

T.C.
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ PROGRAMI
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

**THE EFFECTS OF USING TASK-BASED LANGUAGE
TEACHING ACTIVITIES ON STUDENTS' ATTITUDES
AND VOCABULARY LEARNING THROUGH THE USE
OF POETRY IN THE CLASSROOM**

Gülşah TIKIZ

**İzmir
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**Danışman
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Fatma Feryal ÇUBUKÇU**

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Yüksek lisans tezi olarak sunduğum “Sınıfta Görev Tabanlı Öğrenme Yaklaşımıyla Gerçekleştirilen Şiir Kullanımının Öğrencilerin Tutumları ve Kelime Öğrenmeleri Üzerindeki Etkileri” adlı çalışmanın, tarafımdan bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada belirtilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanmış olduğumu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

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Gülşah TIKIZ

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ABSTRACT

This thesis aims at exploring the theoretical background of Task-Based Learning and including 'poetry' as a literary genre for vocabulary teaching. Twelve poems by different poets have been included in the study to highlight in depth analysis and to help students negotiate meaning in the classroom and let them involved in real communication within the four walls of the classroom. Within the framework of this study, poetry was chosen to study in detail as they offer a rich varied repertoire and as they are rich sources of much enjoyment. Moreover, they are suitable to study even in a single classroom lesson. As universal themes and life experiences are explored in many poems, it is easy to arouse students' interest to get communicative language use from them in a naturalistic way. In this study this interest will be aroused by employing different 'tasks' to involve students in meaning making process throughout. Moreover, the university students which are included in this study will be exposed to authentic language use and thus they will meet unusual combinations of usual syntax and they will see that, the usual syntax will not seem to apply their expectations about how individual words go with others. Moreover, they will see that they will develop their vocabulary learning throughout the treatment period. Within the framework of Task-Based Language Teaching, the following questions were kept in mind:

1. In what ways TBL activities and poetry can be combined and exploited in the classroom to teach a poem in detail?
2. Do these activities contribute positively to students' attitudes and vocabulary learning?
3. Which activities can be given to students at the pre-task stage?
4. Which activities can be studied at the task-cycle stage?
5. Which activities can be exploited to deal with a poem in detail and to have a vocabulary focus at the end of a lesson?

Pre-test post-test design with control group was used for the research. Task-based learning activities were applied in the intervention group including 16

students and the traditional method was carried out in the control group consisting of 15 students. The data were collected with Vocabulary Test and Attitude Scale towards Reading Poetry. SPSS packet programme was utilized in data analysis.

Research results suggest that Task-Based Teaching activities presented through poems have a significant effect on students' vocabulary learning. But the method was not found to be effective on students' attitudes towards reading poetry.

Teachers should keep in mind that, there is not an urgent need to use literature or poetry in the classroom all the time. This study aims to look and find ways for the use of poetry. The aim is to find out if using poetry in the classroom and offering enjoyable and motivating activities will contribute positively to the learning environment. If it is so, alternative ways to be taken will be offered while teaching poetry in the classroom. Besides, the existing resources will be searched and the term "use of literature in foreign language learning context" will be purified and possible links between language learning and literature with reference to poems will be pointed out.

Key words: Task Based Teaching, Vocabulary Teaching, Attitude Towards Reading Poetry

ÖZET

Bu tezin amacı, Görev Tabanlı Öğrenme Yaklaşımı'nın teorik geçmişini araştırmak ve kelime öğretimi için edebi bir tür olan şiiri öğretime dahil etmektir. Öğrencilerin sınıfın dört duvarı arasında gerçek iletişime maruz kalmasını sağlamak, onları bir amaç için birbirleriyle gerçek anlamda iletişime geçirmek ve şiirleri derinlemesine analiz etmek için farklı şairler tarafından yazılmış 12 farklı şiir ele alınmıştır. Şiirlerin öğrenme için zengin ve çeşitli öğrenme repertuarı sunması ve zevkle öğrenme için de zengin bir kaynak oluşturmasından dolayı bu çalışmanın bünyesinde incelemek için bu tür seçilmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra şiirleri bir ders saati gibi bir sürede de incelemek de mümkündür. Birçok şiirde evrensel temalar ve hayat deneyimleri keşfedildiği için, öğrencilerin derste ilgisini çekmek ve onların doğal bir şekilde dili kullanmalarını sağlamak kolaydır. Bu çalışmada öğrencileri süreç boyunca anlamı inşa etme sürecine dahil edebilmek için farklı 'görevlerle' dikkatleri çekilecektir. Ayrıca, çalışmaya dahil olan üniversite öğrencileri gerçek anlamda dil kullanımına maruz kalacak ve bu yüzden normal sözdiziminin görülmedik kombinasyonlarıyla karşılaşacak ve bireysel sözcüklerin diğer sözcüklerle kullanılması konusunun beklentilerine uymayacağını görecektir. Bundan başka, deney süreci boyunca kelime öğrenimlerini geliştireceklerini de görecektir. Görev Tabanlı Öğrenme Yaklaşımı çerçevesi içerisinde aşağıdaki sorular hatırd tutulacaktır:

1. Bir şiiri detaylı bir biçimde inceleyip öğretebilmek için şiir ve Görev Tabanlı Öğrenme Yaklaşımı hangi yollarla birleştirilip, kullanılabilir?
2. Bu aktiviteler öğrencilerin kelime öğrenimi ve tutumlarına olumlu biçimde katkıda bulunur mu?
3. Öğrencilere ön-görev aşamasında ne tür aktiviteler sunulabilir?
4. Öğrencilere görev aşamasında ne tür aktiviteler sunulabilir?
5. Bir şiiri detaylı olarak çalışmak ve ders sonunda öğrencilerin hedef dildeki sözcüklere odaklanmasını sağlayabilmek için ne tür aktiviteler kullanılabilir?

Bu arařtırmada kontrol gruplu n-test / son-test deseni kullanılmıřtır. 16 kiřiden oluřan deney grubuna Grev Tabanlı ğrenme aktiviteleri uygulanmıř, 15 kiřiden oluřan deney grubuna da geleneksel metot uygulanmıřtır. ‘Kelime Testi’ ve ‘Őiir Okumaya Ynelik Tutum Testi’ ile veri toplanmıřtır. Veri zmlenmesi ařamasında SPSS paket programı kullanılmıřtır.

Arařtırma sonuları őiirlerle yapılan Grev-Tabanlı ğrenme metodu aktivitelerinin ğrencilerin kelime ğrenmeleri zerinde belirgin bir etkisi olduėunu; ğrencilerin tutumları zerinde ise belirgin bir etkisi olmadıėını gstermiřtir.

ğretmenler sınıfta her zaman edebiyat ve őiir kullanılması hususunda zorunlu bir ihtiya olmadığını unutmamalıdır. Bu alıřma sınıfta őiir ğretimi ve bunun sınıfta kullanımı iin yollar bulmayı amalamaktadır. Ama eėlenceli ve motive edici aktivitelerle yapılan őiir ğretiminin ğrenme ortamına olumlu olarak katkıda bulunup bulunmadıėını tespit etmeye alıřmaktır. Etki olumlu ise sınıf ierisinde őiir ğretimi yapılırken alternatif seenekler sunulacaktır. Bunun yanı sıra, varolan kaynaklar arařtırılacak ve ‘edebiyatın yabancı dil sınıflarında kullanımı’ ifadesi daha da netleřtirilecek ve dil ğrenimi ile őiirlerle yapılan edebiyat ğretimi arasındaki olası baėlar gsterilecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Grev-Tabanlı ğretme Metodu, Kelime ğretimi, őiir Okumaya Ynelik Tutum

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This study examines the effectiveness of Task-Based instruction along with poetry on the improvement of students' attitudes and vocabulary learning. An experimental study was conducted to investigate whether the implementation of task-based instruction through different poems at Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages in the academic year of 2007- 2008 improves students' vocabulary learning or not.

This part will discuss the source, purpose and significance of the problem and present the research problem, limitations, assumptions and abbreviations.

Background of the Study

Vocabulary is the heart of language teaching. In many classrooms in Turkey, students generally learn the language in the same way. That is, learning is generally focused on mastery of content, with less emphasis on the development of skills and the nurturing of inquiring attitudes. Teaching vocabulary to students is all too often teacher centered, with the teacher focusing on giving out information about "what is known" or just translating an unknown word to teach it. Students are generally the receivers of information, and the teacher is the dispenser. Much of the assessment of the learner is focused on administering vocabulary tests and then grading them. Traditional education is more concerned with preparation for the next grade level and in-school success than with helping a student keep learning throughout life. Students undoubtedly learn some words but unfortunately many of them remain passive and they cannot use them when needed in natural context or even in controlled contexts. Within this study, it is assumed that as learners will learn new vocabulary in natural contexts through Task-Based learning, that is by employing this method on different poems, the learning of new lexical items will be

incidental and students will meet different words in different contexts and also they may have the chance to guess the meanings of new lexical items, so all this will help them accelerate their learning and use those new items in different contexts.

Task-Based Learning (TBL) refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. Some of its proponents like Willis (1996) present it as a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) since they believe it draws on several principles that formed part of the CLT teaching movement. This can be proved by stating the shared principles of both approaches by stressing that in both TBL and CLT, there are activities that involve real communication for language learning and also activities are exploited to promote learning by carrying out meaningful tasks and the language used in these activities are meaningful to the students and support their learning process. In second language acquisition both researchers and language teachers seek to elicit samples of language use from learners via employing different methods. When this matter is considered from the point of researchers, these samples which are elicited from students are needed because they help them to investigate how second language learning takes place, how learning is performed in the mind and when we consider the subject from the perspective of teachers these samples serve as the means by which learners can be helped to learn and as evidence that successful learning is taking place. Furthermore, it is clear that, when students are studying communicative activities, the samples elicited will reflect the students' concern for fluency and how they use L2 to communicate their ideas and messages. Currently, it is known that current approaches acknowledge the need to elicit samples of language use that are representative of how learners perform when they are not focusing on accuracy alone and such samples provide evidence of students' ability to use their L2 knowledge in real-world communication. It is known that, students should be given opportunity to experience such samples so that they can communicate fluently and effectively in the target language. Hence, tasks are tools for eliciting these samples, so they hold a central place in current SLA research and also in SLA pedagogy. According to SLA research, the role of formal grammar instruction in language teaching should be reassessed and also for them there is no evidence that the type of

grammar focused teaching activities used in many language classrooms reflects the cognitive learning processes employed in naturalistic language learning situations outside the classroom (Ellis, 2003). As cognition refers to mental activity including thinking, remembering, learning and using language when we apply a cognitive approach to learning and teaching, we focus on the understanding of information and concepts and if these connections between concepts are understood and rebuilt with logical connections, the retention of material and understanding will increase. Then the knowledge is actualized on real occasions. According to Skehan (1996: 42) with the contribution of the studies carried out to clarify the theoretical basis for a cognitive approach, the connection between the role of consciousness and natural learning is clear and these have concerned the nature of what is learned, the role of consciousness, the role of performance factors and the way in which attention impacts upon learning. Therefore, all these help students recognize the limits of short term memory, provide students with the chance to connect their prior knowledge to current learning and if students' knowledge is taken as a base before establishing desired goals, those students may develop adequate thinking skills. Otherwise, if too much attention is given to knowledge goals without consideration of the students' acquired knowledge and background, then there is the risk of developing knowledge and skills that have no meaning to the learning and are therefore easily forgotten. Ausubel (1968) mentions the anchoring ideas in learners' minds. These ideas are specific and relevant ideas in a learner's cognitive structure and those provide the entry points for new information to be connected. In short, an anchoring idea is a cognitive construct which serves as an anchor to which new ideas can connect as new information is encountered by the student. Ausubel (1968) sees knowledge of a domain as a dynamic hierarchy of these anchoring ideas. Since the formation of these ideas is dynamic, the processes will work differently for different people. This means that anchoring ideas are personal and may or may not be meaningful or correct. Therefore, within the body of this research, the aim is to design different tasks for presenting different poems and to find out how the individual students learn new vocabulary while they are carrying out tasks. Also, as the learning needs of the students will naturally be determined by what happens as they complete the task, the teacher does not predetermine what will be studied and

the students are free of language control. It is important to state that Ausubel's work (Anderson, R.C. et al, 1978) on anchoring ideas provides a convenient structure for thinking about knowledge formation, but it is a structure within which the learner is relatively passive. The information is taken in and new ideas are formed or modified in a hierarchical way; but how this information is taken and anchoring ideas are used by the learner does not seem to be addressed. However in TBL, students are engaged in tasks and thus this task work provides a better context for the activation of learning processes than form-focused activities and hence ultimately provides better opportunities for language learning to take place. In TBL, language learning is believed to depend on immersing students not merely in comprehensible input, but in tasks that require them to negotiate meaning and engage in naturalistic and meaningful communication. In addition, students are free to improve themselves individually in the way and at the speed they want. Tasks are important in the way they can function as a useful device for planning a communicative curriculum, particularly in contexts where there are few opportunities for more authentic communicative experiences, for example, many FL situations. Therefore, when it comes to mention the features of tasks, firstly it is important to state that a task is a work plan which takes the form of teaching materials or of ad hoc plans for activities that arise in the course of teaching. Secondly, a task involves a primary focus on meaning, thus a task seeks to engage learners in using language pragmatically rather than displaying language. It seeks to develop L2 proficiency through communicating. Thus, it requires a primary focus on meaning. To this end, a task will incorporate some kind of gap and this gap motivates learners to use language in order to close it. The participants choose the linguistic and non-linguistic resources needed to complete the task. Furthermore, a task involves real world processes of language use and the work plan may require students to engage in a language activity such as that found in the real world. For example, it can be an asking and answering question or dealing with misunderstandings. Furthermore, a task can involve any of the four language skills, it engages cognitive processes and it has a clearly defined communicative outcome. As Prabhu (1987) states, a task is an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some

process of thought and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process.

In this study, poetry and TBL are considered together firstly because poetry will provide students with much more varied exposure; also they will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms. Therefore, it is assumed that students will learn many unknown words either consciously or unconsciously while they are dealing with tasks. Moreover, poetry offers a rich varied repertoire and is the source of much enjoyment as Collie and Slater (1987) state. When poems are included in the course of the lesson, students may benefit from them for general enrichment, too. They may also learn the content of what they read and personalize the content which will in turn promote their understanding and linguistic abilities, the content of the lesson will be used on certain occasions freely. The classroom time will be maximized as students will study together to reach real-like goals and their learning will be fostered thanks to tasks. Students will mainly focus on meaning rather than form. Thus, the grammar study will be incidental. Besides, it will facilitate the acquisition of the target language. What is more, when poetry is included in the atmosphere in the classroom, the cultural awareness of students will be enhanced, too. Moreover, they will learn to put themselves in the characters' shoes in the poems, they will have the chance to develop their critical thinking skills and as they will have a product after studying the poems, the learning will be enduring and effective. In this study, it is assumed that students will like studying poetry through tasks as they will have much time to spend on communicating during a task-based lesson and this will be much fruitful when compared to a traditional PPP approach. When poetry enters the classroom, students will have to negotiate meaning more as poetry is an art of condensation and implication; poems concentrate meaning and distill feeling. Students will experience the feelings; they will make interpretations and evaluate them while studying tasks and they will be more attentive to the connotations of words, more receptive to the expressive qualities of sound and rhythm in line and stanza, more discerning about details of syntax and punctuation. Therefore, while studying in a natural context, they will use all their resources and learn to read poetry and eventually they will like it much better in that way.

Purpose of the Study

The activities carried out in the classroom may be meaningless after a long period especially when they are carried out mechanically by the teacher. In this case, students easily lose track of what is happening in the classroom. Like all human beings, students want to have some control over what activities they pursue and when and how they choose to engage in them. It is known that meaning making and attitudes of students are closely related. If an individual considers an activity to be meaningful, it is more probable they will invest themselves in it and have positive attitudes towards it. As Maehr (1984) states, people possess “a package of meanings” based on past experiences that they carry with them to each new situation. The purpose of this study is to investigate the efficiency of the classes in which poetry is used as the medium of instruction for studying English through tasks and it aims to find out whether these tasks contribute significantly to university students’ attitudes and their vocabulary learning. The study will attempt to compare the students’ attitudes and vocabulary learning by giving an “attitude scale” and “a vocabulary achievement test” which inquires their vocabulary learning before and after intervention period.

Significance of the Study

Poetry is the best words in the best order as Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772-1834) said. When one is reading a poem, they need to pay attention to sounds and connotations and also more attention to the deep meaning which underlies the lines. Poems are also of vital importance because they involve total attention involving the participation of blood and marrow. Furthermore, by studying poetry consciously, students’ unconscious perceptions may be sharpened. They will undoubtedly find pleasure in them and by reading the same poem for many times, they will come to realize that huge meanings can be figured out from simply lying lines. During the study, attention will also be given to helping students how to see the important elements that constitute a poem. In addition to this, study of poetry will be designed as tasks to improve both fluency and accuracy in the classroom. Poems are mostly read for pleasure; but they can be very effective for teaching a foreign language, especially vocabulary. Blended with poetry, TBL will provide three basic conditions for language

learning that are exposure, use and motivation. Tasks will also provide variety and security in the class. Many researchers find out every detail about TBL. However, there are not many studies about poetry through Task Based Learning. Since there is a natural progression from the holistic to the specific, the study of poetry through TBL will offer learners a holistic experience of language in use and the experience will be meaningful and authentic-like as the poems which will be exploited in the classroom are real piece of literature. Since all students need variety and exposure to the target language to improve, specific features naturally occurring in the language will be practiced through tasks by using different poems. This will provide the students with real language use in pairs or groups and they will achieve clear task outcomes as a result and hopefully this will foster their cognitive strategy use, too. Poetry and TBL are generally studied alone. In this study, they will be combined to enable language teachers to see different perspectives of teaching literature, which is the use of poetry in the classroom. Thanks to this, it will help them renew their teaching styles and strategies in teaching vocabulary. In the study, 12 poems by different poems will be studied through TBL activities to help educators teach poems.

Statement of the Problem

In this study, the purpose is to seek answers to the following questions:

1. Does the study of TBL have a significant effect on students' vocabulary learning?
2. Does the study of TBL have a significant effect on students' attitudes after a treatment period in the study of poetry?

Sub- Problems

1. What effects does the study of poetry through TBL have on university students' attitudes?
2. What effects does the study of poetry through TBL have on university students' vocabulary learning?

3. What are the reactions of participants about the study of poetry through TBL in the classroom after a period of treatment?

Assumptions

The factors which cannot be controlled are made equal in both groups (the treatment group and the control group) by the researcher. Besides, the participants are going to answer the items in the attitude scale and vocabulary test sincerely.

Limitations

In this study, poetry tasks are limited to preparation students of English of the School of Foreign Languages at Dokuz Eylul University. The participants are only preparatory students. Therefore, in this study the activities can merely be applied to preparation students of English and the results can only be valid for these students. The study is limited to 12 poems by different poets such as Emily Dickinson, Sri Chinmoy, Robert Frost and Williams Carlos Williams.

Definitions and Abbreviations

Task: A task is a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as a part of an educational course, at work, or used to elicit data for research. (Crookes, 1986).

Task-Based Learning: It refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching.

TBL: Task-Based Learning

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DM: Direct Method

SW: Silent Way

ALM: Audio-Lingual Method

GW: Group work

PW: Pair work

IL: Inter-language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

L2: Second Language

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter firstly presents vocabulary teaching and developments in the area and continues with its current practice in language teaching. Moreover, historical background information on vocabulary teaching and later its current place in methodology and also in TBL is presented. In the next chapter, the history of poetry, using literature in the classroom and poetry in language teaching are emphasized. This is followed by a more detailed discussion of task-based learning, its definitions, its goals, advantages, tasks and features of tasks, and the instructional phases of TBL. The tasks used for the purpose of this study will be examined in the context of task descriptions in the literature.

VOCABULARY TEACHING

The old proverb ‘what is new is not true and what is true is not new’ is particularly relevant to the history of vocabulary teaching. Linguists, philosophers and pedagogues have been interested in the problems raised by words and the understanding of them for centuries. In the past, vocabulary teaching and learning were often given little priority but recently there has been a renewed interest both in the nature of vocabulary and its role in language teaching and learning. As Richards & Renandya (2002) assert the status of vocabulary seems to be changing recently as the notion of a word has been broadened to include lexical phrases and routines and it is suggested that these stages are of vital importance for communication and acquisition. Cook (1991) also holds that dictionaries can lead learners to a false idea that vocabulary is a list of words, each with one or more meanings attached to them. Instead, it is asserted that words are related to each other in many ways and this way they can be remembered and stored by language learners. Moreover, recently access to the large corpora has enabled the applied linguists to identify common patterns of

collocations, word formation and metaphors recently and the idea that these patterns are of everyday utterances of speaker's lexical competence has been strengthened.

“Words, so innocent and powerless as they are, standing in a dictionary; how potent for good and evil they become in the hands of one who knows how to choose and combine them.” Nathaniel Hawthorne. (Bruce, Leslee & Zak, 2004)

It seems almost impossible to overlook the importance of the power of words as they literally have changed and will continue to change the course of world history. Without doubt, teaching vocabulary, enriching learners' vocabularies and guiding them to develop the necessary skills help them succeed not only in their education period but also in their lives. Our ability to function in today's complex social and economic worlds is affected by our language skills and word knowledge to a large extent.

Richards & Renandya (2002) emphasize the place of vocabulary in language teaching by stating that vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and they hold that it is lexis which provides learners with the basis for how well they speak, listen, read and write. It is suggested that learners should be taught strategies for acquiring new vocabulary as learners without extensive vocabulary knowledge often achieve less than their potential and may be discouraged from making use of language opportunities.

Croll (1971) puts forward that teaching vocabulary is undoubtedly one of the English teacher's most difficult tasks as vocabulary lessons are generally uninteresting to students and also they are too often ineffectual. Yet, it is essential to acquire full vocabulary for self-expression. Moreover, he criticizes the typical vocabulary lessons as they often follow the traditional pattern of mechanical memorization of words and definitions to be reproduced on tests. Thus, it is asserted that such rote learning is often quickly forgotten. To better this situation, making the new words a part of students' environment is suggested. Carter & Mc Carthy (2002) also state that the subject's interaction with the environment is a major factor in language and vocabulary acquisition as this relationship provides the associations

and leads learners to use their mental activities. Perception and action are the basic processes that affect language and vocabulary acquisition.

The process of learning a second language has often been described as the learner's progress along the Interlanguage continuum from a non-existent knowledge towards native-like competence without necessarily reaching it. If this is the view we take of L2 acquisition, then vocabulary learning should involve a gradual increase in the learner's vocabulary size as the most striking difference between foreign learners and native speakers is in the quantity of words each group possesses. (Laufer, 1998: 255)

The developments and debates in relation to vocabulary teaching in general and to different methods in the field will be traced firstly.

Grammar-Translation Method and Vocabulary Teaching

Historically, vocabulary was central in the Grammar-Translation Method as well as the Direct Method (Tozcu & Coady, 2004). In Grammar Translation Method, through the use of mother tongue, learners practised new words in literary texts usually by follow-up questions at the end of a literary passage. It mainly emphasized structural language learning, rote memorization of sentence patterns, vocabulary and literary language. Written language was of vital importance in Grammar Translation method, so these kinds of activities were supported (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Traditionally, it was thought that vocabulary instruction was equal to teaching word meaning; thus students learned lists of words, synonyms, and antonyms in the belief that vocabulary extension work was dealt with in this way. Vocabulary selection was based merely on the texts which were exploited in the classroom and students were presented bilingual word lists which did not tackle the semantic aspects of the words. Dictionary study and memorization were emphasized to a large extent, as well. However, according to Ooi and Kim-Seoh (1996: 56), this kind of instruction does not give learners a better understanding of the kind of lexical choices available to proficient users of the language and also doesn't help them why one alternative is preferred to another. They suggest that teachers must be encouraging about making students have a habit of comparing and contrasting particular uses of language.

The Direct Method and Vocabulary Teaching

Within the Grammar Translation period, the procedure was so straightforward. Teachers presented the target language in ready-to-master pieces and they started with the easy parts and gradually moved towards the harder parts. This is the typical PPP (Present, practice, produce) model of language teaching. This meant that if students did errors throughout the process, it was the evidence of poor learning so, PPP treatment was essential. (Willis, 1996). Other innovations in language teaching fostered using a speech based approach to language instruction. The Direct Method, for instance, encouraged teachers to use the foreign language almost exclusively, and while it allowed some use of the mother tongue for grammatical explanations, it suggested that some grammar, or knowledge of the rule-based structures of a foreign language could be acquired by exposure to the target language used by the teacher, so it only reinforced a wash back effect and a structural methodology according to Watanabe (1996, as cited in Adamson, 1998). Bovee (1919) makes it clear:

Direct Methodists agree that, at first, the vocabulary must be concrete, near the experience of the pupil, and capable of demonstration by means of objects and action. Yet, it seems to me that it would be the part of common sense to choose the words in accordance with the needs of the student, not only in the classroom but also in his daily life. (Bovee, 1919: 65)

It is based on the idea that target language could be taught successfully to students if it is taught in the way the first language is acquired. Furthermore, the Direct Method was an answer to the dissatisfaction with the Grammar-Translation method, which teaches students grammar and vocabulary through direct translations and thus focuses on the written language. The main principle related to vocabulary teaching in the Direct Method is that only everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught and vocabulary is taught through pantomiming, realia and other visuals to achieve native-like pronunciation.

The Audio-lingual Method and Vocabulary Teaching

Toward the end of 1950s, the Audio-lingual method (ALM, henceforth) in the U.S. and Situational Language Teaching in The U.K. dominated language teaching pedagogy. ALM favoured the spoken language. The emphasis in this method was mostly on the use of accurate pronunciation and structures while speaking in the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Carter & McCarthy (2002) state that structuralism and contrastive analysis, along with behavioral psychology, gave rise to Audio-lingual method. With the shift to transformational linguistics in the 1960s only reinforced the idea that lexis was somewhat peripheral and this was an irritating regularity in an otherwise ordered grammar. In Britain, with the Firthian tradition, there more attention was paid to vocabulary, but still there was strict vocabulary control and the selection of vocabulary was given prominence. Thus, the learners and their needs were not tackled perfectly.

It is certain that the method is against the idea of teaching of too much vocabulary and for the mastery of structure. Lessons are based on pattern practice, minimal pair drills and pronunciation practice and all these are designed to develop speech habits equivalent to those of a native speaker's. (Kasap, 2006). Learning of structures is fulfilled through the practice of patterns of sound, order, and form rather than by explanation in ALM. (Brooks, 1975). Language teaching is not meaningful as little attention is paid to natural and meaningful use of new language in conversation. ALM stresses that language is a formal, rule governed system and it mainly focuses on the mechanic aspects of language learning and language use (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Audio-lingualism reached its period of most widespread use in the 1960s and was applied to both to the teaching of foreign languages in the USA and to the teaching of English as a second foreign language but later practitioners found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through ALM to real communication outside the classroom. But, when the leading methods of 1950s and 1960s are considered, it is clear that they have some severe shortcomings. Kumaravadivelu (1991) strictly criticizes ALM by noting that language learning is a

developmental process by which a partial learning of many items at a time is meant and also it is a subconscious activity which is more incidental than intentional.

During the less complicated days of audio-lingualism and structural teaching, the teachers ostensibly knew what they were supposed to teach and the learners ostensibly knew what they were supposed to learn- primarily because structural textbooks carried, at the beginning of every lesson, a list of grammar and vocabulary items which were the focus of that particular lesson.” (Kumaravadivelu, 1991: 99)

Carter & McCarthy (2002) hold that in the 1970s, despite devoting a considerable interest to vocabulary teaching, not enough attention was paid to raising vocabulary to a prominent level in teaching. Wilkins (1972) lamented the neglect of vocabulary in audio-lingual years and thus it is not surprising to see his later concern with the centrality of meaning in the notional / functional syllabus.

As Foster (1999) suggests, too, traditionally language learning was regarded as a process in which students had to master each step by succession before moving to another. But, according to recent methodologies in the field, language should be taught around a real reason and should involve students employ many things at a time. It is apparent at this point:

... that lexis, grammar, and discourse should no longer be thought of as separate strands in the language syllabus. An integrative approach would allow the teacher to shift attention from one to the other and back again, in a manner that is natural and unforced ... This would mean no longer having the “vocabulary lesson” as such, but instead teaching vocabulary through reading, and selecting passages for the reading skills lesson with a view to incorporating vocabulary and grammar activities. (Ooi and Kim-Seoh, 1996: 57)

Silent Way, CLL, Suggestopedia and Vocabulary Teaching

Other competing methods are Silent Way, Community Language Learning (CLL) and Suggestopedia. These methods emphasize language learning in a meaningful way and they all emphasize oral proficiency in their aims. Although these methods have some positive benefits such as stressing the humanistic side of language learning, they fail to pay equal attention to linguistic dimensions of

language. In CLL for instance, language is almost taught without addressing psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in second language acquisition. As Kasap (2006) stresses that knowledge of the language is still central, although these methods encourage more communicative language use, having structural knowledge is the main area of concern. As Richards & Rodgers (2001) stress CLL does not use a conventional language syllabus which focuses grammar, vocabulary and other language items to be taught in advance. Instead the progression is topic-based with learners nominating things they wish to talk about and messages they wish to communicate to other learners. The teacher acts as a mediator to provide a conveyance for these meanings in a way appropriate to the learners' proficiency level. Moreover, specific grammatical points, vocabulary and lexical patterns are delayed to be isolated by the teacher for more detailed study at later stages. Silent Way, similarly, pays attention to functional vocabulary. The most functional and versatile vocabulary are prominent within the body of this method. On the other hand, Richards & Rodgers (2001) point out that Suggestopedia is a method which puts emphasis on memorization of vocabulary pairs. Lexis is central in classes where Suggestopedia method is used. Lexical translation rather than contextualization is emphasized within the body of this method, though.

