students' level of vocabulary size to effect their speaking performance were that learners with larger vocabulary sizes had a better chance to speak and more cognitive capacity available for higher level language processes and fluent reading. Nan (2009). With smaller vocabulary size, the readers may be burden by unknown word in the text and fail to deal with higher- level process while reading. With a larger vocabulary size, fluent readers are able to deal with low-level process more automatically and are allowed to go into higher order cognitive process. In other words, students with higher vocabulary size have more chances to engage in both high and low level

processes in speaking. Moreover, while taking reading tasks, capable readers with an outsized vocabulary breadth can put up with small amount of unknown words in a text without interruption of comprehension and can be able to infer the meanings of unknown words from adequately rich context. However, proportion of unknown words is too high comprehension is disturbed. Carver (1994) cited in Nan(2009). This finding of the current study is in agreement with other studies in both ESL and EFL contexts (e.g.,Mezynski, 1983& Nagy, 2005, Hu & Nation 2000; Anderson&Freebody, 1981) which reported strong correlations between vocabulary size and speaking performance . For instance, Hu & Nation link a connection, between the percentage of running words in a text and reading comprehension and speaking. That is, the more vocabulary the speakers know, the more running words in a text will be familiar to them. This proficiency, in turn, leads to a better processing and comprehension of texts. The research on vocabulary estimates that a vocabulary of 8,000 to 9,000 words is needed to read a novel and hence speak properly. Also the most common 4,000 words plus proper nouns account for about 95% of the running words in a page of a newspaper. Thus, to gain an unassisted comprehension of newspapers, i.e. 98% coverage, a vocabulary of at least 8,000 words plus proper nouns is needed, Hu & Nation 2000. Additionally, the correlation between vocabulary size and speaking was the most noticeable finding in the current study, indicating that vocabulary size seemed to play a fundamental role in speaking as well as reading comprehension in EFL classrooms. This observed relationship corroborates the instrumentalist hypothesis (Anderson &Freebody 1981) but this finding should be interpreted with caution. This is because this hypothesis indicated that knowledge of more words is the direct cause of better speaking performance; however, the current study did not examine the issue of causation, i.e. investigating the role of vocabulary knowledge as the direct causal factor in speaking performance.

On the other hand, statistics on table (4.2) shows a correlation between DVK and VS of the study participants ( $r = .24$ ). This result indicates that these two aspects of vocabulary knowledge are interrelated, that is, those learners who had a large vocabulary size had a deeper knowledge of the words, too. Moreover, the correlation between these dimensions of vocabulary knowledge leads us to suppose that the development of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge is closely interrelated and may even be interdependent. This appears plausible, for one would not normally have vocabulary size knowledge without also acquiring depth knowledge. Therefore, the development of the two dimensions is indeed interconnected and interdependent. This result is in congruence with earlier research (Qain 2000) which found that the correlation coefficient between vocabulary size and depth of vocabulary was  $r = .70$ . However, other studies (Mehrpour, S. & ela2011 and Rashidi. N., & Khosravi, N. (2010) ) reported higher correlation coefficients ( $r = .83$ ,  $r = .81$  respectively) than did the present study.

This discrepancy in findings might be due to the fact that the current study participants are exposed to a less-varied language input in comparison to that in other contexts, the process which may negatively effect on their performance. Another possible explanation for this discrepancy might be because these studies used other breadth and depth tasks in their procedures. Another concern involves the DVK test used in this study; since the VDK test used for EFL at large, its level sequence and design of the test may be different from the custom of vocabulary learning and testing in Sudan. On the other hand, the correlation between DVK and VS scores may be attributed to the partial overlap of the two measures. The VS measures the primary meaning of words, while the DVK measures knowledge of synonymy, polysemy, and collocation. Although the DVK tests more and deeper aspects of vocabulary knowledge than the VS, primary meaning is, in certain cases, part of knowledge of synonymy and polysemy, and knowledge of word meaning



sometimes has an impact on knowledge of collocation. Moreover, results of the study indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the reading comprehension and speaking scores of two groups as having high and low breadth of vocabulary knowledge. This means that how learner's breadth of vocabulary knowledge relate to the degree of reading comprehension. This result identified deficiencies in learner's vocabulary knowledge as a hindrance to comprehension. Besides, they ascertain that the growth in vocabulary knowledge matches more reading comprehension. Thus, differences in vocabulary knowledge are salient in explaining the perceived differences in reading comprehension.

Additionally, the study results reveal that the learners with higher and stronger breadth of vocabulary knowledge performed better in speaking tests. Acknowledging the correlation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. These results identify deficiencies in learner's vocabulary knowledge as a hindrance to comprehension. Besides, they ascertain that the growth in vocabulary knowledge matches more reading comprehension. Thus, differences in vocabulary knowledge are salient in explaining the perceived differences in speaking performance. Overall, the results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the speaking performance scores of two groups as having high and low breadth of vocabulary knowledge. This means that how learner's breadth of vocabulary knowledge relates to the degree of reading comprehension. In other words, vocabulary breadth is valid and powerful in predicting reading performance. Hence, it is noteworthy to state that learners need to have a good knowledge of high frequency words along with adequate additional vocabulary to comprehend and speak efficiently.

B) Vocabulary knowledge tests as predictors of speaking performance:

Going through the three tables (1,3,2,4.) one can observe that the correlation between SP (speaking tests) and VS ( $r = .41$ ) was higher than that between

the VK and VS (.24) and between RC and DVK ( $r = -.13$ ), which indicates negative correlation of these two variables. This indicates that the scores on vocabulary size was more strongly associated with the test-takers' speaking performance than the score on their depth of vocabulary knowledge. This further suggests that vocabulary size appeared to be in a stronger relationship with reading comprehension than vocabulary depth. This finding is in disagreement with other researchers' results (Rashidi. N., &Khosravi, N. 2010, &Mehrpour, S. & et la. 2011)who concluded that depth was a more powerful predictor of reading comprehension than breadth. This discrepancy in findings might be due to the fact that these studies and the current study employed different test designs and recruited participants from different backgrounds. A key question needs to be raised here: why vocabulary breadth performed better than vocabulary depth in the regression analysis?. One possible explanation for this was that the vocabulary size test measured 2000, 3000 and 5000 word, which are regarded to be unchallenging words whereas the vocabulary depth test has no criteria for choosing words. Therefore it may include words from different levels, including words from rather difficult levels. Another possible explanation was that the speaking performance texts used in the current study procedures might have been difficult enough to discriminate between breadth and depth. Despite the fact that the DVK explores more and deeper aspects of vocabulary knowledge, the synonymy and polysemy that the DVK attempts to measure is actually the basic word meaning that the VS requires, and the knowledge of collocation is more or less affected by knowledge of individual word meaning.

The study reveals that DVKdid not explain a significant proportion of RC variance without the effect of VS or when it was correlated alone with RC(see table 4.1). The finding that the DVK measure made small but independent further contribution of (6.4) is similar to Huang, H (2006). The further contribution the DVK measure made in his study was also not

statistically significant. These results suggested that both VS and DVK contributed significantly to the prediction of speaking performance. When comparing the unique contributions they made together, however, on table (4.1) the analysis yielded results that the VS alone accounted significantly for 41.0% of the variance in RC, while table (4.2) shows only 13.3% of the variance in SP was explained by the DVK measure which is not significant according to statistical measures . In other words, it turned out that vocabulary size is a more powerful predictor of reading comprehension.

Despite the fact that the VS explores more and deeper aspects of vocabulary knowledge, the synonymy and polysemy that the DVK attempts to measure is actually the basic word meaning that the VS requires, and the knowledge of collocation is more or less affected by knowledge of individual word meaning.

To better understand this finding, a closer comparison with Mehrpour, et al (2011) related finding may be useful. In contrast to Mehrpour, et al's results; unlike the present study they reported very strong inter correlation between SP and vocabulary dimension of breadth and depth. This discrepancy might also be due to the differences in the participants' language proficiency and age.

