

## **Classroom Interaction Versus Audio –lingual Method In Teaching English Grammar For Iraqi EFL University Learners.**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The present study aims at investigating empirically the effect of using classroom interaction: role play, group and pair cooperation and interactive multimedia CD on the achievements of 1<sup>st</sup> Year Iraqi EFL University learners/ College of Basic Education in grammar.

To achieve this goal the following null and alternative hypotheses have been posed:

- There is no statistical difference between the experimental and the control group in learning English grammar at (0.05) level of significance.
- There is a significant statistical difference between the experimental and the control group in learning English grammar at (0.05) level of significance.

To verify the hypothesis, an experiment was designed whereby two groups, the control and the experimental, each consisted of (20) students, who had been chosen randomly from the first stage in the Department of English, College of Basic Education, University of Babylon. Both groups were matched in terms of their age, parents' level of education, and the level of subjects' achievement in grammar in the first course of the academic year (2008–2009).

The experiment lasted for a whole course (the second course of the academic year 2008–2009). The experimental group has been taught by using classroom interaction (henceforth CI), whereas the control group has been taught according to the traditional method of instruction. (Audio–Lingual Method).

Both groups were subjected to a pre and post tests. The test results indicate that there is a significant difference between the two groups in favour of the experimental group.

In the light of the results, the researchers have concluded that:

- 1– The use of CI activities in teaching English syntax is more effective in improving the achievements of Iraqi EFL learners than the traditional way.
- 2– There is a relationship between teaching through interaction and the use of language in every day communication, for the reason that CI activities are based on the integration of the grammatical forms with their notions and functions.
- 3– Teaching through interaction creates the suitable climate, which is similar to the real world, for learning the foreign language.

4- The less the number of students in the class, the more the opportunities to interact and negotiate the meaning among students will be.

## Section one

### Introduction

#### 1.1 Problem of the study

The world around us witnesses changes in the field of teaching EFL. Winds of change have begun to blow on the western world in the 1960s and the 1970s of the twentieth century, to result in radical changes in methodology of teaching. The contemporary views of language teaching give a prominent role for interaction while learning, for the reason that "language is acquired as learners actively engaged in attempting to communicate in the target language" (Nunan, 2001: 51).

Along the lines of the contemporary perception of foreign language learning as a growing, socially distributed process, positioned in the larger context of social interaction, the classroom has been defined as a primarily social site for language learning. This has led to an augmented sensitivity to the institutional organization of classroom discursive activities and to the complicated details of classroom interactions. Instead of perceiving language learning as acquisition of isolated grammatical features, learning a new language is inherently linked to learners' participation in various communicative practices in informal and formal settings (Hadley, 2003: 86).

Conventionally, learning by heart and repetitions principles of the audio-lingual method have been at the heart of foreign language education. Nowadays, foreign language classrooms, communicative or interactive language pedagogy have become a predominant method of language teaching. The core goal of such syllabuses necessitates language teaching and learning in the course of students' active and interactive involvement in simulated communicative activities, role plays, dialogues, acting, dramatizations, and discussions in classroom interaction (Lantolf and Aljaafreh, 1995: 62). Generally speaking, such pedagogical activities involve rather complex communicative tasks, situations and environments that require the employment of perspective-taking skills, planning, performance and recognition of a variety of communicative roles and genres (Nunan, 2001: 77).

The above mentioned argument inspired the researchers to phrase the statement of the problem of the study as follows:

Will the use of CI activities (cooperative group and pair work, role playing and the interactive CD) in teaching English grammar enhance the achievements of 1<sup>st</sup> year Iraqi EFL University learners?

## 1.2 Aim of the study

This study aims at investigating the effect of using CI activities (group and pair work cooperation, role playing and the interactive CD) on the achievements of 1<sup>st</sup> year Iraqi EFL university learners in University of Babylon/ College of Basic Education/ Department of English.

## 1.3 Hypotheses of the study

The researchers attempt to test the following hypotheses in order to accomplish the aim of the research.

- There is no statistical difference between the experimental and the control group in learning English grammar at (0.05) level of significance.
- There is a significant statistical difference between the experimental and the control group in learning English grammar at (0.05) level of significance.

## 1.4 Scope of the study

The present study is limited to:

- 1- The first year Iraqi EFL university learners in University of Babylon/ College of Basic Education/ Department of English for the academic year 2008–2009.
- 2- Concerning the teaching material, the research is limited to items 2 of units 6,7,8, 9 and 10 of *An Advanced Course in General English* which is assigned as the syllabus of the first university stage in College of Basic Education for the second semester.
- 3- CI activities: Cooperation through group and pair work, role playing and the interactive CD.

## Section two

### Theoretical Background

#### 2.1 Traditional Methods: The Audio–Lingual Method

##### 2.1.1. Definition, Background and Principles

Richards et al. (1992: 25) define the Audio–Lingual method, which is also known as the "aural–oral method, mim–mem method" saying that it is a method of foreign or second language teaching which (a) emphasizes the teaching of speaking and listening before reading and writing (b) uses DIALOGUES and DRILLS (c) discourages use of the mother tongue in the classroom (d) often makes use of CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS. The audiolingual method was prominent in the 1950s and 1960s, especially in the United States, and has been widely used in many other parts of the world.

The definition above gives a summary of this method of teaching, its characteristics and the time and places of its domination.

According to Finacchairo and Brumfit (1983:29) the Audio–Lingual Method was developed in the United States during the 2nd World War. At that time there was a need for people to learn foreign languages rapidly for military purposes. An army specialized in Training

programmer was lunched to remedy the situation in 1942. Therefore, the Audio–Lingual Method had been developed in the 1940s and dominated Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) in the 1950s and 1960s. Its main principle is to make learners fit for the fluent oral use of the target language in everyday situations, i.e. it stresses accuracy rather than fluency of language.

The Audio–Lingual Method represents a combination of structural linguistic and behavioristic theorems. It starts from the premise that language learning rests on the imitation and reinforcement of the spoken language forms which children hear adults use in given situations. This is in stark contrast to older cognitive approaches to FLT which claim that knowledge of explicit rules of grammar and the cognitive analysis and construction of sentences are indispensable for language learning. From the premise that all learning rests on the (mindless) imitation of good examples following logically the hallmarks of Audio–Lingual teaching method: pattern drills, the exclusive use of the target language in class, and no toleration of errors. The dogmatic version of the Audio–Lingual Method forbids teachers from the use of the learners first language and translations or bilingual vocabulary explanations and insists on the monolingual explanation of the meaning of words and grammatical structures. Another maxim is that language forms must be presented and learnt in situational contexts appropriate to them so that learners can learn to react with the correct linguistic response to a given situation. Errors or situation ally inappropriate responses must not be tolerated because they might lead to the development of ‘bad habits’ (Richards et al., 1992:26).

Particular emphasis was laid on mastering the building blocks of language and learning the rules for combining them, according to the structural linguistics theory. The underlying theory of language learning (Behaviorism) included the following principles:

- Language learning is habit–formation.
- Mistakes are bad and should be avoided, as they make bad habits.
- Language skills are learned more effectively if they are presented orally first, then in written form.
- Analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis.
- The meanings of words can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context.
- Some of the objectives of the Audio–Lingual Method are:
- Accurate pronunciation and grammar.
- Ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations.
- Knowledge of sufficient vocabulary to use with grammar patterns.

### 2.1.2 Syllabus and Procedures

The Audio–Lingual syllabus is a "structural" one "along with dialogues and drills" as Mirhassani (2003: 229) states. He also highlights the procedures of "an Audio–Lingual course" as follows:

- Students hear a model dialogue (either from the teacher or a tape).
- Students repeat each line of the dialogue.
- Certain key words or phrases may be changed in the dialogue.
- Key structures from the dialogue serve as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds.
- The students practice substitutions in the pattern.

### 2.1.3 Teacher Role and Learner Role

The teacher is seen as the corner stone of the teaching process in the Audio–Lingual Method, which is teacher–directed, the heavy weight of teaching is laid on his shoulders. He is the model of language instruction. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:62–3) the role of the teacher includes the following:

- He introduces and directs the instruction of the four skills of language: listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- Corrects the mistakes of his students rapidly. Reinforces the correct responses because mistakes are bad and might hinder learning.
- Controls and keeps the flow of learning by using various exercises and drills which are represented in a suitable situation to practice structure.
- Reinforces learning by using the suitable trials.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001:62), the students are seen as "organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses". They only respond to what the teacher asks them to do, they are not allowed to initiate interaction (especially in the early stages of instruction) for the reason that they might commit mistakes which hinders their learning. They have only to repeat what the teacher says at the beginning (even if they do not understand) just to learn the accurate structure.

## 2.2 Communicative Language Teaching: CI

### 2.2.1 The Term CI

Brown and Rodgers (2002: 79) use the word classroom to refer to extensive situations where the educational process of EFL takes place among learners and teachers. These situations include: "classes in schools, multi–media, distance learning situation, one–to–one tutoring, on–the–job training, computer–based instruction, and so on".

