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# PRACTISING PRESENT PERFECT WITH LOWER-SECONDARY LEARNERS

**Diplomová práce**

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Prohlašuji, že jsem diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně pod vedením Mgr. Silvie Válkové, Ph.D. a uvedla v seznamu literatury všechny použité zdroje.

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# ABSTRACT

This diploma thesis is concerned with the stage of practice in the process of teaching the present perfect simple tense to lower-secondary learners. Its main objective is to analyse, compare and evaluate the sets of practice tasks occurring in the third edition of Project 3 and Project 4 courses with respect to the quality and quantity factor as the basic presumptions of an effective grammar practice. Furthermore, this study will propose suitable activities that could moderate potential deficiencies revealed during the analysis.

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# INTRODUCTION

Lower-secondary language learners continue to extend their previous knowledge of English grammar with the present perfect tense that for a majority of them represents one of the most difficult grammatical items they have ever been exposed to. Not only do the learners learn its structure, later, they also have to be able to use it in real-life communication.

Despite the fact practising together with presentation, isolation/explanation and, finally, testing, represent a general framework for grammar teaching, Ur (1988) claims it is the practice stage that determines the final quality of the learner's mastering any language material.

Broad interest in the English language has been an impulse for many coursebook authors to pay attention to the design of the courses corresponding to actual needs of foreign language learners. The aim of this diploma thesis is to analyse the third edition of the Project course with respect to its quality and quantity of both oral and written practising the present perfect tense and attempt to find out if the extending activities suggested in the Project Teacher's Books bring any benefits to the present perfect learning.

The theoretical part of this diploma thesis is concerned with the methodological background regarding not only the characteristics of practice or its useful techniques, but also other aspects that contribute to its effective process. After an initial outline of the current role of grammar in the second language learning, the theoretical part points out the motivational factors that activate and shape the whole stage and, on top of that, applies the general characteristics of the learners' developmental level to the practice.

An analysis of units in the Project 3 and Project 4 courses dealing with the present perfect tense along with the detailed illustration of the task-type representation occur in the practical part. In addition, this part supplements the practice stage with several activities appropriate to that particular age group and its level of English competence.

For the analysis of practice tasks, it was necessary to introduce criteria that would help achieve an objective evaluation and hence lessen the possible discrepancies in obtained data.

Basically, all the sources used for the diploma thesis were written in English. If Czech books are quoted, the translations were done by the author.

# THEORETICAL PART

## 1 Grammar Teaching

### 1.1 The Role of Grammar in Language Teaching

Grammar as "the study or use of the rules about how words change their form and combine with other words to make sentences" (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, online) has become an issue being discussed from numerous points of view. Many methodologists or language teachers have been asking themselves about the importance of grammar in foreign language teaching. In the 1980s, Stephen Krashen, a linguist and educational researcher, suggested that students could develop their grammatical competence through natural interaction in the classroom rather than conscious focus on language forms (Hedge, 2000).

However, one of the arguments against this idea points out the difference between the learning of the first and the second language. Children, who acquire their first language, absorb their mother tongue subconsciously, without thinking about it, by means of the input they are exposed to and the experiences that are connected with such input (Harmer, 1991). With a second language, there is often less motivation and not so much time to learn (Ur, 1991).

### 1.2 Concepts of Grammar

Any grammatical information that is to be introduced to learners of a foreign language can be presented or practised in two distinct ways. In covert grammar teaching, as opposed to the overt one, it is the activity itself that attracts attention of students, while they do not care about any grammatical facts of the language. Overt grammar teaching explicitly provides students with rules and explanations of language structures (Harmer, 1987).

### 1.3 Basic Principles for Grammar Teaching

Before integrating grammar into the lesson, a teacher should be aware of all the characteristics of proper grammar teaching. These become useful tools for preparing any activity and can also serve as the criteria for evaluating its practicality. According to Thornbury (1999: 25-27), the following factors can be applied to various stages of grammar teaching:

**The E-factor: EFFICIENCY**

Being efficient actually includes other three factors:

*Economy* – basically, the shorter either a presentation or a practice activity is, the better; students should not be bored or confused by unnecessarily long instructions and tasks.

*Ease* – the time and energy invested in the preparation of materials.

*Efficacy* – Will it work? Will it cause learning of students? Despite the difficulty of measuring this factor, we can estimate the effect of grammar teaching on learners by the degree of attention it arouses, level of their understanding, how memorable it is, and, most importantly, by the amount of motivational aspect of a presentation or tasks.

**The A-factor: APPROPRIACY**

Every human being has unique qualities that combine to create individuality. This is what language teachers should keep in mind to realise that there are many factors that determine the final character of a class of learners. To fulfil the appropriacy criteria, when preparing for a lesson, means to consider the factors associated with individual learners, group of learners or other conditions:
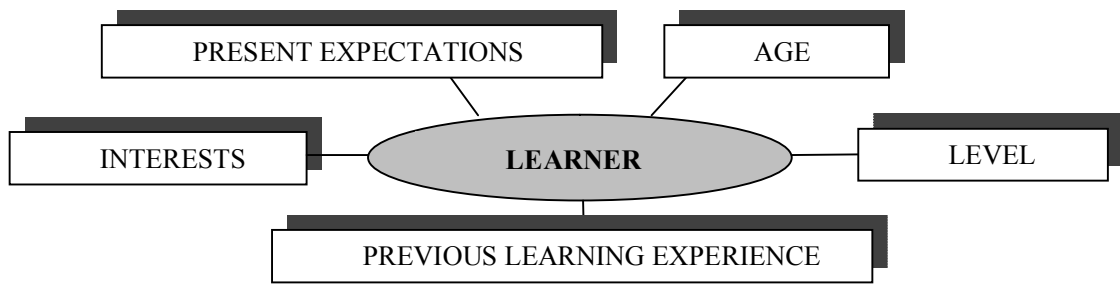


Based on Thornbury (1999)
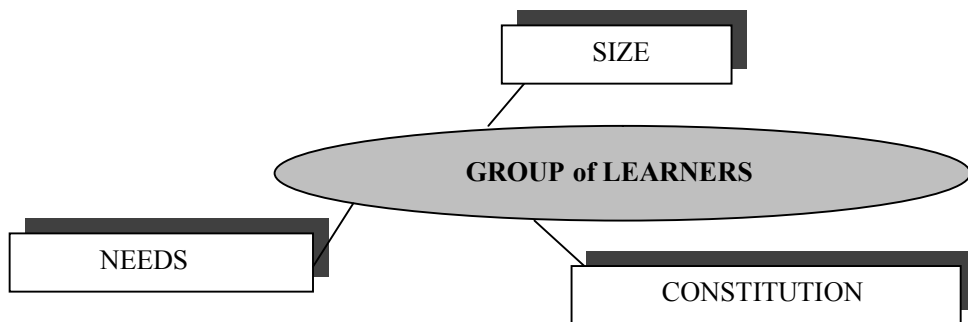


Based on Thornbury (1999)

Other factors:

- materials and resources available for teaching and learning,
- any cultural factors that might affect attitudes of learners, e.g. their perception of the role and status of the teacher,
- the type of educational context, e.g. private school or state school, at home or abroad (ibid.).

## 1.4   Advantages of Grammar Teaching

Including grammar presentation in the lessons proves beneficial to the foreign language learning. Even if various methods which point out different attitudes to the role of grammar instruction in the process of education have been suggested, there are also arguments in favour of the presentation of grammar to learners, as it:

- provides them with input of noticeable language forms,
- helps them to recognise the differences between the correct forms of English and their own output,
- makes learning faster by explicit teaching of frequent grammatical items,
- gives them information about the communicative use of language structures in contexts which are useful and appropriate to the needs of learners by means of spoken or written texts with embedded grammar, such information can be given either implicitly through exposure to examples or explicitly through instruction (Hedge, 2000: 159).