Communicative Language Teaching and Vocabulary Teaching

When compared with other methods, CLT is a generic approach and may seem non-specific at times in terms of how to actually teach different skills in a systematic way. But, one thing is for sure that the Communicative Approach does its best to expand students' communicative competence.

As Carter & McCarthy (2002: 41-46) put it, towards the end of the 1970s with the development of the Natural Approach, the motivational benefits of an early stage of receptive vocabulary growth were encouraged by comprehensible input from the teacher. Thus, vocabulary teaching was coming of age and there were considerable improvements in the area such as reasserting its place within language teaching, bringing the learner to the centre stage, seeing the lexicon as a resource for the needs of the learner and for strategic use in the gaining of communicative

objectives and lastly bringing lexical semantics to bear the incorporation of notions such as sense-relations and collocation into teaching materials. Therefore, the idea that words taught in isolation are generally hard to retrieve as the full meanings of words come from encountering them in a rich linguistic environment was supported.

Moreover, as communicativeness and meaningfulness were the two poles of receptive and productive language use in the communicative ideology, these ideals became highly influential in applied linguistics then. As a result, lexicon was beginning to be seen as a resource for communication and this led to an interest in lexical strategies. Wilkins (1972: 111), also, makes a crucial point here by stating “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.”

Moreover, Hall (1972, cited in Coady & Huckin, 2003) carried out a study which focused on the acquisition of vocabulary through split-information activities and found that the vocabulary learning of students working on these kinds of vocabulary activities was greater than that of the students working with a teacher-fronted environment. Therefore, the idea that negotiation of vocabulary proved to bring about more improved vocabulary gain on the part of the learners was strengthened.

The Lexical Approach and Vocabulary Teaching

The lexical approach to English language teaching has received a considerable interest in recent years as an alternative to grammar-based approaches which highly focus on the teaching of grammatical structures. Richards & Rodgers (2001) state that the role of lexical units has been emphasized in both first and second language acquisition research and linguistic theory has also emphasized the centrality of vocabulary in linguistic description. Moreover, when the transformational and generative linguists who were formerly occupied with syntax as their primary focus was the lexicon, how the lexicon was formatted, coded and organized, the lexicon received a primary focus. Furthermore, Chomsky, the father of

contemporary studies in syntax, adopted a lexicon-is-prime position in his Minimalist Programme.

The lexical approach focuses on lexis- that is, words and word combinations rather than grammar, functions, notions or some other unit of planning- and it reflects a centrality of lexicon in language teaching. It offers a three-step procedure to fulfill the needs of the learning process. The first step is observing and this stage requires learners notice the words in a suitable context. Noticing triggers the acquisition of a lexical item at the first stage. The second step involves hypothesizing which enables the learners to negotiate the word and the last step involves experimenting those hypothesized words. It involves practicing the word in shortest terms. Lewis (1993) holds that the lexical approach aims to develop learners' proficiency with lexis, or word combinations. It is based on the idea that comprehending and producing lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or chunks comprise an important part of language acquisition and within the body of this approach these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar. Moreover, Lewis (1997) defends that his lexical approach is not simply a shift of emphasis from grammar to vocabulary teaching, as "language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary, but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks."

The belief in grammar rules and the importance of avoiding mistakes both go very deep into both teacher and learner expectations. To question their value and decrease their importance is, in itself, a radical methodological innovation for many teachers. But a lexical perspective implies methods based more on questions than answers. It also encourages in both learners and teachers an acceptance of ambiguity and uncertainty which underlies language. Students need a certain security in the classroom, but a major element of learner training is to gradually move students away from the (usually false) security of learned rules and formally 'accurate' sentences, towards a willingness to use even inadequate linguistic resources to attempt to communicate real meaning. The importance of helping learners to live with the insecurity intrinsic to 'trying to say what you really mean' cannot be overestimated. (Willis & Willis, 1996: 14)

It is clear that much improvement has taken place in the field, and these developments have triggered the methods, techniques and materials for handling

vocabulary teaching. While some methods consider vocabulary crucial in their aims, other emphasize structural perspectives in language teaching.

For the teaching of vocabulary, on the other hand, Readence & Searfoss (1980: 43-45), offer a useful technique; that is- categorization to speed up students' vocabulary growth by claiming that besides improving prediction and problem solving skills, it helps students find some sense and order in their own experiences. Categorization involves Word-Fluency, The List-Group-Label Lesson, and Feature Analysis. Word Frequency is a vocabulary development technique in which one of the two students attempts to generate as many words as possible in sixty seconds. The List-Group-Label lesson is to help students handle technical vocabulary in elementary level social studies and science classes; the concept of the lesson can be broadened to improve systematically the vocabulary and categorization skills of students in all grades. Lastly, Feature Analysis refers to the way in which human beings organize knowledge. In practice, Feature Analysis enables students to see how words are related and, at the same time, see how they remain unique. Likewise, as Carter & McCarthy (2002) put forward, the Frenchman François Gouin offered to the world a new system for the learning of vocabulary, which consisted of arranging words into some categories corresponding to typical sequences of actions and processes as he was frustrated by his earlier failure to learn German vocabulary. On the other hand, Coady & Huckin (2003) offer two ways to teach vocabulary so that they can be accessed easily. These are fluency activities and richness activities. It is asserted that fluency activities provide a good path to an item whereas richness activities increase the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships, thus providing many points of access to an item. Fluency activities have some features.

1. They may involve processing quite a lot of language
 2. They make limited demands on the language user; that is, they involve material that does not contain much unfamiliar language or many unfamiliar ideas. This allows the user to give most attention to the fluency goal.
 3. They involve rehearsal of the task through preparation, planning or repetition.
 4. They involve some encouragement for the learner to reach a high rate of performance which requires that the activities reach a high level of automaticity.
- Coady & Huckin (2003: 249)

Richness activities, on the other hand, aim to increase the number of associations attached to a word and these associations imply the syntagmatic and the paradigmatic relationships. Syntagmatic relationships concern how words are put into order and how they are used in a larger unit. Paradigmatic relations, on the other hand, are those that associate a word with related meanings. Cruse (1986) states that there are numerous options about these relationships and these relationships can be developed through matching and classification activities. Channel (1981), too, is in favour of including paradigmatic aspects of lexis in vocabulary learning. He suggests incorporating semantic insights from field theory and componential analysis by adapting fields and components into grids and scales to illustrate the semantic features of items and their collocability. This way, it is asserted that learners can know how individual words are related to others and how they can be used with other words; so that learners will be able to elaborate their word knowledge. Moreover, Cook (1991) points out that how the word is practised is more important than how often it is practised since he is of the opinion that how well learners remember something depends on how deeply they process it.

However, Hunt & Beglar (1998) offer three approaches to vocabulary teaching and learning. These are incidental learning, explicit instruction and independent strategy development. For incidental learning to take place, it is suggested that learners should be given ample opportunities for extensive reading and listening. Explicit instruction, in contrast, involves diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting those words for the first time, elaborating word knowledge and developing fluency with known words. Lastly, independent strategy development involves training learners to use dictionaries and practicing guessing from the context in order to make learners more independent throughout the learning process. It is also suggested that guessing from the context is a time-consuming process and it is more likely to work for more proficient learners.

Carter & McCarthy (2002: 62-75), on the other hand, offer some steps to carry out vocabulary teaching and divide vocabulary teaching into two general categories as comprehension and production. For the comprehension to occur, the

first step is to enhance understanding of learners and to make them understand what unfamiliar words mean. It is especially emphasized that learners should experience a word in many contexts to get a complete understanding of its meaning. To enhance understanding of unfamiliar vocabulary; making use of contextual clues such as grammatical structures, intonation in speech, punctuation in writing, recognizing the redundancy, anaphora and parallelism in discourse and making use of word morphology are suggested, as well. Lastly, to enhance storage, put it differently- to help learners remember the unfamiliar words and help them store words in their memories, some devices such as mnemonic devices, loci, paired associates and key word technique are suggested. Moreover, to increase the learners' interaction with the environment formal groupings which involve studying the morphological features are suggested, reporting that this is not a desirable end though. Besides, presenting words as word families, making formal groupings on the basis of historical and orthographical similarities, especially if learners are learning cognate languages, are thought to be effective in vocabulary learning. In addition, collocations in teaching vocabulary are emphasized as these associations assist learners in committing these words to their memories along with aiding them in defining the semantic area of the words. Lastly, it is asserted that using vocabulary and managing to take part in conversations are crucial for production as these lead to the self-confidence which is thought to be necessary for taking more chances with the language. Carter & McCarthy (2002) agree that developing the fluency of learners is crucial in language learning as Coady & Huckin (2003) put forward beforehand. Pidginization is offered as an option to improve learners' putting language together and making them avoid the self-monitoring which may hinder the use of the language. It is suggested that the teaching of content words can precede the teaching of function words at the initial stages and inflectional affixes may be left to later stages. Furthermore, it is emphasized that the knack of circumlocution should be taught to learners. It may include coining words to fill lexical gaps in language with devices such as derivation, compounding, blending, imitation and backformation and thus these will allow learners to expand their vocabulary knowledge without memorizing new words and undoubtedly will lead to fluency. To better the storage of information and improve retention, it is pointed out that

techniques that enhance production have to be centered on meanings of words rather than on their forms as most of the production has to do with searching for an appropriate meaning to fit the particular occasion. Therefore, situational sets which are cohesive chains of relationships in discourse are thought to be effective in enhancing learners' fluency and improving their retention. Moreover, using semantic sets, metaphor sets, collocations and lexical phrases are suggested.

Likewise, it is worth mentioning Rosch's 'prototype theory' at this point. (Cook, 1991). This theory suggests that, rather than the components of meaning, there is an ideal of meaning in our minds. It is suggested that speakers of a language respond to the things they see and talk by depending on a central form of concept in their minds. This central form of concept in their minds works as a prototype and the things they see or talk either correspond or depart from this prototype. This theory also suggests that learners, especially children, learn words that are basic as these words reflect aspects of the world, and this basic level of vocabulary is easier to learn. (Cook, 1991: 38-39). Therefore, within the body of this research the specially designed poems are expected to serve the needs of learners by providing an ideal meaning for them to reflect on.

Nattinger (1980) states that it is more realistic to emphasize language processes rather than language structures, performance models as they provide us with more realistic accounts of language behaviour than former competence theories. Thus, it has been suggested that this way of looking at grammar requires us to think of lexicon in much broader terms and that we need to pay more attention to the importance of prefabricated speech routines in language behaviour.

Nation (2003: 60-61), alternatively, offers 'What is it?' technique as a useful way of vocabulary learning, which makes learners become familiar with the spoken form of the word and link it to its meaning. When the learners learn this way and the teacher verifies by translating the meaning of the word in this way after giving them enough time to think about what the word means, it is suggested that learners will make a very good start. However, there are some features in two

categories which are thought to better learners' vocabulary development. The first category includes the design features such as repeating the word and its context, giving careful attention to the word and its contexts and providing a variety of rich contexts. The second category, on the other hand, concerns the necessary conditions which are thought to be necessary for vocabulary acquisition. These include having a positive attitude to the activity, noticing the item several times and thoughtfully processing its meaning. In contrast to Hunt & Beglar's (1998) idea that incidental vocabulary learning works well, Richards & Renandya (2002) stress that Nation is in favour of a more planned, deliberately controlled and monitored process, the way he approaches to vocabulary teaching seems more systematic.

As a result, to teach vocabulary many approaches have emerged. As Carter and McCarthy (2002) emphasize it is possible to see two principal strands emerging over the last forty years or so: the debates that have taken vocabulary in and out of fashion as an aspect of language teaching, and the developments that have nudged forward the methods, techniques and materials of vocabulary teaching. Structural approaches put the emphasis on phonology and syntactic patterning whereas recent approaches focus on the semantic aspects of lexis more. With the shift to transformational linguistics in the 1960s, the idea that vocabulary learning was peripheral was reinforced. As Widdowson (1990: 157- 158) puts it, the so-called 'structural approach' focuses attention on knowing. Moreover, the activities in this structural method aim at stimulating participation in the use of skills to help in learning the language system as a medium for meaning rather than normal uses of language. Moreover, Halliday et al.'s *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching* (1964) still pays attention to the selection of vocabulary for teaching and they do not tackle the issue of learners and their needs. But it is important to state that they give importance to the contextualization.

Vocabulary teaching has attracted many linguists and it is suggested by many of them that vocabulary teaching is of vital importance and it should even precede the teaching of structural items. For example, Smith (1969: 531) dictates the need for vocabulary teaching by saying that it is not practical to postpone

"vocabulary enrichment" as a reward for virtue and goes on to stress that there is an immediate need to teach vocabulary, rather than enrich it, since the student has to communicate and read now. Therefore, enrichment may come later. Moreover, it is pointed out that prolonged limitation of vocabulary while the student masters more and more structural patterns leaves him unable to cope with his textbooks and with lectures and to join effectively in discussion. Croll (1971) is, too, in favour of explicit vocabulary teaching by stressing that a full vocabulary is essential for a learner to express themselves adequately.

A person grows with his vocabulary. Concepts broaden and become more complex as an individual acquires new, more precise terms in which to express them. The importance of teaching vocabulary cannot be denied, and it must be taught effectively, so that students experience the enrichment of knowing, understanding, and using new, more definite words. (Croll, 1971: 378)

Besides, two recent studies (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Zimmerman, 1997, as cited in Tozcu and Coady, 2004) have found direct and positive evidence in favour of explicit vocabulary instruction in an ESL setting. According to Mezynski (1996, as cited in Weizman & Snow, 2001: 266) effective vocabulary instruction enhances lexical acquisition. Moreover, Nation (1993: 118) stresses that "the focus of teaching initially needs to be on increasing the size of the learner's recognition vocabulary." Moreover, Judd (1978) goes on further and offers that as most traditional textbooks and curricula procrastinate vocabulary instruction, teachers who believe in massive vocabulary expansion at early stages must create their own materials. Besides he handles the vocabulary choice problem by suggesting two criteria which should be used in the vocabulary selection process. Firstly, it should be usable within the students' grammatical knowledge and next it must be useful to students' needs, both present and future.

Consequently, it is of vital importance to make clear what it means to know a word. Since the end of 1970s, there has been a dramatic stress on teaching vocabulary. Whereas presenting vocabulary as lists of items to be learned was popular in the structural era; there has been a gradual shift to the learner and linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic aspects of word knowledge recently.

As Richards & Renandya (2002) put it, in the past, vocabulary learning was often left to look after itself and received minor attention in many textbooks and language programmes. Cook (1991) stresses that the position of the word in discourse is vital as he is of the opinion that L2 learning of vocabulary does not mean just learning a word once but learning the range of meanings that go with it. It is pointed out that how words fit into sentences and how they behave in discourse is vital. Thus, although the course curriculum was specific about what to teach in terms of grammar, reading and speaking; vocabulary received little specification in the past. Besides, research on vocabulary in recent years has enabled many specialists in the field to clarify the levels of vocabulary learning learners need to achieve in order to read both simplified and unsimplified materials and to process different kinds of oral and written texts.

Thus, this brings any researcher into the question of precisely what it means to learn vocabulary. Richards (1976: 83) tries to tackle this issue by bringing characterization of lexical competence down to eight broad assumptions.

1. The native speaker of a language continues to expand his vocabulary in adulthood, whereas there is comparatively little development of syntax in adult life.
2. Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print. For many words we also know the sort of words most likely to be found associated with the word.
3. Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.
4. Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behavior associated with the word.
5. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it.
6. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of associations between that word and other words in the language.
7. Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of a word.

8. Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word.

These assumptions are noteworthy as this point of view tries to show that vocabulary learning and vocabulary teaching processes are complicated in nature. Furthermore, it tries to approach vocabulary teaching via different paths and refers to separate features of learners' lexical competence. Likewise, Twaddell (1973) points out that the unsatisfactory repertory of words in FL is not due to ingenuity or diligence, but rather the difficulty inherent in vocabulary learning.

Judd (1978), on the other hand, puts forward that traditional theories perceive vocabulary acquisition as a means to improve reading and listening comprehension and not as a skill vital in its own right and is in favour of massive vocabulary instruction as early as possible. Judd (1978: 71-73) supports Richard (1976) at this point that language learners' vocabularies will increase throughout their lifetimes and they will never master all the lexical items in their native language. Moreover, it is asserted that vocabulary teaching receives a secondary status and it is not taught as a skill itself.

Anthony (1975), too, emphasizes that the teaching and learning of vocabulary has not attracted the same degree of interest within language teaching as have such issues as grammatical competence, contrastive analysis, reading or writing, which have received considerable attention from scholars and teachers and draws a link between the apparent neglect of vocabulary and the effects of trends in linguistic theory by pointing out the word has only recently become a candidate for serious theorizing and model building within linguistics.

Most methods are preoccupied with indirect teaching of vocabulary rather than taking it to their focal point. Thus, vocabulary instruction is seen as a means to an end and not as a goal in itself and as a result, students, upon leaving the sheltered atmosphere of the ESL classroom, often find themselves at a literal "loss for words" in the uncontrolled English-speaking environment. Hence, the students encounter

frustration and even claim that their ESL training is a waste of time since they have great trouble understanding and using English in their daily academic and non-academic endeavors. To wrestle with this problem, it is offered that vocabulary instruction should begin quite early and more emphasis should be given to vocabulary teaching. Moreover, Hunt & Beglar (1998: 3-4) offer some points that may ease teaching and learning of unfamiliar vocabulary. These include showing learners more than the form a word to teach it, starting by semantically unrelated words and avoiding words with similar forms and closely related meanings at the same time, studying words regularly over several sessions rather than studying them for one or two longer sessions, studying five to seven words at a time and dividing larger numbers of words into smaller groups, using activities such as the key word technique to promote deeper understanding and better retention and lastly making vocabulary cards and elaborating word associations can be benefited to familiarize learners into unfamiliar words.

Likewise, Twaddell (1973) points out that there is the inherent difficulty of mastering an adequate vocabulary in any language, including one's native language and goes on to state that the doctrine-that vocabulary is a relatively minor aspect of language structure-can be harmful to foreign language (FL) teaching and learning.

It is easy to understand why there is no consensus among teachers as to vocabulary teaching- except for the general conviction that our students learn vocabulary control slowly and erratically. There is the inherent difficulty of mastering an adequate vocabulary in any language, including one's native language. And for learning a FL, there is also a major difficulty deriving from some basic misconceptions as to the nature of a vocabulary and vocabularies. (Twaddell, 1973: 62)

Nilsen (1976: 99-100), on the other hand, approaches the subject from a different perspective and puts forward a conflicting view in vocabulary teaching to object to the view that "vocabulary out of context" is useless. Firstly, a discrimination needs to be made between paradigmatic and syntactic relations. The former relates the way whereby word meaning is a function of other words it contrasts with, and the latter is related to the fact whereby word meaning is a

function of syntactic interrelationships among the words in a sentence. To prove that vocabulary out of context is also meaningful six facts are presented.

1. That the same word can have very different meanings depending on the linguistic and social context into which it is placed.
2. That no word in any language has an exact equivalent in any other language.
3. That no word is the exact synonym of any other word.
4. No word has the same meaning for any two speakers of a language, because the total lexical inventories of the two speakers will be different
5. A word will have a different meaning at two different times in the life of a single person, because his total lexical inventory is constantly changing.
6. A person trained in a particular subject area will normally have a larger vocabulary in that area than will one not trained in that area, and many of the words in this larger vocabulary will have more specific meanings to him than to the non-specialist. (Nilsen, 1976: 100)

These important facts are of vital importance in the sense that a typical word may also have meaning outside of the context, as well. Besides, they point out the importance of the syntagmatic approach and paradigmatic approach to vocabulary instruction.

Likewise, Nation (2003: 64) employs the term “decontextualization” and puts forward that decontextualization occurs when language learners pay attention to the lexical item as a part of the language rather than as a part of a message by defending that learners need to consciously see language items as parts of the language system rather than only as messages to acquire the language, for there is evidence that it can help learning.

Vocabulary teaching is undoubtedly is a crucial step to have a control of the target language and many ways have been offered to deal with teaching vocabulary. Kornu (1979), for instance, discriminates between two main aspects of vocabulary teaching. The first one aims to present the meaning of the words to be acquired in a correct and thorough way. The second stresses that the organization of the teaching must be carried out to improve retention. The first aspect is directly related to *correct* production, and the second to fluency.

When the presentation of systematic vocabulary is concerned, considering high-frequency words is emphasized as an option as they are essential for effective language use and provide the learner with a good coverage of the text. Coady & Huckin (2003) hold that from the context if the high-frequency words are known, but stressing Kelly's (1990) point that low frequency words can be guessed, and thus suggesting that guessing is not a substitute for systematic learning of lexis.

Nation (2003), on the other hand, presents the necessary psychological conditions that help reach the learning goal. These consist of noticing, retrieval and creative (generative) use. The first condition, namely noticing, involves paying attention to a lexical item. Guessing the meaning of a word, looking up the words in the dictionary, deliberately studying a word or receiving an explanation may be instances of noticing. Retrieval concerns the psychological process that leads to a word being remembered. It can be receptive or productive. Receptive retrieval involves meeting the target word in a context and retrieving its meaning when the word is met. Productive retrieval, on the other hand, involves the wish to communicate both the meaning of the word and the struggle to retrieve its spoken or written form. Lastly, creative use occurs when previously met words are subsequently met or used in ways that differ from the previous meeting with the word; thus the new meeting forces learners to reconceptualize their previous learning occasions and update their knowledge of the word.

Another concern is the classroom practice. Flanigan & Greenwood (2007) offer four factors to keep in mind when making instructional decisions in content vocabulary teaching. These are namely the students to be taught, the nature of the words which are going to be taught, the instructional purposes in teaching each of those words, and the strategies employed to teach the words.

At the level of presentation of a word, many means are made use of such as translation, giving synonyms and lastly giving antonyms if the target lexical item does not correspond to a concrete item. Hollec (1974, as cited in Kornu, 1979) strictly criticizes translation technique by stating that translation can be misleading at

the learning stage as it can be a source of errors when there is no isomorphism between the two languages- that is one word may cover one concept in one language and several in the other language. Yet, Kornu (1979) is still in favour of not rejecting translation as it provides security on the part of the learner and suggests using it in a limited way and embedded in a specific framework. Richards & Renandya (2002), on the other hand, do not deny the necessary and useful role of translation in language learning but they state that it can hinder learners' progress if it used to the exclusion of L2 based techniques.

CHAPTER 3

POETRY

Throughout history, different poets described the art of poetry in various terms. The famous poet, William Wordsworth reflects his thoughts about poetry by comparing poetry to the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings.

(Damrosch, 1998). Samuel Tylor Coleridge describes poetry as the best words in the best order. (Rider, 2005). Thrall (1972: 365), on the other hand, calls poetry in Thomas Carlyle's words, "musical thought". Therefore, it is clear that the poetic content may be a poet's particular emotions or thoughts.

"Poetry is the kind of thing poets write" said Robert Frost to chide the questioner into thinking for himself as stated by Kennedy and Gioia (1995: 579). The definition of poetry is not cut-off; thus definitions will be of little help first if poetry is to be known and responded. For that reason, it is best to study poems in detail to decide about their merit.

From our earliest childhood, we are exposed to the rhythm and cadence of poetic language. (Maley & Duff: 1989: 6). As Maley & Duff (1989) suggest people seem to be constantly striving for order and pattern. Poetry is a way of imposing satisfying patterns on undifferentiated experience.

When the history of poetry is considered, it was in speech and song priorly. In fact, it was part of Greek drama, which for playwright, actor and spectator alike was a holy ceremony. The Greeks held the belief that a poet wrote only by supernatural assistance. Likewise, Socrates was of opinion that a poet had no powers of invention until divinely inspired. The idea of the Muse that began the Iliad and the Odyssey reflected this thought, as well. Throughout history, even among the ancient Celts, poets were regarded as magicians and priests, and whoever insulted one of them could expect to receive a curse then.

Both the writers and the readers tend to regard poetry from different perspectives. A poem, whatever theme it has, requires willingness on the part of the reader besides a logical understanding. It demands seriousness. While writing a poem, the poet demands more attention to sounds and connotations and also more attention to the deep meaning which underlines the lines. This is a great deal to expect, but in return, the reader has a right to have certain expectations. When a reader confronts a poem, he assumes that the poem may use certain enjoyable devices that are not available to prose. These may be rhyme, alliteration, meter and rhythms. These may not be used by the poet all the time, too. Furthermore, the reader may expect to meet figurative language, allusion, symbol and imagery. The term imagery suggests a sight, a sound or a touch. For instance, while students read Frost's poem *The Passing Glimpse*, they visualize the sights of a fireweed, a bluebell or a lupine. Kennedy & Gioia (1995: 661) suggest that an image may occur in a single word, a phrase, a sentence or in an entire short poem. Symbol, on the other hand, is a thing which suggests more than its literal meaning. When reading a prose, meaning is sought primarily by the reader whereas in poetry more than meaning is sought. Moreover, much of what is said in prose can be translated without serious loss of meaning whereas in poetry this is highly impossible.

While reading a prose of Kafka, for example, it is possible to think pleasant extras for any figurative language which does not exist in the text. But, in poetry it is hardly possible to paraphrase what is said or even if it is done, to explain precisely what is told in the poem, the language of the poem itself has to be used word by word. The famous American poet Archibald Mac Leish (1926) makes this point memorably in his "Ars Poetica", which was a treatise on poetics, by stating that "A poem should not mean, but be." (Hoepfer & Pickering, 1990: 20).

However, it is doubtful that anyone can draw an immovable boundary between poetry and prose. It is possible for some proses to be seen as poetry when they are arranged in lines. Then, it is not so clear what discriminates a poem from a prose. It may be that a poem can point beyond words to something still more essential. It is, without doubt, obvious that language has its own limits.

Poems are of vital importance, firstly, because they involve total attention involving blood and marrow. Besides, by studying poetry consciously students' unconscious perceptions may be sharpened. Moreover, students may find pleasure in them and by reading the same poem for many times, they may come to realize that huge meanings can be figured out from simply lying lines.

Another reason why poetry can be so important is that, it is an experience of words. Bain & Beaty et. al. (1986) suggest that poetry is often full of ideas and people seldom feel neutral about poetry. Furthermore, poetry is full of ideas, too. They provide a language for feeling and attempt to express the inexpressable by the help of words.

Literature may be very beneficial in teaching vocabulary to students. Generally, it is assumed that literature is a difficult subject to study or even to teach. Marsh (2001) states that teachers and critics sometimes make this stage more difficult by pretending as if literature was a special subject which only experts could understand; but nothing could be more misleading as great writers and poets write because they want to communicate with ordinary readers. Likewise, Maley & Duff (1989) hold that literature and in particular poetry has not been regarded as usual material for years. The whole trust of structuralist approach tended to exclude literature except in the form of simplified readers and the utilitarian bias of the communicative approach departed from anything which did not seem to have a practical purpose. All too often it has survived in a traditional mould which is no longer consonant with the rapid changes which have taken place in mainstream language teaching. It is obvious that little attempt is made in Grammar-Translation method to help learners go beyond the mere answering of questions to a discovery of what it is in literature. All it focuses is correctness and accurate language display and this is clear from simple translation exercises. Indeed, Richards & Rodgers (2001) hold that although Grammar Translation Period seems to include literature inherently. Although the goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature and benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development, the method is originally aimed at studying the language through a

detailed analysis of its grammar rules. Learners apply this knowledge only to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. Therefore, rather than the negotiation of meaning and inductive learning, the method employs literature just as an end itself because language is taught deductively. Maley & Duff (1989) suggest that poetry offers a rich resource to provide input to language learning and it should be accepted as a type of input.

Poetry has been neglected as a tool for language classrooms for years as it has been thought to appeal only to an intellectual group of persons. Tosta (1996) points out some reasons why poetry should be integrated into the EFL classrooms. Firstly, poems are familiar to all readers as they deal with universal themes such as love or hate. Secondly, poems provide both culturally and linguistically rich contexts for classroom study. Moreover, many poems are easy to remember because of their length and they are also easy to remember. Besides all, they serve a motivational factor, too, as the students feel a sense of achievement after studying a poem. The important factor before including poems in classroom study is that poems should be manageable by students and should suit their level, needs and interests to avoid frustration within a poetry class. What is worth noting at this point is that teaching poetry intersects with TBL on account of the sense of achievement at the end of the classroom study. In TBL, too, students either report or share their tasks at the post task stage and feel sense of achievement and assume the responsibility of their own tasks. Likewise, because of their length, poems motivate students and promote curiosity of them by including authentic texts.