Interactivity, interactive or interaction are related and intermingled concepts which are used to give similar meanings with varying degrees. The concept (Interactivity) is quite well known and is largely used in many scientific, academic, literary, educational, ... etc applications in the western world for more than twenty years ago. Interactivity is not only a technological, literary or related to the internet term, but also a way of life, a style of innovation and a means of existence. (Al-Breiky, 2006: 60–8). In learning the concept means "a necessary and fundamental mechanism for knowledge acquisition and the development of both cognitive and physical skills" (Barker, 1994:1), whereas Jonassen (1995:101) argues that it is the way in which the learner is transformed into a real way of learning by means of interaction with the teacher, other learners or the learning text.

Mortensen (1972:12) states that CI depends on verbal and non-verbal interactions. He argues that verbal and non-verbal interactions are complementary aspects of communicative act. Non-verbal interaction includes all non-linguistic or extra-linguistic aspects of behaviour, which contribute to the meaning of message. These include body movements, gestures, facial expressions, contact, etc, while verbal interaction includes words as discrete entities. To sum up the classrooms of language tutoring where EFL instruction takes place is seen as discourse communities and sociolinguistic environments where interaction is considered a key factor to learner's foreign language development. Hall and Verplaetse (2000:10) assert this saying:

It is in their interactions with each other that teachers and students work together to create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development.

Heringer (1978:53) maintains that "human actions can only be possible as social action and thus only a theory of action that is based on interaction is capable of explaining human action". Thus human interaction depends on the following three constituents:

1. No less than two participants; P1 and P2 are concerned.
2. Every participant acts in relation to at least one constituent.
3. The act (s) of the participant who does not start shall be grasped as a reaction to an act of the participant who begins (ibid: 55)

To sum up, the classrooms of language tutoring where EFL instruction takes place is seen as sociolinguistic environments (Cazden, 1988) and discourse communities (Hall and Verplaetse, 2000:10).

### **2.2.2 Implications of CI in Grammar Teaching**

The term 'grammar' is used to refer to the basic units of a language and how these units are brought together to form meaningful sentences, and the knowledge of what, when and to whom these sentences are said (i.e. their functions). In other words, grammar is concerned

with rules of construction and use (Celce–Murcia and Larsen–Freeman, 1999:1; Richards, et al, 1992:161). Thornbury (1999: 13) agrees with this definition and broadens it by saying that grammar gives additional "meanings" which cannot be attained from "immediate context". These are basically:

- representational – that is, grammar enables us to use language to describe the world in terms of how, when and where things happen, and
- interpersonal – that is, grammar facilitates the way we interact with other people when, for example, we need to get things done using language.

Grammar is a useful tool that improves the learner's performance in both the mother and foreign language because it is able to record actual usage and formulate the rules whereby sentences are general and understood. (Harmer, 2007:59–61). Cook (2001: 19) and Thornbury (1999: 13,28) point out the key role of grammar in FL research and the approaches by which grammar is taught.

Grammar is considered by many linguists to be the central area of language around which other areas such as pronunciation and vocabulary revolve.... Grammar is sometimes called the 'computational system' that relates sound and meaning, trivial in itself but impossible to manage without.

(Cook, 2001:19)

Vygotsky (1978) contends that learning and cognitive development are strongly associated in the sense that cognition matures when the child interacts and shares the responsibility with his parent or a more proficient person. In his zone of proximal development (ZPD), Vygotsky's illuminates two main phases of an individual's growth. The first is what a child or learner can do by himself; the second is his potential, what he can accomplish with the help of another, more competent person. The distance between two points is called the zone of proximal development. Vygotsky also introduces the notion of a mediator – a person who helps students to accomplish what they cannot do by themselves. In language teaching, the mediator is the teacher himself and his role is to lead the students in the right direction in order to reach the second stage in the ZPD as stated by Appel and Lantolf (1994), Lantolf (2000) and Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995).

The Input Hypothesis of Krashen (1982) holds that learners acquire language through a comprehensible input at "i + 1 level (i is the learner's current competence level and i + 1 is a level slightly beyond the learner's current level)" are the only way for learners to learn a language (Krashen, 1985). The outcomes of this hypothesis is that receiving a sufficient amount of comprehensible input in listening will result in learning talk. Additionally, grammatical rules are obtained when learners figure out the input in which these rules occur in the same way children acquire their mother tongue, without teaching these rules explicitly.

Supporters of this hypothesis maintain that the teacher's task is to invent instructing situations full of comprehensible input. Despite the criticism of its opponents for overstressing the function of input and ignoring the significance of the students' effective anticipation in foreign language communication, it highlights the importance of giving students an understood message-oriented input to guarantee that language learning is taking place. (Ellis, 1990).

Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1985) suggests that the verbal interactions between the teacher and learners, and among the learners themselves in order to exchange thought and ideas play a role in creating a beneficial input for foreign language learning. Negotiation of meaning increases the students' consciousness about vernacular characteristics of language and the parts beyond the standard language. (Gass, 1997). Another advantage of negotiation is that learners gain feedback on their linguistic production from their interlocutors, usually shaped as a comprehensive test, explanation demand and verification assessment. Throughout the feedback, the learners revise their output. Negotiated interaction is seen as a significant factor which promotes EFL as illustrated by Gass and Varonis (1994: 299) who say that it

...crucially focuses the learner's attention on the parts of the discourse that are problematic, either from a productive or receptive point of view. Attention in turn is what allows learners to notice a gap between what they produce/ know and what is produced by speakers of the L2. The perception of a gap or mismatch may lead to grammar restructuring.

Like Krashen, Long (1996: 451-2) has given prestige to comprehensible input but he puts more emphasis on two-way interaction, conversational modifications as a result of negotiation and how negotiation can make the input more comprehensible, improve awareness and the necessity to produce an output. Schmitt (2002:122) encapsulates Long's hypothesis as follows

in modifying the interaction patterns, by paraphrasing, repeating, slowing or otherwise working with the L2 speaker to ensure that meaning is communicated. Thus,...interactional adjustments improve comprehension, and comprehension allows acquisition.

Swain (1995) sums up the output hypothesis saying that in addition to comprehensible input, learners' output has three important contributions during the process of foreign language learning. First of all, verbal interaction can urge students to concentrate on semantic processing of the language as well as the syntactic processing, i.e. students are pushed to keep their minds not only on what they say but also to how they say it. Secondly, during the process of using the target language TL, students are testing their hypotheses about it. When learners are forced to produce the TL, they recognize the limitation of their interlanguage (i.e. the type of language produced by second and foreign language learners

who are in the process of learning a language). They also find themselves obliged to procure other linguistic forms to make themselves understand, in case they receive a negative feedback. Finally, talk has a metalinguistic role: learners use language to reflect upon their language use.

Ellis (1999) in his review has updated the version of Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996) to include two views of interaction:

- Interpersonal process which aims to assist students to become aware of the significant qualities of the input.
- Intrapersonal activity which involves various sorts of processing operations for learners to acquire the negotiated input.

Allwright (1984: 160–1), on the other hand, classifies the students' contribution in CI into three types of oral engagement language lessons

- 'compliance', which is more recurrent than the other two, the utterances of students are highly dependent on the teacher's management of classroom communication, such as when students answer the questions of the teacher.
- 'navigation' where students take the initiative to overwhelm interruption during interaction, for example, when they ask for clarification of what has been said. This type may be considered as a simpler form of negotiation of meaning that can help comprehension and may contribute to language development.
- 'negotiation' is the less frequent type, and when it takes place, the teacher's and the students' roles may become less asymmetrical, and interlocutors attempt to reach decision making by consensus.

Swain's theories differ from the theories of Krashen and Long, in that they have ascribed language learning to the efforts of students to produce the TL in real situations. Another significant difference between Krashen and Swain is the role played by speaking. Unlike Krashen who views speaking as developing from previous learning, Swain asserts that learners' production is a source of learning by itself, not simply an outcome of learning (Gibbons, 2006).

To conclude, CI can be seen as a useful tool to teach grammar. For the reason that CI activities provide opportunities to combine the form of the grammatical rules with their function. Additionally, CI tasks help students to induce the accurate and fluent use of these rules during their interaction with their interlocutors, the teacher and the text. (Cook, 2001: 37–44); (Thornbury, 1999); (Nunan, 2001); Lantolf (2000). This conclusion corresponds to what Hatch (1978: 409) has pointed out about the usefulness of CI in promoting the grammar of English language "One learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally and, out of this interaction, syntactic structures are developed".

### 2.2.3. Pedagogical Advantages of CI:

Many specialists in the field of teaching EFL have assigned the significant role of CI in education. The researcher has detected the following advantages of CI for the learning process:

- 1- CI requires a kind of cooperation between the teacher and the students and among the students themselves under the supervision and direction of their teacher. Cooperative learning techniques require students to take different roles in the group, thus students can be assigned different roles according to their abilities; when they feel more comfortable using the target language, students can take on more challenging roles. Therefore students who have completed their study accordingly score higher marks, possess strong personality and self confidence, engage more positively in the society, have less passive attitudes about people of other nationalities, cultures or religions and a better understanding of the materials they are studying. (Kohonen, 1992: 15; Olsen and Kagan, 1992: 8; Stahl, 1995:1; Kyriacou, 1991: 73; Jacobs et al., 2002: 136)
- 2- Creating a joyful climate in the class and consequently the students will enjoy and positively participate in the learning process. This learning environment which is vital and full of fun the students have the opportunity to practice the foreign language freely without tension will result in reducing anxiety, since the learnt grammatical texts are learnt and used in a social context similar to that in which they are going to similar to real life situations, through CI. (Littlewood, 1998: 97-8; Cope and Kalantzis, 2000:5)
- 3- Students are provided the required time to arrange their messages and put them into words. This will assist them to exploit and invest the communicative strategies (e.g. "avoid communication, use paraphrase, seek help, etc." (Littlewood, 1998: 84-7) in a productive way.
- 4- Research in the field of CI shows the importance of the social interaction or "Language Socialization" as Riley (cited in Spolsky and Hult, 2008: 398) calls it, in providing the sufficient amount of essential, understood input for learners due to the fact that they share similar educational background and level of knowledge. Research in the field of "learner-learner interactive processes has shown how collaboration may result in the provision of developmentally appropriate assistance" (Lantolf, 2000: 52).
- 5- In CI the furniture of the classroom is ordered in a way that the teacher can see all the students, in other words the students' desks are arranged around in the form of an open circle. Through this organization the teacher can distribute his paralinguistic signs to all students and consequently makes them feel that they are all engaged with him and should pay attention to his instruction and questions because each student sits in the zone of the teacher's sight. (Byrne, 1987: 14; Sadker and Sadker, 2003: 85).