Thornbury (1999: 15-17) explains seven reasons why grammar teaching can be regarded an indispensable foundation of English learning:

1. *The sentence-machine argument* – teaching of grammar, being a 'sentence-making machine', offers a learner the means to generate a potentially enormous number of new sentences.
2. *The fine-tuning argument* – teaching of grammar prevents ambiguity in communication.
3. *The fossilisation argument* – learners who are not exposed to grammar instruction while self-studying or in formal lessons often reach a language plateau, unable to make any further progress.
4. *The advance-organiser argument* – receiving language structures before being exposed to them in real life communication helps learners notice the grammatical items in natural interaction, which positively influences their later language acquisition.

5. *The discrete item argument* – organising the grammar system of a language into units (discrete items) that are sufficiently narrowly defined to form the focus of a lesson or an exercise makes it possible for the teacher to cover isolated items in a syllabus and, moreover, for the learners to pay attention to each individual item.

6. *The rule-of-law argument* – especially in large classes of unruly and unmotivated teenagers, grammar offers the teacher a structured system which makes teaching and testing easier.

7. *The learner expectation argument* – many learners enrol in grammar-focused language classes to ensure that the learning experience is made more efficient and systematic.

## 1.5   Arguments against Grammar

Although the followers of the theories supporting deliberate grammar teaching often do not admit any potential deficiencies of their methods, in fact, everything has its pros and cons. Thornbury (1999: 18-21) advances some cases against any excessive focus on language structures.

1. *The knowledge-how argument* – if we look at the knowledge of language as a skill, it is impossible to be able to communicate only after being said how to do it.

2. *The communication argument* – Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) points out that grammar knowledge (linguistic competence) is only one component of communicative competence, the ability to achieve communicative goals by knowing how to use the grammar and vocabulary in a socially appropriate way.

3. *The acquisition argument* – for becoming a successful user of the second language, it is desirable to acquire the language, which means to pick up the language naturally through contact with the speakers of that language, as it is with the first language, rather than learn it along with the presentation of grammar rules.

4. *The natural order argument* – in the process of language acquisition, grammatical items are acquired in a natural order, independent of the order in which they are taught.

5. *The lexical chunks argument* – the lexical approach points out that even the second language can be developed by acquiring expressions, e.g. phrases, idioms, social formulae, as single units.

6. *The learner expectation argument* – some students do not attend courses to be taught grammar, they simply want to talk.

## 2  Learners of the Present Perfect Tense

When deciding on appropriate teaching methods, the age of the foreign language learners is one of the main factors that should be taken into account, because of the fact that learners of different ages have different needs, competences and cognitive skills (Harmer, 2007b).

Creating a lesson suitable for a particular age group requires teachers to choose or adjust the lesson activities so that they correspond to the level of learner development. According to Čížková *et. al.* (1999: 102), school age of lower-secondary learners can be divided into two developmental periods:

| Lower-Secondary Age Periods | | |
|---|---|---|
| PERIOD | GIRLS | BOYS |
| **Pre-pubescence** | 10 – 12. 5 | 11 – 13 |
| **Pubescence** | 12. 5 – 16 | 13 – 17 |

Based on Čížková *et. al.* (1999)

Commonly, the learners are first exposed to the present perfect tense when they are about 13 years old. This age belongs to the pubescence (or puberty), physically, changing a child into a biologically mature adult. In addition, this period is typical of its characteristic changes in the area of the cognitive, emotional and social development, which reflect in the attitudes of the pubescent toward learning as such (Čížková *et. al.*, 1999).

This whole chapter is based on Čížková *et al.* (1999) if not stated otherwise.

### 2.1  Cognitive Development

In consequence of the male voice mutation, a short-term deterioration of the perceptive capacity can occur. Boys are therefore likely to have difficulties with tone reproduction. This is the period when the perceptive discrimination becomes more precise.

Significant development of logical memory makes it possible to memorize the contents in logical relations on a long-term basis. This kind of memory has got a selective character, the quality that is manifested especially in the process of learning, when pupils are better at memorizing and recollecting the facts that are connected with their interests. Although the instability of interests is very frequent, some pupils can have profound knowledge in the area of their interest.

Learners are capable of producing creative and original ideas thanks to the rich imagination that causes daydreaming as well.

Previously-developed hypothetical and deductive reasoning is enriched by the development of the ability of abstraction, one of the logical operations. The level of thinking determines putting an effort into the self-improvement. The pubescent try to overcome the knowledge of adults and the area of their interests is highly influenced by their models among family members, school teachers or people from their surroundings. Furthermore, by comparing themselves with others, they endeavour to identify their own individuality. They begin to look for the sense of life. In doing so, the values of the people around them are important factors which help them create their own value system.

Other distinguishing features of thinking in the period of pubescence are rationalism and radicalism. The former is evident in focusing on rational arguments for human behaviour rather than the emotional ones. The latter can be explained as making premature value judgements caused by the tendency to generalise one experience and then accept it as a valid fact. They neither make compromises nor do they care about all the factors that have an effect on things. Their opinions are often assumed from their models.

## 2.2  Emotional Development

After the period of the emotional instability in pre-pubescence, the pubescent take more positive attitudes toward reality. Besides, they try to achieve emotional independence from their parents and this invokes them to enter into relations with somebody else. The new friends are idealized and uncritically accepted.

Ambivalence in social emotions is noticeable in relationship with parents or teachers when the emotions range from the warmest to those full of conflicts and disputes, as opposed to the relations between boys and girls, who start to change their mutual isolation and teasing into friendships or close relationships.

The pubescent are critical of themselves and doubt their own qualities. Some of them feel unique, which, in extreme cases, can lead to narcissism (Čížková *et. al.*, 1999). As Harmer (2007b) puts it, teenage students often have an acute need for peer approval and are extremely vulnerable to the negative judgements passed on their personality or even their age group.

Development of higher emotions, such as moral and aesthetic, by accepting moral values of their family and society, the pubescent start to think of a sense of life and the moral principles and rules of society (Čížková *et. al.*, 1999).

## 2.3  Social Development

The desire for being independent of parents is one of the most apparent features of the social development in puberty. The pubescent want to make decisions on their own and in discussions with adults they want to express their opinions which, if possible, should be different from the arguments the adults have. On the one hand, they would like to go against the adults, on the other hand, they sometimes imitate their behaviour (smoking, drinking alcohol, etc.) to reach adulthood.

In social groups, the pubescent lose their individuality and as group members they take over the social patterns and values of the group. Among peers, there is the characteristic uniformity in clothes, behaviour as well as opinions (ibid.).

## 2.4  Practice with Teenagers

Lewis (2007: 6) splits the ages ranging from twelve to nineteen into three mutually distinct groups:

| Group | Age (from – to) |
|---|---|
| young teenagers | 12 – 14 |
| middle teenagers | 14 – 17 |
| late teenagers | 17 – 19 |

Based on Lewis (2007)

Though learners at the lower-secondary stage are young as well as middle teenagers, further in the text the term 'teenager' will be used to refer to both teen groups.

Regarding some of its specific qualities, from the detailed description of the teenage development mentioned in chapters 2.1 to 2.3, it is possible to conclude the features of an interesting and effective practice.

It is the textbooks that determine to some degree the content of the lessons. But it is up to the teachers what course the stage of practice will eventually have. As for individual tasks, their items or steps should be logically ordered so that teenagers can learn new material more easily. Developing abstract reasoning enables teenagers to understand tasks based on abstract terms and issues. Due to their selective memorising, tasks tapping the potential interests of teenage generation (e.g. media, computers, sports, film/actors, music, etc.) might help to engage pupils in practice.

Because teenagers want to express their opinions, they usually enjoy dialogues or group discussions. Especially the latter seems to be a suitable practice task, as the period of the girl-

boy divide is almost over. There is one problem with oral tasks, which is that some boys might feel ashamed to speak aloud if they are going through the voice mutation.

Typically, what influences involvement of learners in fulfilling the tasks are their classmates. Teenagers, not being confident of their own qualities, behave very often according to group leaders in order not to feel humiliated. They are still looking for values and social patterns. During the practice stage everybody needs to succeed, which encourages further practising a language. As teenagers are finding their new identity, positive role models in tasks, i.e. people that are respected by the teenagers, can form the final behaviour of learners.