Rogers (1996) also offers the use of literature in intermediate level or above by assuming that exposing students to works of literary merit, some form of progress in the target language can be acquired. Moreover, it is asserted that if students are presented works of literature gradually, they can get much benefit from literature despite this being passive acquisition, though.

Likewise, Brumfit & Carter (2000), stressing Tosta's (1996) point of view similarly, suggest the use of literature for three reasons.

First, reading is the most autonomous and individualizable ability in language work, and literature is a rich and widely-appealing source of material for reading. Second, literature is one of only three areas on which a foreign language content syllabus could be based (the others are linguistics and civilization) which will not conflict with the claims of other subjects in the curriculum. Third, materials are readily available. (Brumfit & Carter, 2000: 185)

Lastly, the use of poetry in EFL classrooms stresses some advantages. Firstly, universality of poems is emphasized by suggesting that poetry is a familiar ground for all languages. Second, it is pointed out that certain kinds of teaching materials run the risk of being too serious or intent, and sometimes students lose motivation or interest if they are exposed to the structural properties of language in isolation. For that reason, the non-triviality of poetry is emphasized by suggesting that the nature of poetry allows dealing with important experiences and heightening students' awareness of even the apparently trivial. Third, poetry is thought to be motivating for learners as they discover hidden meanings. Fourth, learners are active while dealing with poetry; they act as active participants rather than spectators (Maley & Duff, 1989: 8-12). Moreover, poetry will provide ambiguity in the classroom and thus lead to interaction as each person has different perceptions. What is more, a third type of spoken language use is asserted. With this reactional function is meant a reaction of participants to other people's ways of seeing things. Poetry also tends to stick in learners' minds in the form of certain phrases, so it is a good path to be taken to let students absorb the new knowledge unconsciously. So, one more reason for the relatively easy retention of poetry stems from its rhythmic appeal. It is asserted that students are more likely to retain stress and rhythm. Lastly, poetry allows for natural participation and they offer a complete context in compact form.

TYPES OF POETRY

Narrative Poetry

Kennedy & Gioia (1995) state that narrative poetry dates back to the Babylonian epic of *Gilgamesh* and Homer's epic *Iliad and Oddysey* in Western

Romances are stories of the chivalric adventures of knights and their ladies. Schwartz (2001) states that the audience for these early narratives was largely made up of women—the queen, duchess or countess and the other ladies of her court and these women naturally tended to be interested in stories in which women played more central roles than was true in Germanic epics such as *Beowulf*. Rather than telling an adventurous story, this type of poetry focused on pleasing the audience. Unlike the epic poetry which focused on fighting and male-bonding, romances tended to focus on other plot developments. The narratives still concern the deeds of brave warriors, but the Middle English knight is motivated by love for his lady. Accordingly, women play an increasingly important and active role in romance. Romances tend to be complex, with surprising and even magical actions in common. In short, they deal with the marvelous.

Narrative poetry tells a story, a sequence of connected events. It introduces characters through a plot and is always told by a narrator. But narratives are not always told in sequence as many stories start in the middle of things and jump about chronologically. Many of the same elements that are found in a short story are also found in a narrative poem. Narrative Poetry is poetry that tells a tale and can be traced back to Homer's *Iliad* and possibly beyond.

Lyric Poetry

Originally, as its Greek name suggests, a lyric was a poem sung to the music of a lyre. But the kind of printed poem is usually something else. As stated by Kennedy & Gioia (1995) ever since the rise of the printing press in the fifteenth century, poets have written less often for singers but more often for readers. Thus, this tendency has made lyric poems contain less word music but more thought and complicated feelings. Walker (1989) even claimed that a lyric might contain an argument. A lyric poetry is a comparatively short, non-narrative poem in which a single speaker presents an idea, state of mind or an emotional state; it expresses thoughts and feelings of a single speaker. Lyric poems are usually about feelings and moods of people. Lyrics are also differentiated among themselves. Barnett, Berman

and Burto (1994) state that if a lyric is melancholy or mournfully contemplative, especially if it is a lament for a death, then it is called an *elegy*. On the other hand, if a lyric is long and elaborate and if it talks about a lofty theme such as one's immortality or a hero's victory, it may be called an *ode* or a *hymn*.

Rightly or wrongly, many people expect an outburst of feeling and they want a song, something which includes musical elements such as rhythm, rhyme or sound effects. Such an expectation can be fulfilled in William Butler Yeats's (1892) poem "The Lake Isle of Innisfree", that includes a language which is full of sound.

"I will arise and go now, and go to Innisfree / And live alone in the bee-loud glade. / I hear it in the deep heart's core". (Yeats, lines 1, 4, 12). (Hoepfer & Pickering, 1990: 303).

On the other hand, many contemporary poets write poems to voice their opinions or complicated feelings. (Kennedy & Gioia, 1995). In D. H. Lawrence's poem, for instance the poet just tries to express his feelings. "Softly, in the dusk, a woman is singing to me / In spite of myself, the insidious mastery of song / Betrays me back, till the heart of me weeps to...". (Lawrence, lines 1, 5, 11, 12). (Kennedy & Gioia, 1995: 589).

It is certain that lyric poems draw a scene for the reader to describe an object, a thought or a feeling. However, it does not relate a series of events. For instance Kennedy & Gioia (1995: 589) assert that May Swenson's (1967) lines in "Four Word Lines" does not necessarily tell the reader a story, rather it tries to express the poet's feelings. "I wish we were / in some shade and / no swarm of other / eyes to know that..." (Swenson, lines 11- 14).

Dramatic Poetry

Dramatic poetry presents the voice of an imaginary character, speaking directly without any additional narration by the author. Kennedy & Gioia (1995). It is

suggested that the term often refers to the dramatic monologue, a poem written as a speech made by a character at some decisive moment. The term *dramative poetry* describes any verse which is written for stage. However, the term mainly refers to the *dramatic monologue*, which means that the speech in the poem is made by a character only. A dramatic monologue is usually addressed to a character who remains silent. On the other hand, if the other character replies, the poem becomes a dialogue. The anonymous Scottish ballad *Edward* can be said to be an example of this dialogue as the story unfolds with the questions and answers between two characters.

“Why dois your brandsae drap wi’ bluid? / Edward, Edward?/ Why dois your brandsae drap wi’ bluid? / And why sae sad gang yee, O? / O, I hae killed my hauke sae guid / mither, mither.” (Anonymous, lines 1- 5). (Kennedy & Gioia, 1995: 886).

The dramatic monologue has been a popular literary genre among American poets, including Edwin Arlington Robinson, Robert Frost, Ezra Pound, Randall Jarrell, and Sylvia Plath. However the most famous dramatic monologue ever written is probably Browning’s “My Last Duchess”. In *My Last Duchess*, Browning (1842) creates a Renaissance Italian duke whose words give clues more about himself than the aristocratic speaker intends.

“That’s my last Duchess painted on the wall / Looking as if she were alive. I call / That piece a wonder, now: Fra Pandolf’s hands / Worked busily a day, and there she stands./ Will’t please you sit and look at her? I said / “Fra Pandolf” by design, for never read / Strangers like you that pictured countenance, / The depth and passion of its earnest glance, / But to myself they turned (since none puts by / The curtain I have drawn for you, but I)” (Browning, 1862: lines 1-10). (Hoepfer & Pickering, 1990: 274).

WORD ORDER AND TONE IN THE POEM

Word Order

As Meyer (1997) states, the ordering of words into meaningful verbal patterns is called *syntax*. Contrary to prose, poetry involves varied word order. A poet can manipulate the syntax of a line for several reasons. These may be for creating a

sense of surprise or achieving rhythm. During this study, students met unusual combinations of syntax and tried to make sense of the lines by cooperation. They had the chance to question why poets chose a particular order. They inquired their attitudes and questioned whether the choice was conventional or just the opposite.

Tone

Tone is, in its simplest terms, the writer's attitude toward the subject, the mood created by all the elements in the poem. (Meyer, 1997: 486). Tone in literature conveys an attitude toward the person addressed. Like the manner of a person, the tone of a poem may be friendly, sad or glad toward its reader. Kennedy & Gioia (1995: 597) assert that tone isn't an attitude; rather it is the choice of words instead of others, the picking out of certain details. Within the body of this study, students tried to decide on the tone of the poems to pick out certain details from the poems studied in the classroom. While they were trying to pay attention to the poets' feelings and motives, they had the chance to attend to meaning. They also had the chance to compare the differences in tone between two poems and they pointed out what kinds of words contributed to these differences. Thus, besides studying on the tone of the poems, they unconsciously studied lexis. Therefore, poetry is a good path to be taken as they involve blood and marrow of the reader.

Within the body of this research, poems are not suggested as pieces of work that need to be treated as models of language for immediate reuse, but rather they are integrated with other language work, especially vocabulary. The function of the poems is to form the centre piece of a whole series of language activities which are more or less, closely connected with the language of the poems themselves.

CHAPTER 4

TASK-BASED LEARNING (TBL)

Definitions of tasks

An early definition of task comes from Old North French *tasque*, which meant a duty, a tax, or a piece of work imposed as a duty. *Tasque* originated from the Latin *taxere*, to evaluate, estimate, or assess. (Barnhart 1988: 1117).

Crookes (1986) states the need to acknowledge that in neither research nor language pedagogy is there complete agreement as to what constitutes a task, making definition problematic and adds that there is not consistency in the terms employed to describe the different devices for eliciting learner language, either.

There are different definitions for what a task is and these definitions address a number of dimensions as Ellis notes (2003). These are the scope of the task, the perspective from which a task is viewed, the authenticity of a task, the linguistic skills required to perform a task, the psychological processes involved in task process and the outcome of a task. When defining tasks, Crookes (1986) stresses the language use in tasks. According to Crookes, there is little sense in extending the term to include language-free activities.

An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process, was regarded as a 'task'. (Prabhu, 1987: 24).

"... a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward . . . [B]y 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between" (Long, 1985: 89).

According to Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001), a task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain a goal when the learners complete the task.

When the definitions of others are considered, it is clear that they clearly wish to restrict the use of term to activities where meaning is primary. Long (1985: 89) defined a task as "... a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward . . . By 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between".

... a task is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language,... A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make teaching more communicative... since it provides a purpose for classroom activity which goes beyond practice of language for its own sake. So, it is clear that they emphasize the meaning making and the outcome that will be reached after the completion of a task." (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1985: 289).

Nunan (1989) similarly focuses on meaning while defining a task and also puts emphasis on the outcome like Richards, Platt and Weber (1985). It is worth to point out that he also emphasizes the cognitive dimension besides the linguistic dimension of tasks.

A communicative task is a 'piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.' (Nunan, 1989: 10).

Task-Based Learning

According to Klapper (2003: 35-36), TBL is a flourishing method which can compensate for the weaknesses of the Communicative Language Teaching and

which is seen as an alternative to it by researchers. Actually, teachers have been using tasks for hundreds of years. Frequently, in the past, the task was a piece of translation often from a literary source. TBL has gained strength in the field as the conceptual basis is supported by a strong empirical tradition. (Nunan, 1991: 283).

Historically, as Richards & Rodgers (2001) put it, TBL first appeared in the vocational teaching practices of the 1950s. The use of tasks as a unit in instructional planning goes back to those times when task focus was on new military technologies and occupational specialties of the period. As Ellis (2003) notes, Prabhu instituted an innovative curriculum project in secondary schools in southern India by using this task-based method. This Communicational Teaching Project in primary and secondary schools in Bangalore laid the foundation for Task-Based learning pedagogy. The analysis of tasks was initiated for solo psychomotor tasks in which there was limited communication or cooperation among task performers and priorly the primary focus was solo job performance of manual tasks rather than collaborative tasks. (Özpinar, 2006). Later, attention was directed towards team tasks for which communication was necessary. So, it is possible to state that tasks first appeared for practical and occupational use, and then moved into the broader field of general education.

Within the Grammar Translation period, the procedure was so straightforward. Teachers presented the target language in ready-to-master pieces and they started with the easy parts and gradually moved towards the harder parts. The goal of language learning was to read its literature in order to benefit from the mental discipline of studying a foreign language and translation texts and sentences and into and out of the target language was the main route to be taken within the body of this method. As Stern (1983: 45) puts it “The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language.” Moreover, in contrast to the Audio-lingual method, Grammar Translation overemphasized reading and writing and left listening and speaking out instead of combining these four skills. Accuracy, rather than fluency, was the main area of concern in language learning as students were hoped to achieve high levels in translation.

Other innovations in language teaching foster using a speech based approach to language instruction. Richards & Rodgers (2001) assert that The Direct Method, with this concern in mind, overemphasizes and distorts the similarities between the mother tongue of the learners and the target language. It also ignores the difference between foreign language learning and the practical realities of the language classroom. Since it is mainly dependent on the teacher's skill, it can be said to not take into account the needs of the learners and it does not consider the fact that not every teacher is native like either. It is based on the idea that target language can be taught successfully to students if it is taught in the way the first language is acquired. Willis (1996) points out that with TBL, in contrast, tasks remove the teacher domination, and learners have the chance to be involved in open and close conversations by interacting naturally. They also have the chances to interrupt and challenge or they may ask people to do things and check what have been done. Thus, unlike the Direct Method, TBL gives special priority to communicative tasks which students can engage in outside the classroom rather than focusing them on grammatical explanations or teaching chunks of language in a way which they lack content.

As Kumaravadivelu (1991) emphasizes the teacher and the learner have a remarkable degree of flexibility with TBL, because they are presented with a set of general learning objectives and problem solving tasks rather than a list of specific linguistic items to cover. Besides Nunan (1991) pays attention to social and psycholinguistic processes which are thought to facilitate language acquisition with TBL.

In TBL, syllabus content and instructional processes are selected with reference to the communicative tasks which learners will (either actually or potentially) need to engage in outside the classroom and also with reference to theoretical and empirical insights into those social and psycholinguistic processes which facilitate language acquisition.” (Nunan, 1991: 279)

As Eskey (1992) points further, the older structural syllabus was based on some set of the grammatical forms of a language, as identified by the typical linguistic analysis of forms (phonological, lexical, and morpho-syntactic); but this

newer notional syllabus was based on some notions and functions along with some kind of semantically based text or discourse analysis. This is where those preceding methods had severe disadvantages. Whereas grammar remained the proper object of inquiry during 1960s, with the efforts of a few scholars and especially with the efforts of the sociolinguists, it was understood that not only grammatical sentences were the area of interest but there was also a need for genuine communicative acts. Nunan (1991), too, emphasizes that while students learned how to memorize individual words and grammatical patterns, they were not aware of the underlying strategies behind the classroom tasks as they were not made explicit, so this resulted in instruction which was lacking in focused interaction and which was not directed at the skills that need to be improved. Moreover, Rutherford (1988, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998) states Second Language Acquisition is not a process of accumulating entities. It is further asserted that morpho-syntactic development involves prolonged periods of form-function mapping. Thus it is meant that throughout the process there may certainly be some developmental stages as acquisition is not sudden and categorical but rather involves some developmental patterns.

Before, the advent of the notional syllabus in the 1970s, the subject of syllabus design for language courses barely existed as an issue for concern in the field. The focus was almost on the linguistic items to be taught. After the 1970s through the 1980s, the period witnessed a major paradigm shift in language teaching. Moreover, Europeans were travelling more and sought to build business and personal connections through learning and using the languages of Europe at those times. Language was started to be considered as communication then. The communicative movement sought to move the focus away from grammar as the core component of language to a different view of language, of language learning, of teachers, and of learners, a new focus which considered language as communication and aimed at making the classroom an environment for authentic communication. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Besides, some language specialists, especially the Frenchman F. Gouin (1831- 1896), developed new language teaching methods. Gouin developed an approach to teaching of foreign language based on his observations of children's use of language. According to Gouin, language learning would be much fruitful if

learners used language to accomplish events consisting of a series of related actions. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In the case of Grammar Translation, students can translate from the target language to L1 and usually have a good knowledge of the grammar of the target language - especially if asked to perform on grammar tests. They normally neither speak nor understand the spoken language, nor should they be expected to do so. (Terrell, 1982: 121)

Toward the end of 1950s, the Audio-lingual method gained prominence in the field. Schulz (1999) asserts that previous foreign language teaching methods such as the grammar translation and audio-lingual methods focus predominantly on grammatical form within a sentence-level context or sometimes they do not even focus any meaningful context. Willis (1996) puts forward that learners need more chances to use the target language with each other and this practice is not for the aim of practicing the language but rather to achieve results and thus it is suggested that the teacher dominated initiation, put it differently, the response-feedback pattern needs to be fallen back on less often as it seriously hinders meaningful negotiation. Audio-lingualism became much influential in the 1960s and was exploited in the teaching of foreign languages as well as the teaching of English as a second foreign language. But as it mainly emphasized structure and exploited activities to the exclusion of meaningful ones, sought for decontextualized learning, it was strictly criticized by many practitioners in the field. Moreover, stressing linguistic competence rather than the communicative competence was the main point which discriminated it from other meaning-focused methods.

Students in an Audio-lingual approach usually have excellent pronunciation, can repeat dialogs and use memorized prefabricated patterns in conversation. They can do pattern drills, making substitutions and changing morphemes using various sorts of agreement rules. What they very often can- not do is participate in a normal conversation with a native speaker. (Terrell, 1982: 121)

It is apparent that, Audio-lingualism fails to lay an emphasis on learner and teacher perceptions of classroom aims and events. Long (1973) states that during the rise of ALM, spoken language was overemphasized and people who were dealing with foreign language suffered from rapidly changing theory. Long (1973)

characterizes the time between 1940s and 1970s as a period in which grammar education was reduced to a large extent to improve communication and defends that learners should learn grammar at appropriate levels. ALM severely underestimated the importance of grammar teaching in its aim whereas it was focusing on habit-formation. TBL, on the other hand, includes grammar teaching with a post-task stage after the task as well as providing a subject matter of genuine interest. As Foster (1999) suggests, too, traditionally language learning was regarded as a process in which students had to master each step by succession before moving to another. But, according to recent methodologies in the field language should be taught around a real reason and should involve students employ many things at a time. Further, Willis (1996: 15) suggests that "... students will not necessarily learn what we teach them and when we teach them." Rather, it is suggested that natural learning conditions should be created in the classrooms so that all learners can learn and their differences in terms of aptitude can be catered. As a consequence, this is precisely what task-based learning aims to do.

Other teaching methods were Silent Way, Community Language Learning (CLL) and Suggestopedia. These methods focused on improving oral proficiency in their aims. Despite having some positive aspects in terms of improving fluency and paying attention to humanistic side of learning, they seem to underestimate the linguistic dimensions of language learning and thus fail to lack a linguistic theory.

To cure the inadequacies of these methods, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) flourished in Britain in the 1960s as a replacement to the earlier structural method, called Situational Language Teaching. This was partly in response to Chomsky's criticisms of structural theories of language and partly based on the theories of British functional linguists, such as Firth and Halliday, as well as American sociolinguists, such as Hymes, Gumperz and Labov and the writings of Austin and Searle on speech acts. (Erton, 2006). As a theory of language it is based on the functional language use. CLT regards language as a system for the expression of meaning. It aims to develop learners' ability to use language in real situations as reported by Ellis (2003). The method emphasizes the fact that the primary function

of language is to allow interaction and communication. So, CLT gives equal importance not only to grammatical and structural features but also to functional and communicative meaning. (Littlewood, 1983). Therefore, fluency received equal respect as accuracy. Ellis (2003) also reports Brown and Yule's (1983: 1) terms, which characterize communication as involving the general purposes which are namely *interactional function* and *transactional function*. Interactional function is where the language is used to establish and maintain contact and the transactional function is where language is used referentially to exchange information. As Widdowson (1978) points out within the body of this approach, CLT aims at usage as well as use, students use language to learn it rather than learning language to use it. As Ellis (2003) defends, communicative language teaching aims to make learners use language meaningfully and appropriately in the construction of discourse. Also, taking the path from CLT, the distinction between task-supported teaching and task-based teaching is emphasized.

The distinction between a strong form of CLT parallels the distinction between task-supported language teaching and task-based language teaching. The "weak version" views tasks as a way of providing communicative practice for language items that have been introduced in a more traditional way. They constitute a necessary but not a sufficient basis for a language curriculum. The strong version views tasks as a means of enabling learners to learn language by experiencing how it is used in communication. (Ellis, 2003: 28)

Schulz (1999: 30-31) holds that CLT focuses on the meaning of a message within a given situation and thus realizing that different cultures may have different ways to perform different speech acts in different contexts. On this account, CLT often makes use of language functions or speech acts (e.g., asking questions, apologizing, complimenting, reporting, giving directions, making requests), rather than specific grammatical structures as its organizing principles. Moreover, as authentic texts are exploited within the body of this method, learners have the opportunity to perform interesting and level-appropriate tasks.

CLT is not without its critics, though. Thompson (1996) criticizes CLT on account of the pair works it made use of by stating that there is a strict control on students. For him, it is true that students should be given some degree of control over

their learning since language is a system of choices; but it is asserted that most textbooks even control even the content of what is said at every point throughout the lesson and this condition was far from ideal. He offers an alternative way for use of pair work by stating that, this pair work activities need to be complemented with real choice so that learners can help each other throughout the process. CLT is also criticized on the grounds that it seriously ignores the written language. In TBL, however, students are free of language control when they work in pairs or groups and they are preoccupied with the content of the lesson rather than which form to use. As Willis (1996) suggests these chances constitute learning opportunities.

Likewise, Content Based Instruction (CBI, henceforth), Project Work and Task-Based Instruction attempted to shape principles of CLT to more specific practices. All these methods can be said to be the methodological off springs of CLT and all are founded on the premise that language is learned through using it communicatively. CBI defends that content is a very important dimension in language teaching and thus it organizes language teaching around the content topics or academic subjects. So, through this real language use, speakers do not begin with a list of either forms or functions that they wish to produce but with a subject that they happen to be interested in and would like to learn more, or say something about. (Eskey, 1992). In addition, Rumelhart (1980) notes that, learners do not acquire or store knowledge in the form of random units of facts but in what is known as cognitive structure. Rivers (1983) takes this point further and states that attention plays a major role in comprehension to prove that real processing of language is much better than imitation and cognitive processing plays a major role in interpreting a message. Smith (1975) calls this structure a kind of a picture of the world that every person carries around in their heads to which in one way or other, everything we know is related. This is actually where TBI shares similar characteristics. Ellis (2003) emphasizes that TBL involves cognitive processes such as selecting, classifying, reasoning, sequencing information, deducing new information and transforming information from one form of representation into another. In TBL, prior knowledge is linked to what is learnt. Nunan (1989) mentions tasks as involving learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target

language. For Willis and Willis (1996), too, learners do not immediately convert input into output as they think there are some processes which are hidden and not amenable to teacher control. Learners make hypotheses and generalizations about the language they are learning as a whole. These processes by which the learners operate are natural and thus built-in the learner. So, the fact that reasoning is of vital importance in TBL is also clear from Prabhu's definition of a task. Prabhu (1987) defines a task as an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some processes of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process.

Thus, it can be concluded that both methods are aimed at communication in the target language and activate the cognitive structures in learners' minds by triggering them through specially designed contexts. What distinguishes TBL from content-based, theme based, and experiential learning instruction is that the course objectives are more language based in nature. The objectives do not traditionally focus on grammar or phonology only; but the centrality of functions is maintained to develop students' pragmatic competence. (Brown, 2001). Thus, the aim is to develop both linguistic competence and the communicative competence of the students.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research has focused on strategies and cognitive processes by second language learners. It is argued by Ellis (2003) that the role of formal grammar instruction in language teaching was reassessed and no evidence was found, the type of formal grammar focused teaching activities used in many classrooms reflects the cognitive learning processes. This clearly dictates the need for a cognitive approach. Moreover, Eskey (1992) suggests that the process of language learning is essentially a natural process in which students learn or acquire the language by using it, not by memorizing rules or doing meaningless drills, and by using it to fulfill real communicative needs. Widdowson (1981, cited in Eskey, 1992: 137-138) states, simply, "acquisition and use are essentially the same phenomenon". But according to him, normal use cannot take place unless a subject of genuine interest exists clearly, so it is believed that the poems in this study will provide learners with contexts of genuine interest, thus will involve student use the language on real-like occasions.

Furthermore, Seedhouse (1999) suggests TBL as a beneficial method as it provides variety in the classroom. Based on a database of lesson extracts, Seedhouse (1999) considers task-based instruction more effective than other varieties of classroom interaction as learners employ clarification requests, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and self-repetitions more while they are carrying out tasks and this generates modified interaction, thus the idea that modified interaction must be necessary for language as what Long (1985) associates is supported at this point. Furthermore, Brown (2001) supports the idea by stating that tasks imply several skill areas instead of one and also all skills become subsumed under the rubric of what the students are going to do with the language.

On the other hand, what is lacking in most methods is a real concern for subject matter. According to Nunan (1991) TBL, at this point, is based on the belief that students may learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using. Besides, through TBL, students can encounter the target language items in the kinds of contexts where they naturally occur, with the result that students will have the chance to interact with authentic texts and also experience the language items in interaction with other closely related grammatical and discourse elements. It is clearly a learner-based approach. Kumaravadivelu (2005) mentions two learner-based methods as both of them have been widely recognized in the L2 literature. The first of them is the Natural Approach (NA henceforth). NA was originally proposed by Tracy Terrell at the University of California at Irvine. This method is based on the premise that language is best acquired when the learner's focus is not directly on the language itself. Likewise, Krashen (1985) asserts that language learning is an unconscious process and defends that learned and acquired knowledge remain separated. For Krashen (1985) it is impossible that explicit knowledge may become implicit over time. DeKeyser (2003), on the other hand, argues that although implicit knowledge tends to remain implicit, and explicit knowledge to remain explicit, it is possible that explicit knowledge may become implicit over time contrary to Krashen's claim. "... that explicit learning and practice cannot lead to automatized procedural knowledge, only a dearth of evidence that it can" (DeKeyser, 2003: 329). Terrell (1982: 21)

claims that the following principles on which he thinks language learning can be based;

1. the classroom should be devoted primarily to activities which foster acquisition (activities which promote learning might be assigned as homework)
2. the instructor should not correct student speech errors directly
3. the students should be allowed to respond either in the target language, their native language, or a mixture of the two.

Likewise, the Communicational Approach is based on the belief that grammar construction can take place in the absence of any explicit focus on linguistic focus. This is where a long-term project was initiated by Prabhu, who was an English Studies Specialist at British Council, South India. Reviews of the project that have appeared in the literature call it the Bangalore Project, but actually the project team itself used the name Communicational Teaching Project. (Kumaravadivelu, 2005). The language theory of the Learner-Based Approach rested on four basic premises as Kumaravadivelu (2005: 137) puts it:

1. Language development is incidental, not intentional.
2. Language development is meaning focused, not form focused.
- 3: Language development is comprehension based, not production based.
4. Language development is cyclical and parallel, not sequential and additive.

In TBL, too, students express opinions, greet people or request information. (Brown, 2001). So, it can be said to be a clearly learner-based approach. As learning a language is a natural human accomplishment, no doubt, it involves getting to know something and a person who knows a language should be able to do something with that knowledge, so in short language is purposeful and it is for communication, to carry out meanings. Knowing a language and doing something with that knowledge (competence and performance) has been searched so far and different approaches to language teaching have tended to emphasize one at the expense of the other generally.

“...the so-called ‘structural approach’, focuses attention on knowing. Here items of language, words and sentences, are presented and practised in a way which is intended best to help the learners to internalize them as forms containing meaning within themselves, as semantic capsules... The assumption is, generally speaking, that the primary task of teaching is to impart knowledge and that learners can be left to find out how to do things with it for themselves.” (Widdowson, 1990: 157)

Widdowson (1990, 157- 159) goes on further and severely criticizes this so-called structural approach as it fails to provide learners how to use the language for themselves and adds that it does not allow them to use language in a meaningful way. This structural approach, also, tends to fixate on form for its own sake, “internalize the language system as a separate body of knowledge”.

When the communicative approach is considered, it is clear that it aims to provide learners with the skills about how to do things in the language, how to express concepts and carry out communicative acts of various kinds. According to this approach, as well as teaching pieces of knowledge, it is also possible to teach notions and functions in the same way as structures.

In some books, the word “task” has been used as a label for various activities including grammar exercises, practice activities and role plays. These are not tasks in the sense the word is used in Task-Based Learning. In TBL, tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome in which the emphasis is on exchanging meanings not producing specific language forms. Subject knowledge is learnt in the context of its application. Task and a conventional exercise are distinguished on the grounds that, the former carries a purpose that is understandable and inviting to the learners, while the latter is often for the sake of mastering a certain piece of knowledge or skill. A task would generally involve the learners in an active process of understanding of the purpose and situation and to explore different ways to accomplish the task. Moreover, the outcome of a task is usually more open ended than the case of an exercise. In general the task can provide some room for learners to add their own flavour. In the end, it is hoped that they can feel a stronger

sense of ownership of their own products. There is a clear goal at the end, but this is not just for producing the target form in an accurate way. It is based on the belief that students may learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using. Cohen et al. (1996: 152-153, cited in Tilfarlıoğlu and Başaran, 2007: 138) accepts active learning is task-based and states that in active learning, the teacher assumes the additional role of expert and allows discussion and mutual help between learners, adding that active learning has a cooperative structure. So, the traditional way that teachers have used tasks is as a follow-up to a series of structure/function or vocabulary based lessons. Tasks have been extension activities as part of a graded and structured course. Nevertheless, in TBL, the tasks are central to the learning activity.