What is striking in the present study is that depth of vocabulary knowledge did not make a noticeable independent contribution to the prediction of reading comprehension beyond the prediction afforded by vocabulary size. In spite of that, DVK added some slight variance in SP jointly with VS (see table 4.6). This indicates that vocabulary size and depth of vocabulary knowledge are good predictors of reading comprehension when they co-exist. The result also reveals that (although breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge may be discussed separately on the theoretical basis) the two variables are actually inseparable and interrelated in practice. In addition, in terms of the importance of vocabulary to reading generally, the results showed that scores

on the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge measures jointly accounted for 51.4% of the variance in reading comprehension scores. Although another 48.6% of the variance remained unexplained and unidentified in the present study, the major share of the variance in speaking performance was already explained by vocabulary knowledge.

It can be concluded that when the combination of the two variables (DVK and VS) is selected, it provides greater predictive power on reading comprehension than individual variables alone. This finding indicates that, in terms of validity, accuracy, and efficiency, vocabulary assessment will probably benefit more from using a combination of question types based on the concept of vocabulary size and depth than from using a single item type. Since the empirical results have now shown that vocabulary size and depth measures are jointly powerful in predicting reading performance, it would make sense to give equal weight to the two components if a combination of vocabulary size and depth items were to be used in a speaking assessment. More empirical research, however, is needed to further determine what weighting between the two components would be most appropriate for this purpose.

#### **4.5 Testing Hypotheses:**

**Hypothesis 1:** Vocabulary knowledge enhances oral production. In light of the results of the Pearson correlation analysis, scores on reading comprehension and breadth of vocabulary knowledge tests are positively correlated. The inter correlation were moderate ( $r=.45$ ), which indicates that the score on vocabulary size was strongly associated with the test-takers speaking performance. This result means the hypothesis two was accepted.1.

1- **Hypothesis2:** - Sudanese teachers' manipulate vocabulary teaching strategies efficiently to develop students' oral ability.

According to the statistical results of Pearson correlation between reading comprehension and depth of vocabulary knowledge tests, there was a

negative correlation ( $r = -.13$ ) of the two variables. This result means the hypothesis two was rejected.

1- **Hypothesis3:** Students positively respond to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies opted for by their tutors.

The study results reveals that the two variables, vocabulary size and depth of vocabulary knowledge, are themselves correlated ( $r = .24$ ). This leads us to suppose that the development of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge is closely interrelated and may even be interdependent. This appears plausible, for one would not normally have vocabulary size knowledge without also acquiring appropriate depth knowledge. The result above supports hypothesis3.

**Hypothesis 4:** The group with the higher scores on the vocabulary depth test will be the same group which scores higher on the reading comprehension test.

The statistical results of t-test reveals that the mean of reading achievement for high group significantly higher than that for low group. This indicates that the learners with higher and stronger breadth of vocabulary knowledge scores on depth of vocabulary knowledge can improve the prediction of reading comprehension levels. Accordingly hypothesis5 was accepted.

Performed better in reading comprehension tests. This result proves that the **Hypothesis5:** Vocabulary knowledge depth is more powerful predictor of Sudanese EFL university students' reading comprehension performance than vocabulary size.

Among the inter correlations of the three tests, it is intriguing that the correlation was the highest between the scores on the VS and DVK ( $r = .45$ ). This indicates that the score on vocabulary size was more strongly associated with the test-taker's reading comprehension performance than the score on their depth of vocabulary knowledge and the two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge. The relationship between breadth and depth of vocabulary

knowledge shown in the study is found to be consistent with the results of previous studies (Ouellette,2006). The correlation between DVK and VC shown in the study leads us to suppose that the development of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge is closely interrelated.

**Hypothesis 5:** Vocabulary knowledge size is more powerful predictor of Sudanese EFL university students' reading comprehension performance than vocabulary depth.

In the multiple regression analysis, the results suggested that both VS and DVK contributed significantly to the prediction of RC when joined together. The results further suggested that combining the two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge in vocabulary development is more beneficial than keeping them apart. When comparing the unique contributions they made, however, the analysis yielded results that the VS alone accounted significantly for 45.0% of the variance in RC, while only 13.3% of the variance in RC was explained by the DVK measure. In other words, it turned out that vocabulary size is a more powerful predictor of speaking performance than depth of vocabulary knowledge. This is a finding that runs against the original hypothesis. It was initially hypothesized that depth of vocabulary knowledge would be a more powerful predictor of reading comprehension performance than vocabulary size. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is rejected. Nevertheless, due to the stronger correlation with reading comprehension that vocabulary size shows in this study, this result does not seem surprising at the moment. Although the finding in the present study appears contrary to that of Qian's (1999,2002) study, the patterns shown in Qian's study and the present study are in fact more similar than different. The one that had a stronger relationship with reading comprehension (as shown in the correlations) would be the more powerful predictor of reading comprehension. In this study, the results suggest the salient role of vocabulary size in speaking performance.

#### **4.6 Analysis and Results of the Questionnaire**

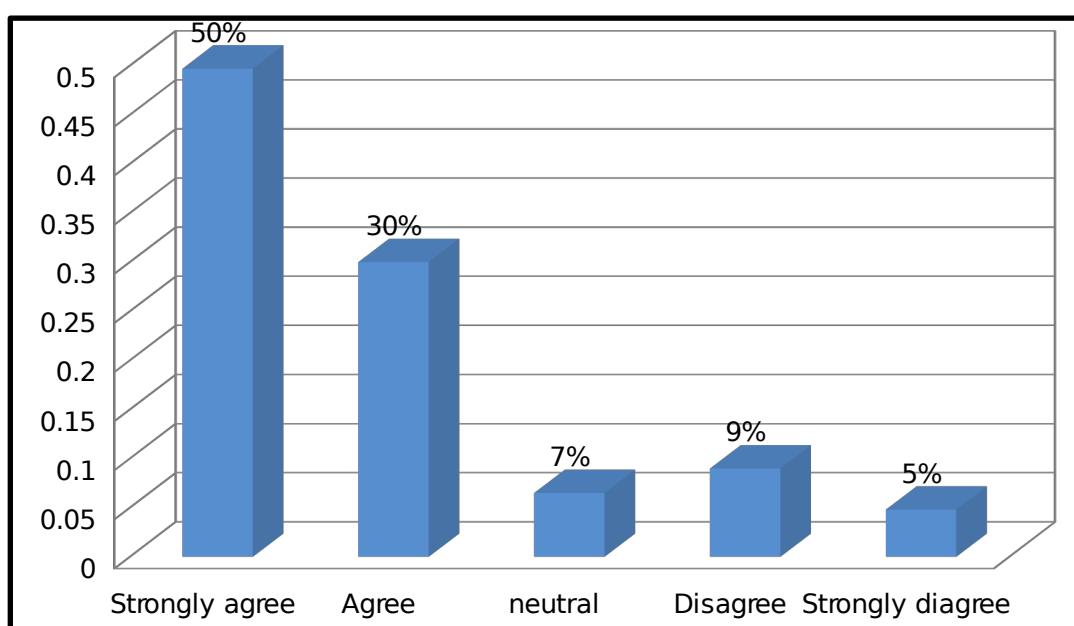
The researcher divided the questionnaire into three categories after analyzing it and came out with the required frequency and percentage. The first category is concerned with the effect of the English language syllabus on reinforcing oral performance. The second category deals with the activities the teachers do in order to help students improve their reading and speaking skills. The third category is associated with the role the English literature books and reading materials play in enhancing vocabulary, and thus improve oral ability.

**Category (1) Effect of the secondary schools English language syllabus on developing the students' Speaking skills.**

**Table (4.10)**

Frequency and percentages					Phrases	No.
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
11 9.2%	9 7.5%	3 2.5%	36 30%	61 50.8%	Students are advised to use bilingual dictionaries to help them translate English words into Arabic language?	1
6 5.0%	18 15%	8 6.7%	34 28.3%	54 45%	Tutors have to encourage their students to use pictures illustrated in the textbook to find the word meanings.	2
4 3.6%	4 3.6%	9 7.5%	37 30.8%	66 55%	Meaning of words is best learnt by identifying their parts of speech.	3
5 4.7%	13 10.8%	8 6.7%	37 30.8%	57 47.5%	Classroom practitioners at university level are not adequately trained to handle the available material proficiently enough	4

					to challenge students into increasing their word power.	
3 2.5%	10 8.3%	11 9.2%	36 30%	60 50%	. Teachers, there at university, do not provide students with varied reading activities which reinforce vocabulary learning strategies.	5
29 4.8%	54 9.0%	39 6.5%	180 30%	298 49.7%	Hypothesis	



Considering the table above , the following values and results have been drawn as follows:

- The value of chi-square for the first phrase is (16.200) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.3.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the second phrase is (15.200) with (p-value=0.001 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.3.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.