Lewis (2007) points out that because teenagers, unlike younger learners, have a longer concentration span, they do not need a constant change of activity. Bigger projects are not problematic for them, as they enable the learners to apply their creative ideas, make them independent and give them certain responsibility for the result. With younger teenagers, this kind of work must be monitored closely, they often 'regress' into childlike behaviour.

According to Čížková *et. al.* (2005), at the beginning of the school age, children are more interested in their own success and when working in groups, they do not understand why they should cooperate. Later, as they become teenagers, they start to respect their schoolmates and understand the benefits of such work. (Moon, 2005, online)

Teenagers are halfway between childhood and adulthood. Even if they want to be treated with respect and given more responsibility, some of their underdeveloped skills still require the teacher to provide the teen learners with helpful guidance. (Lewis, 2007)

The practice stage should expose then to numerous distinct exemplary language items and help them draw valid conclusions about rules of the English language. Teenagers tend to apply one experience to all existing cases.

As Lewis (2007) puts it, teaching teenagers does not mean playing them. However, showing an interest in teen culture and treating them with respect will bear fruit.

In spite of the fact that teenagers start to realize the purpose and benefits of the ability to speak a foreign language, properly chosen tasks with a motivating element will certainly facilitate the practice stage. That is why it is so important to understand the basic principles of motivation while practising grammar.

# 3 Motivation to Practice

Practice is an important stage of a lesson not only for the fact that pupils can deal with new language forms and improve their language skills but also because it, as other stages of a lesson, gives learners the opportunity to experience success.

Lesson planning should not be mere putting practice activities or games on a list that is to be followed in a language lesson. Definitely, when preparing for a lesson, teachers should think of the motivational devices for making the pupils active during the stage of practice.

## 3.1 What is Motivation?

"Motivation is a complex of factors which stimulate, direct and sustain human activity or behaviour (Urbanovská, 2006: 51)." In other words, it is "some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to purse a course of action (Harmer, 1991: 3)." Dörnyei (2001: 7) points out that motivation is responsible for:

1. the *choice* of a particular action;
2. the *effort* expended on it and the *persistence* in it.

Pupils can be motivated *directly* by our attempt to persuade them to do something, or *indirectly* by arranging the conditions/circumstances (or providing a good opportunity) in a way that they are likely to choose the particular course of action (Dörnyei, 2001).

## 3.2 Forms of Motivation

With regard to the factors that determine motivation, we can distinguish between the motivation that is determined by external or internal factors:

1. **Extrinsic motivation**

2. **Intrinsic motivation**

### 3.2.1 Extrinsic Motivation

"Extrinsic motivation involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward or to avoid punishment (Dörnyei, 2001: 11)."

As Harmer (1991: 4) puts it, this kind of motivation includes two following subtypes:

1. Integrative motivation

   The attraction to the culture of a target language community makes learners want to know as much as possible about the community. Sometimes their language learning is stimulated by their wish to integrate themselves into the culture of the target language community.

2. Instrumental motivation

   For learners, a language becomes an instrument in the attainment of their goal

According to Harmer (2007b), external sources of motivation are:

o **Learner's goals**

o **Society learners live in**

   If the reputation of a subject at school or society is positive, it tends to be the motivating factor rather than the fact that a language has got a low status.

o **People around learners**

   The attitude of parents or peers, who are against or in favour of a culture of a community, affects the quality of motivation. Moreover, learners are influenced by their previous experience with language learning (Harmer, 1991).

o **Learner's curiosity**

### 3.2.2  Intrinsic Motivation

"Intrinsic motivation concerns behaviour performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity (Dörnyei, 2001: 11)."

Harmer (1991) suggests there are many factors that contribute to the final quality of this kind of motivation:

o **Physical conditions**

   Learning is undoubtedly influenced by the physical conditions of pupils. Both a badly-lit classroom and a board that is not easily visible can de-motivate learners.

o **The teacher**

   What matters a lot is the personality of a teacher and the rapport of a teacher with his or her pupils. Here comes the question 'What makes a good teacher?'.

| A GOOD TEACHER |
| --- |
| - teaches good pronunciation |
| - speaks good English |
| - explains clearly |
| - is 'well prepared' |
| - insists on the spoken language |
| - makes all his/her pupils work/participate |
| - shows great patience |
| - inspires confidence |
| - shows the same interest in all his students |
| - is fair to all his students |
| - makes his course interesting |
| - provides interesting and motivating classes |

Based on Harmer (1991)

o **Method**

The methods which are used in the lessons should be supportive, pupils need to have confidence in the method.

o **Success**

"The motivation that students bring to class is the biggest single factor affecting their success (Harmer, 1991: 3)."

## 3.3 Motivation in the Lesson

Urbanovská (2006: 53) divides a learning process into stages, which are connected with these types of motivation:

1. Initial motivation – stimulation of human activity before starting a learning process.
2. Continuous motivation – maintenance or reinforcement of motivation in the process of doing an activity.
3. Final motivation – reinforcement or weakening of the overall motivation after a failure or success achievement.

## 3.4  Basic Motivational Conditions

"Motivational strategies are techniques that promote the individual's goal-related behaviour. They refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect (Dörnyei, 2001: 28)."

Dörnyei (2001: 31-48) suggests that if we want the motivational strategies to be effective, there are several preconditions that should be present in the classroom to make the foundations for further attempts to generate motivation.

o **Appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students**

   - enthusiasm for the subject, which shows that it is worth learning,

   - commitment to and expectations for the student's academic progress,

   - good relationship with the student (non-judgemental positive attitude toward students, ability to listen and pay attention to them, availability for personal contact),

   - good relationship with the parents of students.


o **A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere**

We should bear in mind that the classroom atmosphere has got the psychological as well as physical dimension.


o **A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms**


## 3.5  Generating Initial Motivation

Pupils come to the classroom with certain expectations and natural curiosity. An initial enthusiasm of pupils for learning a language should not be underestimated (Harmer, 2007b). Teachers can take advantage of their position being supportive with their students and encourage them so that they develop a positive view of a language (Harmer, 1991). And exactly this can be accomplished if we focus our attention on taking the following measures:


o **Enhancing the learners' language-related values and attitudes**

In the system of language-related values, it is possible to specify three value dimensions defined in accordance with the area of language learning they are connected with.

*Intrinsic values* are associated with interest in and enjoyment of the actual process of learning the target language.

*Integrative values* concern the target language itself and social interaction with its speakers.

*Instrumental values* are related to the consequences and benefits of having learnt the target language (Dörnyei, 2001: 51-56).

o   **Increasing the learners' expectancy of success**

We do things best if we believe we can succeed. For motivating learners, therefore, it is helpful to increase their expectancies by conscious arranging the conditions in a way that they put the learner in a more positive or optimistic mood.

Before setting practice tasks, it is necessary to encourage the pupils and their success expectations, trying to involve methods such as:

- providing sufficient preparation,
- offering assistance and support,
- cooperation among students,
- making the success criteria as clear as possible,
- live demonstrations,
  consider and remove potential obstacles to learning (Dörnyei, 2001: 57-59).

o   **Increase goal-orientedness of the learners**

Goal as something we want to achieve motivates the learners to do everything necessary to reach it. In language learning, the helpful strategy is to set the short-term goals, which might include things like wanting to pass a test, in an attempt to achieve the long-term goals that are usually our wishes about the future (Harmer, 1991).

| How do goals affect performance? |
|---|
| They direct attention and effort towards goal-relevant activities at the expense of irrelevant or distracting actions. |
| They regulate the amount of effort people expend in that people adjust their effort to the difficulty level required by the task. |
| They encourage persistence until the goal is accomplished. |
| They promote the search for relevant action plans or task strategies. |

Taken from Dörnyei (2001: 62)

Teachers are advised to find out what goals their pupils have and what topics they would like to learn about, because one of the most de-motivating factors for learners is when

they have to do the tasks without relevance to their lives. The goals and topics that interest the pupils are advisable to be built into the lesson plans as much as possible (Dörnyei, 2001).

Jenifer Allison claims that when teaching teenagers, the course content is required to be sufficiently 'adult', which means that it brings the youngsters into contact with the adult world (in Dörnyei, 2001).