- 6- When the teacher asks a question he does not direct it to a certain student, instead he will direct it to all the students. This "group alerting" will keep them "awake and on their toes" (Sadker and Sadker, 2003: 87); (Byrne, 1987: 15).
- 7- Through CI, students learn law and order. For the reason that the teacher sets the rules which guarantee their mutual privileges and opinions, seek permission when they want to participate, appreciate the possessions and seats of each other and give the students the opportunity to add their own rules, after the teacher and the class agree on it. (Sadker and Sadker, 2003: 84; Kyriacou, 1991: 8-10)
- 8- The output of students is mostly formed by reading and writing which "can start from the first day, if desired" (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983: 92) the result will be providing the required amount of practice to the reading and writing skills. (Chavez, 1997; Cononelos and Oliva, 1993; Nicholas and Toporski, 1993; Oliva and Pollastrini, 1995).
- 9- CI encourages students to benefit from the knowledge of language rules during their interaction "i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately" (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983: 92), or functions of language rather than its forms. Since it broadens the Chomskyan concept of 'competence' into 'communicative competence' CI emphasizes the importance of applying the abstract system of rules in the mind of the student within real life situations (Hymes, 1972: 278; Munby, 1978: 19-22; Cook, 2003: 9).
- 10- CI encourages critical thinking. Wilkins (1976: 19) thinks that the method of people working through language is more important than "the mastery of the language as an unapplied system". When students use "discovery techniques" or "activities" they are highly engaged in discovering rules of language using their "cognitive powers". (Harmer, 2007: 82-83; Thornbury, 1999: 51; Harmer, 1987: 29; Rivers, 1981: 26).
- 11- CI activities assist learners to acquire communicative competence, hence they are mainly co-operative and the class is not teacher fronted. On the contrary, the teacher is a facilitator and observer who initiates and organizes the interactional process, also provides consultation and support whenever necessary. Harrington (1992: 72) asserts this saying that "Communicative competence can only be achieved when dialogue is not dominated". This means that CI reduces anxiety leading to greater participation of learners who know and preserve their mutual rights during interaction, as Ellsworth (1989: 314) explains "all members have equal opportunity to speak, all members respect other member's rights to speak and feel safe to speak, and all ideas are tolerated and subject to rational critical assessment against fundamental judgments and moral principles".

12- The researcher has found out, from her observation of the number of attendants in each lecture and the statements of subjects, that students are eager to attend the lecture and participate in the renewed activities. This indicates that the variation in the learning styles resulted from CI tasks make students more concerned about not missing the lecture, as well as arouse their eagerness to try out new ways of learning since the researcher has used a variety of CI activities.

#### **2.2.4 Types of CI:**

Brown and Rodgers (2002:81-85) divide CI into three kinds which are useful to promote language learning. They are as follows:

##### **2.2.4.1 Teacher Interactions with Learners**

This type of interaction deals with the ongoing process of CI between teachers and their students. Because of its importance in promoting EFL education, researchers in this field have built up many research tools to scrutinize and analyze CI "Over twenty observation instruments have been developed just for studying classroom interaction in second language classes... most of these focus on the teacher" (Long and Sato 1983). Among these twenty instruments the following are considered of critical value:

- 1 Teacher questions
- 2 Teacher error correction
- 3 Quantity of teacher speech
- 4 Teacher explanations
- 5 Teacher 'wait-time' for student responses

(Brown and Rodgers, 2002:81).

Throughout this process learners commit mistakes and errors, but it is preferable for the teacher not to confuse the teaching-learning process by telling the learners that this is wrong, or that they have performed wrongly. Instead, his duty would be to lead his student (s) to recognize their mistake and direct them to avoid such an error in the future.

##### **2.2.4.2 Learner-to-learner Interactions**

In this type the focus is on the interactions of learners among themselves to find out "what goes on these convocation of learners and how...learner-to-learner interactions contribute to language acquisition" (ibid:84). Therefore there is an "increasing emphasis is placed on language learning tasks which involve pair work and group work" (ibid) in the communicative language teaching CLT.

Another approach to language teaching, cooperative learning, also gives a heavy weight to the ways of student interactions and their final achievements. In this approach learners are grouped in such away that create a social environment where each learner contributes to him and his colleagues' development. (Olsen and Kagan, 1992:8).

### 2.2.4.3 Student–text Interaction

In this type, the learner acts as a reader and a participant in creating the text. That's why it is adopted in teaching the reading and writing skills interactively.

Grabe (1988) posits a notion of interactivity in foreign language reading and makes a distinction between reading as an interactive process (interaction between top–down and bottom–up processing) and interactive models of reading (interaction between reader and author as if reader and author were engaged in a text–based conversation).

(Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 107–108)

The learner draws upon his previous knowledge, as well as the facts found in the syllabus content. Recent views see comprehension as drawing upon both top–down and bottom–up processing, in what is known as interactive processing. The top–down processing (TDP) refers to "The use of background knowledge, knowledge of text structures, and/ or knowledge of the world to assist in the interpretation of discourse." (Nunan, 2001: 316), while the bottom–up processing (BUP) is "Decoding the smallest elements (phonemes and graphemes) first, and using theses to decode and interpret words, clauses, sentences, and then whole texts" (ibid: 302). It is claimed that BUP influence TDP, and vice versa. According to Richards, et al (1992: 383–4). Interactive processing is probably compensatory, that is, one type of processing will take over if there is a problem with the other type, and when the quality of the stimulus is good, bottom–up processing is preferred, and it is only when stimulus quality deteriorates that top–down processing takes over as a compensatory device.

### 2.2.5 Interactive Teaching Skills

There are several major interactive teaching skills that a teacher ought to master in order to promise CI. These skills are intermingled and related to each other like a net work. Studies about the teaching skills revealed that a unique characteristic of "teaching skills is their interactive nature" (Kyriacou, 1991: 33). The teacher faces varying situations, most of which are unexpected, thus he needs to redirect his performance to cope with these changes. Clark and Peterson (1986) have noticed that the successful teachers moderate and adjust their manners and tactics with regards to the lesson progress. They have also pointed out that with the passage of time a lot of this interactive executive is converted into a custom which is somewhat conscious and the teacher just has to consider the more unpredictable circumstances which need a careful attention and care. The followings are the essential interactive teaching skills as (Kyriacou, 1991) calls them.

### 2.2.5.1 Lesson Presentation:

Introducing new items in language teaching depends on a good onset or start to the lesson. At this stage, "presentation stage" the teacher introduces new topics and gives the students the necessary information about their meaning, their use and any correlated facts related to these topics or items. (Richards, et al, 1992: 349). Kyriacou (1991: 33) defines lesson presentation as "the learning experiences you set up to achieve the intended learning outcomes by pupils." He continues his discussion saying that the growth and development in the methodology of EFL schooling resulted in inventing series of teaching activities which "can deployed to good effect, including, by way of example, exposition, practicals, worksheets, computer games, role-play and small-group discussion."

In this stage the teacher is expected to be self-assured, stress-free, sure of himself, decisive and draws the attention of the students in the lesson. He uses understandable explanations and instructions which match the students' needs. Another important issue is to distribute his questions, which are of different ranges and sorts, on the whole course material. To advance the students' education, the teacher uses various suitable learning activities. He also gives the students the opportunity to organize their work and be actively engaged in the lesson. In addition to that the teacher respects and encourages the notes and contributions of the students, and promotes their education. Finally, the learning products of the students ought to fit their needs and the teacher uses the data, sources and aids in order to attain a useful outcome. (Kyriacou, 1991: 36-47).

### 2.2.6 CI Activities:

There are different types of CI activities which share the objective of students' involvement in interaction, whether "face-to-face interaction", henceforth "FTF" or "computer-mediated communication", henceforth "CMC" (Hillman, 1997:7) language is used in these activities for carrying out meaningful tasks and to enhance language learning. These activities or tasks are "the interactive learning procedures through which learners both in and out of the classroom learn to understand each other and to make themselves understood, so gaining confidence and experience in using the target language" (Hall and Hewings, 2001: 2). Some of the activities which are designed for FTF interaction can be used in CMC, interactive games and jigsaw for instance.

