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Speaking Activities Aimed at Developing Fluency in EFL Classes

Thesis

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Rozvoj plynulosti mluveného projevu v hodinách anglického jazyka

Diplomová práce

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Zásady pro vypracování:

Diplomantka v teoretické části na základě studia odborné lingvodidaktické literatury vydefiniuje klíčové pojmy, tj. komunikativní kompetence, komunikativní přístup; dále provede klasifikaci typů aktivit vhodných pro rozvoj dovednosti ústního vyjadřování se zaměřením na plynulost projevu.

V praktické části se diplomantka zaměří na vybrané typy aktivit využívané ve výuce anglického jazyka, provede jejich analýzu a kritické zhodnocení. Zpětnou vazbu od žáků získá prostřednictvím dotazníkového šetření.

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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně Univerzity Pardubice.

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Abstract

In 1970s appeared so-called 'communicative movement', which has been influential in foreign language teaching. It assumes that the goal of foreign language teaching is communicative ability; to make learners communicate meanings rather than structures and to allow them to use language in real-life situations, to achieve certain level of fluency.

According to Wendy A. Scott and Lisbeth H. Ytreberg, speaking is the most demanding skill for the teacher to teach. Consequently, speaking fluency represents one of the main targets which teachers want to achieve with their students at any stage of their studies through various techniques and activities.

Shrnutí

Na počátku sedmdesátých let minulého století se rozšířilo tzv. 'komunikativní hnutí' prosazující komunikativní přístup, které zásadně ovlivnilo výuku cizích jazyků. Podle tohoto hnutí je cílem dosažení komunikativní schopnosti, tzn. sdělování a předávání významů/informací spíše než užití správných jazykových struktur, a zároveň možnost použití jazyka v reálných situacích, a také dosažení určité úrovně plynulosti mluveného projevu.

Podle Wendy A. Scott a Lisbeth H. Ytreberg je mluvený projev pro učitele tou nejžádanější jazykovou dovedností. Současně také dosažení plynulosti mluveného projevu představuje jeden ze základních cílů, kterého chtějí učitelé u svých studentů docílit pomocí rozličných technik a aktivit v jakékoli fázi studia.

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1. Introduction

Speaking fluently represents one of the targets which teachers are willing to achieve with their students at any stage of their studies, using various approaches, techniques and activities to have more students successful and fluent in using English. Learners should be able to express their ideas which can be a highly motivating factor for them in learning foreign languages, in general. A lot of learners learn languages because it is a compulsory subject at school. It is teacher's aim to make them aware of the fact that foreign languages, English including, represent in today's society certain social status which enables to communicate with people all around the world. It can be in the form of business transaction or just asking for direction somewhere abroad. The use and importance of foreign languages is nowadays increasing and therefore more attention should be paid to their acquisition.

People use foreign languages at various levels of proficiency and in a different way, for example in their written or oral form. However, most people use the languages for communicative purposes. It is the reason why the necessity of speaking activities developing fluency is stressed by many contemporary writers concentrating on the subject of foreign language teaching as well as the need to communicate meanings in a given situation, rather than present mastery of the language structures.

The aim of this thesis is, firstly, theoretical: to provide brief theoretical background about the communicative approach to language teaching, secondly, practical: to help teachers to broaden their repertoire of

activities enabling to communicate effectively in a foreign language and achieving fluency, and their consequent evaluation according to experience from the research period and the results of the questionnaire. The main focus is on the development of oral skills.

It is to be noted that the last part summarizes authors experience when teaching pupils and therefore the first person singular is used. The last point to be made is the fact that sometimes teacher, learner, student or pupil is here referred to as *he*.

2. Theoretical Part

Language, in general, helps people to express their opinions, feelings and thoughts, and so represents a very important part in the lives of all people. Speaking is one of the most important language skills in all languages, in the study of mother tongue as well as in the study of foreign languages. The aim is to communicate effectively and especially in teaching foreign languages, and here we are speaking about teaching English in particular, to use the structures of the languages in the real situations. Littlewood says that the goal of foreign language teaching is the communicative ability, complex and many-sided phenomenon, which implies ability to form correct structures of the language and their proper application in various situations, where the latter is stressed, and developing the ability to take part in the process of 'communicating' effectively through language. It is the assumption that underlines such widely-used approaches as situational language teaching or the audio-lingual method. (Littlewood, 1981: x)

2.1 Communicative movement

In early 1970s the language teaching was influenced by so-called 'communicative movement'. There are two main implications of this approach emphasized in Littlewood's *Communicative Language Teaching*:

A communicative approach opens up a wider perspective on language. In particular, it makes us consider language not only in terms of its structure (grammar and vocabulary) but also in terms of the communicative functions that it performs. In other

words, we begin to look not only at language forms, but also at what people 'do' with these forms when they want to communicate with each other. For example, construction: „Why don't you close the door?" might be used for a number of communicative purposes, such as asking a question, making a suggestion or issuing an order. We can therefore combine the newer *functional* view of the language with the traditional *structural* view, in order to achieve complete communicative perspective.

(Littlewood, 1981: x)

The second implication of this movement Littlewood explains like this:

A communicative approach opens up a wider perspective on language learning. In particular, it makes us more strongly aware that it is not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language. They must also develop strategies for relating these structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time.

(Littlewood, 1981: x)

This enables us to give students fuller account of what they are supposed to use as a means of communication and also supplies basis for organizing the material we want to teach. Learners (further on Ls) should also be provided with appropriate number of opportunities to use the language themselves for communicative purposes. We ought to be aware that learners, in this approach, are developing mainly their skill to communicate through language, rather than using perfectly individual structures of the language. Therefore, constant and direct correction is not effective and it does not help to create a good class atmosphere. It has got its place in the language-teaching process, but not when you are using the language for communication. (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990: 4)

To sum up, communicative approach to language teaching pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language and combines these two into a more fully communicative view. The aim of foreign language teaching is the communicative ability while the structural viewpoint of the language concentrates on grammatical system. (Littlewood, 1981: 1) What is more, it is to be noted that language does not carry only functional and structural meaning, but also social meaning which goes hand in hand with these two, we use language according to a situation.

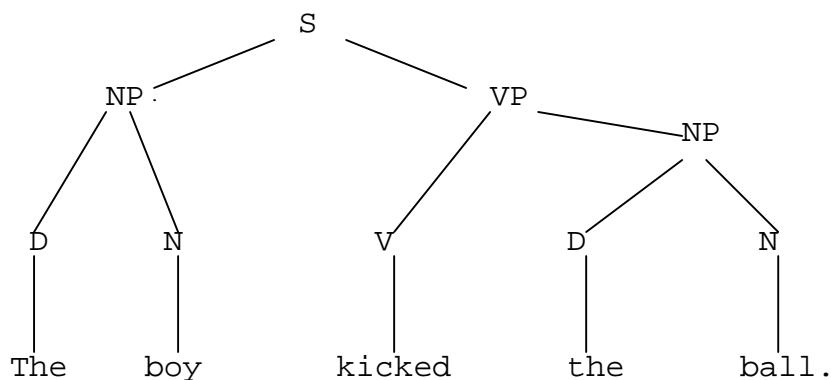
2.1.1 Chomsky and his *communicative competence*

Linguists have been discussing native speaker's knowledge for many years and wondering how it is possible that when you ask a native Englishman about his knowledge of grammar, he will say that he does not know any. He will not probably tell you the rules of grammar, but the same man can say: „If I had known that I would have told him.“ Harmer asks himself a question: „How is that possible?“ (Harmer, 1982: 12) Perhaps the most famous work in the field of learner's knowledge is Noam Chomsky. Harmer summarizes his theory this way:

His [of Chomsky] suggestion is that a native speaker has, somewhere in his brain, a set of grammar rules which he can use to make sentences with.

(Harmer, 1983: 12)

He manifests concrete representation of the rule governing a simple sentence: '*The boy kicked the ball*'. According to Harmer, Chomsky might present the sentence this way:



The rule says what the relationships of the sentence are. However, Harmer stresses one interesting point:

If we slob bits of vocabulary into this tree, or frame, we get a sentence. By changing the bits of vocabulary we get completely different sentence, for example, 'The girl loved the man'. In other words the rule has not changed, but the sentence has. By using the rule as a base we can select the vocabulary to mean the things we want.

(Harmer, 1983: 12)

The example above shows us that we can make many thousands of sentences with only one rule. It covers Chomsky's idea that there is a *finite* number of such rules that all native speakers know and with these rules we can create an *infinite* number of sentences. Harmer goes on: „we will never say all the possible sentences in our lifetime ... and yet we will subconsciously know the rules of our language ...". Chomsky made a difference between this knowledge and the sentences that are based on them and produced. He calls the grammatical rules as *language competence* and concrete realisation of these rules *performance*. Harmer concludes that the man who says that he does not know any grammar is right and wrong at the same time. He would not be probably able to describe the

rule as it is mentioned above, but he has language competence, or in other words a subconscious knowledge of the grammar rules of his language, which allows him to make sentences. (Harmer, 1983: 13)

i. Chomsky versus Hymes

Another linguist, Dell Hymes, claims that Chomsky missed out some very important information. He suggests that it may not be sufficient to account the type of rules Chomsky had presented for explanation of what the speaker knows about his own language. In other words, the competence that Chomsky talked about as knowledge of grammar rules, points out Hymes, was no good to a native speaker if he did not know how to use the language which those rules produced. He gives another example: „It is not much help to know that ‘*Would you like to*’ takes the infinitive unless you know that ‘*Would you like to come to the cinema?*’ is performing an inviting function“. (Harmer, 1983: 13) Hymes concluded that the competence itself was not enough to explain native speaker’s knowledge and he used his own concept of *communicative competence*. He separated the native speaker’s knowledge into four parts:

1/ Systematic potential

The native speaker possesses a system that has potential for creating a lot of language (a lot similar to Chomsky’s original competence)

2/ Appropriacy

The native speaker knows what language is appropriate in a given situation.