In addition, goals or tasks to be set should be manageable for most of the pupils. High challenge activities as well as low challenge ones can be discouraging and have a negative effect on motivation (Harmer, 1991).

## 3.6 Maintaining and Protecting Motivation

After the phase of initial motivation the natural tendency is to lose sight of the goal, to get tired or bored of the activity and without further active attempts to maintain and protect this motivation, it will gradually diminish (Dörnyei, 2001).

Teachers can modify behaviour of pupils with appropriate motivational techniques. Among other things, making learning stimulating and enjoyable would contribute to sustained learner involvement that is essential for their fulfilling the practice tasks. And, generally, learners will not be willing to engage themselves in those tasks, unless the teacher provides the presentation of them in a motivating way (ibid.)

### Task instructions and its functions

An introduction to the tasks determines the manner learners perceive and approach them. When presenting a task, Dörnyei (2001) recommends teachers to

- describe what students will be doing, what they will have accomplished when they are finished and how these accomplishments will be evaluated,
- explain the purpose and the utility of the task,
- whet the students' anticipation of the task,
- provide appropriate strategies for doing the task.

Ur (1991) admonishes teacher to convey the approximate time that the learners are expected to have for fulfilling the task or what the learners should do after finishing the task.

According to Dörnyei (2001), learners usually want to know why they have to do that particular task or how it relates to the overall goals of the class. The role of instructions is to give them a satisfactory answer. Furthermore, learners prefer activities that are connected with their personal daily life. An introduction should point out such connection and the

usefulness of the learnt skills in real life. Another criterion for presenting a task is to emphasise what learners should pay attention to or be particularly careful about.

Students get more interested in tasks that are presented enthusiastically with obvious expectation of success. Teachers can also ask pupils to make guesses about the upcoming activity, highlight challenging aspects of a foreign language to be learned or add a twist to routine activities.

**The task itself**

Practice tasks are more able to arouse the attention of learners on condition that they include these features: challenge, interesting content, the novelty/intriguing/exotic/fantasy/ personal element, an opportunity to compete, product as the outcome and humour (Dörnyei, 2001)

# 4 Grammar Practice

## 4.1 General Framework of Grammar Teaching

Ur (1991: 7) divides the process of grammar teaching into four stages:

> **3. Presentation**
>
> **4. Isolation and explanation**
>
> **5. Practice**
>
> **6. Testing**

The stage of practice serves as "the rehearsal of certain behaviours with the objective of consolidating learning and improving performance (Ur, 1996: 19)." Basically, it is "any kind of engaging with the language on the part of the learner, usually under teacher supervision, whose primary objective is to consolidate learning (Ur, 1988: 11)." During the practice stage learners acquire an automatised knowledge by means of which their English comprehension and self-expression is made possible (Ur, 1996).

However, what counts as the practice is not only a series of exercises that are done in the classroom. Learners can transfer their knowledge from the short-term to the long-term memory while they are doing their homework (Ur, 1988).

"FUNCTION OF A PRACTICE PROCEDURE is to familiarise learners with the material, not to introduce it; learners should not be asked to practise material they have not yet been taught (Ur, 1988: 11)."

## 4.2 Essentials of Effective Grammar Practice

Though the more practice the better, the quantity of practice is not the only factor that contributes to the successful language structure absorption. For accomplishing the set goals of the practice stage, teachers need to prepare a collection of high-quality tasks (Thornbury, 1999). Such series should consist of varied exercises which complement each other and together improve all language skills (Ur, 1988). In short, **the quantity** and **quality factor** represent general conditions for developing skills leading to the communicative competence. Nevertheless, looking closely at the stage of practice, the following factors determine positively the whole process and its aims.

o **Pre-learning**

Prior to a well-functioning practice procedure, learners should be given initial presentation of the target material to be taken into short-term memory in accordance with the simplicity of the language structure to prevent lessening the time available for real practice. If the learners have not perceived the material clearly, later in practice, the teacher will have to interrupt practising for additional explanations and corrections of unsuccessful responses (Ur, 1988).

o **Volume and repetition**

Generally, as mentioned above, the more learners are forced to deal with a language, the better results can be achieved. With language structures, most of the practice time should be devoted to the repeated reception and production of different oral or written examples of form and meaning of the structure (ibid.).

o **Success-orientation**

Manageable practice activities, which enable success experience, encourage confidence and motivate the learners to engage in oncoming tasks (ibid.).

o **Heterogeneity**

From the previous factor is obvious that if the teacher wants everybody to be successful, practice tasks must be designed so that they are likely to be interpreted and performed at whatever level within a class. Because, mostly, classes are composed of mixed-ability groups, heterogeneous tasks seem to be more useful than those that result in ineffective practice of only several learners (ibid.).

Weaker learners do not always understand the task instructions properly, the teacher can assist them and provide them with sample responses, which will make the task accessible for their foreign language level. Teacher assistance will be described below in greater detail as another aspect of effective grammar practice (Ur, 1996).

o **Teacher assistance**

During the practice procedure, the role of a teacher is to encourage the learners and, if necessary, help them with producing acceptable responses. On the other hand, constant help can cause learners not to be confident about their own skills.

Teachers can assist their learners through giving extra time for the tasks, repeating a text or making it more simple; or they can ensure the learners that the beginning of the task is correct and, in doing so, make them courageous enough to finish the task. Learners are also grateful for any hints, prompts or suggestions on the part of the teacher (Ur, 1988).

Feedback on mistakes of learners does not contribute to the automatisation of their skills, its role during the practice is giving the learners information about their success (Ur, 1996).

o **Interest**

Practice procedures based on interests of learners are activating, persuading the learners to take part in the tasks and keep on trying to succeed in them. And, finally, challenging tasks prevent learners from being bored, hence there is a minimum of time being wasted on coping with disciplinary problems (Ur, 1988).

o **Validity**

If the skills activated during the practice serve its purpose, the task can be regarded as a valid practice procedure (Ur, 1996). Broadly speaking, any practice task is valid if it practises what it is supposed to practise.

# 5   Grammar Practice Activity

Procedures that are used for practising grammar are simply called 'exercises' or 'activities'. In terms of the degree of learner initiative and activity, there is a distinction between these two ways of practice. Although many procedures could often be defined by both of the terms mentioned above, an activity is considered to need more effort and work on the part of a learner (Ur, 1996). Further in the text a 'practice activity' will be applied to both ways of practice. When dealing with the idea of language learning and acquisition, a practice activity "may act as a 'switch' which allows consciously learnt language to transfer to the acquired store (Harmer, 1987: 38)."

## 5.1   Purposes of Practice Activities

Any step made in teaching a language should target a clear objective. Even if the reason why we give pupils an opportunity to practise new language items that they have been introduced to is obvious from the definition of practice, to fulfil the general purpose of practice activities means to practise these 'skills':

> 1. **Precision/accuracy,**
> 2. **Automisation/fluency,**
> 3. **Restructuring.** (Thornbury, 1999: 91-94)

### Precision/Accuracy

For improving the ability of being precise or accurate it is advisable to use a practice activity that will imply these characteristics:

| | |
|---|---|
| **attention to form** | Focus on the manner of saying things rather than on what is being said. |
| **familiarity** | Learners should not be expected to do accuracy practice immediately after presentation of new grammar. |
| **thinking time** | An activity should be provided with sufficient time to plan, monitor and fine-tune the output of learners. |
| **feedback** | An unambiguous message about the degree of accuracy of learners, traditionally in the form of correction, helps pupils to pay more attention to form. |

Based on Thornbury (1999)

**Automisation/Fluency**

In Thornbury (1999: 93), "the ability to process language speedily and easily" is a skill called fluency. Another definition describes fluency as "the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation (Hedge, 2000: 54)." Some theorists claim that fluency is a component of communicative competence and includes three qualities – the ability to deal with the information gap of real discourse, to process language and respond appropriately with degree of ease and, lastly, the ability to respond with reasonable speed in 'real time' (ibid.).