#### 2.2.6.1 Role-Play

Role-play or role playing as Richards, et al. (1992: 318) name it and define it as "drama-like classroom activities in which students take the ROLES of different participants in a situation and act out what might typically happen in that situation." The role-play may take many forms, but in fundamental nature it is an improvisation. According to Robinson (1981: 385) the partakers develop their own qualities, discussions, movements, situations,

structures, themes, and messages. This may be organized personally or in groups, shortly ahead of time or exceeding a period of days, nevertheless there is no thorough absolute draft to be learnt by heart, still the idea for the improvisation may come from a written text and particular phrases may be memorized. In role playing the students have the opportunity to experience innovative ideas. They are able to learn from their errors.

The teacher exploits role playing to improve the learning process and the students' concentration. Therefore, the teacher can devise a role playing activity in which he puts the students in educational circumstances that involve reasoning to arrive at the solution because role-play provides students the chance to use their sensations and exercise interpersonal abilities in an imaginative life situation without taking the risks that failure encounters in real life. Role playing is important in providing feedback for students as compared with real life situations. Moreover, performing roles can revive the learner's passions and imagination while stimulating previous education leading to thought provoking learning experience.

Consequently, role playing is a technique the teacher employs to assist the students to comprehend the difficult areas in their study, whether in literature, social studies, and even some aspects of science or mathematics. Furthermore, it can help them to pay attention and turn out to be more involved, not only studying the text, but they are also trained to incorporate the information in action by dealing with dilemma, exploring alternatives, and seeking novel and creative solution. Role playing is the best way to develop the skills of initiative, communication, problem-solving, self-awareness, and working cooperatively in teams, and these are above all, certainly above the learning of mere facts, many if not most of which will be archaic or irrelevant in a few years ... will help these young people be prepared for dealing with the challenges of the Twenty-First Century (Blatner, 2002: 5).

#### **2.2.6.2 Problem Solving**

In teaching EFL, problem solving is a common task where the learner is put in a difficult situation and by using his critical thinking will choose the right solution that leads him to the required aim. Problem solving activities are learning activities in which the learner is given a situation and a problem and must work out a solution. Such activities are said to require higher-order thinking. Many activities in COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING involve problem solving and offer feedback while the student is trying to solve the problem.

(Richards, et al, 1992: 290)

This technique helps students to find out and identify the different forms and functions of the grammatical rules. Harmer (1987: 39) asserts the importance of problem solving activities in drawing the attention of learners to the information about language and lead

them to use their critical thinking during their schooling, "Encouraging students to discover grammar for themselves is one valuable way of helping them to get to grips with the language. Very often this discovering of grammatical facts involves students in a fairly analytical study of the language". Students will form their own hypotheses about the "grammatical facts" and test them to find out, for themselves, whether their hypotheses are correct. Thus, learners can examine a set of grammatical forms related to the future tense, for example, instead of just dealing with one form of future, "going to" for instance, or to formulate an accurate awareness about "the kind of aspects of grammar...the problems of form and function" (Harmer, 1987: 37–38). Through problem solving activities, students will be able to recognize that the same form (the progressive) is used to convey variable meanings.

In this activity the teacher introduces a puzzle using the foreign language, and the students discuss the possible solutions for this problem, by also using the foreign language. Chastain (1988: 369) gives an example of "problem-solving activity is to describe a situation and explore as many solutions as the students' imagination can generate." The teacher may presents a situation in which a person has woke up in the midnight and found a thief in his house, what will he do?

### **2.2.6.3 Cooperative Learning CL**

Cooperative learning techniques permit EFL students to enthusiastically play a part in the language classroom, cooperating with each other to accomplish the learning tasks which cannot be achieved by studying alone. CL activities give the students the opportunity to exploit their assorted knowledge about the processing of the world, producing more effective characters of the group members, more precise personal characteristics, and a better awareness of sponsorship in the educational population. CL gives the students a reduced amount of feeling that they are separated as learners and establishes a more efficient "classroom culture" in which cooperation to achieve a mutual developing aim acts a considerable function in their sensitive and linguistic progress as an authorized member of a social learning community. More than merely a method for language teaching, CL is an approach for giving the students the confidence to carry on the two-way learning procedure perfectly outside the classroom and school structure into the larger world surrounding them.

CL techniques are intended to expand the quantity of comprehensible input in addition to promote motivation and self-confidence throughout shared interaction involving colleagues. Wenger (2006) states that this objective can simply take place during amplified interaction between students-learning communities need to "engage in joint activities and discussions, help each other, and share information". This alteration in student-student relationships also requires a steady modification in the task of the teacher in the classroom, from the

"autocratic model" to the "democratic model" (Dornyei and Murphey,2003). Students are able to gain knowledge of how to successfully educate each other, beside turning out to be more competent in explaining their own tutoring through verbal communication and observing their language use. As the proverb says, "Those who teach learn twice" (Murphey and Jacobs, 2000).

Proficient, well-planned CL activities involve each person in a group to carry out particular tasks and responsibilities for the period of the group endeavour, to guarantee a remarkable degree of collaboration and success by all learners in the class. The following are examples of CL activities:

#### 2.2.6.3.1 The Basic Pattern

The basic pattern of CL activities begins with a square-shape group session that consists of four students. "The person sitting next to the learner is his or her shoulder partner, while the learners seated directly behind or in front of him or her are face partners." (Apple, 2006: 289). For large classes and classrooms with seating arrangements or spaces that may restrict movement around the classroom, this arrangement is typical. The figure below illustrates graphically the basic pattern.

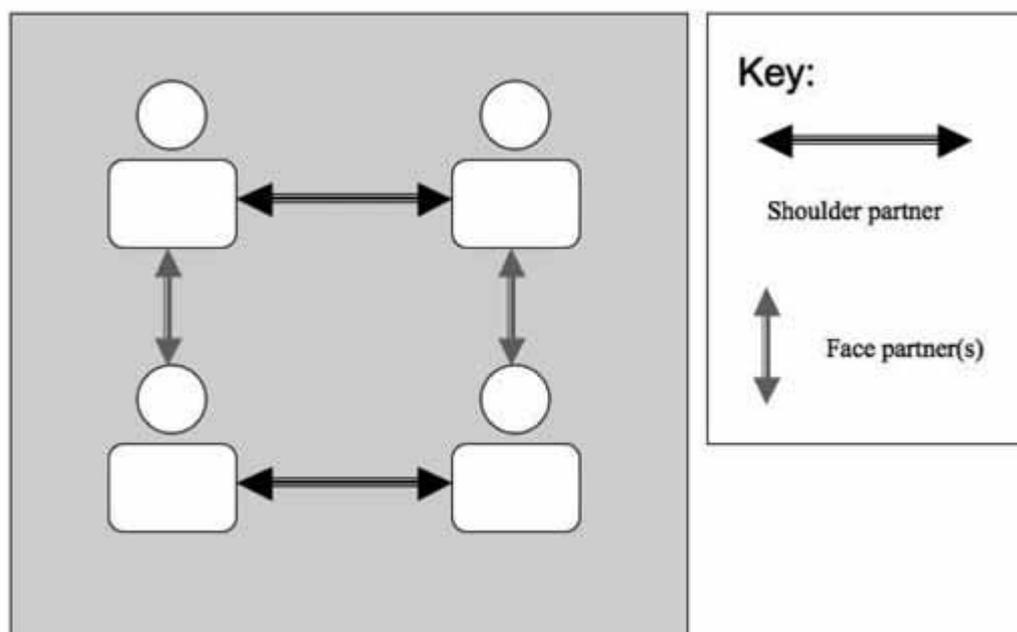


Figure (1) The basic pattern. Adopted from Apple (2006: 289).

#### 2.2.6.3.2 write pair switch

Three basic techniques of CL that use the basic four-person group pattern consist of "Write-pair-switch," "Heads Together," and "Traveling Heads Together" (Kagan, 1994). In the first technique, "Write-pair-switch", every student initiates the CL activity by acting individually at his desk. To accomplish this technique, the teacher usually asks the learner to write down answers to certain questions in the first place. Secondly, "pair," each student in

every pair shares the answers with the "shoulder partner" (the person sitting next to him) as in the figure (1). In the last phase, "switch," the students alter colleagues and have a discussion with their face colleagues sitting opposite or behind them. Throughout this step, the students sum up what they have been taught from each other using their expressions. The "write" section of the technique during the lecture can be assigned as homework then, in the next lecture, starts with the "pair" work directly, while students evaluate answers from their homework.

#### **2.2.6.3.3 Numbered Heads Together– Traveling Heads**

Kagan (1994) has developed the essential four person group pattern in the "Numbered Heads Together". At the beginning, the teacher distributes the students into groups each consists of four to work up a task, and then gives each student a number. After working on a task together, the teacher calls out a number (for example, "3"). The student who has this number from each group should stand up and present a summary of his group's work to the whole class. "Traveling Heads", on the other hand is a variation of Numbered Heads Together, in which the same numbering scheme is used ,but with a slight difference. The teacher asks the students who stands up to shift to another group and display the report of their previous group to the new group instead of presenting it to the entire class. The advantage of this learning procedure is that it involves more students and makes them participate actively in the report while at the same time reducing the risk of anxiety caused by making a possible face-losing oral report in front of the class.