- The value of chi-square for the third phrase is (21.467) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and, by looking at the table (4.3.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fourth phrase is (35.333) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.3.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fifth phrase is (8.600) with (p-value=0.014< 0.05), and depending on the table (4.3.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree. The value of chi-square for all phrases in the first hypothesis (188.467), with (p-value =0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4.3.2) and figure (4.3.1), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.

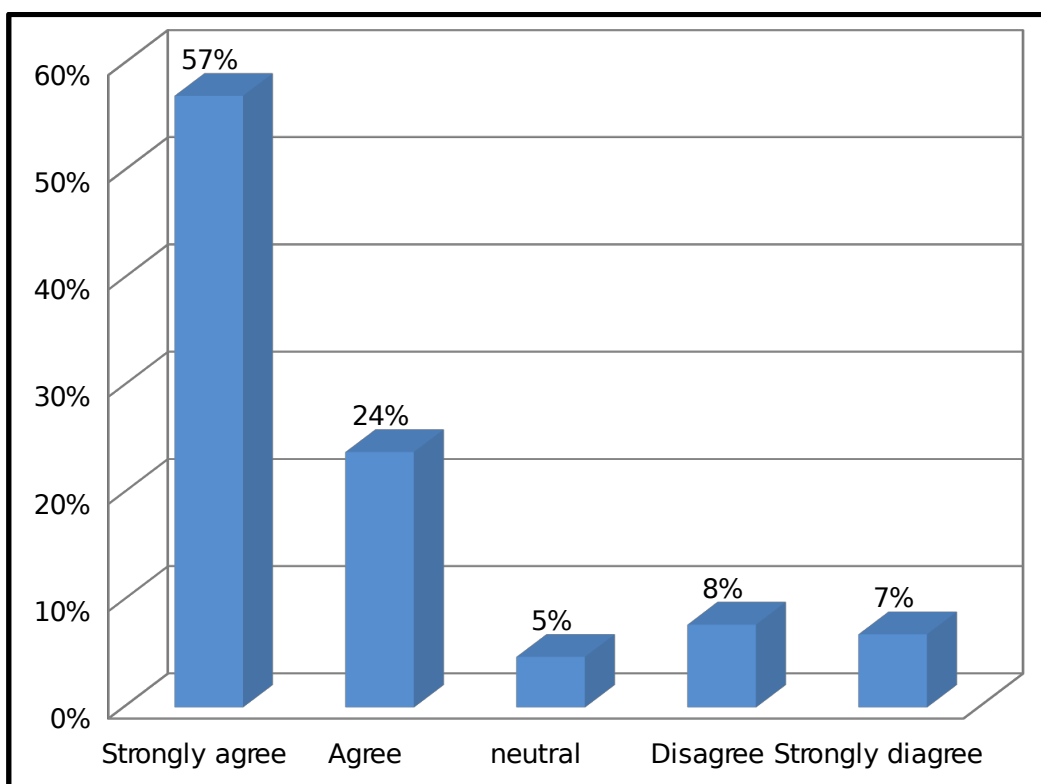
It can be easily observed as guided by the above analysis that the first hypothesis “students are advised to use bilingual dictionaries to help them translate English words into Arabic” has been realized and in favor of strongly agree.

### **Category (2) Environment of learning and its suitability at undergraduate level.**

**Table (4.11)**

Frequency and percentages					Phrases	No
Strongly disagreed	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
7 5.8%	4 3.3%	12 10%	29 24.2%	68 56.7%	The overall environment at undergraduate level is not advantageous to learning vocabulary.	6
8 6.7%	11 9.2%	3 2.5%	37 30.8%	61 50.8%	Upon entering university, first-year students come with a terribly poor level of vocabulary knowledge.	7

16 13.3%	16 13.3%	5 4.2%	18 15%	65 54.2%	What worsens the situation more is that the English language syllabus adopted at undergraduate levels across Sudanese Universities is not effective enough to develop vocabulary learning.	8
5 4.2%	13 10.8%	3 2.5%	35 29.2%	64 53.3%	The English syllabus is not given enough weight along the lines of other syllabuses	9
5 4.2%	2 1.7%	5 4.2%	24 20%	84 70%	Students should be encouraged to ask their peers of the words they ignore their meaning..	10
41 6.8%	46 7.7%	28 4.7%	143 23.8%	342 57%	Hypothesis	



As shown above in table (4.2.3) (item 6) the majority of the respondents (56.7%) strongly agree that, on the whole, the learning environment at undergraduate level does not act towards encouraging vocabulary for varied reasons. (24.3) agree (10%) not sure, (3.4%) disagree and (5.8%) strongly agree with the statement.

This result shows that most of the respondents see that compatibility of environment of learning is very important in helping to be interested in

learning and progressing.

Item (7) explains that the majority of the study sample (50.8%) strongly agrees that the teacher should give students an opportunity to read as can as possible so that they can improve their oral production. (30.8%) agree, (2.5%) not sure, (9.2%) disagree, while (6.7%) of the study sample disagree with the statements.

The above result confirms that the teacher does not give the students even a reasonable time to practice reading inside the classroom so as to train their tongue to produce the words accurately. The reason that makes most of the students finds great difficulty when using English orally with each other.

Concerning item (8) it is obvious that the majority of the study sample (54.2%) strongly agrees that the teacher should listen to the students carefully and correct their oral production mistakes and that syllabus at undergraduate level does not provide enough examples which help enhance the possibility of oral production. (15%) agree, (4.2%) not sure, (13.3%) disagree and the same percentage strongly agree with the statements.

This result indicates that the teachers do not listen carefully to the students while reading or speaking and this give them an impression that the teacher does not care for them and their reading and speaking mistakes. Thus most of the students lose interest in participating in speaking practice inside the classroom and certainly affects negatively their oral performance.

As for item (9) it is clear that the majority of the respondents (53.3%) strongly agree that syllabus is not given enough weight along with the other subjects or disciplines. (29.2%) agree (2.5%) not sure, (10.8%) disagree, and (4.2%) strongly disagree with the statements. This result shows that most of the tutors are not happy with the syllabus in relation to the sad fact of developing oral performance.

As regards item (10) the researcher find that the majority of the subjects (70%) strongly agree that students should be encourage to enlist their peers'

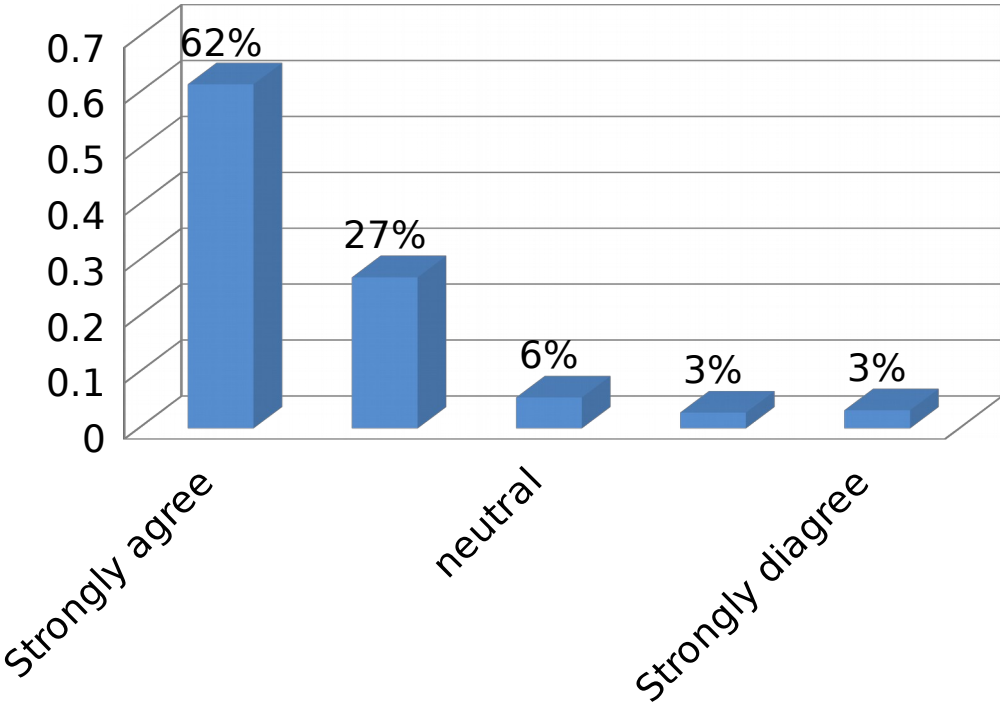
assistance. . (20%) agree, (1.6%) disagree, (4.2%) not sure and the same percentage strongly disagree with the statement.