3/ Occurrence

A native speaker knows how often something is said in the language. He knows how common a piece of language is.

4/ Feasibility

A native speaker knows whether something is possible in the language or not. For example, there are no rules for saying how many adjectives you can use in a sentence before a noun, but at some point the native speaker will say that there are too many to make sense. It is no longer feasible.

(Harmer, 1983: 13-14)

As we can see, Hymes added some categories that differ from those by Chomsky - by Chomsky's original idea of competence. This is only a brief summary, the original interpretation is obviously more complex. It is clear that the native speaker in some way does know the rules which make him possible to get the grammar right and to say the right thing. (Harmer, 1983: 13-14)

ii. Bachman and his interpretation of communicative - language competence

Lyle F. Bachman is another personality who explores the use of language and the nature of language teaching/learning, in general, including communicative proficiency and *communicative competence*.

Bachman claims that:

Recent formulations of communicative competence provide much more inclusive descriptions of the knowledge required to use language than did the earlier skills and components models.

(Bachman, 1990: 83)

According to Bachman, these formulations also include, *in addition* to the knowledge of grammatical rules, the knowledge of how language is used in order to achieve particular communicative goals. Further on, language use is perceived as a dynamic process; it is dynamic rather than static. (IBID. 83)

When speaking about Bachman's theory of communicative competence, it is necessary to mention communicative language ability. Bachman defines it as "both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing the competence in appropriate, contextualized language use" (Bachman, 1990: 84). He points out that communicative language ability (CLA) includes three components: *language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms*. The terms Bachman explains in his book *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*: "language competence comprises, essentially, a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language" (Bachman, 1990: 84). These are organizational competence, which further on consists of grammatical and textual competence, and pragmatic competence which consists of illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. (IBID. 107) Strategic competence, to compare, is the term that Bachman uses to "characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use" (IBID. 84) Simply said, it refers to sociocultural knowledge, 'real-world' knowledge. "*Strategic competence* performs assessment, planning, and execution functions in determining the most effective means of achieving a communicative goal" (IBID, 108). The third and the last component of CLA are

psychophysiological mechanisms involved in language use. They characterize the channel (auditory, visual) and mode (receptive, productive) in which competence is implemented. (IBID. 108) The interaction of these components of CLA with the language use context and language user's knowledge structures are illustrated in a diagram taken from the book mentioned above (see Appendix 1a).

To conclude, communicative competence and its frameworks, according to Bachman, have recently included different components associated with what he calls *language competence*. (Bachman, 1990: 84) In his book he presents a tree diagram of the hierarchical relationships among the components of language competence. These components all interact with each other. A model how these competencies may interact in language use is also presented in his book (see Appendix 1b). Individual terms presented in the diagram will not be explained here. It would only be copying Bachman's *Fundamental Considerations* which is not the purpose of the thesis. For detailed information see this book.

This chapter should have provided us with the basic concept of Bachman's interpretation of communicative/ language competence as one of the three main components of communicative language ability.

The following chapter goes back to Chomsky and his theory of cognitivism which is compared to Skinner's behaviourism.

2.1.4 Chomsky's cognitivism and Skinner's behaviourism

The idea that students should be allowed to construct their own sentences based on an understanding of a rule is widely accepted in many classrooms. Chomsky's theory of *cognitivism* is a theory where students are asked to think rather than repeat which is in opposition to Skinner's theory of *behaviourism* where the learning consists of three major stages: *stimulus*, *response*, and *reinforcement*. This method used drills followed by positive or negative reinforcement of the learners by their teachers; their mistakes were immediately criticised and correct structures immediately praised. Chomsky opposed: „If all the language is learnt behaviour, how is it that young children can say things they have never said before?“ (Harmer, 1983: 30) Chomsky maintained that language is not a form of behaviour, but an intricate rule-based system and a large part of acquisition is the learning of this system. Again, there are a finite number of grammatical rules and an infinite number of sentences that can be performed in the language. Acquisition can be explained as a subconscious process which results in the knowledge of language in contrast to learning, a conscious process which results only in 'knowing about' the language. The distinction between these terms - processes has been drawn by an American writer Krashen. (IBID. 31)

To conclude, whatever differences there are between the theories of communicative movement and various interpretations, the important idea is to acquire not only structural aspect of the language as it was stressed

before, but also functional aspect which goes hand in hand with the social aspect.

2.2 Accuracy versus fluency

When we discuss speaking activities it is necessary to mention two other terms: *accuracy* and *fluency*. The purpose of *accuracy work* is to make sure that the Ls get something right. These activities are teacher controlled and usually the whole class is engaged. The emphasis is rather on the form than on its content. The opposite kind of activities is based on the principle where Ls 'use' the language they have learnt; use it freely even if they make mistakes. This kind of work is called *fluency activities*. They are learner controlled and done in pairs or groups. (Byrne, 1987: 7-8) Ls can use language freely to express their own ideas. These activities show learners that the language is useful, it is the language they use outside the classroom - in real-life situations.

Byrne divides speaking activities into four groups:

- 1/ Accuracy activities controlled by the teacher and done with the whole class
- 2/ Accuracy activities directed by the learners and done in pairs (occasionally in groups)
- 3/ Fluency activities controlled by the teacher and done with the whole class
- 4/ Fluency activities directed by the Ls and done in groups (or occasionally in pairs)

(Byrne, 1987: 11)

Byrne summarizes subdivision of speaking activities and gives concrete examples in his book *Techniques for Classroom Interaction* (see Appendix 2).

Consequently, when dealing with these terms, accuracy and fluency, another question emerges: What is the suitable balance between them? Byrne assumes that it is better to spend some first one hundred lessons of language learning on accuracy work at an elementary level in order to build up L's knowledge of grammar and vocabulary as quickly as possible. And after the first stage it should be vice versa, more time ought to be given to activities concentrating on fluency work. (Byrne, 1987: 12)

accuracy	fluency
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accuracy	fluency
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Students need to feel they are able to use their language as soon as possible, it is a highly-motivating factor for them. The number of the lessons spent on accuracy work is not definite, you must take into account many aspects (age of Ls, their progress, etc.) and adapt to them.

2.3 Speaking activities

Speech is an interactive process which can be observed. There are two parties that participate in it, both contribute to it. When we communicate, we always seek certain requirements to satisfy. Both the concept of interaction and that of communicative need depend for their usefulness upon our postulating another condition

for normal language use: both require that participants are co-operative. (Brazil, 1995: 29, 31) Halliday claims that our 'experience of speaking' is of something that begins, continues, and ends in time: it happens, for example in comparison with writing (Brazil, 1995: 11). Further on, Harmer says that communication between humans is extremely complex and ever-changing phenomenon. There are certain characteristics, he goes on, that the great majority of communicative events share. He also stresses their relevance to language teaching and learning. (Harmer, 1983: 41) When two people speak, they do so for a reason. When one of them speaks we can probably make the following generalisations, Harmer concludes:

1. He wants to speak: 'Want' is used here in a general way to suggest that a speaker makes a definite decision to address someone. He may be forced to speak in some way, but we can still say that he wants or intends to speak, otherwise he would keep silent.
2. He has some communicative purpose: Speakers say things because they want something to happen as a result of what they say.
3. He selects from his language store: The speaker has an infinite capacity to create new sentences if he is a native speaker. In order to achieve his communicative purpose he will select (from the 'store' he possesses) the language he thinks is appropriate for this purpose.

Assuming an effective piece of communication, we can also make some generalisations about a listener (or reader) of a language:

4. He wants to listen to 'something'.
5. He is interested in the communicative purpose of what is being said.

6. He processes a variety of language.
(Harmer, 1983: 41-42)

All these generalisations apply equally to all speakers and listeners (or readers), school teachers including.

2.3.1 Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation

It is teacher's responsibility to motivate his learners to participate in a learning exercise. Penny Ur says in her book *Grammar Practice Activities* that there are two groups of factors that motivate Ls: *extrinsic* and *intrinsic*. Extrinsic factors have nothing to do with the nature of the activity itself - they may very much need to know the language, for example, or want to be approved of. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation is represented by features within the activity itself that arouse Ls' interest and attention to make them want to take part in it. (Ur, 1988: 19) These are:

1) Topic

The importance of the topic as a focus varies: if the activity is a discussion or essay on a controversial subject, then obviously the topic must be one that holds the Ls' attention; but if the activity is a game-like or creating juxtapositions then the subject matter becomes relatively unimportant, and the task itself is what provides the interest.

2) Visual focus

It is very much easier to concentrate on thinking about something if you can see that something, or at least some depicted or symbolic representation of it.... Sight is an extremely powerful and demanding sense....

3) Open-endedness

A task that is open-ended allows for lots of different L responses during its performance, and is therefore conducive to the production of varied and

original ideas.... However, it is not true to say that all close-ended tasks are boring.

4) Information gaps

... It is true that the transmission of new ideas from one participant to another does occur in most real-life language-based transactions; and when this factor is built into a classroom language learning task, the effect is to add a dealing of purpose, challenge and authenticity which improve L's interest....

5) Personalization

By *personalization* I [Ur] mean the use of interaction based on the students' personal experiences, opinions, ideas and feelings... However, asking students to be very intimate or frank with one another can sometimes cause embarrassment or even distress...

6) Pleasurable tension

The reason why most games are interesting is that they provide their participants - and sometimes spectators - with a feeling of pleasurable tension; and this feature can contribute also to the interest of language practice activities...

7) Entertainment

Another source of interest is sheer entertainment... It can sometimes become the main objective of student contribution to a task, instead of a pleasing by-product...

8) Play-acting

Learners often enjoy 'being' someone else, or being themselves in an imaginary situation. And a temporary departure from reality, incidentally, is not only a means of motivating Ls to participate, it is also a very effective way of widening the range of language available for use...

(Ur, 1988: 19-25)

Harmer, on the contrary, summarizes intrinsic motivation into four factors: physical motivation, method, the teacher and success.