Learners can achieve fluency by developing an automatised knowledge of language while fulfilling practice tasks with integrated:

| attention to meaning | Learners do not think about the form, their sole concern is what they are saying. |
|---|---|
| authenticity | Simulation of real-time constraints and unpredictability, psychological conditions of real-life language use. |
| communicative purpose | An activity stimulates interaction. |
| chunking | Chunks of language are expressions that are acquired as single units. |
| repetition | Possibility of producing the same forms several times. |

Based on Thornbury (1999)

**Restructuring**

At the presentation stage learners get to know new words or grammatical structures. In order to make their current knowledge more complex, they have to reorganise it and build the new information into old. This kind of integration that more probably occurs during practice stage is called restructuring. Practice activities aimed at this purpose involve:

| problematising | Learners might come across a moment forcing them to negotiate the meaning of a message so that it is more comprehensible. |
|---|---|
| push | A practice activity should drive learners to use more complex language than they normally produce or understand. |

| | A temporary support for learners providing security to take risks with the language and participate in social interaction that is beyond their actual developmental level (Thornbury, 2001). A practice activity should be created to balance the new with the familiar. Teachers can give scaffolds to learners verbally by repeating, rephrasing or expanding what the learners are saying. |
|---|---|
| **scaffolding**[1] | |

Based on Thornbury (1999)

## 5.2  Sequence in Grammar Practice

The quantity and quality factor[2], which are important for the practice, are not the only criteria for evaluating the overall effectiveness of this stage. Basically, the practice tasks should not be administered in random order. In other words, learners should progress according to a thoroughly worked out scenario.

Grammar practice usually follows the sequence in which form/accuracy-oriented tasks come first, then, the learners are asked to continue with more meaning/fluency-focussed activities (Ur, 1996). Hedge (2000) suggests a different grammar practice model called 'from controlled practice to communicative activities'. Learners should, according to Ur (1988), proceed through the process of three stages, as illustrated by the scheme below:

FORM-BASED TASKS

Close-ended

FORM + MEANING-BASED TASKS

Open-ended    MEANING-BASED TASKS
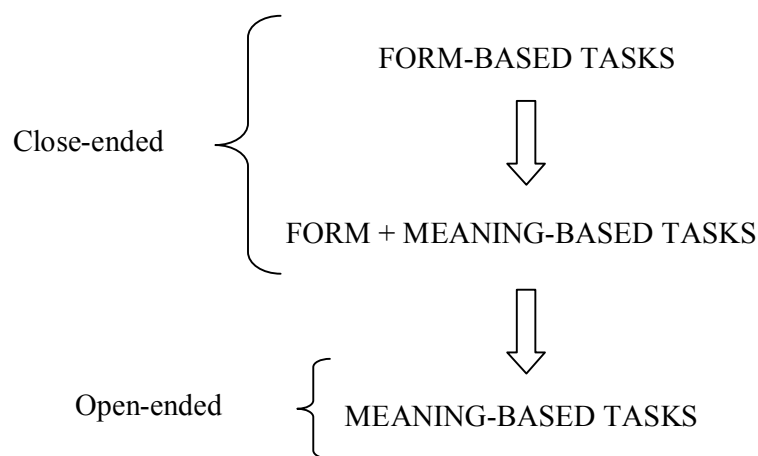
Based on Ur (1988)

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[1]  In the traditional Presentation-Practice-Production model of grammar teaching, scaffolding occurs at the final stage, not at the stage of practice. (Hedge, 2000)

[2] *see* Chapter 4.2

### 5.3 Practical Design of Practice Activities

**The structure of the task**

Whether the task is language-based or non-linguistic, it functions as an activator getting the learners to deal with the material to be practised. Any task that has got a clear objective and, at the same time, obliges learners to use the language actively makes an effective practice process (Ur, 1988: 17).

o **Clear objective**

Giving explanation of the reason for doing the task and its purpose helps the learners understand all task steps. This introductory part should define the task objective briefly and simply.

Tasks aimed exclusively at 'getting the language right' are rather boring for learners and, for that reason, combination of both linguistic and non-linguistic objective types seems to affect language skills, as the latter type is more motivating. Of course, the importance attached to both previously mentioned objective types changes according to the purpose of the task. With discussions, for example, more attention is paid to personal feeling or opinions, while tasks with the objective to produce or edit something for publication concentrate more on the correct language usage (ibid.).

o **Active language use**

Grammar practice tasks with the goal of active language use support the learners themselves to produce instances of the language structure being practised by repeated exposure to that structure.

Such activities do not waste too much time on extra language production, but, in fact, they give all the learners chance to engage with the language. Putting certain constraints on the process of attaining the task objective keeps learners within particular limits and hence maximises the amount of language use in task fulfilment (ibid.).

**Factors contributing to learner interest**

Chapter 3 is concerned with extrinsic as well as intrinsic motivation to practice with regard to the age of learners. However, taking into account the general conditions contributing to language learning and the overall classroom atmosphere does not have to result in successful grammar practice. It is also the task and its motivating qualities that should hold the interest of learners and make them want to participate in it.

o **Topic**

Arousing learner interest is largely influenced by the non-linguistic content (topic) of the task. What can help to decide on the suitable topic for the group of learners is to consider whether the learners know something about the topic or whether the topic is something they want to learn more about.

Ur (1988: 20) suggests the topics that are probable to involve the learners in grammar practice.

- factual information,

- controversial subjects,

- personal viewpoints, experiences, feelings, tastes,

- fiction,

- amusing or pleasing ideas in poetry, proverbs, quotations,

- entertainment (films, plays, television programmes),

- personalities (locally known people, famous celebrities, imaginary characters).

As have been already mentioned, teenagers have been developing their abstract thinking, so the topics for their grammar practice can be abstract issues.

o **Visual focus**

If the learners are given something to look at during practice, they will not try to find any object that is not related to the practice task. Among the visuals we provide the learners with, there can be posters, magazine cut-outs, slides, overhead transparency, brief notes, or a diagram. The gestures (facial expressions, physical movements) of the teacher can help the learners to absorb the structure (Ur, 1988).

o **Open-enededness**

Open-ended tasks make it possible for learners to produce their original ideas while they include an element of unpredictability, which is likely to motivate the learners.

o **Information gaps**

The practice tasks which make the learners communicate in order to get some required information are challenging and give the learners a feeling of purpose and authenticity.

o **Personalization**

The learners enjoy reflecting their own personality in the tasks. They can work with their own experiences, opinions, ideas and feelings.

o **Pleasurable tension**

Although a task is enjoyable or interesting, the learners can be stimulated to do the task if the teacher introduces an element of tension, which is typical of the game-like activities. There are some factors that can generate tension during the practice: motivation to fulfil an attainable but not too easy task, time limit or possibility to compete with schoolmates or with oneself.

o **Entertainment**

When the learners can contribute to the language practice with their own original ideas, they can entertain themselves and then, when presenting them, amuse other learners.

o **Play-acting**

Being someone else for a moment might motivate the learners to get involved in the task and, additionally, such activities provide the learners with imaginary situations with the aim of improving their language competence.

(Ur, 1988: 17-31)

## 5.4   Grammar Practice Techniques

Practising grammar gives the learners opportunities to accustom to an active usage of a grammatical item in communication. More importantly, the learners should be able to judge its suitability for various situations. This explains the reason why a variety of practice tasks is so beneficial to proper grammar learning.

For practice purposes there are both oral and written techniques. The learners should always be directed from the most controlled tasks to those giving the learners more freedom, not so focused on accuracy.

Oral Practice Techniques

**Oral drills**

Drill is a technique based on highly-controlled repetitive production of specific language items in which learners are usually given an example and their task is to produce

correct responses exactly according to this example. The role of a teacher is to provide the learners with feedback on accuracy of their responses. Teachers can also prepare materials with mini-situations or visuals, e.g. drawings or charts. This kind of activity is usually conducted with the whole-class, then it is possible that the learners try it in pairs (Harmer, 1987).

AIM of this activity is to enable the learners fast and sudden practice in using the language item. Grant (1987) claims that drills make learners to get used to the shape and sound of the structures.

- ⊞ It is a kind of "safe practice", any mistakes made by the students can be corrected and later in the process of fulfilling this task learners can pay attention to previous difficulties (Harmer, 1987).
- ⊟ Repetitive and monotonous, not very creative practice technique which serves as a means to an end Harmer (1991). Grant (1987) points out that such activities practise forms rather than the functions of language items.