#### **2.2.6.3.4 Jigsaw**

An additional form of Traveling Heads Together is termed "Jigsaw" which requires the students of all the groups to comprise new groups (Jacobs, et al., 2002: 32). Having the status of the Numbered Heads Together, the teacher gives students numbers within their specific "home team" groups (see Figure 2). In the home group, each student works on another question or part of the homework assignment. Then, when a precise amount of time passes, the students who have the same number will form new groups. For example, students who are numbered 1 will make a new "expert" or "ad hoc" group of four with other "number 1" students, and so on. In the case of classes that contain greater number of students, the teachers can formulate two or three "expert" groups per number, to make sure that learners preserve the four-person group model. Once the students compare answers of the same items together with members of their "expert" group, they go back to their "home team" groups and transmit the information they have acquired to the original group members. This practice is a helpful technique for learners to exchange knowledge and to work up correlated tasks that demand students to come across a similar solution.

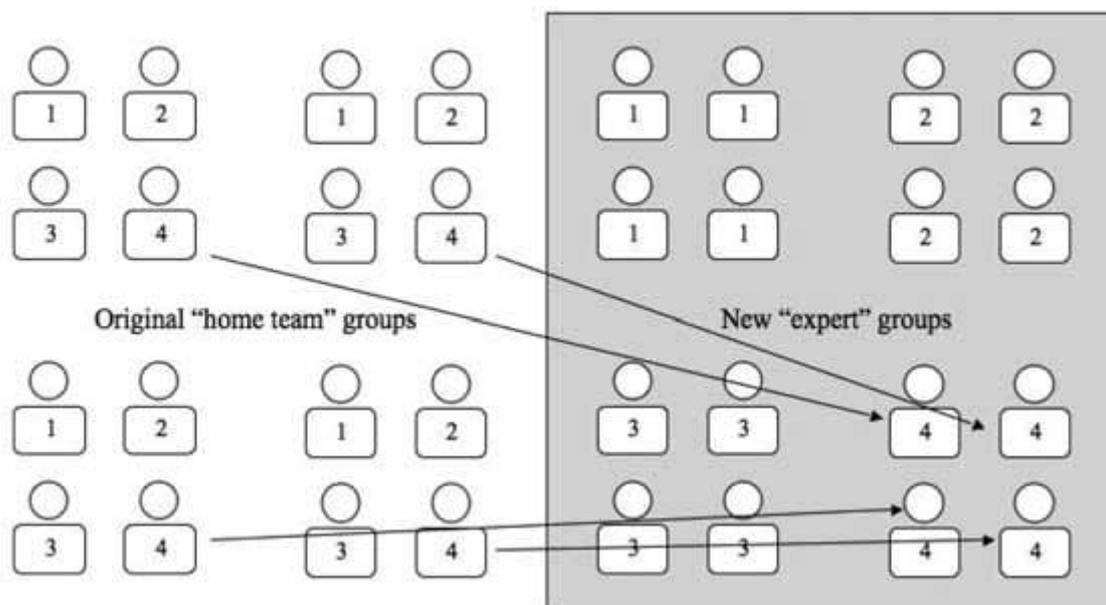


Figure (2). "The "Jigsaw" technique" Apple (2006: 291).

### 2.2.6 3.5 Carousel

Apple (2006: 291) says that this technique which is also named ("Merry-go-round" —a reference to the spinning wheel of wooden or plastic horses often seen at carnivals and amusement parks) can be used with group presentations such as posters." Every group makes a "poster" and sticks it on a side of the classroom. Then, the other groups go round the room respectively, examining and evaluating their classmates' posters. Carousel may take different patterns, as well as various means to present their work, whether "oral, written, video recorded, on paper or on computer" and varying ways to comment or assess the outcomes of their colleagues, being plain remarks, extended précis, unusual types for evaluation, etc.).

#### 2.2.6.3.6 Roles

Each student in the group, while performing the CL activities, processes a certain role, and if this role is not accomplished, the endeavour of the group falls short in meeting its whole aim. There are many possible roles, but the most frequent ones are:

- A. "Facilitator": the learner who is assigned to this role has the responsibility to keep the group stick to its task.
- B. "Recorder": the student's duty is to write down the answers and conclusions of the group.
- C. "Summarizer": in this role the student summarizes the group answers.
- D. "Reporter": who is in charged of transmitting the ideas of the group to the other group (s).
- E. "Time-keeper": whose responsibility is to check the time remained to complete the homework assignment.

Sometimes other roles might appear, this of course depends on the description of the task and the required time to finish it. In case the teacher employs CL roles in the classroom for

the first time, he may nominate the roles to his students. Though the students' motivation might increase when they are permitted to choose their roles in the group. Teachers should notice that each student adopt a different role while carrying out any task to ensure that each student perform all the possible roles. (Apple, 2006: 292–293).

## 2. 2.7 Comparison of the Two Methods

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 50–67 and 153–74) and Al-Bayati (2005: 45), the following is a comparison between The Audio–Lingual Method and CI:

Audio–Lingual Method	CI
The focus is on the grammar as the core component of Language.	The focus shifted away from grammar as the core component of Language to communication.
Based the structural view of language.	Based on the interactional view of language.
Teacher–directed.	Student exploration.
Didactic teaching.	Interactive modes of instruction.
Short blocks of instruction on a single subject.	Extended blocks of authentic and multi–disciplinary work.
Teacher as the source of knowledge.	Teacher as facilitator.
Ability groupings	Heterogeneous groupings.
Assessment of a fact, knowledge and discrete skills.	Performance–based assessment.
Students are not allowed to initiate interaction.	Students are encouraged and pushed to initiate interaction.

## Section Three

### The Experimental Work

#### 3.1 Preliminaries

According to Brown and Rodgers (2002: 80–1) there are several ways to investigate CI, one way is by collecting data from classrooms, a second is the everyday achievements of students, a third is observing what is going on in language classes (i.e. observational studies) and a fourth is through producing your own CI information by teacher–learner and learner–learner interactions. The researchers, in the fourth, will be both a source of data, via participating in the CI and a collector of data where They choose a certain phase of CI to glare by means of cautious choice of the "interaction tasks".

The term "experimental method" in language teaching and applied linguistics refers to "educational research in which an idea or HYPOTHESIS tested or verified by setting up situations in which the relationship between different subjects or variables can be

determined" (Richards, et al, 1992:133). From what has been mentioned above, The Researchers can conclude that in language teaching, experiments are the best way to identify the effectiveness of a method or a way of teaching, "Many people assume that the most appropriate way to resolve a question about language learning or teaching is to conduct an experiment." (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 196).

Consequently, the researchers have designed an experiment to find out whether or not CI promotes learning English grammar. Grammar has been chosen for the reason that it "is easier to study in L2 learners than other aspects of language because it is highly systematic and its effects are usually fairly obvious in their speech" (Cook, 2001: 19). To do so a random sample of 1st year university learners has been chosen because they are inclined to modify their learning style as university learners who differ from secondary school students seeking high marks in the final examination. (Nunan, 2001:158–159). A test is also constructed to find out the extent to which both groups have advanced.

### 3.2 The Experimental Design

The experimental design represents the strategy which is set by the researchers to collect the necessary information and control the factors or variables which may affect this information and finally carrying out the suitable analysis to test the hypotheses of the research within a comprehensive plan. The researchers should choose the suitable experimental design which provides valid conclusions about the relationships between both independent and dependent variables (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 210).

A "pretest–post–test control group design" (Cohen, et al., 2000: 231) is used, in which two groups matched for age, sex, ratio of boys to girls, social class are chosen randomly. The form of this design is shown in Table (3):

Experimental group	Pre–test	Independent variable	Post –test
Control group	Pre–test	-----	Post –test

Table (3)