The factors mentioned above apply to Ls in general. It is important to take into consideration how Ls feel about learning English. It is very unlikely that everyone

will have the same motivation, learners can be motivated by the mixture of the factors discussed.

2.3.2 Pre-communicative and communicative activities

It is necessary to point out that there is a vast number of other factors contributing towards an overall communicative approach to foreign language teaching, for example methodological framework. Littlewood presents in his book methodological distinction which is there summarized as follows:

- 1) Pre-communicative activities
- 2) Communicative activities

The first category includes the majority of activities usually found in the textbooks, such as drills or question and answer practice. Their aim is to provide Ls with fluent command of the linguistic system without actually using the system for communicative purposes. The stress is here on accuracy rather than fluency or communicating meanings effectively. Littlewood describes their characteristics this way:

Through *pre-communicative* activities, the teacher isolates specific elements of knowledge or skill which compose communicative ability, and provides the Ls with opportunities to practise them separately. The Ls are thus being trained in the part-skills of communication rather than practising the total skill to be acquired.... Whenever pre-communicative activities occur, their essential function is a subordinate one: they serve to prepare the L for later communication. ...These activities will lead into communicative work, during which the Ls can use the new language they have acquired and the teacher can monitor their progress. In effect, this is the

familiar progression from 'controlled practice' to 'creative language use'.

(Littlewood, 1981: 85,87)

Pre-communicative activities could further be subcategorised as 'quasi-communicative' or 'structural activities'. Quasi-communicative activities take account of communicative as well as structural facts about language, in contrast with purely structural activities (i.e. mechanical drills). (Littlewood, 1981: 86)

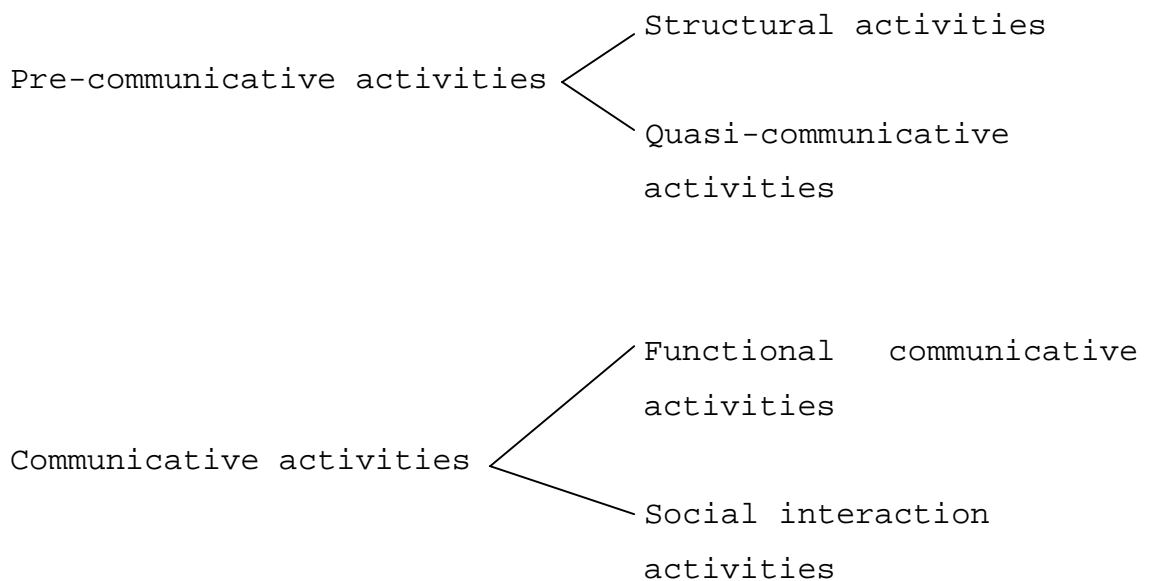
The aim of these activities, according to Littlewood, is to give the Ls fluent control over linguistic forms. There could be links between forms and meanings, but the main criterion for success is still acceptable language that the L should be able to produce. (Littlewood, 1983: 89)

In *communicative* activities, the L has to activate and integrate his pre-communicative knowledge and skills, in order to use them for the communication of meanings. Littlewood stresses the importance to distinguish two subcategories, depending on the degree of importance attached to social as well as functional meaning. In 'functional communication activities', the criterion for success is practical: how effectively the task is performed while in 'social interaction activities', the L also takes into account social context. (Littlewood, 1981: 87) The production of linguistic forms becomes here subordinate. The stress is placed on communicating meanings and on communicating them effectively. (IBID. 89)

We usually start with pre-communicative activities in the learning process, Ls practise certain language forms and teacher can monitor their progress. However, it is also possible to begin a teaching unit with a

communicative activity, such as a role-play. (Littlewood, 1981: 87) Such activity performs two other functions: it enables the teacher to diagnose the Ls' weaknesses and it enables Ls themselves to become aware of their language needs. On the basis of the diagnosis of the previous activity, the teacher then can organise controlled practice of language forms which represented some problems for the Ls. (IBID. 88) The teacher then moves from 'creative language use' to 'controlled practice'. (IBID. 87)

To sum up Littlewood's methodological framework, it is demonstrated in the following diagram:



It is to be pointed out, as Littlewood concludes, that they represent differences of emphasis and orientation rather than distinct divisions. (Littlewood, 1981: 86)

2.3.3 Division of speaking activities

The object of the following pages is to present several examples of subdivisions of speaking activities as they are discussed in various books by Littlewood, Byrne, Scott and Ytreberg and Harmer taking into consideration various criteria. It is to be stressed that the authors are not dealing with strict distinctions or divisions but with differences of emphasis.

2.3.3.1 Littlewood's division of speaking activities

Littlewood distinguishes two main types of speaking activities: *functional communicative activities* and *social interaction activities*. Very important aspect of communicative skill is, according to Littlewood, to find language which will communicate an intended meaning effectively in a specific situation, for example: there is a problem that Ls must solve, information which they must exchange with whatever language they have at their disposal. The purpose of these activities is to achieve some practical result. Learners should be able to use the language they know in order to get meanings as cross as effectively as possible. Ls are not required to use language appropriate to any particular situation or language that would be grammatically accurate. This type of activities represents the first group: *functional communication activities*. Its principal is that teacher structures the situation so that Ls have to overcome an information gap or solve a problem. Ls must work towards a definite solution or decision. Sharing and processing of information is mainly involved here. On the basis of this

statement they can further be subdivided into activities using language to *share* information or activities using language to *process* information. (Littlewood, 1981: 20-22)

Littlewood provides us with another distinction of functional communicative activities that is also based on the *sharing* and *processing*:

- 1/ sharing information with restricted cooperation
- 2/ sharing information with unrestricted cooperation
- 3/ sharing and processing information
- 4/ processing information

The first type of communicative activities produces the simplest patterns of interaction. The situation is always like this:

The first learner or a group processes information that another L or group must discover. The knower is not allowed to cooperate fully: he provides information only in response to appropriate cues (e.g. yes/no questions) in order to introduce a 'game' element and to ensure that the interaction lasts long enough to provide sustained practice. Learners must interact according to strict rules.

(Littlewood, 1981: 22)

One example of this kind of activity from Littlewood: it is called discovering sequence or location. The first L has got a set of pictures in sequence. The second L has got the same set of pictures but not in sequence. Learner B must discover that sequence. (IBID. 25)

The focus of these activities is on meanings to be communicated rather than linguistic forms to be learnt.

The second type of these activities stresses richer patterns of communication and therefore it is necessary to reduce the conventions that restrict the cooperation between Ls. In these activities the focus has moved to

meanings to be communicated for a specific purpose. The interaction is more unpredictable and creative. Littlewood states that Ls will need to develop a wider range of communicative skills and strategies for getting these meanings across. Again, all the forms that Ls use may not be grammatically perfect, but the teacher may use them as indicators of what skills need to be practised or learnt. (Littlewood, 1981: 30, 32)

Here is one example of such activity: communicating patterns and pictures. Learner A has got assortment of shapes which he arranges into a pattern. Learner B has got the same shapes and he must reproduce the same pattern (instead of pattern e.g. picture). (Littlewood, 1981: 31) Some activities from the previous group can be used in this way, too.

When speaking about the third group of activities, sharing and processing information, we must say that one dimension is added here. Learners must not only share the information, they must also evaluate this information in order to solve a problem and the range of communicative functions is so widened. It increases unpredictability of the interaction, scope of disagreement and negotiation. (Littlewood, 1981: 32) In this kind of activities so-called jigsaw principle is used. Each L in a pair or group possesses information which is unique to him. He must share it with others.

The last type of communicative function activities, according to Littlewood, dispense completely with the need to share information. Learners have access to all relevant information or facts and they must evaluate these facts, solve a problem or decision, for example: some people are going for a three-day trip to the mountains. Each person

can carry only 25 kilos. The aim is to say what they would take from the list given. The similar activity would be choosing a present for your friend. (Littlewood, 1981: 36)

The second group of the main subdivision of speaking activities by Littlewood is represented by *social interaction activities*. They add further dimension to the functional activities: they define more clearly the social context. Learners must pay greater attention to the social as well as functional meanings. Language represents here not only functional instrument but also a form of social behaviour. Social and functional aspect should affect L's choice of language. The language he produces will be evaluated in terms of its social acceptability as well as its functional effectiveness. Ls are aware that all speech has social and functional implications and that they must aim ultimately for social acceptability and functional effectiveness. (Littlewood, 1981:43) Concrete example of this activity: Ls A and B have to find the shortest way between two points. Ls can be asked to stimulate social roles involved in the interaction. (IBID. 43)

2.3.3.2 Byrne's division of speaking activities

The Littlewood's division of activities is based on social and functional aspects while Byrne uses other criteria to divide speaking activities based on *fluency* and *accuracy*. Accuracy and fluency activities are further divided into:

- 1/ accuracy work in pairs
- 2/ accuracy work in groups
- 3/ fluency work in pairs

4/ fluency work in groups

The two terms have already been explained in previous section, accuracy and fluency. We can conclude that in accuracy activities we make sure that Ls get something right. In fluency activities, on the other hand, Ls are encouraged to use language freely even if they make mistakes.