**Special types of oral drill:**

**Pronunciation drills** – focuses on practising proper pronunciation.

*Repetition drill* – drill during which learners repeat the words or sentences read by their teacher or they repeat after a tape.

*Production drill* – learners read out a text or perform a dialogue containing the sounds to be practised (Grant, 1987).

**Chain drill** – one of the learners gives a statement and the next learner has to repeat it and add his or her own statement. Again, this kind of drill is game-like and learners can have fun while trying to repeat everything that the preceding learners have said. This activity is done with the whole class or sometimes in groups (Harmer, 1991).

**Transformation/substitution drill** – in this kind of drilling, learners are supposed to change sample sentences using a given word or phrase so that the new sentences are grammatically correct (Grant, 1987).

**'Dialogue' drill**[3] – there is an interaction between learners in the process of such drilling. Harmer (1991: 92-95) presents four different types of 'dialogue' drills:

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[3] Willis (1981) calls it 'conversation' drill.

*Phase drill* – learners repeat a dialogue based on phase/stage model. The frequent pattern of the dialogue is question-answer-question-answer, but there can also be more phases. Basically, learners are encouraged to ask a question and when they have received an answer, ask another question.

*Mixed question and answer drill* – what makes this drill different from the phase drill is that in this technique questions can be asked in any order.

*Cue-response drill* – this drill is typical of the usage of a cue, e.g. set of flashcards or phrases that prompt the learners to ask a question. For example, first, a student picks up one of the cards turned face down and then he or she asks another learner about the picture on the flashcard. Learners can find it enjoyable and challenging, as they never know which card will be selected. Cue-response drill is usually done in pairs or groups.

**Interaction activities**

An *information gap activity* can be without hesitation labelled as an interaction activity, because it obliges learners to purposeful and interesting communication in order to exchange needed information (Harmer, 1991).

The principle of such type of activity is that different learners get different pieces of information and by sharing them with others, which means that if they ask each other, they can complete the missing parts. It can be performed in pairs, groups or even with the whole class (ibid.).

AIM of this activity is to make controlled practice more meaningful and enjoyable (Harmer, 1987).

- ⊞ Although it can be designed to practise a specific language structure, it integrates all language skills (reading, speaking, listening and writing). Information gap activity motivates the learners to get involved in communication.

- ⊟ In many aspects it is similar to drill. In addition, some teachers admit that if such task is done with the whole class, it can be noisy (ibid.).

**Play-acting**

In play-acting, we can distinguish between the role-play and simulation.

AIM of this activity is to practice vocabulary connected with real-life situations in a meaningful conversation.

**Role-play** – Byrne (1987: 39) describes role-play as an activity that requires the learners to pretend being someone else or somewhere else. Ur (1981) adds that during role they take on some personality only for an individual purpose.

Language to be used during a role-play vary according to the profession, social status, personality of the characters the learners are supposed to play, furthermore, according to the physical setting imagined and communicative functions of the role-play. Role-plays are usually based on situations from real life (ibid.). Very often, the participants are given role-cards with description of the characteristics of a particular role (Harmer, 2007a).

Celce-Murcia, Hilles (1988) describes six stages of role-play:

1. Presentation of the topic of role-play by teacher.
2. Introduction and explanation of the vocabulary and grammatical structures that should be used.
3. Organisation into groups/pairs.
4. Discussion within groups and practice of the final performance.
5. Performance before the class.
6. Teacher's comments on grammatical, cultural, and phonological errors.

Rosensweig (in Celce-Murcia and Hilles, 1988) advises teachers not to interrupt the learners for correcting their errors during the process of preparing the performance. Instead, he or she should take notes on them and treat them after learners' performance.

⊞ Ladousse (1987) claims role-play is an enjoyable activity which helps the learners build up self-confidence. In addition, learners can practise many expressions or grammatical material that is sometimes neglected in language lessons. Moreover, they can develop fluency or social skills or produce original ideas.

⊟ Some of the learners might be too shy to perform (ibid.).


**Simulation** – in simulation, the entire group of learners, as a social unit, talks through an imaginary situation Ur (1981: 24). For distinguishing between role-play and simulation, Harmer (2007a) points out that during simulation, as opposed to the role-play, learners are given a description of a real-life situation, e.g. job interview, but not particular roles.

⊞ Simulation develops learners' discussion skills (Ladousse, 1987).

⊟ Complex events require longer preparation (Byrne, 1987).

**Story-telling**

Basically, learners are given a topic to talk about. Then, their classmates can ask them for further information related to the story.

AIM of this activity is to give the learners opportunity to give a short speech and narrate a story.

- ⊞ Learners can tell stories in English (Harmer, 2007a). Generally, learners enjoy listening to stories (Byrne, 1987).
- ⊟ Some of the learners might get bored and disturb.

**Discussion**

Byrne (1987) claims discussion is any exchanging opinions and ideas, he also suggests that sometimes it is advisable to do the discussion in groups and then present the results with the whole class.

AIM of this activity is to provide the learners with an efficient fluency oral practice. Discussion makes the learners cooperate to solve a problem (Ur, 1981).

- ⊞ Discussions develop communicative ability. In its process, learners learn from each other, whether consciously or unconsciously.
- ⊟ It is sometimes difficult to keep discipline (ibid.).

**Games**

Even if many teachers call some task types 'games', Ur (1988) makes a significant distinction between games and activities that introduce the tension similar to that present in games. Whereas games are "played for fun and recreation", game-like techniques are "goal-oriented, performed primarily for the sake of their contribution to learning Ur (1988: 23)."

AIM of games is to animate the learners and provide them with the relaxation from the usual activities (Harmer, 1987).

- ⊞ Enjoyable, providing the learners with pleasurable tension.
- ⊟ Some games can be very time consuming (ibid.).

**Techniques involving the personality**

Doing personalised tasks gives the learners opportunity to talk about themselves. Teachers are required to be skilful enough to control and deal with reactions of learners to these tasks. These techniques can be done with all the types of classroom interaction.

AIM of this activity is the contribution on the part of the learners themselves.

⊞ Involving

⊟ Some learners do not like to talk about themselves (Harmer, 1991).

Written Practice Techniques

Obviously, school is not the only place where language practice takes place. Besides doing lesson tasks, learners practise usage of grammar structures at home. Written tasks are suitable for both homework and lesson assignments and, like the oral practising, they offer a variety of different procedures.

GENERAL AIM of written techniques is to practise the written form of the language.

**Written drills**

Written drills make the learners use a particular language structure to respond to prompts that are the items of the task.

AIM of this activity is the same as with the oral one, to give the learners rapid practice.

⊞ 'Safe' practice procedure

⊟ It is a monotonous practice technique that like the oral drill serves as a means to an end (Harmer, 1987).

**Discrete-item activity**

Ur (1988) describes discrete-item activities as tasks that consist of phrases or sentence without any mutual connection. Harmer (1987) suggests that they are very often used for testing.

AIM of this activity is to give the learners highly-controlled practising.

⊞ Quick practice procedure which is very easy to write.

⊟ Monotonous (Harmer, 1987).

Types of discrete-item activities:

*Matching* – learners match words to each other so that they make meaningful sentences (Ur, 1988).

*Multiple-choice* – an activity in which learners choose the correct answer from several alternatives offered with individual items. There is always one correct answer (Harmer, 1987).

*Fill-in* – learners are supposed to fill in the missing words or phrases in a text or isolated sentences so that the completed statements are meaningful (Harmer, 1987).

*Sentence completion* – learners fill in a gap with more than one word and, in doing so, they make meaningful sentences. They sometimes have several possibilities of doing it (Harmer, 1987).

## Text completion

*Cloze* – learners  are supposed to fill in a gap with a single word.

*Gapped text* – with this type of activity, learners are supposed to fill in a gap with one or more words. Typically, they are required to fill in the gaps with appropriate forms of given verbs.

(Celce-Murcia, Hilles, 1988)

## Word ordering

When learning a foreign language, learners have to get used to different organisation of sentence elements. The fundamental principle of the tasks dealing with word order is putting the words or phrases in a sequence to make correct statements (Harmer, 1987).