For Ellis (2003), tasks are activities that call for primary meaning-focused language use. This seems logical as the task which will be presented will help learners negotiate meaning in the classroom as they study poems. When the methodology of TBL is considered, it, without doubt, offers a lively and process-based learning environment. Students discover the meanings throughout the process by actively experiencing the language to be learned. Willis (1996) claims that in TBL, meaning precedes form as learners are free to use whatever language forms they wish to convey what they mean in order to fulfill the task goals; so it is clear that TBL is goal oriented in nature as students are challenged with achieving a real outcome. TBL is not conformity-oriented but rather the aim is to make students practise the target language items to channel their attention towards meaningful language use. In some books, the word 'task' has been used as a substitute for different kinds of grammar exercises, practice activities and role plays. Within this study, the definition of a task is not in the sense the word has been used so far, but rather it is a cover term for all the activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose and tasks are in the form of poems, so these are namely text-based tasks.

There are several approaches for Task-Based learning. As Ellis (2003: 31-32) notes, one of the earliest proposals for task-based language teaching is that

associated with humanistic language teaching. Humanistic approaches pay attention to individuals' feelings and put them into use by caring for and sharing with others, thereby increase learners' self-esteem and motivation. Moskowitz (1977) presented learners what she called humanistic exercises or humanistic communication activities. Another approach to task-based learning is Prabhu's series of meaning focused activities consisting of pre-tasks, which the teacher completed with the whole class by communicating as noted by Ellis (2003). Then other tasks followed this sequence with the aim of involving students in the process individually to have practice opportunities. As stated by Skehan (2003), Prabhu in the Bangalore Project attempted to develop a viable alternative language teaching methodology for use in difficult circumstances. The focus was not on the form, but on the task outcome. This task difficulty problem was approached by using a pre-task, whose purpose was to present and demonstrate the task, assess its difficulty for the learners in question, adapt the main task if necessary and very importantly by letting the language relevant to the task to come into play. So, as it is clear that TBL is concerned with the issues such as the role of meaning-based activities, the need for more learner centered curricula, the importance of the affective factors, the contribution of learner training and the need for some focus on form as noted by Ellis (2003). According to Prabhu (1984), the major goal of the task should preoccupy the learners and focus on error and on feedback should be avoided and also language learning should be incidental to the transaction of the task itself.

A task-based approach sees the learning process as one of learning through learning- it is by primarily engaging in meaning that the learner's system is encouraged to develop. In each of the activities there is a specified clear outcome, a task is a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome. In other words, learners use whatever target language resources they have in order to solve a problem. While doing tasks, learners are meaning what they say, and focusing on meaning. They are using language to exchange meanings for a real purpose. As Long & Crookes (1991) state tasks have a clear pedagogic relationship to real-world language needs. Thus, learners are free to use whatever language forms they want. Their use of language is purposeful and real. Tilfarlıoğlu and Başaran

(2007: 138) define TBL simply as ‘learning by doing’ or ‘active learning’ in the field of education in general but according to them it has certain specific implications singular to ELT / EFL. Moreover, it is stated that projects, group work, problem solving, workshops and constructivism are some other related instructional applications of TBL. Furthermore, Kumaravadivelu (1991) states that in the context of task-based pedagogy, the learning outcome grows out of a fairly unpredictable interaction between the learner, the task and the task situation.

Therefore, students are creative in TBL. Willis (1990) states that learners’ creativity is a very important element in the learning process since exploiting students’ creativity makes the process much more efficient. There are certain mismatches between student productions and teacher intentions throughout the process and this makes the atmosphere vastly efficient. Kumaravadivelu (1991) also states that these recent trends in L2 pedagogy lay a greater emphasis on learner and teacher perceptions of classroom aims and events thereby increasing the potential misunderstanding and miscommunication. Moreover, the idea that there may be certain advantages of these mismatches is also supported by:

In TBL, syllabus content and instructional processes are selected with reference to the communicative tasks which learners will (either actually or potentially) need to engage in outside the classroom and also with reference to theoretical and empirical insights into those social and psycholinguistic processes which facilitate language acquisition.” (Nunan, 1991: 279)

Ellis (1999), too, accepts TBL as an approach which provides opportunities for the kinds of interaction which are thought to promote acquisition, as well. Ur (1996) makes the point here by stating that tasks are goal-oriented and that makes the learning process more efficient as there is more participation, more motivation and more enjoyment on the part of the learners. On the other hand, Nunan (1991) links TBL to mainstream education by its close relationship to experiential learning. Experiential learning takes the learners’ immediate personal experiences as the point of departure for the learning experience. Such a philosophy is linked to TBL on the grounds that students work cooperatively and enhance each other’s learning by contributing their ideas, expressing their own opinions and feelings and this naturally

results in negotiation of meaning which is largely absent in traditional teacher-fronted classrooms. Nunan (1989) mentions negotiation of meaning by stating that it is sometimes called modified interaction in which students and the teacher work together to determine that they are talking about the same thing. Through these small group and pair works, students learn how to accommodate others' views. At this point, a link has to be made between TBL and constructivist learning. In constructivist learning, learners actively construct their own meaning, they learn with cognitive conflicts, search for meaning, work cooperatively and in contextualized activities. These features clearly resemble the TBL. In constructivism, connecting new ideas into prior knowledge is of vital importance and thus modeling is an important consideration. Muijs and Reynolds (2005: 63-64) emphasize the importance of modeling before carrying out a task. In this way, the teacher provides a reason for doing activities in the classroom. For them, modeling exists in two forms: the first one being behavioral modeling of the overt performance whereas the latter is cognitive modeling of the covert cognitive processes. The cognitive aspect of tasks has been emphasized so far, but it is crucial to state here that attention plays a very important role in learning as stated by Rivers (1983) before. So, meaningful activities are considered as cognitive. According to Muijs and Reynolds (2005), as the teacher does modeling to help them in the learning process, students become independent over time, thus the amount of modeling decreases. This process is known as scaffolding in education and it is one of the basic principles of TBL. Scaffolding dictates the need that at the beginning of the learning process, learners should not be expected to produce language that has not been explicitly taught. During scaffolding, teacher helps students with the tasks that they find difficult to master. Machado de Almeida Mattos (2000, cited in Murphy, 2003) also makes the point by arguing that scaffolding enables learners to extend their language competence by collaborating with more capable peers. According to Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) the features of scaffolding are as follows:

1. recruiting interest in the task
2. simplifying the task
3. maintaining pursuit of the goal

4. marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution
5. controlling frustration during problem solving
6. demonstrating an idealized version of the act to be performed.

In contrast to the Interactionist Position then, scaffolding attends both to the cognitive demands of a task and the affective states of the person attempting the task as stated by Ellis (2003).

Second principle is the task-dependency principle. In the framework of TBL, within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon the ones that have gone before. Next, recycling language maximizes opportunities for learning and activates the organic learning principle. Dr. Pimsleur believed that students of languages would learn better with their ears, as opposed to traditional written formats. Dr. Pimsleur called this *organic learning*, which entails studying grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation simultaneously.

Furthermore, in TBL, instead of relying on students picking up grammar by recognizing patterns in large numbers of sentences, grammar, vocabulary and other aspects of language, these items are taught implicitly. Students have much exposure to the language they are learning; they receive feedback both from the teacher and their peers. They are taught in ways that make clear the relationships between grammatical form, communicative function and semantic meaning. Thus, learners acquire the language by actively using it. According to Swan (2005: 377) intervention is necessary, in order to foster the acquisition of formal linguistic elements while retaining the perceived advantages of a 'natural' approach. Therefore, the concept of reflection is also a very important consideration as learners need opportunities to reflect on what they have grasped throughout the process. In addition, in TBL students focus on learning process as well as content. TBL, also can be thought as an analytic syllabus. Long & Crooks (1991) advocate the use of analytic syllabuses. TBL, like analytic syllabuses present language in naturalistic

units which then have to be operated upon and broken down by the learner, with acquisitional processes that are more engaging with the input that has been received.

Within the body of this study, TBL was chosen to be administered on students as this method has some advantages as McKinnon & Rigby (2008) suggest. Firstly, unlike a PPP approach, the students are free of language control within the body of this method. Secondly, in pre-task, task-cycle and post-task stages, students have the chance to use all their language resources rather than just practicing one pre-selected item. Next, while students carry out tasks, they personalize the content as it is relevant to them. However; with PPP, it is necessary to create contexts in which to present the language and sometimes they can be very unnatural. Moreover, the students will have a much more varied exposure to language with TBL as the interaction is meaningful and students work in pairs and groups. With TBL, they will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms. What is more, unlike a PPP approach; TBL pays attention to learners' needs. These needs dictate what will be covered in the lesson rather than a decision made by the teacher or the course book. As TBL is an offspring of CLT, it is a strong communicative approach where students spend a lot of time communicating naturally and purposefully. Finally, TBL classes are enjoyable, motivating as students use the language to achieve a genuine purpose.

Moreover, Task-based learning is widely applicable as it is suitable for learners of all ages and backgrounds. A natural context is developed from the students' experiences with the language that is personalized and relevant to them. Besides, since they strive to express what they want to say, they are more motivated to absorb the language needed. Hatip (2005) states that the objectives are clear and students can know what they will gain when they complete the task, as well.

Task Types

Willis (1996: 26- 27) mentions six types of tasks that could be adapted for use; these are listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences and creative tasks, defining them as follows:

In '*listing tasks*', students are involved in brainstorming in which they can draw on their own knowledge and experience either as a class or in pairs or groups, and they are also involved in the process of fact-finding where they can find things out by asking each other or other people and referring to books, as well.

In '*ordering and sorting tasks*', students are involved in four main processes; sequencing items, actions or events in a logical or chronological order, ranking items according to personal values or specified criteria, categorizing items in given groups or grouping them under given headings and classifying items in different ways, where the categories themselves are not given.

In '*comparing tasks*', students are involved in the processes of matching to identify specific points and relate them to each other, finding similarities and things in common and finding differences.

In '*problem solving tasks*', learners use their intellectual and reasoning powers, and, though challenging, they are engaging and often satisfying to solve. The processes and time scale will vary enormously depending on the type and complexity of the problem.

'*Sharing personal experience tasks*' encourage learners to talk freely about themselves and share their experiences with others. The resulting interaction is closer to casual social conversation.

'*Creative tasks*' involve learners in pairs or groups in some kind of freer creative work. This type of task has more stages compared to some other tasks and involves a combination of all the tasks stated above.

According to Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993), tasks are categorized into these groups: jigsaw, information-gap, problem-solving, decision-making and opinion exchange tasks.

In '*jigsaw tasks*', learners combine different pieces of information to form a whole. Learners are given different parts of information to involve them in meaningful discussion. '*Information-gap*' exercises require learners negotiate and find out the other party's information in order to complete an activity as both groups have one set of the information. By negotiating they have a complementary set of information in the end. '*Problem solving tasks*' require the learners to arrive at a solution and there is generally a single resolution of the outcome. '*Decision-making tasks*', on the other hand, requires learners to choose one outcome out of a number of possible ones by negotiation and discussion. Lastly, '*opinion exchange tasks*' involve learners in discussion and exchange of ideas, but they do not necessarily reach an agreement.

Nunan (2001) describes task types by relying on different criteria by naming them as *pedagogic* and *real-world* tasks. Pedagogic tasks are communicative tasks which prompt learners towards the use of language in the classroom to achieve some instrumental or instructional goal. Real world tasks, on the other hand, require students to borrow the target language that is used outside the classroom.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 31- 34) offer a different task typology. Actually, this typology is employed to learn about learner language. These are communicative 'gap' tasks, open role plays, text reconstruction tasks, picture composition tasks and lastly oral interviews.

The so-called '*communicative gap tasks*' are discriminated as information-gap tasks and opinion-gap tasks, a discrimination that is similar to Pica, Kanagy and Falodun's (1993). It is offered that these two kinds of tasks differ from each other in a number of ways. Firstly, information-gap tasks involve exchange of information whereas opinion-gap tasks involve learners going beyond the information given by supplying their own ideas. Secondly, in information-gap tasks, the information which is provided is split, which means that students do not all have the same information while in an opinion-gap task it is shared. Thirdly, in information-gap tasks information exchange is necessary to complete the task whereas in opinion-gap tasks

sharing information is optional. Moreover, information-gap tasks can also be distinguished according to whether they involve one-way or two-way communication between participants. In one-way-tasks, there is a one-way exchange of information whereas in two-way tasks, the information is shared among participants.

'Open-role plays' involve the learners negotiate and thus foster their interaction by communication. This can be via information about a particular situation or role play cards which serve as their purpose for communicating each other. In an open role play task, learners are free to interact in the way they wish and this provides them with a space to communicate freely and interact in a real way.

A *'text-reconstruction task'* is different from the task types in terms of the logic behind it. In text-reconstruction tasks, learners listen to or read a text and then this text is removed to make learners remember and reconstruct the text in their own words. The assumption underlying this type of task is that while learners are processing to reconstruct the text for meaning, they focus on the propositional content rather than the linguistic items to encode the content. Thus, it is supposed that when learners are asked to reconstruct the text, they are forced to draw on their linguistic resources unconsciously and this in turn provides them with a real reason to negotiate about the text.

'Picture composition task' aims at production from learners by using pictures or a short video film. This type of task, like a reproduction task, can be used to investigate oral or written narratives. The basic procedure is that students are shown a picture composition/ video and then asked to retell the story in their own words.

Finally, *'oral interviews'* are employed to obtain content information about learners as well as samples learner language providing, of course, the L2 serves as the medium of communication during the interview.

Table 1: Task Typology according to Different Designers in the Field

Task Designer	Task Types
Willis (1996)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. listing 2. ordering 3. sorting 4. comparing 5. problem solving 6. sharing personal experiences 7. creative tasks
Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. jigsaw 2. information-gap 3. problem-solving 4. decision-making 5. opinion exchange tasks
Nunan (1989)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Pedagogic 2. Real-world
Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. communicative ‘gap’ tasks 2. open role plays 3. text reconstruction tasks 4. picture composition tasks 5. oral interviews

Richards & Rodgers (2001: 234- 235), too, offer other task typology within the tasks as follows:

1. One-way or two-way: It concerns whether the task involves a one-way exchange of information or a two-way exchange.
2. Convergent or divergent: It concerns whether the students achieve a common goal or several different goals.
3. Collaborative or competitive: It concerns the way whether the students collaborate to carry out a task or compete with each other on a task.
4. Single or multiple outcomes: It concerns whether there is a single outcome or many different outcomes are possible.

5. Concrete or abstract language: It concerns whether the task involves the use of concrete language or abstract language.
6. Simple or complex processing: It concerns whether the task requires relatively simple or complex cognitive processing.
7. Simple or complex language: It concerns whether the linguistic demands of the task are relatively simple or complex.
8. Reality-based or not reality-based: It concerns whether the task involves a real-world activity or is a pedagogical activity not found in the real world.

According to Long (1989), tasks can be classified into three categories in terms of their outcomes as follows: (1) open task (divergent) vs. close task (convergent), (2) one-way task vs. two-way task, (3) planned task vs. unplanned task.

Ellis (2003: 89-90) mentions open tasks, unlike closed tasks, as having no predetermined solutions. Making choices, debates, surveys, ranking activities and free discussions are open in nature and they do not require the learner to arrive at a specific outcome. Closed tasks, on the contrary, are strictly structured when compared to open tasks and learners are expected to reach a specific outcome at the end. An information-gap task is closed in nature, for instance, as it requires a learner to reach a single, correct solution or a set of unique outcomes. Long (1989) argues that closed tasks are more likely to promote negotiation as students have to persevere when they are coping with a challenge throughout the process rather than skipping that part as in the case of an open task. Skehan (2003) on the other hand offers a different point of view in terms of task outcomes. For him, tasks will either be convergent or divergent in terms of goal orientation. Convergent tasks are where all the learners have the same goals in order to reach as regards outcome and divergent tasks are where all the learners will have different goals.

One-way task or two-way tasks (e.g. a presentation vs. a debate) concerns the exchange of information by one learner or two learners, jointly. Long (1989)

defends that two-way tasks are better than one-way tasks in terms of more negotiation work and more useful negotiation work.

The final categorization of tasks based on outcomes relates to the case of planned and unplanned tasks. Planned tasks are where learners have time to consider both the content and the structure of the work they prepare. Thus, this type of task provides the learners with more thinking time, organization and focus on different components of a work prior to carrying out the task. Foster (cited in Willis & Willis, 1996), carried out a study on planning time, and it was found that planning time allowed learners to devote attention to both form and content rather than forcing them to choose one at the expense of the other and unplanners tended to rely on a strictly syntactic range. Moreover, Bygate (cited in Willis & Willis, 1996) defends that planning increases the variety, complexity and fluency of the learner's use of language. Crookes (1989) also reported that planning time was associated with greater complexity of syntax and a wider variety of lexis.

Finally, Skehan (1996: 36) concludes that there are many studies which are more specific in their analysis of tasks such as Prabhu (1987) who is in favour of reasoning-gap tasks, and Berwick (1993) who contrasts two dimensions – experiential- expository, and didactive-collaborative.

Table 2: Task Classification Based on Their Outcomes

Richards and Rodgers (2001)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. one-way or two-way 2. convergent or divergent 3. collaborative or competitive 4. single or multiple outcomes 5. concrete or abstract language 6. simple or complex processing 7. simple or complex language 8. reality-based or not reality-based
Long (1989)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. open task vs. close task 2. one -way task vs. two-way task 3. planned vs. unplanned task

Goals in Task-Based Instruction

Skehan (1996: 46) states that a general goal in foreign language learning can be identified as “becoming more native-like in one’s performance” and distinguishes learner goals in terms of three main areas as accuracy, fluency and complexity.

The first goal, namely accuracy, relates to the use of language in a rule-governed way. (Kasap, 2006). It is stated by Bialystock (1981) that learners formulate two distinct kinds of knowledge, “explicit” and “implicit”. Whereas the former concerns to knowledge which can be analyzed and is abstract, the latter refers to knowledge which is inherent in the learner, intuitive and procedural. This kind of knowledge is not consciously available to learners. The desired position to be adopted lies between these two kinds of knowledge. It is suggested that formal instruction should be provided to check if the learning outcomes are measured, so in this way learners are able to draw on their explicit knowledge. Spada (1987, cited in Fotos and Ellis: 1991) suggests that formal instruction should be linked with opportunities for natural communication to promote acquisition. Further, there is ample evidence that learners who are pushed or challenged to produce language in

public will strive harder to improve and reach a higher level of accuracy. (Skehan and Foster, as cited in Willis, 1996). Besides a focus on fluency, accuracy should be dealt with in language acquisition and language practice. Willis (1996) also states that meaning precedes form in TBL as learners should feel free to experiment with the language on their own and to take risks so fluency in communication matters more than anything at initial stages, but in the later stages of framework accuracy does matter. This latter stage presents a very real linguistic challenge.

The second goal fluency relates to how well learners can achieve spoken fluency and express themselves in real occasions. Skehan & Swain (2001) distinguishes between language activating / fluency stretching tasks and knowledge-constructing tasks. Language activating / fluency stretching tasks aim to maximize opportunities for negotiation of meaning around topics with a potential to engage. Thus, fluency is related to how well learners can mobilize their IL system to communicate meanings in real time. Moreover, adjusting speech rate, pausing, rephrasing, hesitation and redundancy are key factors for attaining language proficiency. (Skehan, 1996). It is suggested that an adequate level of fluency is necessary to deal with difficult levels of interaction and further opportunities for learning and also if learners find it difficult to express their opinions in real time it leads to dissatisfaction. (Larsen- Freeman & Long, 1991). Besides, Candlin (2001) believes that output practice is needed to enable learners to cope with the demands of the target language in order to integrate it into their existing systems. Ellis (2003), too, supports that tasks provide students with the use of language structures and items through collaboration with others. Poor fluency may seriously affect the output of learners by putting limits on interaction patterns, thus this may cause dissatisfaction both on the part of the speaker and the interlocutor. Poor fluency may also be caused by individual factors such as general shyness, feelings of inadequacy of one's ideas, production anxiety, or fear of risk- taking. On the other hand, learners may rely too much on accuracy and thus this may have a negative effect on fluency as well.

The third goal, complexity is concerned with the process by which the inter-language system of the learners becomes more elaborate, complex and structured. (McLaughlin, 1990). Willis (1996: 22) defines restructuring as the process which enables the learner to produce progressively more complex language and adds that all these three goals must be balanced in the classroom. It is suggested that one goal must not be overemphasized at the expense of others and attention should be divided between them as effectively as possible.

The Instructional Phases of TBL Framework

For Task-based learning, different sequencing frameworks have been proposed by different researchers to carry out a task-based lesson. (Ellis, 2003; Lee, 2000; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). Ellis (2003) points out that in addition to getting learners to do a set of tasks and preparing appropriate work plans for each task to carry out in the classroom, decisions have to be taken regarding the methodological procedures for executing the work plans in the classroom and it is asserted that the design of a task-based lesson involves consideration of the stages or components of a lesson which has a task as its principal component. Willis (1996), too, points out that if learners carried out tasks and then moved to another by themselves, they would become quite experts at doing tasks, yet would develop fluency more at the expense of accuracy. For this reason, it is suggested that the framework of the method should include some steps to improve learners' learning and promote constant learning. In the same way Willis & Willis (1996) suggest that it is of vital importance how a task is implemented and they hold that this has a strong effect on task value. >Therefore, it is clear that methodology is considered as an important issue. Thus it is certain that as well as the task itself, the methodological considerations about how to execute the method in the classroom are a crucial step.

It is suggested by Willis (1996) that the framework consists of three phases which are 'pre-task', 'task cycle' and 'language focus.' Ellis (2003); however, names the chronology of a task based lesson as 'pre-task', 'during task' and 'post-task'. Skehan & Swain (2001) on the other hand, employ a completely different term for the implementation of a task-based lesson. The three basic components which are

included in the framework are 'input data', 'operations on data' and 'outcomes' and it is further pointed out that this meaning, form, and meaning progression cycle seeks to manage shifts as learners are involved in the task as it unfolds.

The TBL framework strictly differs from the traditional teaching methods in terms of the sequencing of the instructional steps in language teaching. In traditional methods, teacher firstly presents the target item to be learned, thus form precedes meaning. Doughty & Williams (1998) point out that traditional methods fail to teach discrete lexical, grammatical, or notional- functional items one at a time as learners do not acquire new forms or rules suddenly. Rather, it is asserted that progress in a second language is not unidirectional and thus lengthy periods are required as there are inherent developmental stages within the body of the language learning period. Besides, Willis & Willis (1996) suggest that the task-based framework differs from a PPP cycle as the focus on the language comes at the last stage, so the task itself is central to the framework rather than the language to be taught. In a typical PPP lesson, students are asked to complete a controlled practice stage, where learners have to repeat target items through choral and individual drilling, fill gaps or match halves of sentences. Therefore, all of this teacher controlled practice puts the burden on the learners and tries to guarantee that student uses the language correctly and becomes comfortable with the new language. In TBL; however, learning is seen as a cyclical process integrating immediate experience, reflection, conceptualization and action of the learner. For this reason it is linked to experiential learning. In other words, learners begin with a holistic experience of language use, later they end up with looking closer at a linguistic feature. As Willis (1996: 24) states learners are free to choose whatever language forms they wish to convey what they mean, in order to fulfill, as well as they can, the task goals in TBL. Lastly, learners are focusing on meaning while they are carrying out tasks. Practice or the display of the target forms cannot be named as tasks within TBL, as tasks require learners to achieve an actual outcome and learners strive for exchanging real meanings.

In the model of Task-based learning described by Jane Willis (1996), the traditional presentation, practice, production (PPP) lesson is reversed. The students start with the task. When they have completed it, the teacher draws attention to the

language used, making corrections and adjustments to the students' performance. The framework of TBL is divided into three basic steps, despite some stages being optional. It should be borne in mind that the framework of TBL is flexible and the length of the stages depends on factors such as task familiarity, cognitive demands of the task and student needs and also the framework can be split between two lessons in the form of homework or as a report to be presented in the following lesson.

Table 3: Ellis' Framework for Designing Task-based Lessons

Phase	Examples of options
A. Pre-task	- Framing the activity (e.g. establishing the outcome of the task) - Planning time - Doing a similar task
B. During task	- Time pressure - Number of participants
C. Post-task	- Learner report - Consciousness-raising - Repeat task

Table 4: Willis' Task-Based Learning Framework

Components of a TBL Framework
<p>PRE-TASK PHASE Introduction to topic and task Teacher explores the topic with the class, highlights useful words and phrases, and helps learners understand task instructions and prepare. Learners may hear a recording of others doing a similar task, or read part of a text as a lead in to a task.</p> <p>TASK CYCLE -Task -Planning -Report</p> <p>LANGUAGE FOCUS -Analysis -Practice</p> <p>Sometime after completing this sequence, learners may benefit from doing a similar task with a different partner.</p>

(Willis, 1998).

Pre-task Phase

Willis (1996: 42-49) describes pre-task phase as the shortest stage in the framework. Pre-task phase sets up the task to be carried out in the lesson and if a course book or resource book is used, there will not be much advance preparation to do the task, but if the teacher prepares his/ her own tasks it may seem to involve much preliminary work but it should be borne in mind that the same tasks can be used again with different classes.

The first step at the pre-task stage is helping learners define the topic area. This step focuses on meaning and tries to help students negotiate meaning. The second step is to help students remember or activate priorly learned words and phrases that may be useful during task cycle or outside the classroom. Alternatively, topic-related words which are unfamiliar to students can also be taught at this stage. The aim is not to expand students' word knowledge or teach one particular grammatical structure at this stage, but rather to boost their confidence. Unfamiliar vocabulary is taught to provide learners with some necessary knowledge before the task so that they can fall back on at later stage when they need. Pre-task activities actively involve all students in the task, give them relevant exposure and most importantly create interest in doing the task. At this stage, teacher can make students classify words and phrases, do odd one out activity- that is insert one item which does not fit a set of words or phrases, match phrases to pictures, do memory challenges by using pictures, ask them to brainstorm and make mind maps, lead them to think of questions to ask or want ask them recount a similar experience by giving instructions. The third step in the pre-task phase is to specify the task outcomes and to ensure that students know what they are expected, what the goals of the task are and what the task involves. It is suggested that classroom instructions should be clear so that students can feel secure about doing the task as instruction-giving is a truly communicative use of the target language. Giving instruction is a source of communicative use of the target language and it is asserted that students' first language should not be fallen back on unless there is a communication breakdown which may interfere students' learning. It is asserted that although the learners'

language is weak at this stage, trying to talk in a small group or in public provides them with a crucial learning opportunity.

Ellis (2003: 244-249), on the other hand, defends that the pre-task phase is to cater learners' needs in ways that will promote acquisition. Different alternatives are presented to prepare students to perform a task. The first option is to perform a similar task. The original pre-task phase included the interaction of questions-and-answers. In this activity, the task is divided into smaller, manageable sets so that learners can reach the expected outcome step by step. This guided pre-task activity is to scaffold learners' learning and help them self-regulate themselves to perform the task on their own by using a set of graded questions. The second option for a pre-task stage is to provide a model. Via observing a model, learners do not perform a task; rather they observe how a task is carried out. This way the cognitive load on the learner is reduced. Moreover, a model can be exploited to raise learners' consciousness about specific features of the task performance such as communication problems that can hinder understanding. Other than these, non-task activities can also be exploited to reduce the cognitive load or the linguistic demands on the learner. Alternatively, learners' content schemata can be activated to familiarize them with the task and activate their background knowledge related to the task. Mind maps or brainstorming can sharpen learners' processing and also help them formulate their language needed to express their ideas. Finally, learners can be given time to plan how they will perform the task. Ellis (2005: 3) again states that pre-task planning is divided into rehearsal and strategic planning. Rehearsal provides the learners with an opportunity to perform the task before carrying out the main task. With rehearsal learners have the chance to practice the main task but as a preparation. Strategic planning, on the other hand, prepares learners to perform the task by considering the content they will need to encode and how to express this content. It is also suggested that in pre-task planning learners have access to the actual task materials and this distinguishes strategic planning from other types of pre-task activity. The essential role of strategic planning is studied by many researchers in the field. Several of these studied have presented that if learners do strategic planning before performing the task, the fluency of learners are fostered. (Foster, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996). Foster (1996) supports that if the task to be carried

out is more challenging, then strategic planning fosters fluency of learners and learners may attempt to use more complex language and attend to accuracy more. Moreover, Foster and Skehan (1996) come to a conclusion that familiarity with the task plays a crucial role as tasks which are based on personal, more immediate information are easier, than those which involve less familiar and more remote information.

Task-Cycle Phase

Willis (1996: 52-60) emphasizes the flexibility of the task-based framework by defending that task cycle was the only necessary element of the framework. It is asserted that this task cycle offers a holistic use of language as learners use whatever language they have for the sake of completing the task and improve their language. Feedback from the teacher is received either at the planning stage during the task or while planning their reports of the task. Besides they receive exposure at different points throughout the task while they are relating the task into their own experiences or while they are reading a text.