### Category (3) Reality of teaching of English at undergraduate level.

Table (4..12)

Frequency and Percentages					Phrases	.No
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
6 5.0%	5 4.2%	4 3.3%	21 17.5%	84 70%	The teaching of English at lower undergraduate levels is entrusted to barely trained tutors. Hence, vocabulary, learning is affected.	11
1 0.8%	5 4.2%	5 4.2%	38 31.7%	71 59.2%	Almost all syllabuses are designed by local Sudanese expertise but mostly assigned to staff members with relatively inadequate knowledge in syllabus design.	12
3 2.5%	2 1.7%	4 3.3%	31 25.8%	80 66.7%	Not all the parts of the syllabus, i.e. The skills are given the same time in handling, and so vocabulary learning is given very little time.	13
2 1.7%	3 2.5%	3 2.5%	38 31.7%	74 61.7%	Learning about the culture of the native	14

					speakers can help students remarkably learn vocabulary.	
7 5.8%	2 1.7%	17 14.2%	34 28.3%	60 50%	Syllabuses designed locally often fail to cater for external culture which is desirable to enhance the learners background and word power.	15
19 3.2%	17 2.8%	33 5.5%	162 27%	369 61.5%	Hypothesis	



As shown in table (4.2.5) item (11) the majority of the subjects (70%) strongly agree that the teaching of English language at the undergraduate level is entrusted to barely trained tutors. English language syllabus affects positively the students speaking skill. (17.5%) agree, (3.3%) not sure, (4.2%) disagree, whereas (5%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result shows clearly that most of the respondents believe in the less important position given to the teaching of English at the undergraduate level.

Item (12) shows that the majority of the study sample (59.25%) is strongly

agree that syllabuses are designed by local staff with very little knowledge or expertise. Hence, the subject matter is not well prepared to enhance their oral communication. (31.7%) agree, (4.2%) not sure, the same percentage are disagree whereas only (0.8%) strongly disagree.

This result shows that most of the respondents are not in favor of the syllabuses designed locally. This result can be based on the fact that reading literature helps students communicate orally with the people around them.

This result shows that most of the students see that stories motivate them to read intensively and eagerly. In fact, illustrated literature books which contain, for example, historical, detective, love, adventure and even imaginative stories encourage students to read eagerly and hence, reinforce their oral performance.

As concerns item (14) it is obvious that the majority of the subjects (61.7%) strongly agree that learning about the culture of the native speakers can help a lot. (31.7%) agree, (2.5%) not sure, the same percentage goes for disagree, while (1.7%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result indicates that most of the respondents believe that the question of culture is important for oral production.

Concerning item (15) we can see that the majority of the study sample (50%) strongly agree that locally designed books have no contribution in presenting the learners with enough dose as far as the question of culture is concerned. (28.3%) agree, (14.2%) not sure, (1.7%) disagree whereas (5.8%) strongly disagree.

#### **4.7 Summary of the Chapter**

This result shows that culture as can be taught through extracts from literature books bring students closely to the English language communicative situations because it contains different stories which imply different settings, plots, themes, and language styles. Accordingly, when students are exposed to such situation through reading literature, they will become competent

enough to speak confidently, effectively and easily.

Finally, according to the results obtained from the teacher questionnaire and student tests, there was obvious notice that speaking performance is a complex skill that needs to be developed consciously. It can best be developed with practice in classroom through activities, which promote interaction between students. This study has tried to show that it is easier to obtain students' participation and motivation when the suggested materials are entertaining, original and surprising. The key is that teachers should motivate and change student's negative attitude towards English giving students a chance to speak about interesting topics, which can result easy for them and for their level. How can teachers get that? First of all, teachers should use the English language from Primary Education so, if pupils are accustomed to this language since an early age, it will be easier to communicate and understand English better and their fears will disappear. Nowadays, there are few schools where teachers do this, and the results are very good although recently, the situation has improved due to the creation of bilingual schools and extra classes in English but it is still necessary do more for the future. Teaching speaking skills can be very different depending on the methodology followed by each teacher but what it is really important is to develop during the English lessons to get students learn the second language entirely. Due to this, some suggestions have been offered, which can be put into practice during the lesson in order to motivate students to participate in class and to do interaction activities to develop listening and speaking skills. These activities allow students to feel more comfortable and sure when they have to hold a conversation in English and they make the skills more effective in order to get a perfect acquisition of the second language, covering all the skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading and writing

## **Chapter Five**

### **Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations**

This chapter pulls the threads of the study together. It uses the results of the data analysis and discussion in Chapter Four to answer the research questions and verify the hypotheses. It also makes some recommendations and suggests some topics for further research.

#### **5.1 Answers to the questions and verifications to the hypotheses**

The data from the previous chapter will be used to provide answers for the questions of the study and to verify the hypotheses.

##### **5.1.1 Question one and hypothesis one**

- To what extent can vocabulary knowledge enhance oral production?
- Vocabulary knowledge enhances oral production.

The table (4.1) shows that there is a significant correlation between vocabulary size (VS) and reading comprehension, and in its right presupposes the improvement of speaking or oral production.

##### **5.1.2 Question two and hypothesis two**

- To what extent do Sudanese teachers' draw on vocabulary teaching strategies to develop students' oral ability?
- Sudanese teachers' manipulate vocabulary teaching strategies efficiently to develop students' oral ability.



Judging by the scores of the interview, it turned out that almost all respondent 80% agree that tutors at our universities hardly pay attention to the question of strategies in introducing or teaching vocabulary. So, most students refer to dictionaries every now and then wherever they come across a new or an unfamiliar word. Strategies such as *inference* are never drawn upon to understand a reading text, for example. Therefore such kind of situation will have very little bearing if ever on oral production.

### **5.2.3 Question Three and Hypothesis Three**

- To what extent do students perceive & interact to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies opted by their tutors?
- Students positively respond to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies opted for by their tutors.

Again, students are well placed to perceive and interact to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies as seen from the questionnaire where a fair amount of scores have been in favor of perceiving and interacting of new vocabulary learning strategies and their application.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

Based on the above, the present study makes the following recommendations:

- Any attempt to write English language textbooks for undergraduate level of education has to follow the scientific approaches to syllabus design and textbook writing. This will help the designers to cater for the questions or issues connected with vocabularies, their learning and teaching strategies.
- An in-depth approach to vocabulary teaching and learning has to be adopted, clarified and well presented right from the very beginning of the teaching program.
- Tutors have to demonstrate a positive attitude towards vocabulary learning and teaching strategies. Moreover, National authors of English language

textbooks should have intensive practice in the theory and practice of writing and evaluating language textbooks.

- English language textbooks constructed by national experts have to undergo rigours analysis in all aspects of syllabus design.

#### **5.4 Suggestions for further research**

Throughout the conduction of this study, the research felt that the following areas need to be evaluated:

- Scope and sequence of grammatical structures.
- Investigation of vocabulary, grammar and topics of other skills (listening, reading and writing).
- Gradation of tasks and activities in text.
- Systematic development of micro skills

#### **5.5 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter drew the conclusions of the study by providing answers to the four research questions and by verifying the four hypotheses. All four questions have been answered properly and all four hypotheses have been accepted. Based on this, the study made some recommendations and suggested areas for further research.

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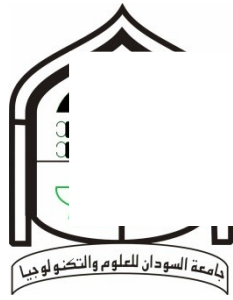
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## Appendixes



**SUDAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**  
**COLLEGE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH**  
**COLLEGE OF EDUCATION-ENGLISH DEPARTMENT**

A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR UNIVERSITY TUTORS AT SUDANESE  
UNIVERSITIES

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire will gather data about the learning strategies students use when setting about learning vocabulary intentionally. The analyzed data will help form a better insight about the nature, causes and how the problem can be addressed.