#### The Experimental Design

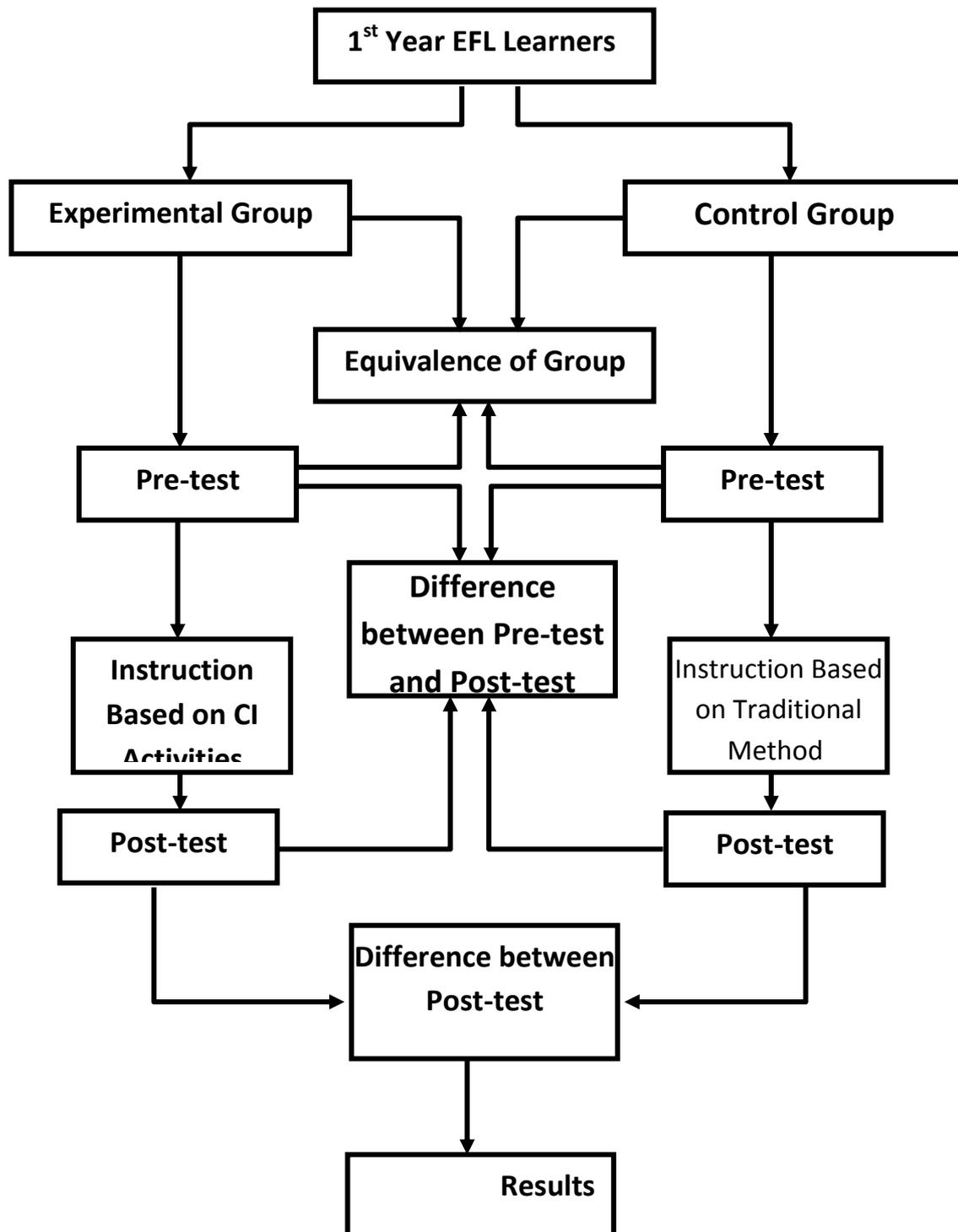
Brown and Rodgers (2002: 211) call it "true experimental design" and is characterized by the following features:

1. Selecting two groups at random and assigning them to an experimental and a control group.

2. The independent variable is administered only to the experimental group.
3. Both groups of subjects submit to "a pre-test and post-test" to measure the influence of the dependent variable. (Ibid)

The experimental group is taught by using CI, while the control group is taught without using CI. The researcher adopted the diagram below from (Best, 1981: 70) so as to further explain the experimental design.

Diagram (1) The Experimental Design of the Study



### 3.3 The Sample

The sample of this study has been selected randomly from first year students in the Department of English, College of Basic Education, University of Babylon. According to Byrne (1987: 9) CI activities require the participation of small groups of learners who can be easily directed and guided by the teacher to perform the educational tasks depending mainly on themselves, therefore, the size of the sample can be described as typical.

This sample consists of (41) students, one of the students is excluded because he has failed in the previous academic year (2007–2008). The remaining (40) students are distributed into two groups, the experimental and control. Each group consists of (20) students, (17) females and (3) males.

Variables such as age, students' achievements in the preceding course, parents education, gender and ratio of boys to girls have been taken into account to ensure that the two groups are equivalent.

#### 3.3.1. The Age of Subjects:

The "t-value" is calculated by using the following formula:

$$M_1 - M_2$$

$$t = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1) S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1) S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}$$

(Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 209).

Where:

M<sub>1</sub> = The mean of the experimental group.

M<sub>2</sub> = The mean of the control group.

n<sub>1</sub> = The number of the experimental group.

n<sub>2</sub> = The number of the control group.

S<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> = The variance of the experimental group.

S<sub>2</sub><sup>2</sup> = The variance of the control group.

The average age of subjects in both groups is the same. The mean (M) of the experimental and control group is (18.45), the standard deviation SD of both groups is (6.1). The 't' value is (0.00) which indicate no significant differences at (0.05) level between the experimental and the control groups in age. As shown in table (4) and appendix (A).

Variables Groups	No. of Subjects	(M) Mean	(S.D) Standard Deviation	Degree of freedom	"t" value		Significance Level at 0.05
					Calculated Value	tributed Value	
Experimental	20	18.45	6.1	38*	0.00	1.687	Not Significant
Control	20	18.45	6.1				

Table (4)

The Mean, Standard Deviation and "t" Value of the Subjects' Age.

table (4) and appendix (A).

### 3.3.2. The Ratio of Male to Female Students:

The number of male students in each group is (3), with a ratio of (15%), whereas the number of female students is (17), with a ratio of (85%), as in Table (5).

- The researchers used the "interpolation" process to find out the tabulated "t" value for 38 degree of freedom (Al-Sihooky and Waheeb, 1990:47).

Subjects	No. of Male students	No. of Female students
The Experimental Group	3	17
The Control Group	3	17
The Ratio	15%	85%

	No. of Subjects	No. of Male students	No. of Female students
The Experimental Group	20	3	17
The Control Group	20	3	17
The Ratio	—	15%	85%

Table (5)

The Number and the Ratio of Male and Female Students.

### 3.3.3 The Subjects' Levels of Achievement in English in the First Course:

The researchers also used the "t-test" formula to find out whether there is any significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. The mean value of the subjects' level of achievement in the first semester of the academic year 2008–2009 is found to be (40.45) for the experimental group, and (35.35) for the control group. The "t" value is found to be (0.717), at (0.05) level of significance, which indicates no significant differences between the two groups. See table

(6) and appendix (B)

Variables Groups	No. of Subjects	(M) Mean	(S.D) Standard Deviation	Degree of freedom	"t" value		Significance Level at 0.05
					Calculated Value	Distributed Value	
Experimental	20	40.45	17.52	38	0.717	1.687	Not Significant
Control	20	35.35	26.49				

Table (6)

The Mean, Standard Deviation and the "t" Value of the Students' Level of Achievement in the First Semester (2008–2009)

### 3.3.4 Parents' Education

#### 3.3.4.1 Fathers' Level of Education

In order to find out whether there is any significant difference between the two groups in the level of their fathers' education, the researchers used Chi-square formula. The Chi-square value is found to be (4.444) at a level of significance (0.05), which means that there is no significant difference between the two groups of students in this variable. See Table (7).

Stages Of Education	Groups		Total	Degree Of Freedom*	Chi- square value	
	E	C			Calculated	Distributed
Primary	1	3	4	5	4.444	11.075
Intermediate	1	4	5			
Secondary	4	5	9			
Institutes	5	/	5			
University	7	7	14			
Higher studies	2	1	3			
Total	20	20	40			

Table (7)

Frequency and the Chi-square Value for the Level of Fathers' Education of the Subjects of Both Groups

#### 3.3.4.2 Mothers' Level of Education

Chi-square formula is also used to determine whether there is any significant difference between the two groups in the level of mothers' education. The Chi-square value is found to be (4.58) at level of significance of (0.05). This comparison shows that there is

\* The degree of freedom =  $(r-1)(c-1)$ , i.e.  $(6-1)(2-1) = 5$

no significant difference between the two groups of students in the level of mothers' education. Table (8) shows that.

Stages Of Education	Groups		Total	Degree Of Freedom	Chi- square value	
	E	C			Calculated Value	Distributed Value
Illiterate	3	2	5	5	4.58	11.075
Primary	5	4	9			
Intermediate	3	6	9			
Secondary	3	4	7			
Institutes	3	4	7			
University	3	/	3			
Total	20	20	40			

Table (8)

Frequency and the Chi- square Value for the Level of Mothers' Education of the Subjects of Both Groups

### 3.4 The Test

The researchers have collected the items of the test from various grammar books and the web site. The written test is made up of five questions that encompass equally the level of recognition and of production. The first two questions cover the level of recognition, three is a half-production question, while four and five are at the production level. (See Appendix I).

#### 3.4.1 The Scoring Scheme of the Test:

The total score of the test is (100) scores distributed as follows:

1- Items that are assigned two scores only, are:

Q1/ Multiple choice (1-10), Q2: A- rewrite as shown in the first example (2-6), Q3/ Tick the correct sentences and cross the wrong ones (1-10), Q4/ Fill in the blanks (1-10) and Q5/ write the correct form (1-10).

2- Items that are assigned one score only, are:

Q2/ B-Underline the correct word (1-10).

The incorrect items are given zero scores. The items left by the subjects with no answer have also been given a zero score given that the subjects have failed to donate any answer.

### 3.4.2 Objectives of the Test

The current research is conducted in order to assess the students' ability to use adjectives and adverbs in English through using CI activities in learning. To achieve this objective, the test is designed to measure their ability to recognize adjectives and adverbs, to be able produce them with heavy emphasis on the difficult ones and to distinguish between certain expressions when they are used as adjectives and as adverbs.

### 3.4.3 The Pre-testing

The researchers tested the sample of the study. A comfortable room in department of English, College of Basic Education, University of Babylon has been used so as to be suitable for the forty students. After the test papers were distributed, the instructions of the test were explained in English and then in Arabic in order to avoid ambiguity. To save time and effort, the subjects were instructed to write their responses on the same test paper by filling in their designated slots.