This cycle has three components, which are *task, planning and report*. At *the task stage*, students carry out the task either in small groups or pairs while the teacher monitors from a distance, encouraging all attempts for the sake of promoting their fluency, not correcting. So, as mistakes are not damaging their performance, learners feel a sense of freedom and experiment with the language without hesitation.

The second step in task-cycle is *planning*. At this stage, learners try to be accurate intrinsically as they prepare a report which shows how they carried out the task, what things they discovered and learned in public. So, the teacher helps them with the language they use at this stage by giving advice on the language they use.

The last step is *report*. At this stage, reports are presented in class, or alternatively they can be exchanged or the results can be compared. Teacher, at this point, acts as a chairperson, only commenting on the content of the learners' papers.

Ellis (2003: 249-258); however, names the stage as during-task phase and takes two basic kinds into consideration to carry out a lesson at during-task phase. The first type relates to how the task is studied before the actual performance of the task and thus planned by the teacher. These relate to 'task performance factors'. The second type, however, refers to 'process options' which concerns how the teacher and learners perform the task and make decisions throughout the during-task stage.

Task performance factors include three different options. The first option concerns the time allowed to students to undertake the task at during-task phase. The more time they are allowed, the more complex and accurate language they produce. (Ellis & Yuan, 2003). So, it is suggested that students should not be restricted by strict time limits. However, Lee (2000) is in favour of setting strict time limits. The second task performance option is related to the access to the input data and it is concerned with whether the learners should have access to the input data or not at during-task stage. Lastly, the third option concerns the introducing of a surprise element into the task, but it is asserted that whether including such an element promotes accuracy, complexity and fluency of learners' language is not certain and it lacks a theoretical base.

The process options, on the other hand, differ from task performance options in the sense that process options need to be dealt with while the task is being carried out as the discourse arising from the task is transacted throughout the task-cycle. Long & Crookes (1991) state the common belief about TBL is that learners need plenty of opportunity to develop their comprehension abilities prior to producing it, as acquisition of any linguistic structure is not instant. Ellis (2003) also points out that throughout the learning process, learners should forget where they are and why they are studying the tasks and the lesson should constantly require learners negotiate about the content so that they can learn subconsciously. Task-based pedagogy leads learners to the kinds of risk-taking behaviour also, but in natural ways. Moreover, in TBL language is seen as a tool to communicate, whereas in traditional view language is seen as an object that needs to be treated. It is for this reason that learners cannot internalize and use the target language as well as native speakers. Besides in TBL, scaffolding aims to enable learners to reflect themselves in the way they want.

However, Seedhouse (1999) criticizes TBL on account of several factors and states that TBL cannot match these ideals sometimes. It is illustrated how some tasks can constrain the turn-taking system on some occasions, how some learners tend to depend more on pidginization as a result of relying on topic comment constructions. He also criticizes TBL on account of the learners' tendency to produce indexical interaction which is context-bound and inexplicit to any outsider. Clearly, it is certain that learners' performance while they are performing tasks needs to be monitored carefully by the teacher so that their inter-language development throughout the process can be examined. As Ellis (2003) sums up there is no prescription for process options, but just the kinds of ideal process can be presented so that learners can strive for them. These are;

1. Discourse that is essentially conversational in nature
2. Discourse that encourages the explicit formulation of messages.
3. Opportunities for students to take linguistic risks.
4. Occasions where the task participants focus implicitly and/ or explicitly on specific linguistic forms.
5. Shared goals for the task
6. Effective scaffolding of the participants' efforts to communicate in the L2. (Ellis, 2003: 258)

Post-Task Phase

Batstone (1994: 97) divides post task phase into two main steps which are *public performance* and *reflection*. As a first step, previously studied task which includes time, topic and context-gap regulation in small groups or pairs is performed publicly. As learners gain fluency and confidence from studying in small groups during main task, they perform the task in front of the whole class and it is assumed that at this stage learners attend to accuracy and quality of their speech more as they studied the task beforehand at task-cycle stage along with the content and as they are exposed to a whole class regulation at this step. The second step in post-task cycle is that learners reflect on the language they used throughout the task-cycle and they consider main improvements.

Willis & Willis (1996: 58) name the stage as language focus. They however, divide the post-task phase into two steps which are analysis and practice. At the analysis stage, learners explore the target language; develop an understanding about certain aspects of syntax, collocations and lexis. This analysis stage is to help learners systematize the aspects of language they observed at the task-cycle and clarify concepts and notice new things. At the practice stage, practice activities based on the analysis work are conducted. These activities may range from choral repetition of the phrases identified and classified to dictionary reference work on new words from text or transcript. Alternatively, learners can play memory challenge games or make sentence completion activities which are set by one team for another.

Ellis (2003: 258-260) on the other hand, states that the post-task phase can be presented in three optional ways and these are: (1) providing an opportunity for a repeat performance of the task, (2) encouraging reflection on how the task was performed; and (3) encouraging attention to form, in particular to those forms that proved problematic to the learners when they performed the task. The post-task phase is divided into three steps which are repeat performance, reflecting on the task and focusing on forms. At the repeat performance step, learners are asked to repeat a task on the basis of the idea that when learners repeat a task, they will become more fluent, their production will be more complex and propositions will be expressed more clearly. Reflecting on the task, on the other hand, is based on the idea that when learners present a report, they have the chance to evaluate what they did throughout the main task and what things they discovered. Lastly, the focus on forms stage, similar to Willis's practice stage, aims to develop accuracy along with fluency, thus form rather than function is studied at this stage.

CHAPTER 5

LITERATURE REVIEW

This part will cover the previous research on Task-Based Learning in relation to different factors by following a historical order starting with the recent studies.

RESEARCH ON TBL

Soyaslan (2008) investigated to what extent the traditional method and task-based teaching differ in foreign language achievement of the 6th grade learners. The intervention group consisted of 16 students and the control group consisted of 16 students, too. Firstly, the researcher gave a pre-test to a total of 32 students to measure their English level. No significant difference was found between the scores of pre-test. Pre-test / post-test design with control group was used within the body of this research. After almost a three months period of treatment, the study showed that there was a significant difference between the post-test scores of each group. This meant that TBL was more effective in foreign language achievements of learners.

Similarly, Kasap (2005) carried out a study which aimed to explore the effectiveness of Task-Based instruction in improving students' speaking skills besides exploring student and teacher perceptions of TBI. Two groups participated in this study, one being the control group whereas the other was the intervention group. There were 45 students in total. Oral pre-tests / post-tests were administered to both classes. The intervention group was given a questionnaire after each of 11 weeks' treatment. Moreover, oral pre / post interviews were administered to explore teachers' perceptions. T-tests were run to compare the improvement between groups and to analyze the improvement within groups.

The results demonstrated that there was no significant difference in any of the comparisons in terms of speaking proficiency. However, it was found out that students' general perceptions of task-based instruction were positive, and also

interviews with the study teacher also yielded to positive results. Furthermore, the questionnaire results showed that students had neutral or partially positive reactions to the treatment of tasks but found these helpful in developing their speaking skills throughout treatment period.

Kurt (2004) investigated the effects of Task-based Instruction on 6th grade students' vocabulary learning and reading/writing proficiency in the foreign language and on their attitudes towards language learning. It was found that the Task-based Instruction integrated into regular English classes produced statistically significant differences in learners' retention of the target vocabulary items as well as their ability to use these words accurately in new contexts. Another finding of the study was that the intervention group learners outperformed the control group learners on reading and writing tasks. Moreover, the results revealed that learners retained their pre-existing positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language and they developed an appreciation for the Task-based Instruction to which they were exposed to in the classroom. Hence, the results of the study indicated that Task-based Instruction can be utilized as an effective language teaching approach in young learner classes.

In a case study Ahmed (2003) discusses the use of TBL in designing a syllabus for an oral communication skills course in an academic setting. A case study was presented in the intensive English program and the program was found to be very successful in achieving its goals. The researcher concluded that the success of learners could be attributed to TBL, which strongly emphasizes the functional use of language.

Mori (2002) examined the sequential development a talk-in-interaction which was observed in a small group activity in a Japanese language classroom. Although the group work required learners to engage in a discussion with the native speakers invited to the class, the interaction was rather like a structured interview as the students successively asked questions and received feedback from native speakers in a controlled way. There was an exchange of information, though. The study aimed to explore the relationship between task-based instruction, the students' reaction to the instruction during their pre-task, planning and the actual task stage where students

talked to the native speakers. The results demonstrated that a more natural and coherent discussion was performed by the students and the plans contributed to the development of the talk.

Mor-Mutlu (2001) conducted a study to make comparison between two types of teaching, task-based teaching and presentation-practice-production. The researcher aimed to find out which model for grammar teaching was more effective on student achievement in the learning of two different grammatical structures: 'passive voice' and 'present perfect tense'. Besides, pre-tests / post-test, the participants were also given a delayed test to see the effectiveness of the method within the body of this research. The results demonstrated that both types of instruction were effective in teaching the target structures, but TBL was significantly more effective in the learning of 'present perfect tense' in the long term. Moreover, for the second target structure 'passive voice', TBL was found to be more effective in the short term, but both groups were found to be equally effective in the long term.

Hadley (2000) analyzed the learning needs of the students at Nagaoka National College of technology and as a result of this analysis discussed the criteria of language teaching materials. It was found that TBL approach was helpful in meeting the needs of the students for Science and Technology and this provided a framework for the implementation of Task-Based Learning.

Mackey (1999) conducted a study to observe the effects of input and interaction on second language development. The study aimed to find an answer to the question, "can conversational interaction facilitate second language development?" The study was of pre-test and a post-test design. Thirty-four ESL learners with varying L1 backgrounds were divided into four intervention groups and one control group within the body of this study.

They were taught according to the principles of TBL and took part in task-based interaction. Their active participation in interaction and the developmental level of the learner were taken into consideration. The results of the study support the claims which concern a link between interaction and grammatical development and also highlight the importance of active participation in the interaction.

Storch (1998) reported the results of a study which was carried out on thirty tertiary ESL learners, at intermediate and advanced levels. These learners engaged in text reconstruction task and this task required learners to work in groups and reconstruct a text from given content words by the teacher. It was found that a text reconstruction task could be used with students with varying levels of proficiency by carefully choosing a text, and the function words to be omitted to suit the task into the proficiency of learners. Such kinds of tasks seem particularly appropriate for more advanced learners as they have the chance to see beyond the sentence boundary and see the text as a whole semantic unit rather than as a sentence only.

Foster (1996) investigated the effects of language planning on students' oral production and using tasks that any EFL teacher would be able use in classroom. Three tasks were chose for this study and those included a personal information exchange task, a narrative task and a decision-making task by reasoning that each task would require a different level of attention from the learners. Eight students from each of four intermediate level classes at Richmond Adult and Community College participated in the study, making a total of 32 students. They were aged between 18 and 30 and had a very wide range of different language backgrounds. All the participants aimed to pass the Cambridge First Certificate examination.

The students were asked to do one task a week for three weeks during a normal scheduled class, each time working with the same partner and they did the tasks in a different order to eliminate any effect that the practice may have had. Two of the class groups acted as control groups and did the tasks after only a brief introduction to ensure that the students understood what was expected of them. The other two task groups received the same brief introduction and were given ten minutes individual planning time. To ensure that they used this time for task planning, they were asked to write brief notes. The results were discussed according to five different criterias, namely to fluency, syntactic variety, syntactic complexity, accuracy and syntactic variety. It was found that task done without planning time is more likely to lead to students choosing relatively undemanding language. Moreover, there are more chances for them to rely on readily available vocabulary rather than trawling the less easily accessed parts of their lexicon. The results also showed that

the students with no planning time are very much more likely to pause frequently and at length. All these effects are stronger on tasks that are cognitively more demanding as students do not have the attentional resources sufficient to deal with the difficulties of both language content and language form at the same time.

Ellis (1995) studied an alternative approach to the teaching of grammar by suggesting that inter-language development can be influenced by manipulating input rather than output. So, the approach he looked for was based on interpreting the received input of the learner. The result showed that interpretation tasks, which help learners attend to specific grammatical features of the target language in the input, offered a promising type of tasks among other methods of grammar instruction.

Fotos (1993) carried out a study to explore the amount of learner noticing produced by two types of consciousness-raising treatments which were designed to develop formal knowledge of problematic grammar structures, teacher-fronted grammar lessons and interactive, problem-solving tasks. The frequency of noticing the target structure in a communicative environment after the treatment of the intervention group was compared after one and two weeks with a control group which was not exposed any kind of grammar consciousness activity. It was found that, to promote the significant amount of noticing, task performance was as effective as formal instruction and this was based on the data obtained from the comparison between the control group and the intervention group.

Summary of Studies in the Field

So far many studies comparing the effectiveness of traditional methods of language instruction; teacher fronted instruction and task based instruction have been mentioned. What all of these studies suggest in common is that both teacher-fronted instruction and task-based instruction are effective. But task-based instruction has been found to be more effective in the retention of grammar instruction in the long term as exemplified by Mor-Mutlu (2001). Also, Kasap (2005) concluded that task-based instruction was found to be effective for improving students' speaking proficiency. There are also other studies mentioned above, and some of which suggest that task-based instruction also enhances students' noticing the target

language items easily. It is also suggested that students learning through TBL see the boundaries beyond sentence level; furthermore a more natural and coherent discussion is performed by learners when they learn through TBL. TBL facilitates language learning and is thought to be effective in language learning in general.

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY

In this part, the model of the research will be explained in addition to the data collection instruments, the procedure, data collection and the analysis techniques.

THE MODEL OF THE RESEARCH

There are many different types of experiments. Most are quite different from the common stereotype. All experimental research, however, has several elements in common. One of the most obvious is the division of the subjects into groups (control, intervention, etc.). Another is the use of a treatment (usually the independent variable) which is introduced into the research context or manipulated by the researcher. (Baker, 1997). Some questions and hypotheses to be searched from different sources, and a set of such interrelated hypotheses which construct a theory can be dealt with for research by testing these hypotheses in a controlled context. This type of research is called as an experimental one since it requires an experiment to be carried out. Experimental research is analytic and deductive and it needs to be carefully constructed in order to control and manipulate the variables, the treatment and the measurement of the treatment. In an experimental study, participants are generally formed into two groups, to whom specified and controlled treatments are given. These groups can be either natural or constructed specifically for the experiment. Then, the effects of the treatment are studied.

In this study, the Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design was used. According to Kaptan (1998), this Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design as research study is an *experimental design* in that there is a degree of randomization, use of a control group, and therefore greater internal validity. It is one of the earliest experimental study designs and also an improvement on pre-experimental designs in that one can determine whether there is a change in the participants' behaviours and

in the outcomes after treatment and thus it decreases the chances of interference of other factors. Thus, there is considerable confidence that any differences between treatment group and control group are due to intervention. The logic of the experimental method is to begin with two identical or equivalent groups of individuals and to do something to the members of the one group. Since the groups are the same to begin with, any differences seen between the groups afterwards must be due to whatever it was that researcher did to members of one of the groups. The experiment is the most highly controlled of the research designs. Kaptan (1998) stresses that in a study in which this design is used, the errors of effects that result from testing, data collection tools or time can be avoided as these effects or errors can be controlled by the researcher. Even though there may be some errors, the results will not be erroneous as the effects will be the same in both groups. An important source of this control comes from the way experiments are set up, with various groups being subjected to different conditions. The division of subjects into conditions allows a number of comparisons to be drawn, each of which gives the researcher information about a facet of the research situation, such as the experimental stimulus, the pre-test, or the passage of time. For each factor you want to assess, you would have one group that is subjected to the factor and one that is not. The groups that are not subjected to the various factors are control groups. It is clear that not much can be concluded from one-point-in-time studies of a single group. It is much better to have a comparison. After the experimentation period ended, with the pretest-posttest design, the researcher can look at comparison to see if there is any difference over time for the control group.

THE POPULATION AND THE SAMPLE OF THE STUDY

The population of the study included the learners attending the morning classes of Intermediate courses at D.E.U. School of Foreign Languages. Thirty-one intermediate students in the School of Foreign Languages at Dokuz Eylül University participated in this study. All the students were between the ages of 18-24. When the study was carried out they were studying in the spring term of the academic year, 2007-2008, in the School of Foreign Languages. At Dokuz Eylül University, students are taught in classes which are made up students from different educational

backgrounds and different faculties. They are given a placement test at the beginning of the academic year and they are placed into different classes based on the scores obtained in the placement test. In the spring term, students' average grades taken from the skills and sub-skills throughout all academic year determine whether they can pass their classes or not.

The researcher taught two classes who were found to be Intermediate students according to the placement test which was carried out by the institution at the beginning of the year. The control group consisted of 15 students, with the intervention group 16 students. While determining the control group and the intervention group, the teacher researcher chose these two groups as their scores in the placement test were closer to one another. The students who participated in the study were all speakers of Turkish. At the time of the study, the students had completed a period of 20 weeks of grammar instruction. One class was chosen as the intervention and the other was chosen as the control group randomly by the researcher.

Therefore, the sample of the study consisted of the learners attending the morning courses owing to the fact that they were randomly determined as the intervention and control groups for the study. During the treatment, one student in the intervention group missed some classes and the pre-test. This student was not considered as the part of the study in the analysis of the data. Fifteen students in the intervention group, and fifteen students in the control group participated in the study.

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The pre-test and posttest in the study consisted of two different tests which are the "Attitude Scale towards Reading Poetry" and the "Vocabulary Test". The "Attitude Scale towards Reading Poetry" was modified from Assist. Prof. Dr. Uğur Altunay's "Attitude Scale towards Learning English". The "Vocabulary Test", on the other hand was developed throughout the 2007-2008 Fall Term by the researcher herself.

Attitude Scale towards Reading Poetry

To assess the attitude of the subjects, an attitude scale, consisting of 14 items, was modified from Assist. Prof. Dr. Uğur Altunay's "Attitude Scale towards Learning English". The test was of rating scale kind.*

The adapted questionnaire consisted of 14 items; 8 of which were positive and 6 of which were negative. For each item the participants were asked to record a response on a five-point Likert scale.

The following procedure was followed in order to evaluate the items:

For the positive items, the students who marked "Strongly Agree" option was given 5 points, the student who marked "Agree" option was given 4 points, the student who marked "Not Sure" option was given three points, the student who marked "Disagree" option was given 2 points and the student who marked "Strongly Disagree" option was given 1 point.

For the negative items, the student who marked "Strongly Disagree" option was given 5 points, the student who marked "Disagree" option was given 4 points, the student who marked "Not Sure" option was given three points, the student who marked "Agree" option was given 2 points and the student who marked "Strongly Agree" option was given 1 point.

* A rating scale is an instrument that requires the rater to assign the rated object that have numerals assigned to them and rating scales are often referenced to a statement which expresses an attitude or perception toward something.

Table 5: Scoring of the Items in the Attitude Scale

Attitude	Point	
	Positive Items	Negative Items
Strongly Agree	5	1
Agree	4	2
Not Sure	3	3
Disagree	2	4
Strongly Disagree	1	5

To determine the reliability of the scale, English version of the instrument was administered to 150 students from the School of Foreign Languages, Dokuz Eylül University. The instrument consists of 14 items in total.

Reliability analysis of the instrument revealed Cronbach-Alpha coefficients of 0.75 for the generation of the instrument as illustrated in detail below. Negative items in the scale were transformed and these findings revealed that English version of the Reliability Analysis of the Attitude Scale Towards Reading Poetry is a reliable instrument that can be used to measure students' attitudes towards reading poetry. (See Appendix-1)

Table 6: Item analysis of the Attitude Scale

	X	SS	N
q1	2,7800	1,21991	150
q2	3,2667	1,13910	150
q3	2,6200	1,21329	150
q4	2,5933	1,24295	150
q5	2,6667	1,20216	150
q6	2,7733	1,07533	150
q7	2,7533	1,23123	150
q8	2,1000	1,27837	150
q9	2,8600	1,17599	150
q10	2,7733	,99088	150
q11	2,9067	1,05134	150
q12	2,7200	1,18219	150
q13	2,8000	1,09299	150
q14	3,4533	1,25097	150

Vocabulary Test

To assess the vocabulary knowledge of the subjects, different vocabulary tests were examined to develop a test which evaluated students' vocabulary achievement. The vocabulary tests of TOEFL, GMAT examinations and the DİLKO and ELS institutions' vocabulary tests were examined in detail and finally a vocabulary test was developed by considering the lesson plans which were prepared by the researcher according to the principles of TBL (scaffolding, task dependency ,organic learning, keeping meaning making as the focal point and with a focus on process rather than the product) throughout the fall term of 2007-2008. (See Appendix-2 and Chapter 4 for further detail). The target words to be tested were studied by the researcher in detail during the period of developing lesson plans. During the preparation of the lesson plans, the lexis to be tested were studied at the same time to prepare the vocabulary instrument reliably. The distractors were chosen as cautiously as possible. Firstly, word frequency was of vital importance. The frequent words which existed in twelve poems were classified based on their parts of speech prior to the classroom study. It was paid special attention by the researcher that in each poem students focused on not more than one variable so that they would not be confused about the target vocabulary. When they studied adjectives in one poem, they were not expected to learn all the nouns or adverbs in the same poem.

Only the most prominent words in a poem were dealt with the teacher in detail. Semantic categorization of words was taken into consideration, as well. Semantically related words were studied together to help students fit the new information into their existing schemata. For that reason, all these factors were taken into consideration during the preparation of the vocabulary instrument. Finally, the target words which existed in the poems were especially chosen as either the correct answers or distractors in the multiple choice test.

The instrument consisted of 35 items before the reliability test. After the reliability test was carried out 5 out of 35 questions were omitted. The test aims at evaluating almost 100 different words. For reliability, both tests were applied on 150 students at the School of Foreign Languages.

The questions were designed in multiple choice test design. The test consisted of three main parts; sentence completion with the suitable word, finding the antonym of the underlined word and finding the synonym of the underlined word. Although all questions in the pre/post test were prepared by depending on some course books and tests by the researcher herself, all the questions were checked by the researcher's supervisor, by a native speaker and by some colleagues of the researcher for the purpose of controlling their validity and reliability even prior to the reliability tests and before being applied. They were asked to give feedback and comment. The tests were revised and rewritten according to the comments of the supervisor and of the colleagues.

The purpose of the sentence completion activity in the form of multiple choice test was to see how often learners could choose the learned items out of distractors. It was also important for the researcher to include the types of questions used in traditional grammar instruction and testing, which are sentence completion as multiple choice questions as they are similar to the kinds of activities employed in normal hours of grammar teaching. Moreover, as Bygate (1996: 45) states that "task-based testing may not be reliable if students are not suitably prepared or testing procedures are not similar with the ones used in class". The purpose of preparing

multiple choice tests is to understand how often learners could recognize incorrect and correct words of the target vocabulary through critical thinking.

To measure students' vocabulary achievement, a vocabulary test (which is of multiple choice test kind) was administered to 146 students from the School of Foreign Languages, Dokuz Eylül University. The instrument consists of 35 (thirty-five) items. The instrument includes items which aims to measure students' vocabulary knowledge which they learn through specially designed poetry lessons. Reliability analysis of the instrument revealed Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR-20) coefficients of 0.70 for the generation of the instrument at first as illustrated in detail below. (See Table 7). Later, to enhance the reliability of the instrument, five items (5, 19, 22, 30, 35) the discrimination index of which was considered to be not reliable enough were excluded from the test. The second reliability analysis of the instrument revealed Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR-20) coefficients of 0.72 for the generation of the instrument.

In statistics, the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 is a measure of internal consistency reliability for measures with dichotomous choices. It is analogous to Cronbach's α , except Cronbach's α is used for non-dichotomous (continuous) measures. A high KR-20 coefficient indicates a homogeneous test. Values can range from 0.00 to 1.00 (sometimes expressed as 0 to 100), with high values indicating that the examination is likely to correlate with alternate forms. It is stated that the KR-20 is impacted by difficulty, spread in scores and length of the examination.

Table 7: KR-20 Reliability Statistics Report for Vocabulary Achievement Scale

Questionnaire Statistics	Total Scored Items on Exam	Average Score of all Candidates	Average Per cent	KR-20 Reliability Coefficient	Standard Error of Measurement
First Measurement	35	18.80	53.73	0.70	2.65
Enhanced Measurement	30	17.15	57.19	0.72	2.44

THE PROCEDURE AND DATA COLLECTION

Each treatment lasted 4 hours per week. Both intervention group and control group were taught by the same teacher, the researcher of this study, too. Pre-test was given to the students in usual lesson hours just before the treatment started. They were told that the purpose of the test that they were taking was to find their needs about target vocabulary which existed in poems in the form of lesson plans and meet these needs during the teaching of these lexical items in vocabulary lessons. At the end of the treatment, students in both groups were given the post test to measure the learning of the target items after the treatment.

In the control group presentation-practice-production model, a method which is traditional, was used as the usual model for vocabulary teaching at the School of Foreign Languages, for the control group. Task-based teaching according to Willis' framework (1996) was carried out in the intervention group. (See Chapter-4 for detail).

A pre-test was given to both groups at the beginning of the treatment to measure the knowledge that students in both groups had of the target vocabulary. The pre-test scores of the learners were kept to make comparisons of post test scores of the learners.

Materials

The materials used during the treatment of the target vocabulary were prepared as lesson plans. Twelve lesson plans were prepared for the TBL group, the intervention group and twelve lesson plans were prepared for the presentation-practice-produce (PPP) class, the control group in the study.

Lesson Plans

The TBL lesson plans were prepared for four hours per week as suggested by the thesis's supervisor at the start of the research. The TBL lesson plans were prepared, based on the framework suggested by Willis (1996) because each stage of Willis's framework prepares the ground for the next. It goes from holistic use of

language to the specific. (See Chapter 4) The tasks to be used during the treatment were similar to the types of tasks Willis (1996) suggests. The poems used in the pre-task stages for the teaching of target vocabulary were borrowed from literature and the tasks were prepared by the researcher and checked by the thesis' supervisor for checking whether they had authenticity, reliability and validity. (See TBL lesson plans, Appendix 3).

Data Gathering

The intervention process can be summarized like this:

Table 8: The Data Gathering Procedure

Group	Before the Treatment	The Treatment	After the Treatment
Intervention Group	Vocabulary Test	TASK-BASED LEARNING	Vocabulary Test
	Attitude Scale		Attitude Scale
Control Group	Vocabulary Test	TRADITIONAL TEACHING	Vocabulary Test
	Attitude Scale		Attitude Scale

DATA ANALYSIS

The data has been analyzed with SPSS packet programme. Firstly, the pre/post vocabulary test results of intervention group were coded by inputting the data into the SPSS programme. The pre-test scores were coded as 1, whereas the post-test results were coded as 2 by clicking the "Variable View" and then "Values" option. Thus, it was stated precisely that the value of 1 represented the pre-test scores of the intervention group, whereas the value of 2 stood for the post-test scores of the intervention group. Firstly, (by clicking "Analyze>>Descriptive Statistics" and then "Explore" option) the descriptive statistics of pre-test and post-test scores of the intervention group were assessed to measure the overall means of the intervention group. The same procedure was also carried out for the control group separately.

Data obtained from the pre-test / post-test was submitted to statistical analysis for within group comparison. The purpose in comparing pre-tests and post-tests was to see if any learning was fulfilled in both groups to be able to talk about learning just after the treatment. If so, which method was effective?

Later, the pre-test and post-test mean scores of both groups were submitted to statistical analysis, T-test, to measure the learning in the long term and to see which method is more effective.

Pre-test and post-test scores were submitted for statistical analysis for both in-group comparison and between group comparison to see if TBL method was an effective method or not in the learning of target lexical items. T-test was used within the body of this research just because the T-test assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. This analysis is appropriate whenever the means of two groups are compared, and it is especially appropriate as the analysis for the posttest-only two-group randomized experimental design.

The same procedure was carried out for the evaluation of the attitude scale scores of both groups. Firstly, both intervention group's and control group's descriptive statistics were evaluated. The purpose was to see if any difference of attitude existed in both groups to be able to talk about an improvement just after the treatment through specially designed poems by TBL method. If so, was there a significant difference?

Later the scores of the attitude scale were submitted for statistical analysis to see if there was a significant difference in students' attitudes. Again T-test, was used as the means of two groups' attitude scale scores are compared.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

In this part the results of the data analysis will be given. The presentation of the data analysis will be done according to the research questions and the results will be discussed.

As stated earlier, the purpose of this study is to compare the effectiveness of Task Based Learning and presentation-practice-produce (PPP) paradigm in vocabulary teaching through specially designed poems in accordance with the principles of TBL. The participants in the study, both the control (PPP) group and the intervention (TBL) group were given a vocabulary pre-test at the beginning of the study for the purpose of determining how much vocabulary knowledge these learners had of the target vocabulary at the start of the procedure. The same test was given to both groups as a post-test after the treatment to see if the groups' knowledge of the target vocabulary had improved significantly or not. An attitude scale, whose reliability coefficient was found to be 0.80, was also given to participants at the beginning of the study for the purpose of determining their attitudes about reading poetry in the target language at the start of the procedure. The same scale was given to both groups after the treatment to see if the groups' attitudes improved significantly or not.

IN-GROUP COMPARISONS OF THE VOCABULARY TEST

In this study, students' overall pre-test / post-test scores in both groups were submitted for statistical analysis for in-group comparisons firstly. As a result of a treatment period, which lasted 8 weeks, it was concluded for in-group comparison that the results of both intervention and control group were to be analyzed using a T-test for independent samples.