**Part 1: Personal data:**

1. Name: (optional) \_\_\_\_\_

2. Highest degree earned:

Bachelor's Degree       Master's Degree       PhD

3 How many years have you been teaching English

1. Year       2-5 years       2. 6-10 years       more than 10 year

**Part 2: General statements:**

**Instructions:**

☐☐ Please choose only one answer for every question or statement.

Use the following scales:

*Strongly agree:* (If you strongly agree with the idea stated in the item).

*Agree:* (If you agree with the idea stated in the item).

*Disagree:* (If you disagree with the idea stated in the item).

*Strongly disagree:* (If you strongly disagree with the idea stated in the item).

RESPONSE				STATEMENT	No.
STRONGLY DISAGRE E	DISAGRE E	AGRE E	STRONGLY AGREE		
				Students are advised to use bilingual dictionaries to help them translate English words into Arabic language?	1.
				Tutors have to encourage their students to use pictures illustrated in the textbook to find the word meanings.	2
				Meaning of words is best learnt by identifying their parts of speech.	3

				Classroom practitioners at university level are not adequately trained to handle the available material proficiently enough to challenge students into increasing their word power.	4.
				Teachers, there at university, do not provide students with varied reading activities which reinforce vocabulary learning strategies.	5
				The overall environment at undergraduate level is not advantageous to learning vocabulary.	6.
				Upon entering university, first-year students come with a terribly poor level of vocabulary knowledge.	7
				What worsens the situation more is that the English language syllabus adopted at undergraduate levels across Sudanese	8.

				Universities is not effective enough to develop vocabulary learning.	
				The English syllabus is not given enough weight along the lines of other syllabuses	9.
				Students should be encouraged to ask their peers of the words they ignore their meaning..	10
				The teaching of English at lower undergraduate levels is entrusted to barely trained tutors. Hence, vocabulary, learning is affected.	11
				Almost all syllabuses are designed by local Sudanese expertise but mostly assigned to staff members with relatively inadequate knowledge in syllabus design.	12
				Not all the parts of the syllabus, i.e. The skills are given the same time in	13

				handling, and so vocabulary learning is given very little time.	
				Learning about the culture of the native speakers can help students remarkably learn vocabulary.	14
				Syllabuses designed locally often fail to cater for external culture which is desirable to enhance the learners background and word power.	15



## Sudan University of Science and Technology

### Graduate College

### EFL Speaking performance Tests

#### Control group

#### Pre Test

*Welcome and thank you for participating.*

#### The Test Key Facts:

- **Duration:** Approximately 30 minutes.
- **Participants:** students interviewed in pairs. Two examiners are present. One examiner (the teacher who act like interlocutor) carries out the interviewer whilst the second (the assessor) focuses on the students' performance.
- **Format:** There are three parts to the test. *It test composed of five types of oral tasks each task has its own instructions.*

#### Test Instructions:

- *Students should be on time.*
- *Stay on the subject.*
- *Students should not have pen, paper, mobile*

#### Part (1)

##### Task (1): Interview:

*This task of the test for interviewing two students at a time.*

- *Student should avoid giving short, uncommunicative replies.*
- *The teacher will act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance.*

#### The teacher makes the students feel comfortable through this dialogue

. (3 min)

Teacher: Hello! Good morning, May I know your name please? (For student (A))

Student A: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student

B: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: Tell me something about your family. For student (A)

Student

A: \_\_\_\_\_

Interlocutor: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student B:

\_\_\_\_\_

Interlocutor: What did you enjoy most when you were at primary school?(To student B).1

Student B:

---

Interlocutor: How about you? (To student A)

Student A:

---

Teacher: Do you have any plans for a holiday this year? (To student A)

Student A:

---

Teacher: And you? (To student B)

Student B:

---

Teacher: What do you do in your free time ? (Things that you do) ? (To student A)

Student A:

---

Interlocutor: How about you? (To student B)

Student

B

---

**Task (2) : Description :**

a) In this part the teacher will give 1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes each to both students to present **(5 min)**

**b)**The teacher is suggested the following two frames :

**(1) To student A describe something that you own and you value it tremendously. (1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes to present).**

- Where did you get it from?
- How long have you had it?
- What do you use it for?
- Why is it so important for you?  
If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions
- Did you buy it/ was it a gift?
- Would it be easy to replace it?
- Is it valuable in term of money?

**(2) To student B: You will be given one minute to prepare on your most memorable journey you will have 2 minute to describe your journey. (Each student is given 2 minutes to present).**

For student

- Where did you travel to?
- What was the highlight of your visit?(monument/temple/park/relatives)
- Which place would you like to visit next?
- Why are journeys relaxing?  
If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions
- Did you go with the family?
- Was it a place you had never seen before?
- What fascinated you?

Part (2)**Individual Task ( 3):Loud Reading**



- This task of the test will be conducted for students individually to assess their pronunciations
- The teacher will ask the students to read this extract loudly to assess her or his pronunciation (2mini).

Health is wealth. There is nothing in our life that is more valuable than good health. Without health there is no happiness, no peace and no success. A person with bad health cannot enjoy the pleasure of being wealthy. Health is more valuable than money. Money cannot buy health and [happiness](#). But a healthy person remains in a state of bliss and happiness.

### Part (3)

#### Pair Task (4): Role play:

- This task is conducted for pair of students at a time.
- The students act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance. (10min).

**Student (B) take the role of the assessor by asking student (A) question. The teacher ask student B to ask student A the following questions:**

Talk about a book you actually read and liked

- What kind of books do you read?
- What was the book that you enjoyed reading?
- Why did you pick up the book?
- How long did you take to read it?

**If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions.**

- What's your favorite book?
- Summarize it in one minute speech.
- How did reading it change you, or your views?

**Student A take the role of student B :**

**Computer :**

- How often do you use a computer?
- What do you do online?
- What do you often use a computer for?
- What type of computer do you have ?

**If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions**

- Do you go on internet?
- Do you ever shop online ?
- Are you internet addicts ?

**Group Task 5: Discussion :(10mins )**

- This task of the test is conducted for ten students at time.

- The teacher divides the student into two groups each group has five students and observes and evaluate each student according to her /his interaction in the group and give marks to the students individually .

**The teacher begin: (Now I'd like to hear your ideas about a variety of topics. Be sure to say as much as you can in responding to each question. After I ask each question, you may take a minute to prepare your answer, and then begin speaking when you're ready. (5min?).**

The first considering topic is that do you agree that walking is good exercise?

Students discuss according to the following questions:

- What's the important of walking?
- What are ways of good walking?
- What things we need to walk?

The second topics about elderly:

Students respond to visual/ verbal stimulus. Students look at the pictures and talk together for 5 minutes about it by using the given words.(5mins)

1. Elderly –sad and lonely, neglected by their family members. Dependent on others for their physical needs. Money not adequate to meet the expenses of medicines.



*Thank you. That is the end of the speaking test*

*Signature : \_\_\_\_\_*



## Sudan University of Science and Technology

### Graduate College

### EFL Speaking performance Tests

#### Control group

#### Post Test

*Welcome and thank you for participating.*

#### The Test Key Facts:

- **Duration:** Approximately 30 minutes.
- **Participants:** students interviewed in pairs. Two examiners are present. One examiner (the teacher who acts like interlocutor) carries out the interview whilst the second (the assessor) focuses on the students' performance.
- **Format:** There are three parts to the test. *It is composed of five types of oral tasks each task has its own instructions.*

#### Test Instructions:

- *Students should be on time.*
- *Stay on the subject.*
- *Students should not have pen, paper, mobile*

#### Part (1):

#### Task (1): Interview:

- *This task of the test is for interviewing two students at a time.*
- *Student should avoid giving short, uncommunicative replies.*
- *The teacher will act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance.*

**(The teacher makes the students feel comfortable through this dialogue)** . (3 min)

Teacher: Hello! Good morning, May I know your name please? (For student (A))

Student A: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student

B: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: Tell me something about your family. For student (A)

Student A: \_\_\_\_\_

Interlocutor: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student B:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Interlocutor: What did you enjoy most when you were at primary school?(To student B) .