If the teacher wants the whole class to cooperate, he or she can give each learner one card with a word or a phrase and then all learners have to rearrange themselves physically to create a meaningful statement (ibid.).

AIM of this activity is to make the learners realise the English syntax.

⊞ Quite motivating procedure teaching the learners chunks of language.

⊟ If the learners are not asked to write down the correct statements, there is almost no writing necessary (ibid.).

## Sentence writing

Learners are given a picture or set of pictures that invoke them to write some statements about the pictures which are always chosen to make the learners use the specific language.

AIM of this activity is practising vocabulary as well as grammatical items.

⊞ Usage of visuals, challenging

⊟ The learners might have problems to find appropriate vocabulary (ibid.).

## Parallel writing

The text that is given to learners serves as a model for their own language production.

AIM of this activity is to attempt to prepare for productive writing.

⊞ Students have an exact model according to which they can make their own writing. What makes it entertaining is the possibility of using the creative ideas of learners.

⊟ If the learners replace only the key words, it can be similar to drill tasks (ibid.).

**Translation**

Learners get sentences and their task is to translate them from the target language back to their mother tongue or vice versa (Harmer, 2007a). Translation should not be mere written activity, but after all the learners have finished the task, they should participate in a discussion for comparing the works (Duff, 1989).

AIM of this activity is to make the learners realise the similarities and differences of the mother tongue and the foreign language (ibid.).

⊞ Alan Maley (in Duff, 1989: 3) argues in favour of translation that it "develops three qualities essential to all language learning: accuracy, clarity and flexibility." Learners need to know how to communicate into and from the foreign language (Duff, 1989).

⊟ Sometimes not very creative.

**Dictation**

Learner writes down the text that is dictated to him or her by the teacher, voice on a tape, a schoolmate, own voice of the learner on a tape (in the language lab). Such text can be a single word, a language chunk, a whole passage, a passage read in a continuous loop. The dictating voice can whisper, shout, speak – *not* read, sing, or read with the music as a background. It is up to the teacher if the learners have to record the whole text (sometimes also with the reactions of the listener), selected bits of the text, only the parts of the test the listener agrees with, or the text changed to what the listener wants it to say. The written text can be corrected by the computer, the teacher, the learners themselves, or within the class.

AIM of this activity is to make the learners write while listening to a voice.

⊞ Learners are active not only during but also after the task. Dictation is adjustable for large groups of mixed-ability learners.

⊟ As it takes more time to do this activity, it is advisable to prepare the text with the topic really interesting for learners.

(Davis, Rinvolucri, 1988)

**Dictogloss**

Grammar dictation, also called dictogloss, can be used with learners to practice production of texts that sound English. Wajnryb (1995) describes dictogloss as the procedure which consists of four key stages:

1. Preparation – the text might contain unknown words but if the learners are prepared for the topic and the vocabulary in advance, they will be more interested in listening to the text itself. After the learners have been organised into groups, it is necessary to give clear instructions about each stage of the procedure.

2. Dictation – at this stage learners listen to the dictation and take down words that will later help them reconstruct the text. Teachers should give the listeners opportunity to hear the dictation twice.

3. Reconstruction – in groups, the notes are somehow put together and the learners try to make them into a fluent piece of writing the content of which resembles the original text.

4. Analysis and correction – for the final stage the teacher can use the blackboard, overhead projector or he or she can distribute the photocopied versions in the class and the learners can discuss the texts of the others.

AIM of this activity is practising both oral and written form of a structure.

⊞ Be it performed in groups or individually, dictogloss can always make all the learners participate.

⊟ Takes quite a lot time (ibid.).


**Productive writing**

Learners write productively if the compose a piece of work.

AIM of this activity is to practise using structures and vocabulary in writing.

⊞ The learners develop several aspects of language at the same time: grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, conventions of layout typical of particular piece of writing, linking ideas and information, organisation of the content.

⊟ If the learners are not used to such writing, it might be very difficult for them (Hedge, 1988)


Project Work

A full-scale project is a special kind of an activity which is difficult to classify as an oral or purely written technique, as it integrates all the language skills, which combine to facilitate investigation and reporting, leading to the end-product for which learners gather information

and materials that are related to the topic of the project. During the whole process of project development that extends beyond the classroom, the teacher adopts the role of a coordinator and consultant[4], since the projects are student-centred rather than directed by the teacher.

AIM of projects is to develop learners' individuality and responsibility for an outcome of their work.

- ☐ Projects enable the learners to use language they have learnt in real situations. Such work has a strong motivating element: the tangible result and the opportunity to practise the language the learners themselves find necessary for project completion.

- ☐ Teachers should have well-functioning strategies for consistent monitoring the progress in pupils' work on the project.

(Fried-Booth, 1986)

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[4] Harmer (1991: 242) talks about the role of a tutor, who, among other things, helps the learners sort out their ideas and put limits on their work.

# PRACTICAL PART

Among other things, the theoretical part described methodological principles of practising grammatical items to be applied in a foreign language lesson. The next part of this study will analyse the tasks intended for practising the present perfect simple in Project 3 and Project 4, being the courses frequently used for teaching the English language at the lower-secondary stage of education. The final results of the Project practice evaluation, carried out with regard to the quality and quantity of the activities, will determine the character of the set of supplementary activities provided in the last chapter of the practical part.

# 6 Textbook Practice of the Present Perfect Tense

## 6.1 The Project Course

Oxford University Press has published several editions of the Project course (henceforth Project). Nevertheless, its third edition has been introduced with many additional teaching aids that correspond to the educational needs of contemporary language learners between the ages of 9 to 15 years.

Each level of the course consists of the Student's Book, Teacher's Book, two Class Audio CDs, Workbook Pack (Workbook and the CD-ROM with interactive exercises), Culture DVDs and, last but not least, Project iTools with resources designed for an interactive whiteboard. All these components contribute to the overall improvement of the learners' communicative competence (Oxford University Press, online).

Pupils begin to learn the present perfect tense (PP) with the Project 3 course (Project 3) and continue to extend their previously gained knowledge with the successive Project 4 course (Project 4). Despite the fact that in the Project 5 course there are presented further aspects of PP, the third and fourth courses, both suitable for A2 language level recognised by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, are those that are commonly used with the lower-secondary learners of PP.

## 6.2 General Characteristics of the Project Practice

### 6.2.1 Materials Available for Learners

Although Project offers a great variety of materials for teaching English to teenagers and all language learners in general, actually, learners have an access only to some components of the whole course. For them, the Student's Book usually serves as a helpful framework for language learning with teacher's assistance rather than a material for individual work.

On the contrary, the Workbook Pack positively enhances the learners' ability to work independently, mainly thanks to the design of exercises which helps the learners comprehend what exactly is expected from them to do. The CD-ROM interactive tasks supplementing the workbook can make the home practising more enjoyable and, moreover, learners can do the tasks again and again without any need to erase their previous responses, since the tasks are generated accidentally. Every time learners attempt to rerun a task, they get a different version of the same task type. This prevents the pupils from learning the correct solutions to practice

tasks by heart. On condition the learners do not have their own CD-ROM for self-directed practising the language at home, its tasks can be effectively used with an interactive whiteboard during the English lessons.

Student's Book instructions do not often mention the way in which the tasks should be fulfilled, if orally or in a written form, and it is up to teachers how they specify otherwise general instructions to such activities. For some of them, Teacher's Book becomes a valuable guideline, as it contains detailed explanations of possible modifications of practice tasks.

Project iTools are the newest components of the third edition. These aids have not become significantly widespread among English teachers, which is the reason why they will not be included in the analysis of the overall practising PP with Project 3 and Project 4.

### 6.2.2  Layout of the Third Edition Project

The Student's Book is divided into units. Each unit focuses on one topic that interconnects all of its four initial sections presenting new language features. Apart from them, the textbook acquaints learners with the culture of English-speaking countries. The third edition also integrates English into other curricular subjects, which means that, for example, in the Project 4 coursebook, PP is practised while learning to understand and use actively basic computer terminology.