Vocabulary T-Test Results of the Intervention Group

Firstly, the pre-test and later the post-test scores of the students in the intervention group were scored in SPSS. The pre-test scores were coded as 1, whereas the post-test scores were coded as 2. It was stated precisely that the pre-test of the intervention group was given the value 1, whereas the post-test was coded with the value 2, thus the two groups were named clearly. The descriptive group statistics of the intervention group were measured to find the means of the group. The overall mean score of the pre-test of the intervention group was 54.53 (See Table 9), whereas the overall mean score of the post-test of the intervention group was 65.46. (See Table 10). The measurement after the treatment was higher for the intervention group. The pre-test results of the control group were analyzed using a T-test for independent samples to see if the increase in students' scores after a treatment period was significant or not.

Table 9: Vocabulary Pre-test T-Test Results of the Intervention and the Control Group

Group	N	X	S	t	p
Intervention	15	54.53	11.89	2.38	0.02
Control	15	50.60	18.39	1.06	0.29

***The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.**

Table 10: Vocabulary Post-test T-Test Results of the Intervention and the Control Group

Group	N	X	S	t	p
Intervention	15	65.46	13.20	2.38	0.02
Control	15	44.86	9.72	1.06	0.29

***The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.**

To check the difference, the Null Hypothesis was set up as “There is no difference between the pre-test and post-test vocabulary results of the intervention group.” = $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis was set up, as “The vocabulary pre-test means of the intervention group are lower than the post-test means of them.” = $H_A : \mu_1 < \mu_2$

With the measurement of 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent T-test was used to analyze the scores of the intervention group for the vocabulary test. The T-test results showed that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the intervention group, thus the alternative hypothesis is to be accepted as the $p < 0.05$. ($t = -2.38$, $p = 0.02$) (See Tables 9-10).

According to the independent T-test results, there was a significant difference after 8 weeks’ treatment period. In other words, the treatment period proved itself to be effective for the participants in the intervention group.

Vocabulary T-Test Results of the Control Group

Firstly, the means the intervention group were measured and it was found that there was a decrease in terms of the mean of the results as a result of the treatment period. The overall mean score of the pre-test of the intervention group was 50.60, whereas the overall mean score of the post-test of the intervention group was 44.86. The measurement before the treatment was lower for the control group. The pre-test results of the intervention group were analyzed using a T-test for independent samples to see if difference between two measurements was significant or not.

To check the difference, the Null Hypothesis was set up as “There is no difference between the vocabulary pre-test and post-test results of the control group.” = $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis was set up, as “The vocabulary pre-test means of the control group are higher than the post-test means of them.” = $H_A : \mu_1 > \mu_2$

With 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent T-test was used to analyze the scores of the control group for the vocabulary test. The means of the descriptive statistical analysis showed that the means of vocabulary test of the students in the control group were higher than their post-test results. The aim was to find out whether this decrease was significant or not. To check this decrease, an independent T-test was used to analyze the scores of the control group for the vocabulary test.

According to the independent T-test results, there was not a significant difference after 8 weeks' treatment period for the control group. In other words, the treatment period was not effective for the participants in the control group. Thus, the alternative hypothesis is to be rejected as the p score was higher than 0.05, thus insignificant. ($t = 1.06$, $p = 0.29$). (See Tables 9 and 10). To conclude, it was found out that the decrease in the means of the participants was coincidental.

IN-GROUP COMPARISONS OF THE ATTITUDE SCALE

The pre-test / post-test attitude scale results, which is of rating scale kind, were compared with one another to see if there was a significant difference in students' attitudes towards poetry after a treatment period.

Attitude Scale T-Test Results of the Intervention Group

Firstly, the pre-test and later the post-test scores of the attitude scale of the students in the intervention group were coded into SPSS. The pre-test scores were coded with the value 1, whereas the post-test scores were coded as 2. It was stated precisely that the pre-test of the intervention group was given the value 1, whereas the post-test was coded with the value 2, thus the two groups were named clearly.

The descriptive group statistics of the intervention group were measured to find the means of the group. The overall mean score of the pre-test of the intervention group was 46.33, whereas the overall mean score of the post-test of the intervention group was 48.13. Therefore, there is a difference between the pre-test and post-test results of the attitude scale for the intervention group. After a treatment period, the means of the post-test results are higher than the pre-test results. The measurement of the overall mean score after the treatment was higher for the intervention group. The pre-test / post-test results of the intervention group were analyzed using a T-test for independent samples to see if the difference in students' attitudes was significant or not.

Table 11: Attitude Scale Pre-test T-Test Results of the Intervention and the Control Group

Group	N	X	S	t	p
Intervention	15	46.33	8.26	-1.22	0.23
Control	15	49.40	5.12	-1.72	0.19

***The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.**

Table 12: Attitude Scale Post-Test T-Test Results of the Intervention and the Control Group

Group	N	X	S	t	p
Intervention	15	48.13	6.54	-1.22	0.23
Control	15	44.60	6.86	-1.72	0.19

***The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.**

To check the difference, the Null Hypothesis was set up as “There is no difference between the attitude scale pre-test and post-test results of the intervention group.” = $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis was set up, as “The attitude scale pre-test means of the intervention group are lower than the post-test means of them.” = $H_A : \mu_1 < \mu_2$

With 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent t-test was used to analyze the scores of the intervention group for the attitude scale. The T-test results showed that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the intervention group for the attitude scale, thus the null hypothesis is to be accepted as the $p > 0.05$. ($t = -1.22$, $p = 0.19$) (See Tables 11 and 12). This shows that there is no significant difference between the pre-test / post-test results of the attitude scale scores of the intervention group. According to the T-test of independent samples, the increase in the means of the students was not found to be significant statistically.

Attitude Scale T-Test Results of the Control Group

Firstly, the pre-test and later the post-test scores of the attitude scale of the students in the control group were scored in SPSS. The pre-test scores were coded with the value 1, whereas the post-test scores were coded as 2. It was stated precisely that the pre-test of the control group was given the value 1, whereas the post-test was coded with the value 2, thus the two groups were named clearly. The descriptive group statistics of the control group were measured to find the means of the group. The overall mean score of the pre-test of the control group was 49.40, whereas the overall mean score of the post-test of the intervention group was 44.60. Therefore, there is a difference between the pre-test and post-test results of the attitude scale for the control group. After a treatment period, the means of the post-test results were lower than the pre-test results. The pre-test / post-test results of the intervention group were analyzed using a T-test for independent samples to see if the difference in students' attitudes was significant or not.

To check the difference, the Null Hypothesis was set up as “There is no difference between the attitude scale mean scores of pre-test and post-test results of the control group.” = $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis was set up, as “The attitude scale post-test means of the control group are lower than the pre-test means of them.” = $H_A : \mu_1 > \mu_2$

With 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent t-test was used to analyze the scores of the control group for the attitude scale. The T-test results showed that the mean scores of pre-test of the attitude scale are higher than the post-test mean scores. According the T-test results, the treatment carried out through 8 weeks did not have a significant effect on students’ attitudes. Based on the scores obtained from T-test results, the PPP approach did not attribute positively to students’ attitudes.

Table 13: Overall In-Group Comparisons of both Groups in terms of their Post-Test Scores for Vocabulary Test

Group	N	X	MD	t	p
Intervention	15	65.46	-10.93*	2.38	0.02
Control	15	44.86	5.73	1.06	0.29

*The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

Table 14: Overall In-Group Comparisons of both Groups in terms of their Post-Test Scores for Attitude Scale

Group	N	X	MD	t	p
Intervention	15	48.13	-3.53	-1.22	0.23
Control	15	44.60	5.54*	-1.72	0.19

*The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

In summary, two groups were named as the intervention group and the control group randomly by the researcher. Both groups were given two pre-tests (Vocabulary Test and Attitude Scale) before the treatment period. After the tests were given, the two groups received treatment which consisted of target vocabulary in the form of specially designed poems. The control group was taught poems which were in accordance with the principles of PPP approach.

In contrast, the intervention group was taught poems which were specially designed to include vocabulary in accordance with the principles of TBL. After the treatment period ended, both groups were given Vocabulary and Attitude Scale post-tests.

The statistical analysis carried out indicates that the tests carried on the intervention group led to significant results. The scores of the pre-test means of the vocabulary test is lower than the post-test results, thus this was found to be significant for the intervention group as the p score is 0.02. The treatment that lasted 8 weeks can be said to be effective as there is a significant increase in the scores of the vocabulary test for this group. On the other hand, it was found that there was no significant difference for the control group, and the PPP treatment that lasted 8 weeks failed to succeed in the control group as the mean scores of the vocabulary pre-test are higher than the post-test results with the measurement of 95% Confidence Interval.

Furthermore, the mean scores of the attitude scale pre-tests and post-tests of both groups with the measurement of 95% Confidence Interval were found to be statistically insignificant.

BETWEEN GROUP COMPARISONS OF THE VOCABULARY TEST

In this study, in addition to in-group comparisons of both groups in terms of vocabulary learning and attitudes, students' overall pre-test / post-test scores in both groups were submitted for statistical analysis for between-group comparisons. As a result of a treatment period, which lasted 8 weeks, the results of both intervention

and control group were analyzed using a T-test for independent samples for between-group comparison as well.

Between Group Comparison of Vocabulary Pre-test Results

Firstly, the null hypothesis was set up as there is no significant difference between the pre-test vocabulary scores of the intervention group and the pre-test scores of the control group. $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis was set up, as “The vocabulary pre-test means of the intervention group are lower than the pre-test mean scores of the control group.”
 $= H_A : \mu_1 < \mu_2$

With the measurement of 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent T-test was used to analyze the scores of two groups. The results showed that there was not a significant difference between the pre-test scores of both groups, thus the alternative hypothesis is to be rejected as the $p > 0.05$.

Table 15: Vocabulary Pre-Test T-Test Results of Intervention and the Control Group

Group	N	X	S	t	p
Intervention	15	54.53	11.89		
				0.69	0.49
Control	15	50.60	18.39		

*The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

Table 16: Vocabulary Post-Test T-Test Results of Intervention and the Control

Group	Group				t	p
	N	X	S			
Intervention	15	65.46	13.20		0.69	.00
Control	15	44.86	9.72			

*The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

Between Group Comparison of Vocabulary Post-test Results

Firstly, the null hypothesis was set up as there is no significant difference between the post-test vocabulary scores of the intervention group and the post-test scores of the control group. $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis was set up, as “The vocabulary post-test means of the intervention group are higher than the post-test mean scores of the control group.” = $H_A : \mu_1 > \mu_2$

With the measurement of 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent T-test was used to analyze the scores of two groups. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the post-test scores of both groups, thus the alternative hypothesis is to be accepted as the $p < 0.05$. Since the vocabulary post-test scores of the intervention group are higher than those of the control group, it can be claimed that treatment period was effective for the intervention group.

BETWEEN GROUP COMPARISONS OF THE ATTITUDE SCALE

For the “Attitude Scale” students’ overall pre-test / post-test scores in both groups were submitted for statistical analysis for between-group comparisons in the same way.

Between Group Comparison of Attitude Scale Pre-test Results

Firstly, the null hypothesis was set up as there is no significant difference between the pre-test attitude scale scores of the intervention group and the pre-test scores of the control group. $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis was set up, as “The attitude scale pre-test means of the intervention group are lower than the pre-test mean scores of the control group.”
 $= H_A : \mu_1 < \mu_2$

With the measurement of 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent T-test was used to analyze the scores of two groups. The results showed that there was not a significant difference between the attitude scale pre-test scores of the intervention group and the control group.

Table 17: Attitude Scale Pre-Test T-Test Results of Intervention and the Control Group

Group	N	X	S	t	p
Intervention	15	46.33	8.26	-1.22	0.23
Control	15	48.13	6.54		

*The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

Between Group Comparison of Attitude Scale Post-test Results

For the attitude scale post-test scores of both groups, the null hypothesis was set up as there is no significant difference between the post-test attitude scale scores of the intervention group and the post-test scores of the control group. $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$

The alternative hypothesis is “The attitude scale post-test means of the intervention group are lower than the post-test mean scores of the control group.”

$$= H_A : \mu_1 < \mu_2$$

With the measurement of 95% Confidence Interval for Mean ($\alpha = 0.05$), an independent T-test was used to analyze the scores of two groups. The results showed that there was not a significant difference between the attitude scale post-test scores of both groups, either.

Table 18: Attitude Scale Post-Test T-Test Results of Intervention and the Control Group

Group	N	X	S	t	p
Intervention	15	48.13	6.54	1.44	0.16
Control	15	44.60	6.86		

***The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.**

To sum up, two different tests were exploited in this study. The data obtained from students was submitted into statistical analysis for both in-group comparisons and between group comparisons. The results showed that after 8 weeks' treatment period the vocabulary post-test results of the intervention group are higher than those of the control group as shown below:

Table 19: Summary of Vocabulary Post-Test T-Test Results of Between Group Comparisons

Group	N	X	S	Sd	t	p
Intervention	15	65.47	13.20	4.73	4.86	.00
Control	15	44.87	9.72			

***The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.**

On the other hand, there was not found to be a significant difference between the attitude scale pre / post-test results of both groups.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter of the study, Conclusions and Discussions related to the Effects of TBL on Learner's Attitudes and Vocabulary Learning which are yielded by data collecting instruments are highlighted. Finally, suggestions for further research are presented.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

Summary of the Study

The concern was vocabulary teaching within the body of this study since Turkish EFL learners experience difficulty while they are learning vocabulary and they usually have difficulty in comprehending texts they read.

The aim of this study was to find a better way to teach vocabulary comparing two different paradigms, Task Based Learning with innovative ideas such as including poetry for vocabulary teaching as an alternative to traditional teacher-fronted technique, presentation- practice- produce paradigm. At the start of the study, all the classes were placed according to their placement scores by the institution. The researcher chose these two classes as their scores were closer to another, and one of them was assigned to be the control group and one of them was assigned to be the intervention group randomly. Both groups were given a vocabulary and an attitude scale before treatment period. The descriptive statistics of both groups were submitted into both in-group and between group comparisons.

After 8 weeks' treatment, both groups were given post-tests to monitor any improvement in the two groups. It was found that the TBL group improved more than the PPP group in terms of vocabulary achievement. The overall mean score of the pre-test of the intervention group was 54.53, while the post-test score was 65.46. To check this improvement, T-test was carried out and the measurement results showed that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test

scores of the intervention group as the p score was 0.02, thus this suggested a significant improvement for the students in the intervention group in terms of vocabulary achievement.

The same procedure was carried out for the control group separately to measure vocabulary learning of the participants. The overall pre-test mean score of the control group was 50.60 whereas the post-test score was 44.86. An independent T-test was carried out to analyze this decrease in the mean score. It showed that there was not a significant difference after 8 weeks' treatment period for the control group and the treatment period was not effective for the control group in terms of vocabulary achievement. It was found out that the decrease in the mean scores of the participants was coincidental. This decrease in the mean score of the control group is striking though. This could be due to the mechanical question-answers directed to students by the teacher according to the principles of the PPP approach and that students might have been bored. Rather than focusing on meaning making as in TBL classrooms, the students in the control group might have tended to memorize the target vocabulary for the sake of covering them and this might explain the reason for this decrease in their mean scores of the vocabulary post-tests.

In the same way, both groups were given attitude scale post-tests to monitor any improvement in terms of their attitudes. The T-test results of TBL group showed that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the intervention group for the attitude scale as the p score was lower than 0.05. ($t = -1.22$, $p = 0.19$). Therefore, there was not a significant improvement for the intervention group in terms of their attitudes. Likewise, the same procedure was carried out for the control group, and it was found that the treatment carried out through 8 weeks did not have a significant effect on students' attitudes. Based on the scores obtained from T-test results, the PPP approach did not attribute positively to students' attitudes as their pre-test scores are higher than post-test results. The mean score of pre-test is 49.40 whereas the mean score of the post-test is 44.60. There is a decrease in the mean scores of the control group in terms of their attitudes according to the descriptive statistics results. This measurement was submitted to T-test to check whether the PPP approach contributed to students' attitudes towards poetry

positively or not. Although the decrease in the mean scores of the control group is obvious, this decrease in the mean scores of the control group was found to be statistically insignificant as $p > 0.05$. ($p = 0.16$).

Next, the T-Test results of both groups were submitted into between group comparisons to see whether the TBL group improved in terms of vocabulary learning and attitudes. The results showed that the mean score of the vocabulary post-test results of the intervention group (65.47) were higher than those of the control group (44.87). These scores were submitted to T-Test for between group comparisons and as a result the improvement in the mean scores of the intervention group was found to be statistically significant. ($p < 0.05$).

In the same way, the attitude scale pre/post test results were submitted into T-Test for independent samples for between group comparisons and no significant difference was found between two groups. The p score was 0.16, thus suggested an insignificant difference between two groups' post test results.

The major findings of this study suggest that;

1. TBL instruction through poetry helped learners improve their knowledge of vocabulary after 8 weeks' treatment and it was found to be effective for the students in the intervention group. PPP approach, however, was not found to be effective for the teaching of vocabulary through poetry, and the decrease in the overall post-test means of students in the control group was found to be statistically coincidental, though.

2. The pre-test / post-test scores of the attitude scale, which were carried out in both groups, showed that the treatment that lasted 8 weeks did not have a significant effect on students' attitudes in both groups. Both TBL and the PPP approach did not attribute positively to students' attitudes in in-group comparisons. This could be because of the fact that students in both groups are not accustomed to both the new method and poetry in the classroom. Furthermore, both the method and poetry imply classroom implications based on more questions than answers for

students. Since the nature of poetry encourages in both the teacher and students an acceptance of ambiguity and uncertainty, students might have been confused because of the requirements of the methods used and the meaning making process which are something new for them. Even though the results of the T-tests are not significant, the students reported after the treatment period that they liked studying poetry and sharing their ideas with their peers freely. The importance of helping learners to live with the insecurity cannot be overestimated.

3. The between group comparison results showed that after 8 weeks' treatment period the vocabulary post-test results of the intervention group are higher than those of the control group as p score is .00. The treatment period was effective for the intervention group.

4. The between group comparisons of the attitude scale results showed that treatment period was not effective for both groups similar to their in-group comparisons.. There is not a significant difference in terms of their attitudes when the intervention and the control group are compared.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to see if the vocabulary instruction through TBL was effective when compared to the PPP paradigm. The research questions were "Does the study of TBLT have a significant effect on students' attitudes after a treatment period in the study of poetry?" and "Does the study of TBLT have a significant effect on students' vocabulary learning?"

The TBL paradigm is more effective in vocabulary teaching whereas it is not effective on students' attitudes in both groups.

Similarly to this study, Kasap (2005) examined the effectiveness of TBL in improving speaking skills as well as student and teacher perceptions of TBL. Data was gathered through questionnaires, interviews and oral tests. The participants were 45 in total and the researcher used the pre-test / post-test design, too. The data from

oral pre-test / post-tests and the attitude scale was analyzed quantitatively whereas the data obtained from teachers via oral interviews was analyzed qualitatively. T-test was run and it yielded no significant differences in any of the comparisons. However, the students' and teachers' reactions of TBL were positive. They found these tasks helpful in developing their oral skills. The findings of Kasap are similar to the findings of this study in terms of students' perceptions and attitudes of TBL as the participants of this study did not react positively to the treatment in terms of their attitudes. But, this study showed that although they did not react positively to treatment which was composed of different poems which are in accordance with principles of TBL, there was a significant improvement in their success according to T-Test results. ($t_{0.05;28} = 1.701$, $|t_{hesap}| = 2.383$ $|t_{hesap}| > t_{tablo}$ so, $2.383 > 1.701$ and also $p = 0.024 < 0.05$)

Kurt (2004) also investigated the effects of Task-Based Instruction, but on 6th grade students' vocabulary learning and reading/writing proficiency in the foreign language and on their attitudes towards language learning. Although, the participants differ in terms of their age, the results are similar to this study as Task-Based Instruction integrated into regular English classes produced statistically significant differences in learners' retention of the target vocabulary items as well as their ability to use these words accurately in new contexts. Although the results of this study do not suggest that TBL enhances vocabulary retention, it was found that there was a significant improvement in students' vocabulary achievement in the intervention group. Moreover, with between-group comparisons, this study concluded that treatment with TBL was effective for the intervention group even if it was compared to the control group. Another finding of Kurt's study results revealed that learners retained their pre-existing positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language and they developed an appreciation for the Task-based Instruction to which they were exposed to in the classroom. Likewise, within the body of this study students reflected on their reading poetry period positively. But, there was not a significant statistical difference in their attitudes.

In this study, it was found that students learned better in the way which was meaningful for them. It can be claimed by depending on their reflections about the treatment period that they liked studying vocabulary via reading different poems.

This study does not mean that we should stop teaching vocabulary with the traditional method and have a go for TBL for vocabulary teaching. Instead it just intends to come up with better, innovative ideas for the teaching of such L2 rules.

Pedagogical Implications

As Cook (1991) states words are related to each other in many ways and learners can remember and store them by the help of these relationships. It is also suggested that the relationships between words are as important as the meaning of the word in isolation. This study aimed to find a better method for the teaching of certain vocabulary items through literature.

As teachers of English, we may all agree that EFL learners can experience serious problems in the learning of certain lexical items, while they experience fewer difficulties with some other components in the target language. The results of this study reveal that teaching vocabulary items can be done effectively through the use of poems which are in accordance with the principles of Task-Based Instruction. This strongly suggests that vocabulary learning can be enhanced through group works and pair works in which learners have the chance to experience the language they use and vocabulary they learn through interaction through the use of specially designed tasks. Thanks to these tasks, students have the chance to form a link between the world both inside and outside the classroom by reading authentic and real pieces of language and they also have the chance to interact naturally by negotiating about poems they read. All kinds of interaction were provided through these poems and learners had a real purpose to achieve goals and share their outcomes within the boundaries of the classroom.

This study does not suggest that, the PPP approach which has long been seen as the traditional method is ineffective. The results of the control group revealed that there was a decrease in the mean scores of the learners after a treatment period, but this decrease was found to be statistically coincidental, though. It could result from the fact that the students in both groups had the chance to study vocabulary in the form of poems for the first time in their lives. It is just suggested that teacher could allot more time to teach vocabulary via tasks, they could design syllabi and lesson plans in the light of Task-Based Instruction, including more communicative tasks because of the advantages offered. (See Theoretical Framework for further detail).

T-Test results of the study suggest that TBL is effective in the teaching of vocabulary whereas no significant improvement was observed in the PPP group. The TBL group performed significantly better than the PPP group in the vocabulary teaching part of this study. On the other hand, when the results of the attitude scale are considered there was no significant improvement in students' attitudes in both groups. This could be because of the fact that the students in both groups faced with poetry for the first time in their education period. The reason for the insignificant effects on students' attitudes may be that the instruction applied to both groups was new to them. They may also have had difficulty in understanding what the poems meant although the poems were chosen specially by the teacher herself according to their level of proficiency. Moreover, unusual combinations of syntax, different combinations of already learned words, paying attention to punctuation and the use of figurative language while reading poetry may have confused them. As a result, the lack of effectiveness of the PPP group compared with task-based instruction may result from the fact that the instruction applied to this group lacked meaningful use of language. Poems were utilized in both groups. But whereas the TBL group benefited from the meaningful use of language and real exchange of meaning in pair works or group works as a natural requirement of the TBL method; the PPP group mechanically answered the questions of the teacher to make sense of the poems and understand the meanings of the words. However, depending on their reflections, it can be claimed that students in both groups enjoyed reading poetry and trying to understand what new words meant.

This study has implications also for textbook writers, syllabus writers and teachers choosing course books for their EFL learners. Most course books design their units and practice vocabulary exercises assuming that all lexical items are learned in the same way and learners learn the items in the order and in the way they are presented. This is strongly challenged by Cook (1991: 38) who suggests, “Words are not coins you exchange from one language to another according to a fixed change of rate.” As he is of the opinion that learners should not learn vocabulary just by translating each L1 word to L2. Instead, it is suggested that the meanings of words should be broken into smaller components, and sometimes they should be perceived as wholes. According to Cook (1991), learners should experiment with the language actively to make sense of them. Therefore, it can be concluded by claiming that including literature in EFL classrooms may be a good path to take to arouse students’ interest and to actively involve them in the learning process throughout.

On the other hand, syllabus designers should anticipate problematic items in advance, as preparing lesson plans for teaching the target vocabulary and matching these target words to suitable authentic poems may seem time-consuming first. But, supplementary tasks prepared by the teachers in the form of poems to cover the problematic words in class hours may be effective on students’ vocabulary achievement.

Conclusion

This study was conducted to compare the effectiveness of the traditional method and TBL on the teaching of vocabulary because vocabulary teaching may be problematic at times. Two groups were chosen as subjects. Pre-test / post-test design with control group was utilized to collect data from the participants. For both in-group and between-group comparisons, it was found that using poems along with TBL method proved itself to be effective in the teaching of vocabulary existing in different poems. Firstly, the means of both groups were submitted into statistical analysis to measure the effectiveness of these two types of instruction. Later, these descriptive statistics which show their means were analyzed using a T-test for independent samples to check the fluctuation in their mean scores and to see whether

the improvements were significant or not. It was found that teaching poetry through TBL helped learners in the intervention group acquire new words effectively, whereas there was no significant improvement on the students in the control group in terms of vocabulary teaching. However, there was no significant improvement on learners in both groups in terms of their attitudes. By taking between-group comparisons into consideration, the fact that TBL group did significantly better than the PPP group in vocabulary test is noteworthy. Implications are suggested in the light of the results obtained in this study.

Suggestions for Further Studies

This study has aimed to find out the effects of TBL on vocabulary learning and learners' attitudes in Intermediate classes. It was conducted on a relatively small number of intermediate level students. Further studies conducted on different levels could be carried out to observe if results differ from level to level.

This study focused on vocabulary teaching only, which was chosen as a problematic area for reasons stated earlier for language teaching. Further studies could be conducted focusing on other items such as grammar structures in order that comparisons may be made. In addition, other types of literature may be exploited to see whether the vocabulary acquisition of learners result from poems or from the method.

This study did not focus on the retention of vocabulary learning. Further studies could be carried out to measure retention of newly learned ways through tasks by giving a delayed test to students in both groups.

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APPENDICES

- 1. Attitude Scale towards Reading Poetry**
- 2. Vocabulary Test**
- 3. Sample Lesson Plans (TBL)**
- 4. A Sample Lesson Plan (PPP)**

APPENDIX-1

ATTITUDE SCALE TOWARDS READING POETRY

	Completely agree.	Agree.	Not sure.	Disagree.	Completely disagree.
1. I like studying poetry.	A	B	C	D	E
2. I like doing my poetry homework.	A	B	C	D	E
3. I like reading poems in my spare times.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Reading poems is a boring task to do.	A	B	C	D	E
5. I feel bored when I start studying poetry.	A	B	C	D	E
6. While reading poems time passes so quickly.	A	B	C	D	E
7. I think that I will fail in studying poetry.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Rather than reading English and American poems I prefer to study Turkish ones.	A	B	C	D	E
9. I understand the poems only when I translate them into Turkish.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Learning to read poetry is an easy task for me.	A	B	C	D	E
11. I can understand what I hear in a poem without translating it to Turkish.	A	B	C	D	E
12. Talking about poetry bores me.	A	B	C	D	E
13. When I start studying poetry I feel myself tense.	A	B	C	D	E
14. Rather than studying poetry I prefer to do something more enjoyable.	A	B	C	D	E

*This test has been modified from Lecturer Uğur Altunay's "Attitude Scale towards Learning English".

APPENDIX-2

VOCABULARY TEST

This test has been produced to learn about students' vocabulary knowledge at the School of Foreign Languages, Dokuz Eylül University. The results are only to be exploited in a Master Thesis and thus the results can only be valid for this thesis. Please, read the stems carefully and choose the correct answers depending on the context after filling in the required information about the participant below.

Gender: () Male () Female	Age: () 17 and below () 17-24 () 24+
School graduated from: () High School () Anatolian High School () Anatolian Teachers School () High School of Science () Vocational High School () Super High School () Private High School () Other	Level of English: () Beginner () Elementary () Pre-Intermediate () Intermediate () Upper- Intermediate () Advanced
The Score You Started Studying English at this Department: (.....)	

A- Choose the correct option.

1. Ms Leighton will be in charge during my _____, you can ask her anything when I am away.

- a. existence c. absence
b. loneliness d. breath

2. You can carry this bag - it's fairly _____. Please, take it home for me.

- a. heavy c. warm
b. light d. cold

3. Our neighbour is fed up with the _____ smell of old Mr. Moore's books. As their houses are next to each other's, Mr. Bradotou is always complaining about that unpleasant smell.

- a. pleasant c. musty
b. fresh d. scary

4. After Mary got divorced, she _____ all unpleasant memories, now she says that she tries to forget everything that makes her sad.

- a. threw off c. picked up
b. took notice of d. threw up

5. Excuse my _____, but how does this machine actually work? I do not have any idea about it.

- a. grace c. ignorance
b. heaven d. grief

6. _____ is a long period of dry weather when there is not enough water for plants and animals to live and it results in a water shortage that seriously limits human activity such as watering the crops and trees.