Byrne's argument for using accuracy work in pairs is the statement that you will never be able to give your Ls enough oral practice through whole class work. He summarizes its advantages:

- chance to work independently which is good for motivation and it is a good preparation for group work
- Ls can face and talk directly to one another, so it is much closer to the way we use language outside classroom
- it provides variety during the lesson

(Byrne, 1987: 31)

You can have *fixed pairs* and *flexible pairs*. In fixed pairs Ls work with the same partners while in flexible pairs Ls keep changing their partners. Example of these activities is interviewing others in order to find out some information (more interesting would be possibility to choose your partner). The mistakes are carefully monitored.

Specific example of accuracy work in groups are drills. Byrne assumes that they help with pronunciation which may give Ls confidence and it is important, in Byrne's opinion, at least from the Ls' point of view. (Byrne, 1987: 18) When you use drills you want your Ls to use the language more accurately and therefore you must correct them if they make mistakes. Activities in

textbooks based on a text the students have studied (e.g. right-wrong statements) represent this kind of activities. (IBID. 20)

Fluency activities in groups differ from those in pairs in size and types of activities. Many of those done in pairs can be adapted to be used with a group and vice versa, for example guessing game. Ls are allowed to ask up to twenty questions to find out e.g. what the object is. It is up to you whether you will do this in pairs, groups or as a whole class. Byrne maintains that fluency work needs the environment of a mixed-ability group where fast and slow Ls work together which is better for fluency work. Ls help one another, it involves co-operation and collaboration. The groups are controlled themselves, they may have a leader and a reporter. (Byrne, 1987: 75-76) Other examples of fluency activities are dialogues, discussions, interpretation activities (Ls must decide what they 'think' something means). (IBID. 80, 82)

2.3.3.3 Scott and Ytreberg's division of speaking activities

Speaking, from the point of view of Scott and Ytreberg, is probably the most demanding skill for the teacher to teach. They stress the importance of balance between controlled and guided activities and at the same time letting learners enjoy natural talk. Therefore the activities can be classified as *controlled*, *guided* and *free*. When Ls are working with controlled or guided activities, we want them to produce correct language and if they make mistakes, we should correct them at once. In this type of activities the Ls are only imitating or

giving an alternative, so correcting is straightforward. However, in free activities Ls say what they want to say. (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990: 33) Further information about controlled activities is given in *Teaching English to Children* by Scott and Ytreberg:

Controlled practice goes hand in hand with presentation since it is important that pupils try one new language as soon as they have heard it. There is very little chance that pupils make mistakes.

(Scott and Ytreberg, 1990: 37)

Telling the time is one of examples representing this type of activities.

Guided practice follows on directly from controlled practice. It is often done in pairs or in small groups. It gives children some sort of choice, but the choice is limited, for example: chain work. We have cards with words put face down. Learner A picks up a card on which there are e.g. some bananas. LB picks up the next card with apples. LA asks a question: „Do you like bananas?“, LB says: „I do not like bananas but I like apples.“ LB asks learner C: „Do you like apples?“ and the chain goes on and on. (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990: 38) This type of activity is freer in contrast to controlled activities. Nevertheless, Ls are not allowed to say what they wish.

Dialogues and role play work represent common way to bridge the gap between guided practice and freer activities where Ls are allowed to say what they want. Most of these activities are based on the information gap principle (learner A knows something that learner B does not). These activities can be done either in pairs, for example: learner A has got a picture which is different from the learner's B picture, they are supposed to find

the differences without showing them one another; or in groups, for example: you have a story cut into pieces, each group gets a card and Ls say what is in their picture and all have to decide order of the pictures according to a story. (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990: 39, 42-45)

2.3.3.4 Harmer's division of speaking activities

The last division of speaking activities which is going to be presented here is Harmer's from his book *The Practice of English Language Teaching* where communicative activities are divided into seven areas: reaching a consensus, relaying instructions, communication games, problem solving, interpersonal exchange, story construction and simulation and role play. Their characteristics is the object of the following paragraphs.

1/ Reaching a consensus

Consensus activities have been very successful in promoting free and spontaneous use. Usually, Ls have to agree with each other after a certain amount of discussion. (Harmer, 1983: 113)

Example: Going to New York

In this activity students are told that they are going on holiday and have to decide what ten objects to take with them. They will have to reach a consensus on these objects.

Stage 1 All the students are asked to write down the ten items they would choose to have in their luggage if they were going to stay in New York for two weeks.

Stage 2 When all the students have completed their lists they are put into pairs. Each pair has to negotiate a new list of ten items. This will involve each number

of the pair changing his original list to some extent.

Stage 3 When the pairs have completed their lists two pairs are joined together and negotiate a new list that all four students can agree to.

Stage 4 Groups can now be joined together and the lists re-negotiated.

Stage 5 When the teacher thinks the activity has gone on for long enough a feedback session is conducted with the whole class in which each group explains and justifies its choices.

(Harmer, 1983: 114)

2/ *Relaying instructions*

In this type of activity a group of students has the necessary information for the performance of a task. Without showing them these instructions they have to enable another group or groups of students to perform the same task. (Harmer, 1983: 114)

Example: Making models

Stage 1 A small group of students are given material to make models with (e.g. Lego) and are told to make a model.

Stage 2 The original group now have to instruct another group or groups so that they can duplicate the original model. It is, of course, necessary for the original model to be hidden from the second group or other groups at this stage.

(Harmer, 1983: 115)

3/ *Communication games*

Communication games are based on the principle of the information gap. Students are put into situations which are 'game-like' and have to use all and any language they possess to complete the game. (Harmer, 1983: 115)

Example: Describe and draw

One student has a picture which the other students cannot see. The second student has to draw an identical picture (in content, but not style) by listening to his partner's instructions and/or asking questions.

(Harmer, 1983: 116)

4/ *Problem solving*

Problem solving activities are very much like 'consensus' activities. The difference is that students are faced with a problem to which there is a solution.

Example: Desert dilemma

Students are given a considerable amount of information and told to make a decision. Since the information is all written down students are left very much on their own for the completion of the task.

Stage 1 Students are told that they are going to work in small groups.

Stage 2 Students are given the following information (see Appendix 3). They are told to study it and then follow the instructions. They are introduced in the situation, given instructions. Then they have to choose a list of seven most important items to ensure survival and agree with other members of the group what these items are.

Stage 3 When the groups have reached a decision the teacher and class can conduct a feedback session.

(Harmer, 1983: 117-118)

5/ *Interpersonal exchange*

The stimulus for conversation comes in this type of activities from the students themselves.

Example: Finding out

Here the students are put in pairs and they have to find out about the experiences that each other has had. Here it is spoken about films.

Stage 1 Students are told they will work in pairs.

Stage 2 Students in each pair are given letters A and B.

Stage 3 The students are told that A should find out from B about any film that B has seen, and what it was about, what B thought of it, etc. The teacher may suggest that B then asks for the same information.

Stage 4 When the pairs have finished their conversations the teacher may lead a feedback session by finding out what was interesting about the conversations each pair had.

(Harmer, 1983: 120)

6/ *Story construction*

The aim of these activities is to give students partial information and then ask them, for example, to use that information as part of a story which they must complete by asking other students (who have other bits of information) for other parts of the story. (Harmer, 1983: 123)

7/ *Simulation and role play*

The aim of these activities is to create the pretence of a real-life situation in the classroom: students 'stimulate' the real world. Students can express views that are not necessarily their own: they can be e.g. a travel agent. They are then asked to play roles. During the simulation the teacher may act as a participant, that is to say as one of the people involved. He can then help the simulation along if it gets into difficulty. After the simulation has finished the teacher will want to conduct feedback with the students. Harmer stresses the necessity

to focus not only on the linguistic accuracy but rather communicative efficiency - which is the main motive for this kind of activity. (Harmer, 1983: 123-124)

On the previous pages we can encounter various divisions of speaking activities and possible subdivisions of these divisions. It is to be emphasized that there are many other ways of classification of communicative activities, but the purpose was only to introduce some of them and show basic strategies for divisions. The classification varies from one author to another. Some of them look at speaking activities or oral work in general, for example Scott and Ytreberg, others concentrate only on communicative activities, for example Harmer. We must bear in mind that we are not dealing with strict distinctions but with differences of emphasis.

3. Practical Part - Research

The first part of this thesis provides general introduction to the area of speaking activities when teaching foreign languages. The aim was not to present the whole theory which would be impossible, but a brief introduction to the topic. The second part is practical and its aim is to report on various speaking activities which have been applied in practice in order to develop fluency and speaking skills of the learners. Therefore, I did a research so that I could practise speaking activities, evaluate them and report on them.

The research period was divided into four parts:

- 1/ introduction (introduction to the language)
- 2/ pair work (fixed and flexible pairs)
- 3/ group work
- 4/ questionnaire (= feedback)

The aim of individual parts was to introduce the learners to various kinds of work in the lessons of English, such as pair work or group work. However, the overall aim of the research was to develop speaking fluency with the Ls through number of speaking activities. In the first part the Ls were introduced to the language with a help of activities focusing on simple language structures. The second stage concentrated on pair work on the contrary with the third stage where Ls worked in groups (either small or as the whole class). Questionnaire provided necessary feedback information and therefore it constituted the last part of the research. I observed the learners carefully throughout the research period and tried to monitor their progress. I wanted to verify my perception and conclusions and compare them with Ls'

opinions. That is why the children were given a questionnaire.

It should be emphasized that the sequence of stages reflects order of the types of work as they were introduced to the Ls, but it does not mean that once the Ls practised work in groups, the activities done in pairs were not applied.

I am teaching at the Basic School in Nová Paka and I decided to do my research in the fourth grade, with complete beginners. The research was done from September 2001 to February 2002.