Student B:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Interlocutor: How about you? (To student A)

Student A:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Teacher: Do you have any plans for a holiday this year? (To student A)

Student A:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Teacher: And you? (To student B)

Student B:

- \_\_\_\_\_  
Teacher: What do you do in your free time ? (things that you do) ? (To student A)

Student A:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Interlocutor: How about you? (To student B)

Student

B \_\_\_\_\_

**Task (2) : Description :**

a) In this part the teacher will give 1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes each to both students to present (5 min)

b) The teacher is suggested the following two frames :

(1) **To student A describe something that you own and you value it tremendously. (1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes to present).**

- Where did you get it from?
- How long have you had it?
- What do you use it for?
- Why is it so important for you?

If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions

- Did you buy it/ was it a gift?
- Would it be easy to replace it?
- Is it valuable in term of money?

(2) **To student B: You will be given one minute to prepare on your most memorable journey you will have 2 minute to describe your journey. (Each student is given 2 minutes to present).**

For student

- Where did you travel to?
- What was the highlight of your visit?(monument/temple/park/relatives)
- Which place would you like to visit next?
- Why are journeys relaxing?

If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions

- Did you go with the family?
- Was it a place you had never seen before?
- What fascinated you?

**Part (2) Individual Task ( 3):Loud Reading**

- This task of the test will be conducted for students individually to assess their pronunciations
- The teacher will ask the students to read this extract loudly to assess her or his pronunciation (2mini ).

*Health is wealth. There is nothing in our life that is more valuable than good health. Without health there is no happiness, no peace and no success. A person with bad health cannot enjoy the pleasure of being wealthy. Health is more valuable than money. Money cannot buy health and [happiness](#). But a healthy person remains in a state of bliss and happiness.*

**Part (3)**

**Pair Task (4):Role play:**

- This task is conducted for pair of students at a time.
- The students act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance. (10min).

**Student (B) take the role of the assessor by asking student (A) question. The teacher ask student B to ask student A the following questions:**

Talk about a book you actually read and liked

- What kind of books do you read?
- What was the book that you enjoyed reading?
- Why did you pick up the book?
- How long did you take to read it?

***If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions.***

- What's your favorite book?
- Summarize it in one minute speech.
- How did reading it change you, or your views?

**Student A take the role of student B :**

**Computer :**

- How often do you use a computer?
- What do you do online?
- What do you often use a computer for?
- What type of computer do you have?

***If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions***

- Do you go on internet?
- Do you ever shop online?

Are you internet addicts?

**Group Task 5: Discussion :( 10mins)**

- This task of the test is conducted for ten students at a time.
- The teacher divides the student into two groups each group has five students and observes and evaluate each student according to her /his interaction in the group and give marks to the students individually .

**The teacher begin: (Now I'd like to hear your ideas about a variety of topics. Be sure to say as much as you can in responding to each question. After I ask each question, you may take a minute to prepare your answer, and then begin speaking when you're ready.(5min)**

. The first considering topic is that do you agree that walking is good exercise?  
Students discuss according to the following questions:

- What's the important of walking?
- What are ways of good walking?
- What things we need to walk?

The second topics about elderly:

Students respond to visual/ verbal stimulus. Students look at the pictures and talk together for 5 minutes about it by using the given words.(5mins)

2. Elderly –sad and lonely, neglected by their family members. Dependent on others for their physical needs. Money not adequate to meet the expenses of medicines.



*Thank you. That is the end of the speaking test*

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_



## Sudan University of Science and Technology

### Graduate College

### EFL Speaking performance Tests

### Experimental Group

### Pre Test

*Welcome and thank you for participating.*

**The Test Key Facts:**

- **Duration:** Approximately 30 minutes.
- **Participants:** students interviewed in pairs. Two examiners are present. One examiner (the teacher who act like interlocutor) carries out the interviewer whilst the second (the assessor) focuses on the students' performance.
- **Format:** There are three parts to the test. *It test composed of five types of oral tasks each task has its own instructions.*

**Test Instructions:**

- *Students should be on time.*
- *Stay on the subject.*
- *Students should not have pen, paper, mobile'*

**Part (1):**

**Task (1):Interview:**

- *This task of the test for interviewing two students at a time.*
- *Student should avoid giving short, uncommunicative replies.*

- *The teacher will act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance.*

**(The teacher makes the students feel comfortable through this dialogue) . (3 min)**

Teacher: Hello! Good morning, May I know your name please? (For student (A))

Student A: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student

B: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: Tell me something about your family. For student (A)

Student

A: \_\_\_\_\_

Interlocutor: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student B:

Interlocutor: What did you enjoy most when you were at primary school?(To student B) .

Student B:

Interlocutor: How about you? (To student A)

Student A:

Teacher: Do you have any plans for a holiday this year? (To student A)

Student A:

Teacher: And you? (To student B)

Student B:

Teacher: What do you do in your free time ? (things that you do) ? (To student A)

Student A:

Interlocutor: How about you? (To student B)

Student

B \_\_\_\_\_

**Task (2) : Description :**

a) In this part the teacher will give 1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes each to both students to present **(5 min)**

b)The teacher is suggested the following two frames :

**(1) To student A describe something that you own and you value it tremendously. (1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes to present).**

- Where did you get it from?
  - How long have you had it?
  - What do you use it for?
  - Why is it so important for you?
- If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions
- Did you buy it/ was it a gift?
  - Would it be easy to replace it?
  - Is it valuable in term of money?



**(2) To student B: You will be given one minute to prepare on your most memorable journey you will have 2 minute to describe your journey. (Each student is given 2 minutes to present).**

For student

- Where did you travel to?
- What was the highlight of your visit?(monument/temple/park/relatives)
- Which place would you like to visit next?
- Why are journeys relaxing?

If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions

- Did you go with the family?
- Was it a place you had never seen before?
- What fascinated you?

**Part (2)Individual Task ( 3):Loud Reading**

- *This task of the test will be conducted for students individually to assess their pronunciations*
- *The teacher will ask the students to read this extract loudly to assess her or his pronunciation (2mini).*

*Health is wealth. There is nothing in our life that is more valuable than good health. Without health there is no happiness, no peace and no success. A person with bad health cannot enjoy the pleasure of being wealthy. Health is more valuable than money. Money cannot buy health and happiness. But a healthy person remains in a state of bliss and happiness.*

**Part (3)**

**Pair Task (4):Role play:**

- *This task is conducted for pair of students at a time.*
- *The students act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance. (10min).*

***Student (B) take the role of the assessor by asking student (A) question. The teacher ask student B to ask student A the following questions:***

Talk about a book you actually read and liked

- What kind of books do you read?
- What was the book that you enjoyed reading?
- Why did you pick up the book?
- How long did you take to read it?

***If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions.***

- What's your favorite book?
- Summarize it in one minute speech.
- How did reading it change you, or your views?

***Student A take the role of student B :***

**Computer :**

- How often do you use a computer?

- What do you do online?
- What do you often use a computer for?
- What type of computer do you have ?

***If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions***

- Do you go on internet?
  - Do you ever shop online ?
- Are you internet addicts ?

**Group Task 5: Discussion :(10mins )**

- *This task of the test is conducted for ten students at time.*
- *The teacher divides the student into two groups each group has five students and observes and evaluate each student according to her /his interaction in the group and give marks to the students individually .*

***The teacher begin: (Now I'd like to hear your ideas about a variety of topics. Be sure to say as much as you can in responding to each question. After I ask each question, you may take a minute to prepare your answer, and then begin speaking when you're ready.(5min) .***

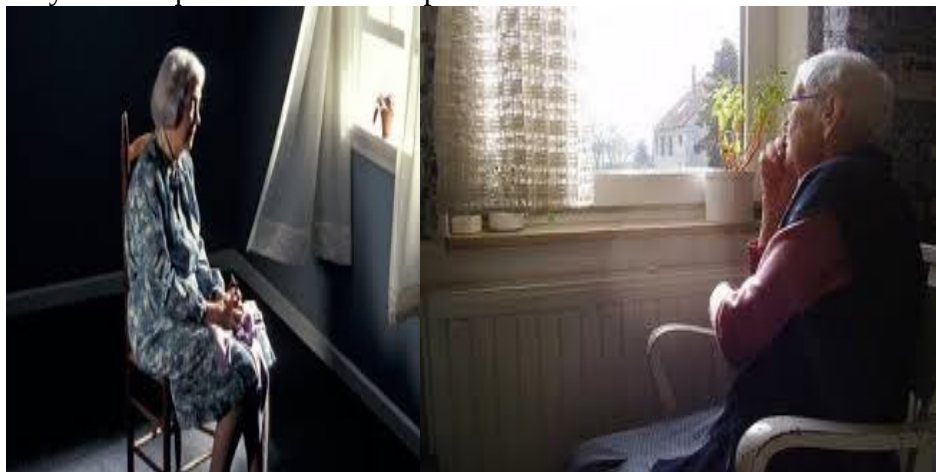
The first considering topic is that do you agree that walking is good exercise?  
Students discuss according to the following questions:

- What's the important of walking?
- What are ways of good walking?
- What things we need to walk?