- a. Flood c. Wood
b. Fire d. Drought

7. Yesterday, while we were canoing my husband fell into the water while he was trying to _____ the canoe.

- a. brush across c. get on with
b. get out of d. get over

8. I always remind my daughter to make sure the iron isn't too hot. Because she might _____ the cloth.

- a. waste c. increase
b. burn d. ease

27. They caught a **glimpse** of a dark green car.

- a. flash c. impression
b. sight d. stare

28. I felt **ashamed of** the things I'd said to him.

- a. embarrassed c. shamed
b. red-faced d. proud

29. Only a few journalists **dared** to cover the story

- a. avoided c. attempted
b. staked d. risked

30. The proposal was too **extreme** for the committee, they found it discomforting.

- a. maximum c. excessive
b. moderate d. utmost

C-Depending on the contexts of use, choose the synonyms of the words written in bold.

31. Sharon went deathly **pale** and looked as if she might faint.

- a. sickly c. lively
b. heartily d. vigorously

32. His courage was incredible in the face of **adversity**; he suffered to much as everybody knows.

- a. trouble c. joy
b. bliss d. pleasure

33. It can be very **satisfying** to work in the garden.

- a. exciting c. pleasing
b. tiring d. swirling

34. The leaves turn into **crimson** in autumn.

- a. deep-red c. chill
b. shiny d. cool

35. The police searched for the murderer **in vain**, because they couldn't reach a solution.

- a. futilely c. aimlessly
b. courageously d. strangely

**THANKS FOR YOUR
PARTICIPATION!!! ☺**

APPENDIX 3 (TBL Lesson Plans)**LESSON PLAN-1****A Sad Song about Greenwich Village**

She lives in a garret
Up a haunted stair,
And even when she's frightened
There's nobody to care.

She cooks so small a dinner
She dines on the smell
And even if she's hungry
There's nobody to tell.

She sweeps her musty lodging
As the dawn steals near,
And even when she's crying
There's nobody to hear.

I haven't seen my neighbour
Since a long time ago,
And even if she's dead
There's nobody to know.

By

Frances Park

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

-Teacher shows a picture of an old lady and asks students to make guesses about the mood of that lady.

-Teacher writes that paragraph on the board and gives students time to formulate it in their minds.

“Some people feel lonely all their lives. Others only become lonely in old age. But loneliness is something which afflicts all of us at some time in our lives.”

-Teacher mentions loneliness shortly and asks students if they’ve ever felt themselves lonely.

-Teacher pre-teaches the words “garret” and “lodging”.

-Teacher directs classroom the questions below;

*Are your grandparents alive?

*Do your grandparents or grandmothers live alone?

*How often do you visit them?

*Are they happy when you visit them?

*Are you afraid of getting old? Why or why not?

-Students work with their partner and write down ten words which they associate with the word ‘lonely’. They are free to use a dictionary or even a Thesaurus.

-Teacher divides the class into three groups. Different groups work simultaneously on producing lists to answer each of the following questions:

Group 1: What kinds of people feel lonely?

Group 2: What sorts of things do lonely people do / feel (e.g. cry)?

Group 3: What causes people to feel lonely?

-Groups then report back to the class.

-Sts. think about their own lives and write down a few sentences about the time they felt loneliest in their lives. Then they exchange their experiences with their partners.

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

-First the students read the poem individually and silently. They take notes for the words they do not know.

-The class is divided into 2 groups.

-Each group is responsible for the lexis in their stanzas.

-They try to infer the meanings of the words from the context in groups.

-Target vocabulary is;

For group 1: live in a garret, a haunted stair, to care, dine on the smell

For group 2: sweep the lodging, dawn stealing near, to be dead.

- Put all of the first parts of each phrase on pieces of paper and give it to the first group.
- In groups students work together to collect the correct piece of paper from the other group by negotiating so as to make the phrase complete. Each group has an envelope and the words in it; they give and take to reach correct collocations.
- As the students match them up incorrectly students will most probably start to recall the correct collocation or phrase.
- In this activity students learn the vocabulary in chunks so it is hoped that they will fix these phrases to their minds.

II-) Planning:

-Students describe the woman from the poem. Teacher explains why they think so by trying to use the vocabulary they've recently learned

Is she rich?

Is she young?

Is she happy?

Is she lonely?

e.g. I think she isn't happy because she ...

-Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.

-T. suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

-The students read aloud what they've written if they volunteer.

-Students explain why the poem is named as "A Sad Song about Greenwich Village".

e.g. I suppose that the poem is named "A Sad Song about Greenwich Village" because the woman in the poem ...

- Students choose the best paraphrase of this poem. Then check with their partners to see whether they agree.

1. *There is an old lady who lives in the attic right at the top of our building. She never feels really hungry so she only eats a little.*

2. *The old lady who lives at the top of our building has no one to take care of her or eat with her, or sympathise with her when she is lonely. No one would notice if she died. Now I think of it I haven't seen her for some time.*

3. *She gets up very early to clean her room because she has nothing else to do. Perhaps she cries but there is no one to hear her. It is ages since I saw her, I wonder if she has died.*

-Teacher chairs and comments on the content of their remarks.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

-Students again explain orally why the poem is named “A Sad Song about Greenwich Village”.

But this time they have to support their remarks by using the words from the poem. (in parenthesis)

-Students guess the theme of the poem by supporting their ideas with important words from the poem.

-Sts. underline all the words which exemplify the theme of loneliness.

-Sts. are expected to analyze the last lines of each stanza. Why there is nobody for her;

-to care -to hear and

-Sts. try to give replies

-to tell -to know.

II-) Practice

☺Teacher presents a “fill-in” activity. She gives 8 sentences, that is 4 sentences for each group to be completed with the correct words in the box.

dead	upstairs	sweeping	dined
frightened	tired	garret	
haunted	dawn	broken	found

- I. I saw the greengrocer his musty shop.
- II. I waited for him tillbut he didn't come.
- III. I heard the cry of a cat in the of my grandpa's house.
- IV. I know that woman, she is filthy and she looks as if she lives in a house.
- V. We went fishing last weekend and cooked fish but the cats only..... on the smell.
- VI. Why does she look that way. Is sheof the dog?
- VII. I haven't seen my primary school teacher for years, I think he is
- VIII. **Peter:** Mother!! Where is my green sock? I've found one but the other pair is missing.
Mum: Oh dear, you must go and then search for it, I think I saw it on the second floor.

-The group with more correct answers wins.

FOLLOW UP (optional)

-The teacher asks whether students would like to be in that woman's shoes. Why or why not?

LESSON PLAN-2**Coat**

Sometimes I have wanted
to throw you off
like a heavy coat.

Sometimes I have said
you would not let me
breathe or move.

But now that I am free
to choose light clothes
or none at all

I feel the cold
and all the time I think
how warm it used to be.

by

Vicki Feaver

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

- Teacher writes a line on the board, that is – *“No one ever realizes what they had until it is gone. Some of us are lucky though and get a second chance.”*
- Students make comments on the sentence and they add their memoirs if they like by the help of the teacher.

-Teacher asks students whether they've ever felt sorry for a thing they lost or they've missed anything important for them in their lives. Students may agree on the idea that we appreciate the value of a thing we have only after we lose it.

-Teacher gives a very short poem about loss of something and inquires students to make inferences about the poem below. This makes students see what the upcoming poem be about.

Loss

The day he moved was terrible-
That evening she went through hell.
His absence wasn't a problem
But the corkscrew had gone as well.

--Wendy Cope

-Students scan the poem very quickly and write the words on cartoon flowers the teacher presents. They write the verbs they think important in this specific poem.

-Teacher pre-teaches some words which are synonymous with light- which are feathery, slender, and weightless.

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

-Teacher says that non-literal phrasal verbs are expressions the meaning of which can not be understood from the meaning of the individual words and literal ones being vice versa.

-T. gives an example from outside such as come across, run into, come round...

-T. wants students to find such expressions in the poem if there's any. (throw off)

- Next, teacher wants students to find the words which have opposite meanings.(cold x warm, heavy x light etc...)

- Teacher then divides the class into two groups; each group is responsible for finding the two symbolic words in the poem. They have to put another referent instead of these. (Namely the coat and the light clothes, according to what they do represent in the poem)

II-) Planning:

- The students study individually at this stage.
- The students will try to write a short story by using their notes which they wrote at the pre-task stage.
- They have to find two characters to tell the story, and then they make it up.

It can be as the one below.

Daniel and Juli didn't know each other until they met at a shop one day. She sold a ring to him by saying that it would bring him good luck. Then, at the same night Daniel fell in love with another girl as soon as he wore the ring, Juli was so sad and...

- Teacher encourages peer editing and use of dictionaries at this stage.
- T. suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language, but at first students need not to worry about correctness; instead they focus on the content of what they write.

III-) Report

- The students exchange their stories and compare their themes of the stories.
- At this stage, they work with their partner. Each member of the pair reads the other's poem and tries to polish it by adding new words if they like.
- T. chairs and comments on the content of their poems.

Vocabulary Focus**I-) Analysis**

- Students try to make a list of words by considering the title of the poem.
- Teacher shortly explains what tone conveys and the importance of it in a specific poem.
- Teacher asks a question about the tone of the poem.

→ Is the speaker really sorry? Apologetic? Triumphant? Smug? Sad or happy?

-By using gestures, teacher tries to make students guess the adjectives above, and students decide on the tone of the poem.

II-) Practice

-Students put themselves in the boy's shoes in the poem. They write a diary for the day he experienced this event, they make up a story. Each student writes in the way they consider the tone. It may be like this...

May, the 16th...
"Today I feel so because she has gone away, forever... Though...

- They try to complete their diaries. The beginning lines may be borrowed from the text above.
- Each student is free to express himself / herself in the way they like.

LESSON PLAN-3

When
You _____ about
Your wasted love,
You just increase
Your blind ignorance.
Love
Is never _____.
Love
Can never be _____,
For love is Infinity's _____.

by

Sri Chinmoy

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

- Teacher shows some photographs from photography experiments about love. (photos containing a ring on a lyric etc...) (entertainment.webshots.com/photo/2677541060052487855EmYvzt - 148k)
- Teacher mentions love and asks students' opinions about love, whether they know any interesting stories related to love.
- Teacher asks students whether they've seen the photograph of two skeletons embracing each other.
- Teacher pre-teaches the words "embrace", "hug", "affection", "infinity" (endlessness).
- Teacher shows the photo she has just mentioned and wants students to make comments on the photograph by simple sentences.
- Teacher directs classroom the questions below;
 - *Do you believe in the power of love?
 - *Have you ever felt that you feel better even when you are ill if you are in love?

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

- Students try to fill in the gaps while they're reading the poem for the first time.
- Teacher makes students pay attention to meaning and attracts students' attention to the structures used in the poem. (Active voice & passive voice)
- Teacher inquires which themes are emphasized in the poem.
- T. asks students in which stanza the theme of love is emphasized along with its reasons.
- Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector.

waste	antidepressant	ignorance	emotion
	blind	self-focused	
	feel		
increase	depression	embrace	
	infinity		

- Students work in pairs and try to decide on the parts of speech of the words.
- Each pair is responsible for guessing the part of speech of a word. Then the class is divided into two groups.
- The first group will write all the verbs and the adjectives while the second group is responsible for nouns.
- The students, then, underline these target words and try to write their definitions by using their own words and by using them in sentences or they can alternatively use their body language to express the words.

Step II-)

- After that students check their answers to see whether they were correct in their answers by the help of a dictionary.
- As a whole class activity, they discuss the phrase “infinity’s love”.
- Students match the words with correct phrases in the second column so that they can collocate. (pair work)

COLUMN A

1. blind
2. embrace
3. waste
4. feel
5. pure
6. infinity's
7. a self-focused

COLUMN B

- a. love
- b. one another
- c. depressed
- d. person
- e. life
- f. ignorance
- g. emotions

-Teacher randomly chooses a name from the list and the student chosen builds a sentence by using the correct collocation in any context he / she likes.

II-) Planning:

- The students study individually at this stage.
- The students will try to write a short poem by using their notes which they wrote at the pre-task stage. It doesn't have to be a rhyming or a sentimental poem. Also, no changes should be made to the original wording of their notes.

- It can be like the one below:

Sweet love
I sent you those roses
As a reflection of my pure emotions
as I promised...

and which
you were probably
longing for...
but now
...

- Teacher encourages peer editing and use of dictionaries at this stage.
- Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.
- T. suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

-The students exchange their poems and compare their themes of the poems..

-At this stage, they work with their partner. Each member reads the other's poem and tries to polish it by adding new words from the box if they like.

-T. chairs and comments on the content of their poems.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

-Students try to make a list of words by considering the title of the poem.(without looking at the poem this time)

-T. shortly explains what tone conveys and the importance of it in a specific poem.

-Teacher asks a question about the tone of the poem.

→ Is the speaker in the poem tactful? In love? Disappointed? Hopeful?

-By using gestures, teacher tries to make students guess the adjectives above, and students decide on the tone of the poem.

II-) Practice

-Students do the puzzle and after they've found all the words, they reach a hidden message.

- LOVE -



LESSON PLAN-4

A PASSING GLIMPSE

I often see _____ from a passing car
That are gone before I can tell what they are.

I want to get out of the _____ and _____
To see what they were beside the track.

I _____ all the flowers I am sure they weren't;
Not fireweed loving where woods have burnt--

Not bluebells gracing a tunnel mouth--
Not lupine living on sand and drought.

Was something brushed across my mind
That no one on earth will ever find?

_____ gives its glimpses only to those
Not in position to look too close.

By

Robert FROST

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

- Teacher asks students the so-called difference between “looking” and “seeing”.
- Teacher starts a discussion about students’ life in the past and wants them remember an old memory that affected them.
- T. asks whether anyone in the classroom has ever wanted to go back in time.
- Teacher pre-teaches the words “glimpse” (flash, sight, impression and the opposite verb stare), “heaven”, “grace”, “grateful” by using simple definitions and gestures.
- Teacher directs classroom the questions below;
 - *Do you often appreciate what you have? When you have difficulty about any topic, are you grateful of what you have?
 - *Do you think that the first impression is important?
 - *Should we enjoy things the way they are? -or-
 - *Should we go back to critique, only to be disappointed because nothing is perfect?

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

- Students try to fill in the gaps by working in groups of two.
- Teacher attracts students’ attention to the structure of the poem and state that the poem is written in couplets.
- Teacher asks students whether sometimes they observe some aspect of nature and begin to speculate on its 'meaning' in their lives.
- T. asks students whether the poet stops in the poem to enjoy the beauty of flowers.
- Teacher asks students what the poet tries to express in the last four lines:

*'Was something brushed across my mind
That no one on earth will ever find?*

*'Heaven gives its glimpses only to those
Not in position to look too close.'*

- Teacher asks which one would students prefer when they see someone or something for the first time?

a) not in a position to look too close, like the person in a passing car or train to use their imagination

b) a 'forensic' approach as if they were a scientist. (to investigate someone or something in detail and learn about it)

- Teacher inquires which theme is emphasized throughout the poem in general.
- Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector and students put a tick for the words they know.

to pass	burn	lupine	bluebells	drought
to look close		glimpse		
wood		to get out of	position	fireweed

-Students work in pairs and try to guess the parts of speech and meanings of the words.

-Each pair is responsible for guessing the part of speech of a word. If they have difficulty in guessing, they may use dictionaries.

-The students, then, underline the names of the flowers in the poem and try to write their names by using the pictures of the flowers the teacher presents.



.....
 -Teacher asks why Frost made use of flowers although they were not what he intended to express. Is he teasing the readers?

Step II-)

-After that students check their answers to see whether they were correct in their answers by the help of a dictionary.

-Students choose the definitions of words with their partners but in the sense they are used in the poem..

1. to pass

- a) to come up to a particular place, person, or object and go past them
- b) to officially accept a law or proposal, especially by voting.

2. to burn

- a) to spoil food by cooking it for too long, or to become spoiled in this way.
- b) to produce heat and flames.(if something is burning, it is producing flames and being damaged or destroyed by fire)

3. drought

- a) a long period of dry weather when there is not enough water for plants and animals to live
- b) a damage on skin because of the sun.

4. glimpse

- a) to look quickly and deliberately
- b) to see someone or something for a moment without getting a complete view of them [= catch sight of]

5. position

- a) the situation that someone is in, especially when this affects what they can and cannot do.
- b) a job, an occupation.

6. get out (phrasal verb)

- a) to leave a room or building.
- b) to help someone leave a place or escape from a place

7. look close

- a) to examine, to deal with something in detail
- b) to come closer.

8. wood

- a) the material that trees are made of
- b) a young tree.

☺ Teacher makes each pair match with another and compare their answers. Then the correct explanations are given on the board so that each student can understand the meanings of the words.

II-) Planning:

- The students study individually at this stage.
- The students will try to write a memory of theirs- a memory which they experienced in the past and would like to experience again by stating reasons- why they liked that by stating specific details. (it may be a trip, a specific day in a summer holiday, a special meeting)
- Teacher walks around students and helps students use the words in the correct sense.
- Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary,
- Teacher suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

- The students read their memories and make comparisons.
- Teacher chairs and comments on the content of their papers.

Vocabulary Focus**I-) Analysis**

- Students try to make a list of words by thinking about the poem. They come together and write all the words they've learned in that class hour.
- Then, the group is divided into three groups and one group is responsible for writing down adjectives while others are responsible for nouns and verbs they've learned.

II-) Practice

- Students add their remarks about the last couplet of the poem. What does the poet mean to say in this couplet?

LESSON PLAN-5

I, Too, Sing America

I, too, _____ America.
 I am the darker brother.
 They _____ me to eat in the kitchen
 When company _____,
 But I laugh,
 And _____ well,
 And grow strong.
 Tomorrow,
 I'll _____ at the table
 When company _____.
 Nobody'll dare
 Say to me,
 " _____ in the kitchen,"
 Then.
 Besides,
 They'll _____ how beautiful I am
 And be _____--
 I, too, am America.

by
 Langston Hughes

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

-Teacher shows some photos of American people (especially poor black children) including both white and black ones.



-Teacher starts a discussion about the life in America in the 1930s and asks students whether they know any stories about how black people suffered at those times.(for example they used to sit at the bottom of the buses in cities)

-Teacher inquires students about what they know about the “soul” (the music of black people)

-Teacher asks students what is the melody like in their songs? (whether melancholic, joyful etc...)Why?

-Teacher pre-teaches the words “grow”, “dare” and “to be ashamed of”

-Teacher shows the photo of a poor black person and asks students: “Other than the colour of their skin what makes black people different?”

-Teacher directs classroom the questions below;

**Have you ever realized that black women generally have their hair be straight? Why do you think they do this?*

**Do you think that white people are superior to the black? Why or why not?*

Task-cycle

I-)Task:

Step I-)

-Students try to fill in the gaps while they’re reading the poem for the first time.

-Teacher makes students pay attention to the title and asks what the poet tries to say with this poem. Does he favour the black or the white?

-Teacher inquires students about the occupation of the voice in the poem? What does he do?

-The class is divided into 4 groups and each group discusses the topics below, then they come together and get a general idea about the poem.

Topic 1: Why does the man in the poem laugh every time he is sent away?

Topic 2: What does “tomorrow” in line 8 stand for?

Topic 3: The title of this poem “I, Too, Sing America” has special meaning in this poem. Discuss what can be this hidden meaning?

Topic 4: Why do you think “the white” will be ashamed in the future?

-Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector.

to eat	be ashamed of	to dare
to grow strong	to laugh	to sing
		company

☺ Teacher furthermore teaches some collocations that go with the verb “to eat”

eat well/healthily/sensibly (=eat food that will keep you healthy)

eat right *American English* (=eat food that will keep you healthy)

eat properly *British English* (=eat food that will keep you healthy)

eat like a horse *informal* (=eat a very large amount)

eat like a bird *informal* (=eat very little)

-Students work in pairs and put a tick for the words they know.

Step II-)

-After that students do word puzzles which the teacher presents.

Firstly, they read the definitions and then accordingly they both match and find the words and phrases.

1. Feeling uncomfortable because someone does something that embarrasses you.
2. to be brave enough to do something that is risky or that you are afraid to do.
3. to make sounds with your voice, usually while you are smiling, because you think something is funny
4. [uncountable] when you are with other people and not alone
5. [intransitive] to increase in amount, size, number, or strength.
6. to put food in your mouth and chew and swallow it.

☺ **TO _ R _ W**

☺ **_ _ R _ TO DO SOMETHING**

☺ **C _ _ P _ _ Y**

☺ **TO _ _ T**

☺ **T _ L _ _ G _**

☺ **B E _ S _ _ _ E D _ F**

II-) Planning:

-Students work in pairs at this stage.

The night is beautiful,
 So the faces of *my people*.
 The stars are beautiful,
 So the eyes of *my people*
 Beautiful, also, is the sun.
 Beautiful, also, are the souls of *my people*.

-Teacher presents another poem by the Langston Hughes and wants students paraphrase the poem as a single paragraph by considering the mood of America in the 1930s. Students are free to write whatever comes into their minds. They can start as in the example below.

-They can also take the other poem into account while they are writing.

In this poem, the speaker is proud of the black people as.....

-They can use the words which are taught at the pre-task stage.

-Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.

-T. suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

-Students read their paragraphs in the classroom so that they can share their opinions about the topic.

-T. chairs and comments on the content of their paragraphs.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

-Students try to make a list of words by considering the title of the poem.(without looking at the poem this time). The words must be in a meaningful relationship.

-T. shortly explains what tone conveys and the importance of it in a specific poem.

-Teacher asks a question about the tone of the poem.

→ Is the speaker in the poem in woe? Sad? Disappointed or hopeful?

II-) Practice

-Students fill in the gaps by using appropriate words in the box by using correct tense.

I felt the things I'd said to him.

Maria looked at him and

When she was a baby she was too weak; but then she ate well and strong.

The two men enjoy each other's

He wanted to ask her out, but he didn't

She can and never put on weight.

I exercise and and get plenty of sleep.

Would you like something to

LESSON PLAN-6

If I can stop one _____ from breaking

If I can stop one _____ from breaking,
I shall not live in _____;
If I can ease one _____ the aching,
Or cool one _____,
Or help one fainting _____
Unto his _____ again,
I shall not live in vain.

By

Emily Dickinson

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task

- “We all have bad days, or weeks, or even months. We all feel overwhelmed at times. Things usually get better.”

-Students brainstorm ideas and words about the sentence above.

-Teacher asks students about the reasons why they live and pre-teach the phrase “live in vain.”, and words “severe”, “faint”.

-Students are in pairs and they state the reasons why they do specific acts in their lives. For example;

Reasons I take so many pictures,

* because I have a camera and I don't know what else to do

* because I'm always around when my camera is

* because I want to document the passing of time

...

-Teacher asks students what they do to feel happy in their lives and inquires whether they help people in different ways.

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

-Students try to fill in the gaps while they're reading the poem for the first time.

-Teacher makes students pay attention to the title and writes the title of the poem on the board and draws clusters on the board.

-Each student in the classroom writes an idea on the board about what they can do to stop one heart from breaking.(pick up flowers, make a cake for a person, buy him/her flowers etc...)

-Teacher inquires students about the tone of poem? T. asks whether the poet is sad, depressed, and sentimental.

-Teacher wants students to find **the lines** that achieve the tone of the poem. (In the 2nd line of the 1st stanza, she says "I shall not live in vain" and in the 3rd line of the 2nd stanza she quotes again "I shall not live in vain" this meaning that while she grows old she could look back and think she did something and that she was counted for that.)

-The class is divided into 4 groups and each group discusses the topics below, then they come together and get a general idea about the poem.

Topic 1: To whom is she speaking? (A person who needs comfort)

Topic 2: What is the central idea? (That she envied people who could comfort those who were broken-hearted, or even the simplest thing, such as assisting a helpless bird back into its nest.)

Topic 3: What words in the poem especially move you? (The entire 1st stanza)

Topic 4: Which lines are repeated in the poem? Why does the poet employ this? What are your opinions?

-Teacher states that some words in the box are concrete while others are abstract.
-Students try to match the pictures with the words and guess the meanings of all words.

-Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector.

nest robin heart pain ache



a.....



a.....



a.....

- Students work in pairs and put a tick for the words they know.

-Teacher furthermore teaches some collocations that go with the noun “**pain**”

severe/terrible/chronic pain sharp pain (=a short but severe pain)

dull pain (=one that is not severe but continues for a long time)

shooting pain (=a severe pain that starts in one place then quickly moves to another)

aches and pains (=slight feelings of pain that are not very serious)

Step II-)

-Teacher gives 4 groups of students envelopes in which there is an odd-one-out activity.

-The words are related to each other in terms of their meaning.

-Students omit one word in each group; the group who finishes first is the winner.

Activity:

- | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> robin | cuckoo | crow | crocodile | canary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> pain | grief | woe | sorrow | joy |
| <input type="checkbox"/> bird cage | house | lair | hut | nest |
| <input type="checkbox"/> nose | chin | eyes | heart | ear |
| <input type="checkbox"/> pain | crying | grief | suffering | ache |
| <input type="checkbox"/> violent | severe | strong | moderate | fierce |
| <input type="checkbox"/> to get worse | to go bad | to feel faint | | to recover |

II-) Planning:

-Students work in pairs at this stage.



-Students look at the pictures, put the pictures into a logical order and complete a 7 year-old girl's diary by considering the pictures.

Today while I was having fun with my friends, mum called me that there was a lovely bird in our balcony. I ran into the kitchen but the bird was in pain, so....

- They can use the words which are taught at the pre-task stage.
- Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.
- T. suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

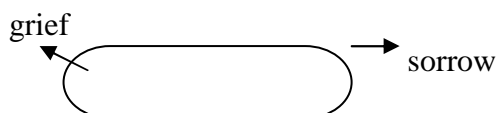
- Students read their diaries in the classroom so that they can share their opinions about the topic.
- They will have fun when each group is reading their own paragraphs.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

☺ At this stage, students work as a whole class. Teacher writes a word on the board and students brainstorm words which are related to that word.

e.g.



→ Students brainstorm as many ideas as they can for each word in the box at the task stage.

II-) Practice

- Students talk about a difficult time they've experienced in their lives so far. Then they add how they overcame.
- They may talk about the person who helped them etc...

-The poet wished she could help people with their love problems, or help a hopeless bird back into its nest.

*Did you like the poem? *What influenced you most?

LESSON PLAN-7**ROSES**

You love the roses - so do I. I wish
Then sky would rain down roses, as they rain
From off the _____ bush. Why will it not?
Then all the valley would be pink and _____
And _____ to tread on. They would fall as _____
As feathers, smelling _____; and it would be
Like sleeping and like waking, all at once!

by

George Eliot

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task

- ☺ When you have only two pennies left in the world, buy a loaf of bread with one, and a lily with the other.
 - Chinese Proverb
- ☺ Flowers are love's truest language.
 - Park Benjamin
- ☺ Flowers are the sweetest things that God ever made and forgot to put a soul into.
 - Henry Ward Beckford
- ☺ Each flower is a soul opening out to nature.
 - Gerard De Nerval
- ☺ With a few flowers in my garden, half a dozen pictures and some books, I live without envy.
 - Lope de Vega

- Teacher pre-teaches “blossom”, “grow flowers/ plants” , “sooth”, “tread on”, “feather”, “bush”.
- Students brainstorm ideas and words about the famous flower quotes above. They add other flower names if they know any.
- Teacher asks students whether they prefer to buy flowers as presents in their real lives, and which flowers they like most.
- Teacher asks students if they grow flowers and feel happy when they blossom.
- *Have you ever realized that nature soothes you? (a general question)*
- What does the poet want to tell with the last two lines?

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

- Students try to fill in the gaps while they're reading the poem for the first time.
- Teacher makes students pay attention to the words they filled in and asks what their parts of speech are. (they're adjectives)
- Teacher starts a whole class activity and asks the following questions. Students state their ideas.
 - What is the theme of the poem? What do you think?
 - Other than roses what does the poem imply further?
 - Why does the poet want the whole valley in roses?
 - Do you think that getting in touch with nature keeps you happy?
- The students work in groups and discuss the topics below, they take quick notes.
 - ✓ To whom is the speaker speaking?
 - ✓ What is the central idea?
 - ✓ What words in the poem especially move you?
- Teacher states that the words in the box below are all adjectives and most of them are adjectives of appearance and wants students use them with suitable nouns.
- Students only build up sentences for the words they know.

-Students try to match the adjectives with suitable nouns and try to use them in sentences.

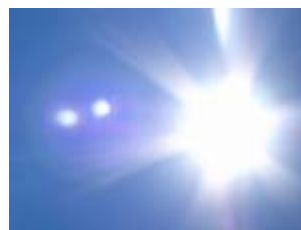
-Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector, students check for what they have known before.

shaken	soft	light	sweet	cute	shiny
peace-loving	clear	bright	glamorous	fancy	

-Students can use more than one adjective for the pictures given.



a bed



.....weather



..... water



a cat



..... feather



..... flower

Step II-)

- Teacher presents a collocation activity at this stage.

- Adjectives are presented with nouns, students omit the nouns which are not used in the same sense as the others.