The class 4.A consists of sixteen pupils, eight boys and eight girls. They are about ten years old and it is the first year of learning a foreign language. We meet three days a week. From the very beginning I was aware that they are quite skillful and willing to learn English at the same time, in most cases, as all the beginners usually do, which I consider as an advantage. The Ls use a book *Bravo*, as a result some activities practised come from the source. I also had to keep to the sequence of grammar presented here to some extent. I would like to stress that Ls did not know about the fact that they are observed for the purpose of the research. The last point to be made is the fact that the number of activities presented in the practical part is not definite. I will describe only several examples.

1st stage: *Introduction*

The aim of the first stage was to introduce Ls to the language. Philips says in her book *Young Learners* that it is increasingly recognized that children need to 'learn

how to learn'. It implies that they need to be aware of how they learn, and to be able to experiment with different learning styles, to organize their work, and to be open and interested in all that surrounds them. (Philips, 1993: 6) It is the very first year of learning a foreign language for the learners, apart from some who attended a course for children at this school last year, therefore I paid more attention to consistent acquisition of habits and various ways of work in the lessons of English.

First of all I concentrated on activities practising all language skills so that Ls could get used to them, to the kind of work in the lessons of English. Secondly I paid more attention to speaking activities, at the very beginning accuracy ones very often teacher centred. Later on I tried to include fluency activities and also activities guided by the Ls themselves.

From the very beginning the children were eager to learn English because it was new for them, you could see it in their behaviour, reactions. They were always ready for the lessons, looking forward to new vocabulary, grammar, games, in other words everything, as well as me for new experience and their progress.

A/ Zip-Zap

Procedure:

- the children sit on chairs in a circle, there are no empty chairs
- stand in the middle, point to a child and say either *Zip!* or *Zap!*
- when you say *Zip!* the child you are pointing to says the name of the child sitting to his left, for example, *Her name is Jane.*, when you say *Zap!* the child you are pointing to says the name of the child sitting on his right

- once the children get used to the game, keep the pace fast, after a while, instead of pointing to a child, call *Zip-Zap!*, now all the children stand up and run to a different chair
- the children quickly find out the names of their new neighbours, check that the children ask each other in English, allow only a short time for this, then point again and say *Zip!* or *Zap!*
- after three or four rounds, call *Zip-Zap!* and sit down on a free chair too, this leaves one child without a chair, he or she takes over your role by pointing and saying *Zip!*, *Zap!* or *Zip-Zap!*

(Lewis and Bedson, 1999: 23)

Comments:

Lewis and Bedson call this type of activity 'rousing'. 'Rousers' wake a class up. They get the adrenaline going. Typical 'rousers', in Lewis and Bedson's opinion, are movement games where there is an element of competition. (Lewis and Bedson, 1990: 7) Both elements are present in Zip-Zap. Children, in this activity, move from one seat to another. Moreover, they have to compete to find some free chair, otherwise they stay in the middle of the circle and take over teacher's role.

Lewis and Bedson warn that this type of activity can get excess energy out of one group and actually settle them. However, it could excite another group so much that they go wild and lose control. (Lewis and Bedson, 1990: 7) Taking into consideration the nature of the class, I was not afraid to do the activity at any phase of the lesson, but it is true that Zip-Zap was usually performed at the end of the lesson before break. It was very amusing for the children and they did not know when to stop, but when the bell rang, Ls were looking forward the break and other games or snack, so it was easier to interrupt the activity.

This activity focuses on practice of various structures with the element of a game. Lewis and Bedson claim that „with beginners some games can resemble ‘fun’ drills, with the decision making reduced to substitution of a single word in a phrase” (Lewis and Bedson, 1999: 6). „However”, the authors continue, „even in such classes, children are required to make individual choices based on specific language criteria which form part of the rules of the game” (IBID. 6).

I did this activity several times during the course. The sentences kept changing according to the structure I wanted to practise, for example: She’s/He’s a girl/boy. or There is Lucka/Petr.

Zip-Zap made the Ls familiar mainly with possible ways of introducing their neighbours/friends using various structures.

B/ Drills - teacher centred

Especially at the very beginning of the course I used oral drills to practise mainly question forms. Harmer assumes that drills are usually very controlled and have a fairly limited potential and it is not suggested that they should be used either too frequently or for too long. However, he continues, they provide a controlled way of getting practice of certain language forms. (Harmer, 1983: 88) I tried to encourage my Ls to practise various language forms, usually question-answer drills. I am aware that this is rather type of activity focusing on accuracy, but later during the course I changed the activity into student centred and more free.

Procedure:

- I told my students to bring in cards with pictures, on the cards there were drawn words we had already learnt (e.g. desk, pen, pencil)
- I used the pictures to practise various language forms, I usually used so-called 'four-phase drills', according to Harmer, where there are four phases-stages, i.e. Q-A-Q-A, for example:
 - Q: *Is it a pen?* A: *No, it isn't.*
 - Q: *What's this?* A: *It's a pencil.*

Comments:

Some people think that drills, in general, are boring, but the pupils cooperated, wanted to answer my questions, they were happy that they could speak English. These drills provide learners with opportunity to use the language, even though limited to some extent, to speak. Therefore certain period of time was spent on these exercises, especially at the very beginning of the course. However, Harmer suggests that they should not be used too often, as it has already been said, because they are usually very controlled and have a fairly limited potential. (Harmer, 1983: 88)

I think pupils liked this kind of activity. They had no problems with learning various structures, even the weakest learners which was a highly motivating factor for them, to experience success in the form of saying a correct sentence.

C/ Drills - learner centred

This kind of drill is based on the previous activity, the procedure is, in fact, the same, but the crucial

thing is that the person who asks the questions are pupils themselves. The teacher is than only an observer who monitors the activity. So he can easily explore the weak points and practise them later.

Procedure:

- T chooses a volunteer with question: *Who wants to be a teacher?*
- L gets a folder with the pictures and asks others questions, he also chooses the one who answers them
- other Ls have a chance to take over the role of a teacher

Comments:

I used this type of activity, usually at the very beginning of the lessons to warm up or as feedback from previous lesson to practise new structures. The activity is free to some extent because the Ls can ask any question they know and are able to answer. Of course, as the course went on, the number of questions and answers increased and the Ls could feel more confident to choose the structures they knew from the larger 'stock' of their knowledge.

Harmer says that drill work, if used sparingly and for short periods of time, can be very effective in the language classroom (Harmer, 1983: 90) It is true that Ls acquired or learned quite a large number of language structures and achieved certain level of fluency with these structures as the course went on. They learned answers to yes/no questions (with verb to be) and answers to question 'What is it?'. They also achieved the ability to describe a picture with help of instructing questions

which formed basis for description of pictures or any things without these questions. It leads to subsequent fluency in oral English and therefore I find drills useful and effective if they are used properly.

Speaking activities practised in the first part/stage of the research can be classified as accuracy activities. They provided learners with first experience of spoken English. Therefore, I wanted the Ls to make correct sentences because at the very beginning of the course it is necessary, in my opinion, to build up Ls' knowledge of some grammar and vocabulary. I think that the activities I used were very effective because the Ls learned many structures which they used later in more free activities focusing on fluency. Byrne also assumes that it is better to spend some first one hundred lessons of language learning on accuracy at an elementary level (Byrne, 1987: 12). In my view, the number of lessons does not necessarily need to be so high; it depends much on characteristics of the class. I introduced both teacher and learner centred types of activities which were mostly done with the whole class. The aim of the first stage was to motivate the Ls to participate, to speak, to be open and interested in the subject and in learning something new. Learners' interest in English was apparent in their behaviour.

2nd stage: Pair work

Pair work is a kind of activity which was quite new for my Ls. Therefore, we had to practise it and learn, for example, how to make pairs.

We can choose between fixed pairs, where the members of the pair are given (usually the L himself chooses his partner, the partner does not change), or flexible pairs, where your partner results on the basis of some activity, you often cannot choose him, your partner is different every time.

I tried to introduce pair work very soon because all the Ls have opportunity to speak at the same time and I tried to spend as much time as possible to practise this language skill. In the activities in previous stage only one L was speaking and others listening. I started pair work with fixed pairs and later on I also included flexible ones.

I anticipated some problems with the use of English; I thought Ls would cheat and speak Czech, not English. As it proved, I apprehended these problems needlessly in most cases.

I will now describe how I arranged flexible pairs in my lessons.

1/

- I choose adequate number of Pexeso cards where always two cards correspond
- each L chooses one card
- Ls walk around the room and ask questions to find their partner, i.e. *Who are you?* or *Are you a dog?*
- when they find their partners they sit down and wait for others to finish the activity

2/

- I write down names of famous couples on separate stripes of paper, i.e. on one stripe there is *Káťa* and on the corresponding one there is *Škubánek*, these two make a couple
- Ls choose the stripes, one per each
- they walk around the room and find their partners, they ask *What's your name?*
- when they find their partners they sit down and wait for others to finish the activity

A/ Locating objects

Procedure:

- close your eyes, then ask the class to tell you where something is, for example: T: *Where's my bag?* L: *It's under the table.*
- with your eyes still closed, get Ls to ask you where one or two things in the classroom are, for example: L: *Where are the flowers?* T: *They're on the windowsill.*
- tell the Ls each to prepare certain number of questions about the location of objects in the classroom
- then get them to work in pairs, one in each pair should close his eyes and the other should ask the questions he has prepared, the L with closed eyes should try to reply from the memory
- then the other L should ask his questions
(Hadfield J. and Ch. Hadfield, 1999: 26-27)

Comments:

In this activity both teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction take place. Teacher-learner interaction provides learners with concrete manifestation of the procedure followed. Especially with young learners teachers should be aware of the necessity to pay attention to Ls, whether they know exactly what to do. If they are confused, much valuable speaking time will be wasted.

Regarding this, clear demonstration of things learners will do later in pairs (or groups) is beneficial. In this activity, teacher himself demonstrates what to do.

Locating objects focuses on practice of description of location or position of objects, and overall ability to express 'where' something is.

When I did this exercise with my pupils, the choice of language was limited by the vocabulary stock the Ls possessed. However, pupils were able to describe position of many things in the classroom.