The second topics about elderly:

Students respond to visual/ verbal stimulus. Students look at the pictures and talk together for 5 minutes about it by using the given words.(5mins)

3. Elderly –sad and lonely, neglected by their family members. Dependent on others for their physical needs. Money not adequate to meet the expenses of medicines.



*Thank you. That is the end of the speaking test*

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_



## Sudan University of Science and Technology

### Graduate College

### EFL Speaking performance Tests

### Experimental group

### Post Test

*Welcome and thank you for participating.*

**The Test Key Facts:**

- **Duration:** Approximately 30 minutes.
- **Participants:** students interviewed in pairs. Two examiners are present. One examiner (the teacher who acts like interlocutor) carries out the interview whilst the second (the assessor) focuses on the students' performance.
- **Format:** There are three parts to the test. *It is composed of five types of oral tasks each task has its own instructions.*

**Test Instructions:**

- *Students should be on time.*
- *Stay on the subject.*

- Students should not have pen, paper, mobile

**Part (1):**

**Task (1): Interview:**

*This task of the test for interviewing two students at a time.*

- Student should avoid giving short, uncommunicative replies.
- The teacher will act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance.

**(The teacher makes the students feel comfortable through this dialogue) . (3 min)**

Teacher: Hello! Good morning, May I know your name please? (For student (A))

Student A: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student

B: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: Tell me something about your family. For student (A)

Student

A: \_\_\_\_\_

Interlocutor: And yours? (Looking at student B)

Student B:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Interlocutor: What did you enjoy most when you were at primary school?(To student B) .

Student B:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Interlocutor: How about you? (To student A)

Student A:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Teacher: Do you have any plans for a holiday this year? (To student A)

Student A:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Teacher: And you? (To student B)

Student B:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Teacher: What do you do in your free time ? (things that you do) ? (To student A)

Student A:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Interlocutor: How about you? (To student B)

Student

B \_\_\_\_\_

**Task (2) : Description :**

a) In this part the teacher will give 1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes each to both students to present **(5 min)**

b)The teacher is suggested the following two frames :

**(1) To student A describe something that you own and you value it tremendously. (1 minute to prepare and 2 minutes to present).**

- Where did you get it from?
- How long have you had it?
- What do you use it for?
- Why is it so important for you?

If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions

- Did you buy it/ was it a gift?
- Would it be easy to replace it?
- Is it valuable in term of money?

**(2) To student B: You will be given one minute to prepare on your most memorable journey you will have 2 minute to describe your journey. (Each student is given 2 minutes to present).**

For student

- Where did you travel to?
- What was the highlight of your visit?(monument/temple/park/relatives)
- Which place would you like to visit next?
- Why are journeys relaxing?

If the student is not able to speak at length the teacher could ask rounding off questions

- Did you go with the family?
- Was it a place you had never seen before?
- What fascinated you?

**Part (2) Individual Task ( 3):Loud Reading**

- *This task of the test will be conducted for students individually to assess their pronunciations*
- *The teacher will ask the students to read this extract loudly to assess her or his pronunciation (2mini ).*

*Health is wealth. There is nothing in our life that is more valuable than good health. Without health there is no happiness, no peace and no success. A person with bad health cannot enjoy the pleasure of being wealthy. Health is more valuable than money. Money cannot buy health and happiness. But a healthy person remains in a state of bliss and happiness.*

**Part (3)**

**Pair Task (4):Role play:**

- *This task is conducted for pair of students at a time.*
- *The students act as an interlocutor (who is involved in a conversation) as well as an assessor who will also assess student's performance. (10min).*

**Student (B) take the role of the assessor by asking student (A) question. The teacher ask student B to ask student A the following questions:**

Talk about a book you actually read and liked

- What kind of books do you read?
- What was the book that you enjoyed reading?
- Why did you pick up the book?
- How long did you take to read it?

***If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions.***

- What's your favorite book?
- Summarize it in one minute speech.

- How did reading it change you, or your views?

**Student A take the role of student B :**

**Computer :**

- How often do you use a computer?
- What do you do online?
- What do you often use a computer for?
- What type of computer do you have ?

**If the student is not able to speak at length the student could ask rounding off questions**

- Do you go on internet?
- Do you ever shop online ?

Are you internet addicts ?

**Group Task 5: Discussion :(10mins )**

- This task of the test is conducted for ten students at time.
- The teacher divides the student into two groups each group has five students and observes and evaluate each student according to her /his interaction in the group and give marks to the students individually .

**The teacher begin: (Now I'd like to hear your ideas about a variety of topics. Be sure to say as much as you can in responding to each question. After I ask each question, you may take a minute to prepare your answer, and then begin speaking when you're ready.(5min)**

The first considering topic is that do you agree that walking is good exercise?

Students discuss according to the following questions:

- What's the important of walking?
- What are ways of good walking?
- What things we need to walk?

The second topics about elderly:

Students respond to visual/ verbal stimulus. Students look at the pictures and talk together for 5 minutes about it by using the given words.(5mins)

. Elderly –sad and lonely, neglected by their family members. Dependent on others for their physical needs. Money not adequate to meet the expenses of medicines.



*Thank you. That is the end of the speaking test*

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_



**Vocabulary Test**  
**Sudan University of Science and Technology**  
**Graduate College**  
**Control group**  
**Pre Test**

*Welcome and thank you for participating.*

**The Test Key Facts:**

- **Duration:** Approximately 60 minutes.
- **Participants:** students do the demonstrative test individually and the examiner (the teacher who act like interlocutor) carries out the tests .
- **Format:** There are three parts to the test. *It composed of (10) questions.* **Test Instructions:**
- *Students should be on time.*

- Read and choose the correct answer
- Students should have pen, paper,

**Part: 1**

Elle grabbed the pile of clothes that were sitting on her poolside lounge chair. She giggled as she held them in her arms and jumped into the pool. Her brother was getting out of the pool and saw Elle dunking his clothes in the water. "What are you doing?" he yelled over Elle's laughing fits. He yanked his clothes from her grasp and tried to wring the water out of them. When he untwisted his clothes, they were a little drier, but very wrinkled. He put his clothes back on the chair. Then, he grabbed Elle's towel and tossed it into the pool.

**1. In paragraph 2, the word WRING means to:**

- soak
- dry
- twist
- iron

**2. In the sentence above, what is the antonym of DIVERSE?**

- different
- multiple
- alike
- hostile

**3. What do you think the capitalized word means in the following sentence?**

"That roller coaster was a THRILL!" Chris shouted eyes wide open and a grin on his face.

- feeling of excitement
- feeling of sadness
- feeling of curiosity
- feeling of anger

**4. What do you think the capitalized word means in the following sentence? Scientists use many different tests and instruments in order to PREDICT the weather for the next week or month.**

- to change
- to understand
- to prepare for
- to tell ahead of time

**5. The ice melted outside of the freezer. In the sentence, the word MELTED means \_\_\_\_\_.**

- to burn
- to add cheese on top
- to put in the water
- to turn from ice into water

**Part 2:**

Moisture collected from the atmosphere by the action of cold. During the day, the powerful heat of the sun causes to arise from the earth and water a moist vapor, which, after the sun sinks below the horizon, is condensed by the cold, and falls in the form of dew. Dews are more copious in the spring and autumn than at any other season; in warm



countries than in cold ones: because of the sudden changes of temperature. Egypt abounds in dews all the summer; for the air being too hot to condense the vapors in the day-time, they never gather into clouds and form rain.

**1. According to the passage above, dew is most likely**

- a. large drops of rain falling from the sky.
- b. water vapor that condenses in the clouds.
- c. small droplets that form when water vapor condenses.
- d. the water that makes up the lakes and puddles on earth.