There are two aims behind carrying out the pre-test; the first is to equalize the subjects of the control group, with that of the experimental group; the second is to compare the students' achievement scores in the pre-test with that of theirs in the post-test.

### 3.5 Instructional Material

The instructional material consisted of the following topics in the text book An Advanced Course in General English.

#### 1 – Unit six (6.2 Grammar)

- a. The Adjective
- b. Kinds of Adjectives
- c. The Adjective Used as a Noun

#### 2 – Unit seven (6.2 Grammar)

- a. Comparison of Adjectives
- b. Constructions with Comparisons

#### 3 – Unit eight (8.2 Grammar)

- a. The Adverb
- b. Kinds of Adverbs
- c. The position of Adverbs

#### 4 – Unit nine (9.2 Grammar)

- a. Comparison of Adverbs
- b. Constructions with Comparisons

#### 5. Unit ten (10.2 Grammar)

### 3.6 The Post-test

The same testing procedures were followed in conducting the test. The whole tests were applied by the researchers in coordination with the instructor of the 1st stage in the Department of English, College of Basic Education, University of Babylon.

### 3.7 Statistical Tools

The following statistical tools were used in this study:

1. The "t-test" formula is used in order to identify whether there are any significant differences between the two groups in certain variables such as age and level of achievement in English. It is also used to calculate the statistical differences between the experimental and control group in the pr-test and post-test.

$$t = \frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1) S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1) S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}$$

Where:

X<sub>1</sub> = the mean of the experimental group

X<sub>2</sub> = the mean of the control group

n<sub>1</sub> = the number of the experimental group

n<sub>2</sub> = the number of the control group

S<sub>1</sub> = the variance of the experimental group

S<sub>2</sub> = the variance of the control group

(Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 208)

2. Pearson formula correlation coefficient is used to estimate reliability of the test.

$$R = \frac{\sum (X - M_x)(Y - M_y)}{N S_x S_y}$$

Where:

X = the values for the X variable.

Y = the values for the Y variable.

M<sub>X</sub> = the mean for the X variable.

M<sub>Y</sub> = the mean for the Y variable.

S<sub>X</sub> = the standard deviation for the X variable.

S<sub>Y</sub> = the standard deviation for the Y variable.

N = the number of the paired values for the X and Y variables (often the number of participants) (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 173).

3. Chi-square ( $X^2$ ) for two independent samples is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the experimental and control groups of students in certain variables such as level of parent's education and level of parent's career.

$$X^2 = \frac{\sum [O - E]^2}{E}$$

E

Where:

O = observed frequencies

E = expected frequencies (Al-Rawi, 2000: 371)

4. One-sample t-test of two tailed for correlated samples to test the differences between the pre-test and post-test within each group, i.e. experimental and control group.

$$t = \frac{\bar{D}}{SD / \sqrt{n}}$$

$\bar{D}$  : Mean of differences between scores.

SD : Standard deviation of differences between scores.

N : Number of subjects (Glass, 1970: 298)

## Section Four

### Analysis Of The Results

#### 4.1 Comparison of the Experimental and the Control Groups in the Post-test Scores

The mean scores of the experimental group was compared with that of the control group in the total scores of the post-test. The mean was found to be (68.25) for the experimental group and (42.7) for the control group.

The "t" value was found to be (9.491) which indicates that there is a significant difference at (0.05) level of significance degree of freedom (38) between the two groups, in favour of the experimental group. Consequently the null hypothesis, which points out that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the written test scores, is rejected.

This also reveals that the achievement of students who were taught grammar (adjectives and adverbs) according to CI is superior to that of the students who were taught grammar without using CI, that is to say that CI is more effective in promoting foreign language learning. See Table (9) and Appendix (F).

Variables Groups	Size of Sample	Mean	SD.	t Value		Significance level at 0.05 and 38 degree of freedom
				t-calculated	t- tabled	
Experimental	20	68.25	8.46	9.491	1.687	There is a significant statistical difference.
Control	20	42.7	8.51			

Table (9)

The Mean, Standard Deviation and the "t" Value of the Post-test Scores of Both Groups

#### 4.2 Comparison of the Pre-test and the Post-test Scores

##### 4.2.1 Comparison of the Pre-test and the Post-test Scores of the Control Group

The mean scores of the control group in the pre-test was found to be (37), while in the post-test it was found to be (42.7). Thus the "t" formula was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the scores of the control group in the pre and post-tests. The calculated "t" value was found to be (5.655) at (0.05) level of significance. This indicates that the progress in the achievement of the control group in the post-test is better than in the pre-test. See Table (10) and Appendix (G).

Variables Tests	Size of Sample	Mean	SD.	t Value		Significance level at 0.05 and 38 degree of freedom
				t calculated	t tabulated	
Pre-test	20	37	45.210	5.65	2.861	There is a significant statistical difference.
Post-test	20	42.7	6.723			

Table (10)

The Mean, Standard Deviation and the "t" Value of the Pre-test and Post-test Learners' Scores of the Control Group

##### 4.2.2 Comparison of the Pre-test and the Post-test Scores of the Subjects of the Experimental Group

The "t" formula was also used to find out whether there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test, which was found to be (38.8), and the mean scores of the post-test, which was found to be (68.25), for the experimental group. The "t" value was found to be (13.218) at (0.05) level of significance and a degree of freedom of (19), which indicates that there is a significant difference between the two test scores. This means that the experimental group is much better in the post-test than in the pre-test. This

is due to the type of teaching the experimental group received which was based on the CI activities. See Table (11) and Appendix (H).

Variables Tests	Size of Sample	Mean	SD.	t Value		Significance level at 0.05 and 38 degree of freedom
				t calculated	t tabled	
Pre-test	20	38.8	13.51	13.218	2.861	Statistically Significant.
Post-test	20	68.25	8.453			

Table (11)

Comparison of the Pre-test and the Post-test Learners' Scores of the Experimental

### 4.3 Conclusions

This study has investigated the efficiency of using three techniques of CI in teaching English grammar to develop the achievements of first year EFL learners. The findings of the present study can be worded as follows:

1. In the light of the higher results of the subjects of the experimental group compared with the subjects of the control group, the first conclusion is that the use of CI activities in teaching English grammar is more effective in improving the achievement of 1<sup>st</sup> year Iraqi EFL university learners than the use of teacher directed instruction.
2. There is a relationship between teaching through interaction and the use of language in every day communication, for the reason that CI activities are based on the integration of the grammatical forms with their notions and functions.
3. Teaching through interaction creates the suitable climate, which is similar to the real world for learning the foreign language. Consequently students will be motivated in such an exciting, joyful and pleasant environment.
4. The less the number of students in the class, the more the opportunities to interact and negotiate the meaning among students will be.

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### Appendix –A–

The Age in Years of the Experimental and the Control Groups

Experimental Group		Control Group	
No.	Age	No.	Age
1	19	1	19
2	18	2	20
3	20	3	18
4	18	4	17
5	19	5	19
6	17	6	18
7	18	7	19
8	18	8	18
9	18	9	19
10	19	10	18
11	18	11	18
12	19	12	18
13	19	13	19
14	18	14	19
15	19	15	18
16	18	16	17
17	18	17	18
18	19	18	19
19	18	19	18

20	20	20	18
$X_1 = 18.45$		$X_2 = 18.45$	
$\sum y_{i1} = 369$		$\sum y_{i2} = 369$	
$\sum y_{i1}^2 = 6101$		$\sum y_{i2}^2 = 6101$	
$\sum (y_{i1})^2 = 136161$		$\sum (y_{i2})^2 = 136161$	
SD = 6.100		SD = 6.100	
$S^2 = 37.213$		$S^2 = 37.213$	

### Appendix –B–

#### Learners' Scores in the First Course

Experimental Group		Control Group	
No.	Scores	No.	Scores
1	51	1	20
2	67	2	37
3	27	3	30
4	41	4	46
5	38	5	43
6	31	6	24
7	32	7	27
8	43	8	27
9	18	9	47
10	12	10	35
11	60	11	14
12	19	12	42
13	36	13	40
14	74	14	21
15	61	15	24
16	58	16	21
17	33	17	57
18	31	18	51
19	23	19	39
20	54	20	62

$X_1 = 40.45$	$X_2 = 35.35$
$\sum y_{i1} = 809$	$\sum y_{i2} = 707$
$\sum y_{i1}^2 = 38559$	$\sum y_{i2}^2 = 38335$
$\sum (y_{i1})^2 = 654481$	$\sum (y_{i2})^2 = 499849$
SD = 17.524	SD = 26.499
$S^2 = 307.102$	$S^2 = 702.239$

**Appendix -C-**

## Learners' Pre-test Scores

Experimental Group		Control Group	
No.	Scores	No.	Scores
1	36	1	32
2	37	2	39
3	27	3	36
4	34	4	47
5	32	5	51
6	39	6	40
7	36	7	29
8	36	8	29
9	27	9	57
10	29	10	41
11	36	11	35
12	27	12	50
13	40	13	25
14	69	14	23
15	60	15	15
16	67	16	27
17	25	17	39
18	29	18	49
19	29	19	43
20	61	20	36
$X_1 = 38.8$		$X_2 = 740$	
$\sum y_{i1} = 776$		$\sum y_{i2} = 37$	