The funny element of closed eyes evoked humour with the learners which is always encouraging for them.

B/ Describe and arrange

Procedure:

- students are told they are going to work in pairs (you can have them in fixed pairs or make flexible pairs)
- one L gets a picture which he is told not to show to his partner until the end of the game
- the other student from the pair is given an envelope containing a number of separate items, he is told not to show them to his partner
- student with the separate items must order them in the same way as his partner by discussing the items with him
- at the end they may look and check if they are right
(Harmer, 1983: 117)

Comments:

This is so-called information gap activity where learner A possesses information that learner B does not. By discussing the items, learner B should order them in the same way. This is free activity, Ls use any language they possess, they are not guided by the teacher.

For the very first time Ls tried to cheat a little bit (they looked around to see how the pictures were

arranged), but other times I emphasized the reason and purpose for doing it and stressed the necessity not to cheat. I told them to hide their pictures as well as they could.

Learners were confused a little bit at the beginning even though they had the necessary knowledge to practise it, however, they did not know how. They could use the structures but in other situations, not the one like this. I had to spend some time on demonstration and only then pupils were able to solve the activity and succeed. I think that the problems appeared because Ls were not familiar with this type of activity. They were allowed to use any language, it was free activity, but suddenly they did not know how. I should have anticipated these problems. When the exercise was done second or third time, Ls knew how to deal with it and the problems gradually disappeared.

I practised this activity in fixed and flexible pairs. I used the activity with famous couples to get them into pairs. The names themselves, such as Emanuel - Maková panenka, Jů - Hele, etc.) evoked so much fun and amusement. Children at this age have no serious problems to accept their new partner, they are flexible. (For the material used see Appendix 4)

C/ Describe and draw

Procedure:

One student (A) has a picture which the other student cannot see. The second student (B) has to draw identical picture (in content, but not style) by listening to his partner's instructions and/or asking questions.

- Ls are told that they are going to work in pairs
- L A is given a picture which he is going to describe, he is told not to show it to student B until the end of the game
- B must draw the same picture as A: A should give instructions and B should ask questions where necessary
- when B thinks he has completed the picture he should compare his work with the original to see how successful the activity was

(Harmer, 1983: 116)

Comments:

Harmer calls this type of activity 'communication games'. They are based on the principle of the information gap. Ls are put into situation which is game-like, and try to use any language they possess to complete the game. This activity and activity *Describe and arrange* are two concrete examples.

I also tried this activity in both types of pairs, fixed and flexible. I used very simple pictures with colours. I anticipated the problems of cheating (the pictures were carefully hidden in Ls' exercise books). To sum up, there were no serious problems except with some Ls who did not know the needed vocabulary (e.g. colours), which was vital for completion of the activity, but these were rare exceptions. In my opinion, the problems did not arise because the Ls learned from previous experience (*Describe and arrange*).

D/ Classroom inventory

Procedure:

- students are put into pairs, they are given cards (see Appendix 5), but they cannot show them one another
- students then ask questions using *How much/many?* and write down the missing information on their cards

- the game finishes when both students have full inventories, then they check their cards to make sure the information is right

(Harmer, 1983: 91)

Comments:

This is considered as the simplest version of an information gap activity and is very much like a drill.

I kept on changing the topic, for example ZOO inventory, according to the subject I wanted to practise or concentrate on. The activity was performed in pairs as well as in groups (see 3rd stage).

I think that the inventories made no difficulty to learners, they were successful to fill in the missing information. Again, there was one girl who did not know numbers and therefore her inventory differed with her partner's a lot, but the important point is that she tried to use the language in real-life situation, to speak English.

This kind of speaking activities, where the principle of information gap is applied, gives much space to develop fluency with the learners. What is more, according to Ur, the transmission of new ideas from one participant to another does occur in most real-life language-based transactions and when this factor is built into a classroom language learning task, then it might improve interest of the learners (Ur, 1988: 25).

Most activities performed in the second stage represent so-called information gap activities. Here we move from accuracy work to fluency work. Learners do not follow any patterns, they use any language they possess to

complete the task. What is more, these activities are game-like. Harmer calls them 'communication games'. Element of a game or humour is encouraging for children and represents one of the factors of intrinsic motivation which motivates Ls to take part in the exercise, arouses their interest and attention. That is to say that pupils learned and experienced work in pairs, either flexible or fixed. Especially teachers appreciate work in pairs because more pupils have opportunity to speak at the same time.

3rd stage: Group work

This kind of work, group work, we also practised in advance on accuracy activity which I call *Alphabet*.

Procedure:

- Ls make from three to four groups (according to the number of Ls in the class)
- they are given envelopes with letters of the alphabet cut into pieces
- teacher tells them to make a word consisting of certain number of letters, belonging to certain group of words, for example: *make a word consisting of 4 letters, it must be an animal*
- the first group with its word raises hands in the air
- T stops the game, the first group must spell the word, if they succeed, they get a point, if they do not, the group which was second has a chance to spell the word and get a point (the Ls in each group must take turns to spell the word, the same L cannot spell the word until all the Ls try to spell)

Ls got used to work in groups, which can again be fixed or flexible. I used a very simple procedure to get them into flexible groups:

- T prepares an envelope with colourful pieces of paper (if you have 16 Ls and you want 4 groups, you will need four sheets of paper in different colours, each of which you will cut into four stripes)
- each L chooses a stripe
- Ls make groups according to the colours of their stripes

Group activities, in general, can be performed in small and large groups (usually the whole class). Most of those activities done in small groups can be adapted to the whole class.

1/ Small groups

A/ Personal information

Procedure:

- students are told to work in groups of four (flexible or fixed)
- there are four types of charts where some information is missing (it is about personal information of four aliens - A, B, C, D, student A has got, for example, a chart where he has information about alien A and he has to find out the missing information about aliens B, C, D)(see Appendix 6)
- students ask one another (in the group) questions like *What is your name/surname?, How old are you?, etc.* and write down the answers
- then they all compare their answers

Comments:

In this activity the Ls ask one another questions about personal information (of course, the topic may differ according to the knowledge of vocabulary and the level of English). It is an activity useful for practising a variety of information questions and has an advantage that the information is interesting (i.e. aliens for small children). Another advantage of this exercise is that it can easily be changed and done in pairs (there would only be two aliens - A, B) or with the whole class.

In Ur's opinion, there are several factors of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (see theoretical part) which motivate learners to participate in the activity. One of them is play-acting. Ur says that children like to be someone else. (Ur, 1988: 25) This factor can apply to Personal information activity. Ls became someone else, they were aliens with funny names. In their behaviour I could see how much they enjoyed it. The questions they used had been practised several lessons ago and pupils did not have much difficulty in asking questions and filling their inventories.

Personal information enables to practise asking for basic personal information and develop fluency, Ls can use any language they possess. They do not have to use correct sentences. They have to communicate meanings and get them across so that others understand what they are asking for.

B/ Classroom inventory

Procedure:

The procedure is almost the same as in 2nd stage activity D, but the Ls work in groups, not in pairs:

- students are put into groups, they are given cards (see Appendix 5), but they cannot show them one another, the number of cards is the same as the number of Ls in each group, each L has got different information
- students then ask questions using *How much/many?* and write down the missing information on their cards
- the game finishes when all students have full inventories, then they check their cards to make sure the information is right

Comments:

I was inspired by the activity Classroom inventory done in pairs and tried to do it in small groups of four. It could easily be performed with the whole class, but it would take more time.

For this activity, not many structures were needed and Ls easily found the missing information. They uncounsciously practised numbers and became fluent in asking for amount of things, of course, with the vocabulary relevant to their level of English.

C/ Ask up to twenty questions

Procedure:

- Ls are divided into groups
- each group chooses a speaker, the speaker thinks of some object (to make it easier, he can give the rest of the group choice, i.e. *It can be a lion, a cat or a tiger.*)

- the rest of the group asks him up to twenty questions to find out what the object is
 - then the Ls change their roles, someone else becomes a speaker (usually the one who guesses the object)
- (the idea comes from Byrne, 1987: 66)

Comments:

This activity provided learners with opportunity to communicate with each other as all speaking activities done in groups usually do. Harmer stresses the fact that in this type of work students will be communicating with each other and more importantly co-operating among themselves (Harmer, 1983: 207). Moreover, „students“, according to Harmer, „will be teaching and learning in the group exhibiting a degree of self-reliance that simply is not possible when the teacher is acting as a controller.“ (IBID. 207)

Learners liked this guessing game. It was dynamic and they were eager to solve the problem, what the object is. This activity is very flexible, it can be adapted to pairs as well as whole class. ‘Who am I?’ is variety of this activity where learners are looking for a person, not an object.

2/ Large groups - whole class

A/ Ask up to twenty questions

Procedure:

Procedure is the same as in work in small groups, activity C. The only difference is that the class is not divided into groups, but the activity is done with the

whole class. There is always one learner who answers the questions of his classmates.

Comments:

Activities done with the whole class have some advantages described in Harmer's book *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. It usually means that all the class are concentrating, and the teacher can usually be sure that everyone can hear what is being said. Teacher usually represents a good language model for the Ls. This class grouping Harmer labels as *lockstep*. All the students are working with the teacher (or a learner who takes over teacher's role), all students are 'locked into' the same rhythm and pace, the same activity. (Harmer, 1983: 207) Lockstep, on the other side, contains several disadvantages such as a teacher acting as a controller which is not ideal for communicative work, a little chance to practise or talk at all, wrong speed (either the teacher is too slow for the good Ls and they can get bored, or he is too fast for the weak Ls and they may panic). (Harmer, 1983: 207)

Taking into consideration all the information given above, I decided to use various lockstep activities as pre-communicative activities where all the necessary structures were practised so that Ls could feel more confident when working in small groups or pairs. This activity, locating objects done with the whole class, also preceded guessing activities done in small groups.