**2. Memorial Day starts the summer and Labor Day ends the summer. Many people confuse the two holidays, but remembering the meaning of the word "labor," can help them distinguish between the two.**

**2. What does the word LABOR mean?**

- a. the process of childbirth
- b. hard work
- c. make an effort
- d. remember key people or events

**3. What does the prefix BI- mean in BICYCLE?**

- a. two
- b. one
- c. not
- d. round

**Part 3:**

**1. Amanda's dad asked her what happened to the lamp that was broken in the living room. She knew that she and her sister had broken it when they were playing with the basketball. She told her father the truth about what happened and that it was an accident even though she knew they would still get in trouble.**

**Q.1. Amanda was very \_\_\_\_\_ about what happened to the lamp.**

- a. dishonest
- b. happy
- c. fortunate
- d. sad

**Q 2. Amanda knew they would still get in \_\_\_\_\_**

- a. safe
- b. trouble
- c. danger
- d. pleasure

**2. On October 30, 2012, Hurricane Sandy destroyed many homes in New York. At the same time, a huge fire destroyed 80-100 houses in a flooded beachfront neighborhood, forcing firefighters to undertake daring rescues and injuring three people.**

**Q.1 .In this story the word FORCING means**

- a. to do without a choice.
- b. to push strongly.
- c. to laugh.
- d. to destroy.

**Q.2. Read the sentence.**

**"The can leap from tree to tree."**

**Which word means the same as "leap" as it is used in the sentence?**

- a. drop
- b. jump
- c. walk
- d. wave

**Q.3. An antonym for SLENDER is**

- a. skinny.
- b. fat.
- c. nice.
- d. beautiful.

**Q.4. In the word "unlucky" the prefix un- means what?**

- a. not
- b. before
- c. in
- d. wrong

**Q.5 The prefixes in- and im- mean?**

- a. middle
- b. above
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- d. is

**Q.6. If I use the prefix DIS and the base word LIKE, what is my new word?**

- a. liked
- b. like
- c. dislike
- d. do not like

**Q.7. Which word means to not approve?**

- a. unapprove
- b. prapprove
- c. disapprove
- d. reapprove

Q.8. The teacher's face, like a brightly glowing summer day, signaled her feelings of contentment.

**Q.9 Match the sentences with appropriate word.**

1. My cousin is very \_\_\_\_\_. He has both a B.A. and a M.A.

2. Amana is a/an \_\_\_\_\_ person. She is never angry or upset and she is easy to get along with.

3. Ahmed has a lot of money, and his family is also very rich. Everybody in his town knows he is a very \_\_\_\_\_ person.

- a. good -natured
- b. appropriate
- c. affluent
- d. widespread

e. well-educated

**Q10.What does CONTENTMENT mean in Arabic?**

\_\_\_\_\_

*Thank you. That is the end of the test*

*Signature :\_\_\_\_\_*



**Vocabulary test  
Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**Graduate College**

**Control group  
Post Test**

*Welcome and thank you for participating.*

**The Test Key Facts:**

- **Duration:** Approximately 60 minutes.
- **Participants:** students do the demonstrative test individually and the examiner (the teacher who ach like interlocutor) carries out the tests .
- **Format:** There are three parts to the test.*It composed of (10)questions.***Test Instructions:**
- *Students should be on time.*
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Part :1

Elle grabbed the pile of clothes that were sitting on her poolside lounge chair. She giggled as she held them in her arms and jumped into the pool. Her brother was getting out of the pool and saw Elle dunking his clothes in the water. "What are you doing?" he yelled over Elle's laughing fits. He yanked his clothes from her grasp and tried to wring the water out of them. When he untwisted his clothes, they were a little drier, but very wrinkled. He put his clothes back on the chair. Then, he grabbed Elle's towel and tossed it into the pool.

**1. In paragraph 2, the word WRING means to:**

- a. soak
- b. dry
- c. twist
- d. iron

**2. In the sentence above, what is the antonym of DIVERSE?**

- a. different
- b. multiple
- c. alike
- d. hostile

**3. What do you think the capitalized word means in the following sentence?**

**"That roller coaster was a THRILL!" Chris shouted eyes wide open and a grin on his face.**

- a. feeling of excitement
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## **Part 2**

Moisture collected from the atmosphere by the action of cold. During the day, the powerful heat of the sun causes to arise from the earth and water a moist vapor, which, after the sun sinks below the horizon, is condensed by the cold, and falls in the form of dew. Dews are more copious in the spring and autumn than at any other season; in warm countries than in cold ones: because of the sudden changes of temperature. Egypt abounds in dews all the summer; for the air being too hot to condense the vapors in the day-time, they never gather into clouds and form rain

**1. According to the passage above, dew is most likely \_\_\_\_\_.**

- a. large drops of rain falling from the sky.
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2. Memorial Day starts the summer and Labor Day ends the summer. Many people confuse the two holidays, but remembering the meaning of the word "labor," can help them distinguish between the two.

**2. What does the word LABOR mean?**

- a. the process of childbirth
- b. hard work
- c. make an effort
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**3. What does the prefix BI- mean in BICYCLE?**

- a. two
- b. one
- c. not
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Part 3:

1. Amanda's dad asked her what happened to the lamp that was broken in the living room. She knew that she and her sister had broken it when they were playing with the basketball. She told her father the truth about what happened and that it was an accident even though she knew they would still get in trouble.

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- a. good -natured
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Q10. What does CONTENTMENT mean in Arabic?

---

*Thank you. That is the end of the test*

Signature : \_\_\_\_\_



**Vocabulary test**  
**Sudan University of Science and Technology**  
**Graduate College**  
**Experimental Group**  
**Pre Test**

*Welcome and thank you for participating.*

**The Test Key Facts:**

- **Duration:** Approximately 60 minutes.
  - **Participants:** students do the demonstrative test individually and the examiner (the teacher who acts like interlocutor) carries out the tests .
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"What are you doing?" he yelled over Elle's laughing fits. He yanked his clothes from her grasp and tried to wring the water out of them. When he untwisted his clothes, they were a little drier, but very wrinkled. He put his clothes back on the chair. Then, he grabbed Elle's towel and tossed it into the pool.

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- a. soak
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- d. iron

**2. In the sentence above, what is the antonym of DIVERSE?**

- a. different
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**3. What do you think the capitalized word means in the following sentence?**

**"That roller coaster was a THRILL!" Chris shouted eyes wide open and a grin on his face.**

- a. feeling of excitement
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**4. What do you think the capitalized word means in the following sentence? Scientists use many different tests and instruments in order to PREDICT the weather for the next week or month.**

- a. to change
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- a. to burn
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part 2:

Moisture collected from the atmosphere by the action of cold. During the day, the powerful heat of the sun causes to arise from the earth and water a moist vapor, which, after the sun sinks below the horizon, is condensed by the cold, and falls in the form of dew. Dews are more copious in the spring and autumn than at any other season; in warm countries than in cold ones: because of the sudden changes of temperature. Egypt abounds in dews all the summer; for the air being too hot to condense the vapors in the day-time, they never gather into clouds and form rain.



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**2. What does the word LABOR mean?**

- a. the process of childbirth
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**3. What does the prefix BI- mean in BICYCLE?**

- a. two
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- c. not
- d. round

**Part 3:**

**1. Amanda's dad asked her what happened to the lamp that was broken in the living room. She knew that she and her sister had broken it when they were playing with the basketball. She told her father the truth about what happened and that it was an accident even though she knew they would still get in trouble.**

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Q10. **What does CONTENTMENT mean in Arabic?**

\_\_\_\_\_

*Thank you. That is the end of the test*

Signature : \_\_\_\_\_



**Vocabulary test**  
**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**Graduate College**

**Control group**  
**Pre Test**

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**Q10. What does CONTENTMENT mean in Arabic?**

\_\_\_\_\_

*Thank you. That is the end of the test*

*Signature : \_\_\_\_\_*

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No	Student name	The word meaning					Usage					Formation and grammar					Pronunciation					The percent %
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
1																						
2																						
3																						
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11																						





### Speaking Test Assessment Form

No	Student name	Vocabulary and Grammar					Pronunciation					Fluency & Coherence					Interaction					The percent %
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
1																						
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**The scale verified as follows:**

6.Excellent

7.V. good

8.Good

9.Adequate

10. Poor