$\sum y_{i_1}^2 = 33760$	$\sum y_{i_2}^2 = 29546$
$\sum (y_{i_1})^2 = 602176$	$\sum (y_{i_2})^2 = 547600$
SD = 13.862	SD = 10.677
$S^2 = 192.168$	$S^2 = 114$

**Appendix -D-**

## The Discrimination Power and Difficulty Level of the Test

Question No.	Item No.	D P	D L
Q.1	1	0.50	0.40
	2	0.50	0.425
	3	0.50	0.40
	4	0.30	0.40
	5	0.40	0.625
	6	0.40	0.575
	7	0.50	0.525
	8	0.35	0.50
	9	0.35	0.625
	10	0.35	0.45
Q.2.A	2	0.35	0.375
	3	0.40	0.425
	4	0.40	0.475
	5	0.40	0.525
	6	0.40	0.375
Q.2.B	1	0.55	0.50
	2	0.40	0.55
	3	0.45	0.45
	4	0.45	0.525
	5	0.60	0.425
	6	0.45	0.35
	7	0.30	0.40
	8	0.30	0.40
	9	0.45	0.45

	10	0.35	0.575
Q.3	1	0.40	0.40
	2	0.55	0.50
	3	0.30	0.45
	4	0.40	0.35
	5	0.45	0.40
	6	0.35	0.35
	7	0.45	0.50
	8	0.40	0.325
	9	0.45	0.525
	10	0.35	0.45
Q.4	1	0.40	0.375
	2	0.30	0.35
	3	0.40	0.45
	4	0.30	0.425
	5	0.45	0.475
	6	0.41	0.67
	7	0.34	0.76
	8	0.61	0.55
	9	0.73	0.61
	10	0.39	0.61
Q.5	1	0.49	0.46
	2	0.51	0.67
	3	0.44	0.68
	4	0.61	0.65
	5	0.51	0.38
	6	0.54	0.54
	7	0.44	0.41
	8	0.34	0.34
	9	0.46	0.43
	10	0.49	0.71

## Appendix –E–

## Learners' Post-test Scores

Experimental Group		Control Group	
No.	Scores	No.	Scores
1	60	1	42
2	64	2	54
3	72	3	41
4	60	4	36
5	71	5	53
6	71	6	44
7	72	7	51
8	74	8	32
9	67	9	63
10	58	10	46
11	72	11	59
12	72	12	44
13	63	13	28
14	81	14	36
15	71	15	31
16	85	16	27
17	58	17	39
18	60	18	49
19	54	19	43
20	80	20	36
$X_1 = 68.25$		$X_2 = 42.7$	
$\sum y_{i1} = 1365$		$\sum y_{i2} = 854$	
$\sum y_{i1}^2 = 94519$		$\sum y_{i2}^2 = 37866$	
$\sum (y_{i1})^2 = 1863225$		$\sum (y_{i2})^2 = 729316$	
SD = 8.453		SD = 8.584	
$S^2 = 71.465$		$S^2 = 73.694$	

**Appendix –F–**

Scores of the Control Group in the Pre and Post tests

Pre-test		Post-test	
No.	Scores	No.	Scores
1	32	1	42
2	39	2	54
3	36	3	41
4	47	4	36
5	51	5	53
6	40	6	44
7	29	7	51
8	29	8	32
9	57	9	63
10	41	10	46
11	35	11	59
12	50	12	44
13	25	13	28
14	23	14	36
15	15	15	31
16	27	16	27
17	39	17	39
18	49	18	49
19	43	19	43
20	36	20	36
$\bar{D} = 8.5$			
$\sum Di = 170$			
$\sum Di^2 = 2304$			
$\sum (Di)^2 = 28900$			
SD = 6.723			
SD <sup>2</sup> = 45.210			

**Appendix –G –**

Scores of the Experimental Group in the Pre and Post tests

Pre-Test		Post- Test	
No.	Scores	No.	Scores
1	36	1	60
2	37	2	64
3	27	3	72
4	34	4	60
5	32	5	71
6	39	6	71
7	36	7	72
8	36	8	74
9	27	9	67
10	29	10	58
11	36	11	72
12	27	12	72
13	40	13	63
14	69	14	81
15	60	15	71
16	67	16	85
17	25	17	58
18	29	18	60
19	29	19	54
20	61	20	80
$\bar{D} = 29.45$			
$\sum D_i = 589$			
$\sum D_i^2 = 19234$			
$\sum (D_i)^2 = 346921$			
SD = 9.968			
SD <sup>2</sup> = 99.365			

**Appendix – H –**

## The Test

Q1: Choose the most appropriate choice: (20 marks)

1. It is \_\_\_\_\_ sunny in August.
  - a. always
  - b. never
  - c. sometimes
  - d. almost
2. He's \_\_\_\_\_ tall enough to be a policeman.
  - a. hard
  - b. harder
  - c. hardly
  - d. more hardly
3. The operation didn't cause her any pain. It was \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. painful
  - b. painfully
  - c. painless
  - d. more painful
4. Cyril was working \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. at his office very hard all day yesterday
  - b. very hard at his office all day yesterday
  - c. all day yesterday very hard at his office
  - d. very hard all day at his office yesterday.
5. Some people are tall, whereas others are \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. large
  - b. thin
  - c. short
  - d. small
6. A train is \_\_\_\_\_ as a plane.
  - a. as fast
  - b. not as fast
  - c. faster
  - d. too fast
7. This water is very cold, isn't it?
 

It surely is. I've never swum in such \_\_\_\_\_ before.

  - a. a water cold
  - b. a cold water
  - c. cold water
  - d. water called
8. She has \_\_\_\_\_ money than her sister.
  - a. few
  - b. less
  - c. least
  - d. little
9. I entered the classroom \_\_\_\_\_ because I was late.
  - a. quite
  - b. quietly
  - c. quiet
  - d. more quiet
10. What \_\_\_\_\_ horse!
  - a. an Arab splendid white
  - b. a splendid white Arab
  - c. a splendid Arab white
  - d. white splendid Arab

Q2: A- Rewrite each sentence beginning with the words given as in the first example.

(10 marks)

- 1 – Ursula is a very quick learner.  
Ursula learns quickly.
- 2 – Richard can cook really well.  
Richard is a .....
- 3 – Philippa is usually a hard worker.  
Philippa usually works .....
- 4 – Have the children been good today?

Have the children behaved .....

5 – I wish you could swim fast.

I wish you were a .....

6 – The hotel staff treated us in a very friendly manner.

The hotel staff were .....

B. Underline the correct word in the parentheses. (10 marks)

1. In Egypt, silver was once (more valued, most valued) than gold.

2. The doctor predicted that Ben would soon be (good, well) enough to go home.

3. The (little, less) coffee I drink, the better I feel.

4. Light walls make a room look (more large, larger) than dark walls.

5. One of the (unfortunatest, most unfortunate) men I know is a millionaire.

6. The moth (continuous, continuously) thumped against the screen.

7. The Amish manage (good, well) without radios, telephones, or television.

8. When the store owner caught the little boys stealing, he scolded them (bad, badly) and called their parents.

9. It is (good, better) to teach people to fish than to give them fish.

10. Today computers can send a letter around the world more (quick, quickly) than you can write your name on a sheet of paper.

Q3. Tick (✓) correct sentences and cross (X) wrong ones. Then correct the wrong ones.

(20 marks)

1. The first night I quit smoking, I wanted a cigarette bad.

2. Athens is older than Rome. Rome is not as old as Athens.

3. They came yesterday to visit us here.

4. My most luckiest day was the day I met my wife.

5. Ed's car is black. Kim's car is black. Ed's car is the same colour as Kim's.

6. Your work needs to be better. It is not good enough.

7. The hardest you study, the more you will learn.

8. Money is important, but it isn't the most important thing in life.

9. The water wasn't enough warm to go swimming.

10. Do not call her now. It is too late to call her.

Q4. fill in the blanks with the appropriate words as required: (20 marks)

1. old, the oldest. late, \_\_\_\_\_. pretty, \_\_\_\_\_

2. expensive, more expensive, most expensive. bad, \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_

3. slow, slower. heavy, \_\_\_\_\_. far, \_\_\_\_\_.

4. brightly, more brightly. early, \_\_\_\_\_. well, \_\_\_\_\_.

5. easy, easily. good, \_\_\_\_\_. near, \_\_\_\_\_.

6. desire + able, desirable. manage + able, \_\_\_\_\_. rely + able, \_\_\_\_\_.
7. total, totally. sincere, \_\_\_\_\_. merry, \_\_\_\_\_.
8. equal, equally. hopeful, \_\_\_\_\_. evident, \_\_\_\_\_.
9. beauty + ful = beautiful. victory + ous = \_\_\_\_\_. awe + ful = \_\_\_\_\_.
10. harmful, harmless. regular, \_\_\_\_\_. literate, \_\_\_\_\_.

Q5. Write the correct form of the words between brackets: (20 marks)

1. The plane landed (safe) in the airport.
2. I got a (value) mobile on my birthday.
3. (luck) the driver was not hurt in the accident.
4. The day was so (fog) that you couldn't see a thing in front of you.
5. All the strawberries in this box are (rot).
6. It was very (courage) of him to risk his life trying to save a drowning child.
7. He appears (uneasy) about something.
8. She is a very (fascinate) woman.
9. Please don't drive so (fast). The sign says, Drive Slowly.
10. Which is (bad) – a headache or a toothache?