B/ Personal information

Procedure:

This is the same activity as in small-group activities, activity A. The only difference is that the activity is performed with the whole class, so that more Ls can answer your questions because there are more alliens A, B, C, D. The feedback, checking the results, is then done with the whole class, not in groups. However, it is more time- and space-consuming. My comments have already been expressed in section 3-1/A.

Personal information performed with the whole class also belongs to so-called lockstep activities which have been discussed in details in the previous activity 'Ask up to twenty questions'.

The last point I would like to make, is my recommendation to perform this activity in small groups, not with the whole class, when there is not much space available in the classroom. Pupils sit around tables in groups of four and they do not have to walk around the room. It is easier for them to question three people in the group and be sure that they have all information needed than walking around the class and looking for three people choosing out of fifteen other Ls. Work in a small group will definitely take less time.

At the very beginning, it was difficult for me to find activities suitable for group work, small groups in particular, because the learners' knowledge of English was not sufficient for most activities presented in various sources. Therefore, I decided to change most pair-work activities into group-work activities. So they also mostly

belong to 'communicative games' based on information gap and have all the advantages mentioned at the end of the second stage. As I have experienced, work in small groups took usually less time (and space) than work with the whole class.

Summary

During the research period I tried to apply various communicative activities focusing on development of speaking skills in practice, speaking fluency in particular. Some activities, especially at the beginning of the course, paid more attention to structural aspect of language. Later on, I focused on activities developing functional aspect and on combination of these two. The stress fell not only on the knowledge of grammatical rules, which Chomsky calls communicative competence, but also on their use in order to achieve particular communicative goals (communicative performance).

Byrne assumes that some first one hundred lessons should be spent on accuracy activities. The very first activities I used were mostly accuracy ones where Ls mastered various language structures. Afterwards, I applied more and more activities where language was used freely even if Ls made mistakes. This type of activities allows to achieve fluency.

I tried to apply several factors contributing to the increase of Ls' interest in practice of English, to motivate them, such as interesting topics, variety, visual objects, entertainment, play-acting, personalization or so-called information gaps which are factors of intrinsic motivation, features *within* the activity.

Information gaps were used most frequently during the research period. They have got several advantages, first of all high probability of developing fluency with the learners through activities not guided by the teacher, very often including element of a game, using English for communicative purposes - communicating effectively. The last point to be made, they can be performed in pairs, small groups and as lockstep (with the whole class).

To sum up, children have built working habits in the lessons of English, they learned to work in pairs, small groups or a large group, they have acquired language structures through various activities, they all experienced usefulness of speaking skills when communicating meanings effectively, they developed fluency in several situations and what is more, they still feel motivated and willing to learn English in order to communicate and become successful and fluent speakers of the language. Briefly, we can consider the research as successful and the results of the Ls as satisfactory.

4th stage: Questionnaire

At the end of my research period I wanted my learners to answer a questionnaire that would provide me with some information about their relationship to speaking in the lessons of English, feedback of my research.

They were given this questionnaire (see Appendix 7 and 8) on February 19, 2002. Fifteen pupils took part in it, eight girls and seven boys. The questionnaire was answered in Czech according to the level of English of the respondents.

QUESTION 1

First question tried to find out how much children like English (as a subject), how amusing it is for them. 66,7% of the Ls said that they like English a lot. The rest answered that English amuses them (33,3%).

The results confirmed my assumptions about their relationship to English. There was nobody who would say that he does not like English. It is probably due to fact that they are studying English for the first year, it is new for them and therefore amusing. English, at this stage, is not very difficult because the aim of the first stage is to motivate Ls rather than concentrate on acquisition of too many structures or vocabulary which would be unmanageable especially for weaker Ls and therefore discouraging. Also the variety of activities and games presented was wide and it could raise Ls' interest.

QUESTION 2

Here I tried to seek answer to a question whether children are scared or ashamed to speak in the lessons of English or not. Most Ls said that they were scared/ashamed a little (53,3%). 33,3% concluded that they were not scared at all. The rest is ashamed/scared (13,3%). As the reason why Ls are scared or ashamed they mentioned fear of incorrect answer. Two children said that they were ashamed because other children were looking at them. One child is afraid of a bad mark.

I expected a bit different results. I thought more learners would not be ashamed to speak in the lessons. However, most Ls are ashamed a little which is satisfactory.

There are many people, in my opinion, who are scared to speak in front of others, they are afraid of being ridiculous or embarrassed. I think that this is natural. Especially small children are very sincere and say what they think which might hurt others.

QUESTION 3

The third question concentrated on activities done in the lessons. Most Ls like to do exercises where they can add something (66,7%). 26,7% like to be creative, they like to add as much as possible in the activity. The rest prefers to work strictly according to some pattern/example (6,7%). The results confirm the fact that some Ls are more creative than others. It has also much to do with their self confidence and the level of English. Ls with higher level of English can feel more confident to use new structures or vocabulary, bring in their own ideas.

QUESTION 4

This question focuses on types of work/activities, such as pair work or group work; Ls' preference for some type of work. Most children chose more than one answer. 40% like to work in pairs. The same number of pupils prefer work in groups. Only 6,7% like to work alone and the rest (33,3%) prefers working as a whole class.

I think that one possible reason for Ls chose mostly work in groups and pairs is the fact that they like to communicate with their classmates, they like to interact, they can feel more free since the teacher as a controller is no longer present, students can help each other to use and learn language.

QUESTION 5

This question relates to the previous one, to what extent the Ls use English when they work in pairs or groups. Most children confess that they use Czech words from time to time, very rarely (86,7%). The rest tries to speak English only (26,7%).

I find the results very good. The fact that Ls use English so much even though they are not controlled by the teacher is very encouraging for me in further application of activities performed in pairs or groups. I tried to monitor their work during these activities, but it was very difficult, therefore I was rather pleased by the numbers. It could mean that Ls are motivated enough to use the language.

QUESTION 6

This question should have explored what activities like the children best in the lessons of English. As I had expected, games reached the first position (86,7%). Songs are favoured by 33,3%. Some children like writing into exercise books and communicating English with their partners (13,3%). Activities such as drawing, learning new vocabulary, working in groups mentioned 6,7% of respondents.

Games are fun and children like them. That in itself is a strong argument for incorporating games in EFL classroom. It is probably the key motivational factor for children at this age. Games represent a vital and natural part of growing up and learning, too.

QUESTION 7

This question, on the other hand, aimed to find what children miss in the lessons. 60% miss work with computers. 20% of children asked do not lack anything. Some pupils miss crosswords, drawing and sometimes movement (6,7%).

Question number 7 provided me with valuable information what to include in the lessons. Computers are favoured by all Ls at this school. If there is a good programme, it is a useful way of practising English. It is true that for four-graders the programmes are not very effective and that is why I do not use them so frequently.

QUESTION 8

Question number 8 asked Ls whether they have had opportunity to use English outside school. 60% have not had this experience, 40% have. They used it mostly abroad when doing shopping, or in the streets (they probably met someone speaking English) or with their relatives who practised English with them. One child realized that he has experienced English in songs (probably most Ls have had this experience, but they did not remember it when answering the questionnaire).

The results confirm my assumption that most Ls will have opportunity to use *oral* English which stresses the need to develop communicative ability and speaking skills of the Ls. Communicative efficiency is therefore vitally important.

The questionnaire given to Ls proved their positive attitude to English. I consider very important that Ls are

not scared to use English in the lessons of English and if they do, they are ashamed only a little. The questionnaire shows that most learners like to work in groups or pairs and what is more, they try to speak mostly English in these activities. The most favoured exercises are games. Especially children at this age are very playful and therefore games should constitute a vital part of a learning process. Most children have not used English yet, but those who have, used it mainly for communicative purpose, in its spoken form. This fact underlines the necessity to develop speaking skills with the Ls from the very beginning of EFL.

It is to be emphasized that this was the first time the Ls were given a questionnaire. However, it seems that they have had no difficulty in answering the questions.

To conclude, for more objective evaluation of the research, consideration of individual results of the respondents would be inevitable.

4. Conclusion

The thesis focuses on speaking, its development through communicative approach, as speaking represents one of the four skills teachers are willing to achieve with their learners when teaching foreign languages.

The aim of this thesis was, firstly, to introduce readers to the theory of speaking, secondly, to evaluate various speaking activities, practise them and report on them. It must be emphasized that more time would be needed to practise more activities with higher frequency which would make the results more reliable.

The results pupils achieved were satisfactory. Learners acquired various learning habits which were necessary because it is their first experience with learning English. At the end of the research period they were able to use the language in many situations, to use appropriate vocabulary.

It can be concluded that most of the activities presented helped to develop fluency with the learners, especially information gaps which were therefore applied most frequently. They provided much space to develop fluency. They were based on transmission of ideas from one L to another in real-life situations which might have improved Ls' interest. Information gaps allowed Ls to use any language they possessed to complete the task, and they often implied game-like elements which were encouraging for the learners.

Drills represented another source of activities practised mainly at the beginning of the course, even though they focused more on accuracy than fluency. It is

to be noted that they should be performed sparingly and for short periods of time.

Drills provided controlled way of getting practice of certain language forms and according to the results pupils achieved, they were very effective. The structures acquired through drills formed basis for further practice of the language.

That is to say that pupils enjoyed the activities very much and it is probable that they helped them to develop fluency and therefore they should constitute a vital part of the teaching process when developing speaking skills.

In order to evaluate Ls' attitude to English, Ls were given a questionnaire. The questionnaire proved their interest in the subject and favour in activities performed in pairs and groups. The number of learners who tried to speak English or rarely used some Czech words in these activities, can be considered as positive and demanding findings of the research. Consequently, prevailing experience of *oral* English outside school supported the argument for the emphasis upon the development of speaking skills from the very beginning of EFL.

To conclude, according to the results pupils have achieved, it is apparent that communicative activities are very effective in developing fluency in EFL and it is teacher's responsibility to apply them in the lessons. Many books have been written discussing the area of speaking, communicative activities including, so teachers have possibility to choose from many sources taking into consideration nature of the class and Ls' needs.