Activity:

→ A Bright	sunshine	juicy peaches
	room	→ sweet wine
	child	tea
	red jumper	dreams

→ **Light** dessert
cheese
snack
shoes

→ **shiny** black shoes
weather
polished table
windows

II-) Planning:

- Students work individually at this stage and suppose that they are on a beach on a warm summer day with the flowers surrounding them.
- They try to write a very short poem which visualizes a warm summer day or a cold bright winter day.
- They may start with the line below.

“Here comes summer
....”

- They can use the words taught before is stage, they can make use of the pictures.
- Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.

III-) Report

- Students read their short poems in the classroom so that they can share their feelings.
- Students can ask for the meanings of new words they hear after the presentations.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

- At this stage students work as groups and each group as many adjectives as they remember without looking at dictionaries or pictures.
- Then, teacher collects the papers and the words are counted by other groups.
- The group with more adjectives wins.

II-) Practice

- Students talk about a beautiful summer holiday they can never forget.
- Teacher inquires students why it was an unforgettable holiday, how the environment was, what the weather was like.

FOLLOW UP

- Unscramble each of the clue words.
- Take the letters that appear in GREEN COLOURS and unscramble them for the final message

1. SOTF

2. GTLIH

3. WETSE

4. TECU

5. HISNY

6. LIGNOW

7. CELRA

8. HIBRGT

1. _ _ _ _

2. _ _ _ _ _ _

3. _ _ _ _ _

4. _ _ _ _ _

5. _ _ _ _ _

6. _ _ _ _ _ _

7. _ _ _ _ _

8. _ _ _ _ _ _ _

LESSON PLAN-8**Lessons**

THERE are who teach only the sweet _____ of peace and _____;
But I teach lessons of war and _____ to those I love,
That they readily meet _____, when they come

By

Walt Whitman

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task

-Students read a piece of news from a weekly magazine and think about how to talk to children about tough issues such as “violence”.

☺ Violence in today's world in the media, in our neighborhoods and even in our schools can make our children feel frightened, unsafe and insecure. Kids are hearing about and often must cope with tough issues such as violence at increasingly earlier ages, often before they are ready to understand all the aspects of complicated situations...

-Students brainstorm ideas about how they can help a child without hurting their feelings by considering the paragraph above.

-Teacher pre-teaches the words “tough issues”, “frightened”, “unsafe”, “insecure”, “violence”.

-Teacher asks an alternative question:

Is it best to avoid talking about such tough issues with children?

Is it best to leave them free so that they can learn when the occasion arrives?

-Students are in pairs and they jot down ideas what things can be difficult for children to reconcile.

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

-Students try to fill in the gaps while they're reading the poem for the first time.

-Teacher makes students pay attention to the title and asks what does the word “lessons” represent in this poem?

-Teacher gives students the sticky papers on which the original wordings(lessons, safety, death, invasions) of the poem are written.

-Students come to the board and stick the words as they wish.

-Teacher inquires students about the tone of poem.

-The class is divided into 4 groups and each group discusses the topics below, then they come together and get a general idea about the poem.

Topic 1: In this poem, Whitman compares two groups. What distinguishes the first group? Which group does the poet favour?

Topic 2: What does the word “invasion” mean in this specific poem?

Topic 3: Some words mean more than what they say in the poem as “lesson of peace”. It means “the happy things in life.” Find such phrases or words from the poem. (symbols)

Topic 4: Why does the poet prefer to teach lessons of war instead of good things?

-Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector.

-Teacher states that all these words are the names of the concepts; some of them are abstract and shows some pictures related to the topic.

peace

safety

war

death

invasion



Step II-)

-Teacher presents an activity. In this activity there are definitions of all words related to the topic. Students try to match correctly.

Activity:

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| 1. invasion(n) | a) things that are done to keep a person, building, or country safe from danger or crime |
| 2. war(n) | b) the end of the life of a person or animal |
| 3. peace(n) | c) when someone or something is safe from danger or harm |
| 4. safety(n) | d) when there is fighting between two or more countries or between opposing groups within a country, involving large numbers of soldiers and weapons |
| 5. death(n) | e) a situation in which there is no war or fighting |
| 6. violence(n) | f) behaviour that is intended to hurt other people physically |
| 7. security(n) | g) when the army of one country enters another country by force, in order to take control of it |
| 8. issue(n) | h) the feeling you get when you are afraid or worried that something bad is going to happen |
| 9. fear(n) | i) a subject or problem that is often discussed or argued about, especially a social or political matter that affects the interests of a lot of people |

II-) Planning:

-Students work in pairs at this stage.

→Teacher presents a situation and students have to find solutions.

“Suppose that you are a primary school teacher and a student says that he has seen war scenes that Iraq faces on TV asks you why so many people kill each other every day. You, by taking other students’ feelings into account, make a reasonable explanation about this matter.”

- They can use the words which are taught at the task stage.
- Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.
- Teacher suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

- Students read their explanations in the classroom so that they can share their opinions about the topic.
- They can edit each others’ writing.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

-At this stage, students work as a whole class. Teacher writes a word on the board and students brainstorm words which are related to that word, then another word is written.

e.g.



→ Students brainstorm as many ideas as they can for each word in the box at the task stage, they can also use dictionaries.



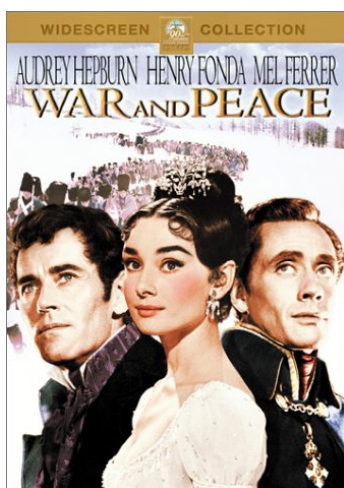
II-) Practice

-Teacher organizes a whole class activity by inquiring them and directing some questions below.

- The bad side of everything is just as important as the good things.
- The world is not a perfect place to live in.
- Children should face the dark things, such as war and death as these prepare them for real life.

Whitman kind of talks about how people shelter each other in only letting them see the good things and this is not true. Do you agree with these statements? Why or why not?

-Teacher presents a movie and gives information about the film. Students have to fill in the blanks with correct words by using the definitions in brackets.



Name of the film: War and

Age: 10+; Not Rated; Drama; 1956; 208 minutes; Color
This film describes the experiences of one Russian aristocratic family during the years 1805 - 1815, the period immediately before and during Napoleon's (* to enter somewhere by force to conquer) of Russia and Tsar Alexander reluctantly

declares..... (when there is fighting between two or more countries or between opposing groups within a country). It mainly mentions the(behaviour that is intended to hurt other people physically) Russian people face because of Napoleon's(*)The Russian troops are mobilized in alliance with the Austrian empire, which is currently resisting Napoleon's onslaught. Both Andrew and Nicholas go to the front. Andrew is wounded at the Battle of Austerlitz, and though he survives, we face his(the end of the life of a person or animal).It provides an introduction to the history of Russia during a crucial period. The movie is based on the classic novel by Leo Tolstoy.

LESSON PLAN-9

SOLITUDE

Solitude
you **fold over** me
like a _____.
You **move** the _____ further away
and shift _____ **out of reach**.
_____, you **are not fair**
to **lock me out** this way
and **leave me** barren of _____.

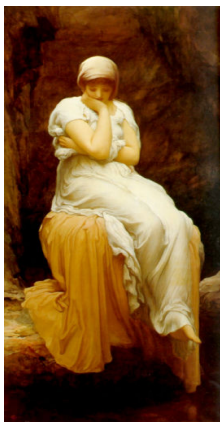
By

Howline Dervish

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

-Teacher shows a photo of a lonely woman.



-Teacher inquires students about the word “solitude” and checks what they know about that word prior to reading the poem.

-Teacher asks students whether they like staying alone.

-Teacher presents a piece of information and asks students whether they agree with the idea in the passage and asks students why or why not. Some students may find that it is misleading.

-Teacher makes students talk about advantages and disadvantages of loneliness.

☺Loneliness is an emotional state in which a person experiences a powerful feeling of emptiness and isolation. The lonely person may find it difficult or even impossible to have any form of meaningful human contact. Lonely people often experience a subjective sense of inner emptiness or hollowness, with feelings of separation or isolation from the world.

-Teacher pre-teaches the words “emptiness”, “isolation”, “separation”, “veil”, “joy”, “hollowness” and “barren” by using simple definitions and drawing simple pictures on the board.

-Teacher directs classroom the question below;

-Do you think that is short-term solitude is valuable? Why or why not?

-Teacher asks students whether staying alone makes them productive. If so, what kind of beneficial activities they do. (It may be reading a history book or just thinking about something and producing plans about a future event, finishing a work to be done etc...)

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

-Students try to fill in the gaps in the poem by working in groups of two.

-Teacher offers a jar in which there are many words related to the poem and students can choose from those pieces of papers to complete the poem. After negotiating about the correct words, teacher shows the whole poem.

-Teacher asks students whether the person in the poem is happy with his/ her loneliness and inquires students how they reached such a conclusion.

- Teacher asks students why loneliness limits the person in the poem and asks whether the person in the poem is angry with loneliness.
- The class starts a discussion about the phrase “a barren of joy”, whether this phrase has a positive or a negative connotation.
- Teacher picks up students’ attention about “*personification*”, gives a little bit of information about it and then wants students to find what is “personified” in this poem.
- Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector and students put a tick for the phrases they know.

***move away** ***it is fair to do something** ***lock somebody out**
***veil of secrecy/deceit/silence etc** ***out of reach**

***leave somebody something**

- Students work in pairs and try to guess the meaning of these phrases.
- ☺The students, then, circle these phrases in the poem and try to guess their meanings.

Step II-)

- After that students check their answers to see whether they were correct in their answers by the help of a dictionary.
- Teacher presents the base of the phrasal verbs. Students choose the definitions of words with their partners ***but in the sense they are used in the poem.***
- Having decided on the meanings, students try to use other words instead of these phrasal verbs by considering the poem again as they are only ‘literal’ and it is easy to infer the meanings by considering the context, also they take notes with their partner.

1. to move away

- a) to change from one place or position to another, or to make something do
- b) to change from one opinion or way of thinking to another.

2. to leave sb. sth.

- a) if you leave your job, home, school etc, you permanently stop doing that job, living at home etc.
- b) to leave someone alone and allow to do whatever they want.

3. to lock sb. out

- a) to be involved in a long, serious argument or fight with someone
- b) to keep someone out of a place

4. out of reach

- a) **(not in a situation)** no longer in a particular state or situation to get the intended thing.
- b) no longer in prison.

5. veil of secrecy / deceit / silence etc...

- a) a thin layer of mist, cloud etc that makes it difficult to see clearly
- b) something that hides the truth about a situation.

6. it is fair to do something

- a) (*reasonable/ acceptable*) a fair situation, system, way of treating people, or judgment seems reasonable, acceptable, and right [≠ unfair]
 b) treating everyone in a way that is right or equal

-Teacher makes each pair come together and negotiate about the phrasal verbs again. They compare their ideas and ask for help.

II-) Planning:

-The students study individually at this stage.

-The students will try to *write a paragraph for a popular magazine* about how it feels to be alone. Teacher directs students to make them think about the topic:

-But before that, states the discrimination between confusing words by exemplifying:

Alone- lonely- lonesome- solitary

These adjectives describe lack of companionship.

Alone emphasizes being apart from others but does not necessarily imply unhappiness: "I am never less alone, than when I am alone" (James Howell).

Lonely often connotes painful awareness of being alone: "'No doubt they are dead,' she thought, and felt . . . sadder and . . . lonelier for the thought" (Ouida).

Lonesome emphasizes a plaintive desire for companionship: "You must keep up your spirits, mother, and not be lonesome because I'm not at home" (Charles Dickens).

Solitary often stresses physical isolation that is self-imposed: "I thoroughly enjoyed my solitary dinner."

- What is loneliness? How do people feel when they are lonely?
- How do you feel when you are alone?
- Do you prefer staying alone sometimes or do you always long for crowded places?
- Which groups of people are lonelier? Teenagers, middle-aged or old? Think about lonely people you know well, why are they lonely?
- Students can start their writing by giving an example from the people they know, or they can use any character they read in any book.

-Teacher walks around students and helps students use the words in the correct sense.

-Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.

-T. suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

-The students read their paragraphs and make comparisons; teacher stresses the adjectives used in the paragraphs.

-Teacher chairs and comments on the content of their papers.

Vocabulary Focus**I-) Analysis**

-Students try to make a list of words by thinking about the poem. They are in two groups. They come together and write all the words they've learned in that class hour.

-Then, the group which has more words related to the poem wins.

II-) Practice

-Teacher presents a fill-in activity and students try to fill in the gaps with their partners with the words they have learnt.

-Teacher walks around and gives clues if students have difficulty in filling.

1. When he left at last, he _____ me in a deep sorrow.
2. Why does Eric have to go and I don't? _____ !!!
3. When I am enthusiastic, you talk too much, discourage me and _____ my dreams _____! You _____ me _____ this way and make me sad.
4. Jane, when you go out do not forget to _____ me a note about what I should buy from the supermarket.
5. When you talk about the exam I failed last year you _____ me _____ like a veil.
6. She is afraid to travel _____. (lonely / alone)
7. Don't you get _____ being on your own all day? (lonely / alone)

LESSON PLAN-10**THE WILLOW**

It is a willow when summer is _____,
a willow by the river
from which no leaf has _____ nor
_____ by the sun
turned orange or crimson.
The leaves _____ and grow paler,
_____ and _____ paler
over the swirling waters of the river
as if _____ to let go,
they are so cool, so drunk with
the swirl of the wind and of the river—
oblivious to winter.

By

William Carlos Williams

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

-Teacher shows some tree photos to students and inquires them about names of different trees just to count how many kinds of trees students know.



-Teacher asks whether they're interested in trees.

-Teacher then shows different tree pictures and writes the names of the trees randomly, students try to match the names with the trees.



.....
 -pine tree
 -plane tree
 -poplar tree
 -fir tree
 -walnut tree

-Teacher pre-teaches the words “swing”, “pale”, “oblivious”, “crimson”.

-Teacher directs classroom the questions below;

**Have you ever planted a tree in your life?*

**What does a tree mean for you?*

**Do you like gardening? Are trees important for you? Why? Why not?*

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

-Students try to fill in the gaps with suitable verbs while they're reading the poem for the first time.

- Teacher makes students pay attention to meaning and attracts students' attention to the repetitions used in the poem and asks whether these repetitions carry out some important function in this specific poem.
- Teacher inquires which theme is emphasized in the poem.
- Teacher asks students whether "getting old" can be the theme in this specific poem, why or why not.
- Students work in pairs and discuss about personification again and try to find what thing is personified in the poem.
- Teacher gives definition of symbol in a piece of literature.
- Symbols are people, places, or things used to represent something else in literature.*
- Teacher for example states that a "rose" is generally the symbol of love in many contexts. But, furthermore states that meaning of one symbol may change according to its context of use.
- Lastly, all the class tries to find the symbol in the poem and try to understand what effect it employs.
- Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector by stating that they're adjectives.

crimson	pale	swirling	oblivious	drunk	cool
----------------	-------------	-----------------	------------------	--------------	-------------

- Students work in pairs and try to guess their meaning by referring to the poem and using them with the words they collocate in the poem.
- The students, then, circle these target words and try to make sentences with them, if they have difficulty they use dictionaries.

Step II-)

- After that students check their answers to see whether they were correct in their answers by the help of a dictionary.
- As a whole class activity, they discuss how a willow can be oblivious to winter.
- They discuss what winter may represent in this specific poem.
- Teacher presents a "**choose the correct adjective**" activity by presenting sentences. **Students read the sentences and circle the appropriate adjective for that sentence.**

1. She is unfortunately *oblivious / absentminded* of the upcoming opportunities; she never takes her rivals into account.
2. With the coming of autumn all the leaves turned yellow and *purple/crimson*.
3. Outwardly she is *pale / cool*; she never loses her control and gets stressed.
4. *Swirling / dancing* smoke made her cough.
5. When Martin came home he was *drunk /fallen* as a skunk and Clara put him in bed immediately.
6. The patient was so *pale / crimson* that the doctor immediately took him under control.

II-) Planning:

- The students study individually at this stage.
- Teacher shows a photo of old people.



-The students will try to write a short letter from a grandmother about the theme which was clarified at the task-cycle. Teacher supports the use of target words in the box by saying the more the better.

-They will state the importance of falling leaves, clinging leaves and the upcoming winter by visualizing this person who is getting old. They will state her feelings by considering the mood of the poem. This person is writing to his grandson who lives far away from him.

☺ It can be like the one below:

Dear Terry,

I've been thinking about the good old days we were together. Now, I'm watching the falling leaves from my little window and trying to finish the book you sent me last month. I know it's been too long, but you know I can't see as well as I used to...

-Teacher encourages peer editing and use of dictionaries at this stage.

-Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary,

-T. suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

-The students exchange their letters and compare their themes of the poems..

-At this stage, they work with their partner. Each member reads the other's letter and tries to polish it by adding new words from the box if they like.

-Teacher chairs and comments on the content of their poems and inquires them whether they have fears about getting old.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

-Students try to find the target words by scanning the letters of each other. If the words collocate with words other than the ones in the poem, teacher writes in on the board for the class so that they can recognize new uses.

-Teacher asks about the tone of the poem, the feelings of the person in the poem.

-Teacher poses a question about the tone of the poem.

→ Is the speaker in the poem sad? Disappointed? Hopeful? How can you understand?

-Are there any inherent suggestions about leading a content life in the poem? (hanging on to life and never giving in to death, like the leaves on the tree, the poem is showing strong will to live! although it's autumn and the leaves should've fallen by now, the leaves cling on as if they don't want to let go of dear old life. that's how people should be!)

II-) Practice

☺ Teacher presents the words in sentences and students find the *antonyms* of the words.

1. He seemed oblivious to the fact that he had hurt her.

- a) forgetful
- b) absentminded
- c) attentive
- d) unaware

2. Sharon went deathly pale and looked as if she might faint.

- a) deathlike
- b) weak
- c) sickly
- d) strong

3. The boy blushed crimson.

- a) blood-red
- b) deep-red
- c) bloody
- d) pale

4. All she wants to do is get blind drunk.

- a) awake
- b) overcome
- c) plowed
- d) tipsy

5. She looks efficient and as cool as a cucumber.

- a) excited
- b) collected
- c) relaxed
- d) calm

6. The evening air was cool.

- a) chilling
- b) warm
- c) refrigerated
- d) cold

LESSON PLAN-11

.....

If we had no winter,
the spring would not be so pleasant:

if we did not sometimes taste of adversity,
prosperity would not be so welcome.

By

Anne Bradstreet

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task



-Students look at the pictures and state their views about these two groups of pictures.

-Teacher inquires students about the theme of the upcoming poem as they concentrate on the photos.

-Teacher asks some questions:

-Do you generally get stressed easily?

-How do you spend the time between a problematic case and a happy ending?

-Teacher pre-teaches the words “prosperity”, “adversity”, “pleasant”.

-Students are in pairs and they jot down ideas what things can be difficult for people to overcome in life.

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

-Teacher shows the lines of the poem randomly.

-Students try to put these lines into correct order to constitute the whole poem. (sequencing)

-Teacher asks students to find a suitable title for the poem.

-Teacher inquires students about the tone of poem.

-The class is divided into 2 groups and each group discusses the topics below, then they come together and get a general idea about the poem.

Topic 1: In this poem, Bradstreet uses the words “spring” and “winter” to refer to something more general in real life. Discuss these hidden meanings.

Topic 2: What associations can you draw between adversity and prosperity?

-Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector and then shows the exact poem along with its title.

Taste(n)	adversity	prosperity	pleasant
-----------------	------------------	-------------------	-----------------

Step II-)

-Students try to find synonyms for the words in the box. They have a little time for this activity and then if they have difficulty they can use dictionaries.

-Teacher presents an activity. In this activity, synonyms of the target words are given and students omit the irrelevant word.

Activity:

1. misfortune trouble adversity difficulty easiness
2. disappointment prosperity successfulness victory accomplishment
3. pleasant nice satisfying pleasing unsympathetic
4. appreciation discontent affection enjoyment admiration

II-) Planning:

-Students work in pairs at this stage.

→Teacher summarizes the theme of the poem very quickly and wants students write a critical analysis of the poem in their own words.

"Bradstreet started the poem by using two opposing...."

-They can use the words which are taught at the task stage.

-Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary.

-Teacher suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

-Students read their analysis in the classroom and they share their views about the poem.

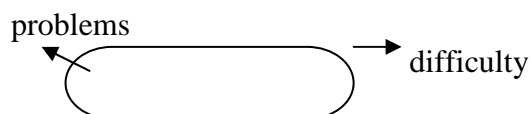
-They can edit each others' writing.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

-At this stage, students work as a whole class. Teacher writes a word on the board and students brainstorm words which are related to that word. Their parts of speech are not important at this stage. Students just try to make a group of words which are related according to meaning.

e.g.



→ Students brainstorm as many ideas as they can for each word in the box at the task stage, they can also use dictionaries.



II-) Practice

-Students think about a hard time they experienced in their lives. The teacher presents a quote.

- The bad side of everything is just as important as the good things.

-Teacher asks students whether they consider these hard times as a chance to nurture themselves emotionally. Why or why not?

-Teacher gives a quote and wants students explain what they understood.

--The talent of success is nothing more than doing what you can do well, and doing well whatever you do without thought of fame. If it comes at all it will come because it is deserved, not because it is sought after. [Henry Wadsworth Longfellow]

☺ Teacher presents a situation.

Case 1: Mary has trouble finishing her term paper. For a while she is discouraged as the deadline is coming closer. But then she realizes that she is unable to concentrate on something. She is stressed all the time and is not happy. During this period, she even starts thinking of failing the course as she cannot organize herself. But she is too discontent with herself. She must do something. Either give up or go on?

☺ Students write an ending for this case by stating reasons. They try to examine her feelings by putting themselves in her shoes. They offer solutions and at the end evaluate this awesome period according to their point of view.

(But then she recovers and sits up for nights to finish the work and during this tiring period)

LESSON PLAN-12

Hope is the Thing with Feathers

"Hope" is the thing with feathers
That _____ in the soul
And _____ the tune without the words
And never _____ at all,

And sweetest in the gale is heard;
And sore must be the storm
That could _____ the little bird
That _____ so many warm.

I've _____ it in the chilliest land
And on the strangest sea,
Yet never, in extremity,
It _____ a crumb of me.

By

Emily Dickinson

Pre-task Stage

Introduction to the topic and task (10 minutes)

-Teacher shows some photographs of flying birds to students before giving out the poem for classroom study.



-Teacher asks students what a bird can symbolize in a piece of literature.

-Teacher gives definition of hope: " Hope is a belief in a positive outcome related to events and circumstances in one's life. Hope implies a certain amount of perseverance — i.e., believing that a positive outcome is possible even when there is some evidence to the contrary."

-Teacher presents some quotes on hope for classroom discussion. Students agree or disagree with the quotes.

*Learn from yesterday, live for today, hope for tomorrow."

*"Hope is important because it can make the present moment less difficult to bear. If we believe that tomorrow will be better, we can bear a hardship today."

-Teacher pre-teaches the words "to abash", "to perch" and "feather", "crumb"

-Teacher directs classroom the questions below;

**Are you generally hopeful? How do you feel yourself when you're filled with hope?*

**What do you do when you're hopeless?*

**Have you experienced any occasions where your hopes came true?*

* *Do you believe if a person is hopeless he becomes discouraged? Is it true?*

Task-cycle

I-) Task:

Step I-)

-Students try to fill in the gaps while they're reading the poem for the first time.

-Teacher makes students pay attention to meaning in each stanza and asks students to find what hope does in what conditions.

-Teacher inquires which theme is emphasized in the poem.

-In the poem, Dickinson describes hope as a bird and says that it "*it sings wordlessly and without pause.*" Students discuss in pairs what the poet means by this phrase.

-Teacher divides the classroom into 3 groups. Each group is responsible for some questions to clarify their stanzas. Groups discuss these questions.

Group 1:

-Why does the bird "perch" in the soul?

- The bird "sings." Is this a good or a bad thing? The tune is "without words." Is hoping a matter of words, or is it a feeling about the future, a feeling which consists both of desire and expectation? Psychologically, is it true that hope never fails us, that hope is always possible?

Group 2:

-Why is hope "sweetest" during a storm? When do we most need hope, when things are going well or when they are going badly?

- Essentially only the most extreme or impossible-to-escape storm would affect the bird/hope. If the bird is "abashed" what would happen to the individual's hope? In a storm, would being "kept warm" be a plus or a minus, an advantage or a disadvantage?

Group 3:

- Is "the strangest sea" a desirable or undesirable place to be? Would you need hope there?

- The last two lines are introduced by "Yet." What kind of connection does "yet" establish with the preceding ideas/stanzas? Does it lead you to expect similarity, contrast, an example, an irrelevancy, a joke?

- Even in the most critical circumstances the bird never asked for even a "crumb" in return for its support. What are the associations with "crumb"?

-Teacher inquires students about the last stanza and gives clues by talking about the optimism of hope by explaining no matter how extreme the conditions, it never asks for a single crumb.

-Teacher gives information about a "metaphor" by saying that **Metaphors are comparisons** that show how two things that are not alike in most ways are similar in one important way. Metaphors are a way to describe something. Authors use them to make their writing more interesting or entertaining.

© Teacher gives an example;

1. Brian was a wall, bouncing every tennis ball back over the net.

This metaphor compares Brian to a wall because _____.

- He was very strong.
- He was very tall.
- He kept returning the balls.
- His body was made of cells.

-Teacher presents the box below by using the overhead projector.

Chill	extreme	sore	strange	warm
little				

- Students work in pairs and try to decide on the parts of speech of the words.
- The students circle these target words in the poem and try to guess their meanings.

Step II-)

- After that students check their answers to see whether they were correct in their answers by the help of a dictionary.
- Students match the words with correct endings to make up whole phrases.

COLUMN A

1. a chill
2. extreme
3. a sore
4. a strange
5. warm
6. a little

COLUMN B

- a. cold
- b. tiny puppy
- c. reason to explain her fault
- d. weather to enjoy ourselves
- e. point in identifying the robber
- f. wind

II-) Planning:

© Never let go of hope. One day you will see that it all has finally come together. What you have always wished for has finally come to be. You will look back and laugh at what has passed and you will ask yourself... 'How did I get through all of that?

- Students examine the quote above and try to remember a memory of theirs similar to the one above. It may be a difficult exam they managed to pass, or a thing they wanted to buy etc.
- The students can either write a short poem about hope. It doesn't have to be a rhyming or a sentimental poem.
- Teacher encourages peer editing and use of dictionaries at this stage.
- Teacher walks around to advise students on language, vocabulary,
- Teacher suggests phrases and tries to polish and correct their language.

III-) Report

- The students exchange their poems and memories and compare their themes of the poems.
- At this stage, they work with their partner. Each member reads the other's poem and memory and tries to polish it by adding new words from the box if they like.
- Teacher chairs and comments on the content of their poems.

Vocabulary Focus

I-) Analysis

- Students try to find synonyms of the target words in pairs and write them down.
- Teacher shortly explains what tone conveys and the importance of it in a specific poem.
- Teacher asks a question about the tone of the poem.
- Is the speaker in the poem optimistic? Pessimistic? Hopeful or hopeless?

II-) Practice

☺Students do odd-one out activity.

1. coldwarm frosty chilly cool cold
2. extreme excessive immoderate restrained intense
3. offended sore hurt distressed resentful
4. strange peculiar odd familiar exceptional
5. warm mild temperate cool sweaty
6. little tiny small huge undersized

A SAMPLE LESSON PLAN (PPP)**A Sad Song about Greenwich Village**

She lives in a garret
Up a haunted stair,
And even when she's frightened
There's nobody to care.

She cooks so small a dinner
She dines on the smell
And even if she's hungry
There's nobody to tell.

She sweeps her musty lodging
As the dawn steals near,
And even when she's crying
There's nobody to hear.

I haven't seen my neighbour
Since a long time ago,
And even if she's dead
There's nobody to know.

By

Frances Park

Title: “A Sad Song about Greenwich Village”

Level: Intermediate

Teacher Materials: The poem, blackboard

Objectives: Students will make sense of the poem by answering the questions of the teacher and learn the vocabulary (garret, haunted, dine on the smell, sweep, lodging, dawn stealing near) which exists in the poem.

Introduction: The teacher tells students that they will read a poem whose theme is about getting old and loneliness.

Transition: Teacher reads the poem aloud and students listen while they follow the lines from blackboard.

Procedure: (Sequence of Questions)

1. In the first stanza, what can you say about the feelings of this woman when you consider the phrases “live in a garret” and “up a haunted stair”?
2. Why do you think she cooks a small dinner?
3. Why does she dine on the smell?
4. Why do you think there is nobody to care for this old lady?
5. What sorts of things does this old woman do?
6. What do these acts represent in this specific poem?
7. If this woman is dead, why isn't there somebody to care for her?
8. What sorts of things do lonely people do / feel?
9. What kinds of people feel lonely?
10. What causes people to feel lonely?
11. Who do you think the voice is in the poem? Does he/ she know that woman well?

Review:

- Teacher inquires students about the phrases by asking questions about the poem.
- Students answer teacher's questions, they take notes.

Evaluation:

- Teacher informs students about the poem to be studied next lesson.
- Students write the answers of the questions and the target vocabulary on their notebooks.