5. Resumé

Tato práce se věnuje zejména komunikativnímu přístupu ve výuce cizích jazyků, který se rozšířil hlavně koncem minulého století.

Úvodní teoretická část se soustřeďuje na vysvětlení některých základních pojmů, které se neodmyslitelně pojí s problematikou komunikativního přístupu. Prvním z nich je tzv. komunikativní hnutí, které začalo ovlivňovat výuku jazyků v sedmdesátých letech minulého století. Littlewood shrnuje základní implikace tohoto přístupu ve své knize *Communicative Language Teaching*. Jazyk není chápán pouze z hlediska struktury, ale také z hlediska komunikativních funkcí, které vykonává. Jinými slovy, nejde pouze o konkrétní formy a tvary jazyka, ale také o jejich užití při procesu komunikace v daných situacích. Komunikativní přístup cíleně kombinuje dva základní aspekty jazyka: funkční a strukturální, které jsou dále doprovázeny aspektem sociálním; užití jazyka podle situace.

Dalším pojmem, který je v této práci vysvětlen, je komunikativní kompetence, pojí se se znalostmi žáka. Pravděpodobně nejznámější osobností v tomto oboru je Noam Chomsky. Základem jeho teorie je tvrzení, že rodilý mluvčí má ve svém mozku zaznamenána základní gramatická pravidla, pomocí kterých tvoří věty. Rodilí mluvčí jsou schopni nevědomě tvořit velice složité věty. Právě tato nevědomá znalost gramatických pravidel je Chomským nazývána komunikativní kompetence (communicative competence). Konkrétní realizace těchto pravidel je pak označována termínem komunikativní performance (communicative performance).

Hymes rozšiřuje komunikativní kompetenci Chomského a rozděluje ji na čtyři složky: systematický potenciál (systematic potential) - rodilý mluvčí vlastní systém, který obsahuje potenciál k vytvoření velkého množství jazykových struktur, vhodnost (appropriacy) - rodilý mluvčí ví, která jazyková forma je vhodná v určité situaci, výskyt (occurrence) - rodilý mluvčí ví, jak často se daná jazyková forma v jazyce objevuje, proveditelnost (feasibility) - rodilý mluvčí si je vědom toho, zda je něco v jazyce možné říci nebo ne, např. počet přídavných jmen před podstatným jménem.

Další autoritou v této oblasti je bezpochyby Lyle F. Bachman. I on se zabýval problematikou komunikativní kompetence. Tento termín se neodmyslitelně pojí s komunikativní jazykovou schopností (communicative language ability - CLA). Právě podle Bachmana je tato schopnost tvořena třemi základními složkami (jazyková kompetence, strategická kompetence a psychofyziologické mechanismy), které se dále dělí. Například jazyková kompetence se může dělit na kompetenci organizační a pragmatickou. Podrobné členění komunikativní jazykové schopnosti a jazykové kompetence najdeme v příloze 1a, b.

Na základě některých výzkumů byla komunikativní kompetence obohacena o některé komponenty, které Bachman nazývá právě jazykovou kompetencí (language competence). Bachman zdůrazňuje myšlenku, že všechny komponenty vstupují při užívání jazyka do interakce a vzájemně se ovlivňují. Jde v zásadě o interakci různých kompetencí a užití jazyka v kontextu, které jsou charakteristické pro komunikativní užití jazyka.

Mluvíme-li o ústním projevu ve výuce cizích jazyků, neměli bychom opomenout dva další termíny: plynulost

(fluency) a přesnost (accuracy). Aktivita zaměřená na přesnost zdůrazňuje formu sdělení nad jeho obsahem. Zcela opačný typ mluvních aktivit představují aktivity zaměřené na plynulost mluveného projevu. V těchto aktivitách využívají žáci svých znalostí, užívají je zcela volně k vyjádření svých myšlenek, i když se dopouštějí chyb. Jazyk je tak použit v reálných situacích a žáci mají možnost se přesvědčit o jeho užitečnosti. Ve výuce cizích jazyků by se měly vystřídat oba typy aktivit s tím, že na počátku by měly převládat aktivity zaměřené na přesnost, aby došlo k osvojení relevantní gramatiky a slovní zásoby, postupem času by měl být poměr opačný.

Řeč je interaktivním procesem, do kterého vstupují nejméně dvě strany a obě do ní zasahují a přispívají. Podle Harmera představuje komunikace mezi lidmi velmi složitý a neustále se vyvíjející proces. Podle Harmera se každá komunikativní událost vyznačuje určitou charakteristikou a dochází k ní za předpokladu, že účastníci chtějí komunikovat, mají nějaký komunikativní cíl, volí ze svých znalostí jazyka, chtějí něčemu naslouchat, zajímá je cíl/účel sdělení a jsou schopni rozličnost sdělení zpracovat.

Někdy je velmi těžké motivovat žáky, aby se aktivně účastnili vyučovacího procesu, konkrétní činnosti. Je úkolem učitele žáky motivovat a přimět je k aktivní účasti v hodinách. Podle Penny Ur existují dva základní druhy motivace: vnější (extrinsic) a vnitřní (intrinsic). Vnější faktory nemají nic společného s aktivitou jako takovou, zatímco vnitřní motivace je zastoupena znaky obsaženými v konkrétní činnosti, které podněcují žáky k účasti (téma, zábava, prvky hry, napětí, vizuální podněty, atd.).

Je nutné zdůraznit důležitost samotné metodické struktury při výuce jazyků. Littlewood rozděluje komunikativní aktivity do dvou hlavních skupin: pre-komunikativní a komunikativní. Pre-komunikativní aktivity nám umožňují procvičit potřebné formy, vazby. V komunikativních činnostech využívají žáci znalostí z pre-komunikativních aktivit a používají je ke sdělení myšlenek. Pořadí těchto aktivit může být i opačné: učitel může začít s činností komunikativní, kdy monitoruje práci žáků a může tak odhalit slabá místa v jejich znalostech.

Aktivity zaměřené na rozvoj mluveného projevu se mohou dělit do různých kategorií, které se pak dále člení na možné podkategorie. Dělení se velmi často mění od jednoho autora k druhému. Není možné konstatovat, že jedno dělení je správné a druhé ne, každé zdůrazňuje odlišné aspekty. Je důležité říci, že nejde o striktní dělení, různí autoři kladou odlišný důraz na jednotlivé aspekty. Některá dělení pojednávají o mluveném projevu obecně (Scott and Ytreberg), jiná se zaměřují např. pouze na komunikativní aktivity (Harmer). Různé interpretace dělení mluveného projevu najdeme v teoretické části této práce.

Druhá část je zaměřena zcela prakticky. Zahrnuje výzkum, který byl proveden na Základní škole v Nové Pace ve čtvrté třídě mezi úplnými začátečníky. Jeho cílem bylo ověřit rozličné aktivity zaměřené na plynulost mluveného projevu, jejich ověření v praxi. Výsledky byly zhodnoceny na základě mých postřehů a dotazníků, které vyplnili sami žáci.

Od samého počátku bylo patrné, že žáci mají o výuku anglického jazyka zájem. Byli vždy vzorně připraveni na hodinu a z jejich výrazů se dalo vyčíst, že je angličtina baví. Žáci si nejdříve museli osvojit rozličné techniky

pro práci v hodinách cizího jazyka (práce ve dvojicích, ve skupinách atd.). Postupem času se seznamovali s činnosti rozvíjejícími jejich komunikativní dovednosti a plynulost mluveného projevu.

Výsledky, které dosáhli, lze považovat za velmi uspokojivé. Žáci jsou schopni použít jazyk v mnoha situacích, volit vhodnou slovní zásobu. Někteří žáci dosahovali slabších výsledků, ale je důležité zdůraznit, že si všichni osvojili určitý potenciál vědomostí, který může být dále rozvinut, a také fakt, že žáci jsou motivováni k dosažení velmi dobré úrovně anglického jazyka včetně plynulosti mluveného projevu.

Z dotazníkového šetření vyplývá, že žáci mají pozitivní vztah k anglickému jazyku. Žáci se nebojí v hodinách mluvit, a pokud ano, tak spíše z obav, že se před svými spolužáky zesměšní. Dále je patrná obliba v aktivitách ve dvojicích a skupinách převládající nad samostatnou prací a prací s celou třídou. Za velmi uspokojivé lze považovat zjištění, že žáci se snaží co nejvíce používat anglický jazyk při práci ve skupině (nebo ve dvojicích). Skutečnost, že většina žáků, která již měla možnost použít jazyk mimo školu, jej použila právě v jeho mluvené formě, podtrhuje nutnost rozvoje řečových dovedností od samého počátku výuky jazyků.

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7. Appendix

ÚDAJE PRO KNIHOVNICKOU DATABÁZI

Název práce	Speaking Activities Aimed at Developing Fluency in EFL Classes Rozvoj plynulosti mluveného projevu v hodinách anglického jazyka
Autor práce	Marcela Tůmová
Obor	metodika
Rok obhajoby	2002
Vedoucí práce	Monika Černá
Anotace	Tato diplomová práce poskytuje základní informace o omunikativním hnutí z počátku sedmdesátých let minulého století, které do značné míry ovlivnilo výuku cizích jazyků. Zdůrazňuje důležitost předávání významů nad použitou stavbou/strukturou sdělení. Cílem je dosažení určitého stupně plynulosti v mluveném projevu žáků a jeho správného užití v daných situacích. V práci jsou definovány některé zásadní tremíny s touto problematikou spojené např. komunikativní kompetence, komunikativní přístup., a také tu najdeme možný způsob dělení těchto aktivit podle různých autorů (Littlewood, Harmer) a hledisek. Druhá část této práce je praktická a je zaměřena na ověření rozličných aktivit zaměřených na plynulost mluveného projevu a jejich následné zhodnocení na základě výzkumu a dotazníku, což je i cílem této práce.
Klíčová slova	mluvený projev komunikativní přístup/hnutí komunikativní kompetence zaměření na přesnost a plynulost mluveného projevu mluvený projev – aktivity – dělení