After going through the pages devoted to presentation and practice of new language material supported by the variety of activities learners can revise the grammar of the whole unit in the revision section. The project work in the very last section of each unit enables the learners to apply their recently acquired knowledge to a larger piece of work. Especially teenagers are suitable candidates for doing bigger projects.[5] Not only does this practice technique encourage them to produce their original ideas, but it also makes them independent learners who have to take responsibility for the final execution of their project.

Of course, the layout of Workbook Pack, as well as other Project components, is arranged in accordance with the Student's Book so that it complements the subject matter introduced in the coursebook.

## 6.3  Practising with the Project Course

### 6.3.1  Introduction to the Present Perfect Tense

So far learners have been able to talk about the past, the present and the future. With the presentation of PP, teenagers come across the tense that somehow relates to the past, but, at

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[5] *see* Chapter  2.4

the same time, cannot be used with the situations for which they have used use the past simple tense (PS). Since, for most Czech learners of English, PP is not so easily comprehensible language structure and the distinction between PP and PS causes difficulties in learning English, teachers should take into account the quality factor that is pointed out to be, along with the quantity factor, a general presumption of an effective grammar practice.

Unit 5 of *Project 3*, called *Experiences*, introduces PP to the learners of English for the first time. The headline of the whole unit is connected with one of the functions of this, for most Czech pupils, not so easily-comprehensible language structure. In brief, Hutchinson (2008) points out that PP is used to talk about up-to now experiences without mentioning when you had them. Further in Unit 5, learners start to use PP with recent events.

Learners need to know what parts this tense actually has before any learning to use PP in meaningful statements or questions can continue. An ability to produce the past participle of both regular and irregular verbs is what forms the basis for successful practical usage of the tense itself.

### 6.3.2  Criteria for Evaluation of the Present Perfect Practice

Techniques involved in practising the language item should give the learners opportunity to deal with the structure while performing the same portion of oral and written tasks. With the majority of tasks, Teacher's Book specifies the way of the task fulfilment, but there are also activities, the instructions of which suggest the task can be performed in both ways, either orally or through writing, so the teachers themselves can decide which way of practice the learners need more. On top of that, the teacher's guideline proposes additional activities that are not published in the Student's Book. These are called optional extras (OE) and revision ideas (RI). Interactive tasks on the CD-ROM cannot be regarded as either written or oral and, therefore, in the process of analysis, they will constitute a special group of activities.

Project 3 and Project 4 support practising PP through the tasks in the Student's Book, Workbook Pack and the tasks on the DVD worksheets. All these components have to be included in collecting data for conducting a meaningful analysis of the Project practice stage devoted to PP.

At the end of each unit, learners can apply their knowledge to a project work, multiple-step tasks, leading to the complex final product. Despite all the arguments for the value of projects, they are supposed to reflect the learners' general language competence rather than give another chance to practise the particular language structure. Therefore, the project work

sections were excluded from the analysis, as well as pre-tasks being rather the part of instructions or initial examples.

Basically, it is possible to divide the Project tasks into five categories – oral, written, oral/written, oral + written and interactive way of practice, as demonstrated in Table 1.

**Table 1: Ways of practice**

| Way of practice | Characteristics of a task |
|---|---|
| Oral | Task that is performed through speaking. |
| Written | Task that is performed through writing. |
| Oral/Written | Task that can be performed either through speaking or writing. |
| Oral + Written | Task that combines both speaking and writing. |
| Interactive | Task that is fulfilled by means of a computer or an interactive whiteboard. |

The interactive tasks, of course, can be identified easily, since these are the tasks on the CD-ROM attached to the Project workbook. On the contrary, oral and written activities have to be categorised after a close study of the instructions in the Teacher's Book. It is their verbs and phrases that become the main indicators determining the category a task belongs to. Table 2 presents an overview of verbs and phrases that helped classify individual ways of practice.

**Table 2: Verbs and phrases as indicators of the way of practice**

| Way of Practice | Verbs/phrases that specify the way of practice |
|---|---|
| Oral | to say, to practise saying, to speak, to tell, to ask and reply, to discuss, to repeat, to read for rhythm and intonation, to act out, |
| Written | to write, to indicate the stress, to mark the pictures, to put ticks and crosses, to fill in a chart, to complete the sentences, to make a new poem, to identify the missing parts *(with a listening task)*, students work on their own, |
| Oral/Written | to answer the questions to the story, |
| Oral + Written | to say and write, to write and ask. |

The following analytic evaluation of practising PP in Project 3 and Project 4 will be carried out using the components and criteria described in the foregoing paragraphs.

### 6.3.3  Representation of Oral and Written Practice Techniques

Achievement of communicative competence, which is generally considered the sole objective of any foreign language learning, cannot be achieved without putting any effort into enhancing receptive as well as productive language skills through oral and written techniques.

Even though the practice of PP in Project 3 provides the learners with a large amount of both oral and written tasks, it is obvious from Table 3 that the vast majority of practice tasks on PP focus on the written form of the structure rather than the oral one. This ratio of oral to written tasks cannot be markedly changed even if teachers make the only task from the oral/written category an oral activity. But it is the group of the oral + written tasks that partially contribute to the learners' speaking.

**Table 3: Representation of oral and written practice techniques in Project 3**

| Way of practice | Number of tasks |
| --- | --- |
| Oral | 21 |
| Written | 39 |
| Oral/Written | 1 |
| Oral + Written | 4 |
| Interactive | 10 |
| **Total number of tasks** | **75** |

Table 4 suggests that also Project 4 largely supports written practising, whereas oral activities make only a small part of the whole practice and, again, tasks from other categories do not make the learners' dealing with the structure more communicative.

**Table 4: Representation of oral and written practice techniques in Project 4**

| Way of practice | Number of tasks |
| --- | --- |
| Oral | 9 |
| Written | 43 |
| Oral/Written | 5 |
| Oral + Written | 2 |
| Interactive | 10 |
| **Total number of tasks** | **69** |

The above mentioned characteristics of the Project practice improves if teachers do not disregard the OE and RI activities, because rarely does the Teacher's Book supplement the Student's Book framework with the written practising. On the contrary, almost every OE or RI task increases student talking time. Figure 1 and Figure 2 prove that OE and RI activities bring benefits to the final effectiveness of PP practice, enriching the prevailingly written tasks by additional speaking opportunities.

**Figure 1: Project 3 practice without/with OE and RI tasks**
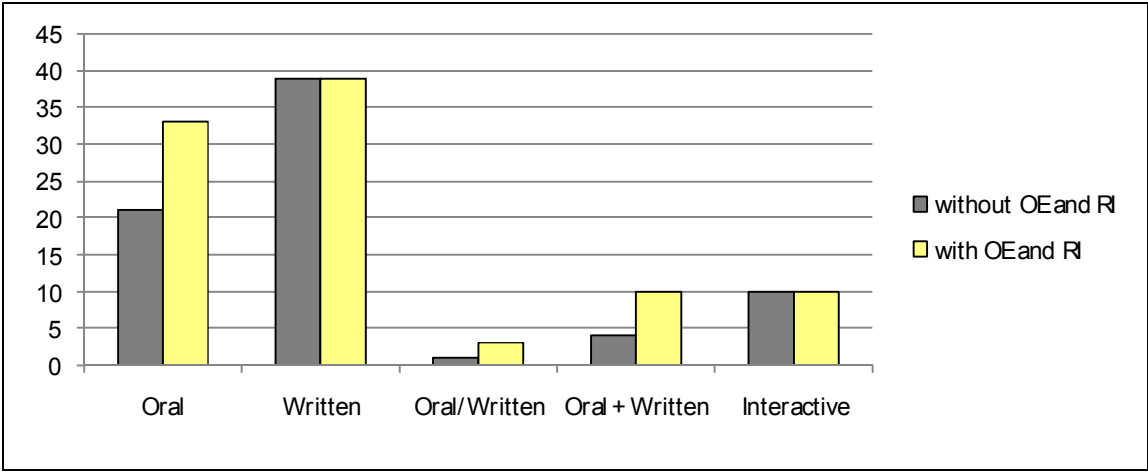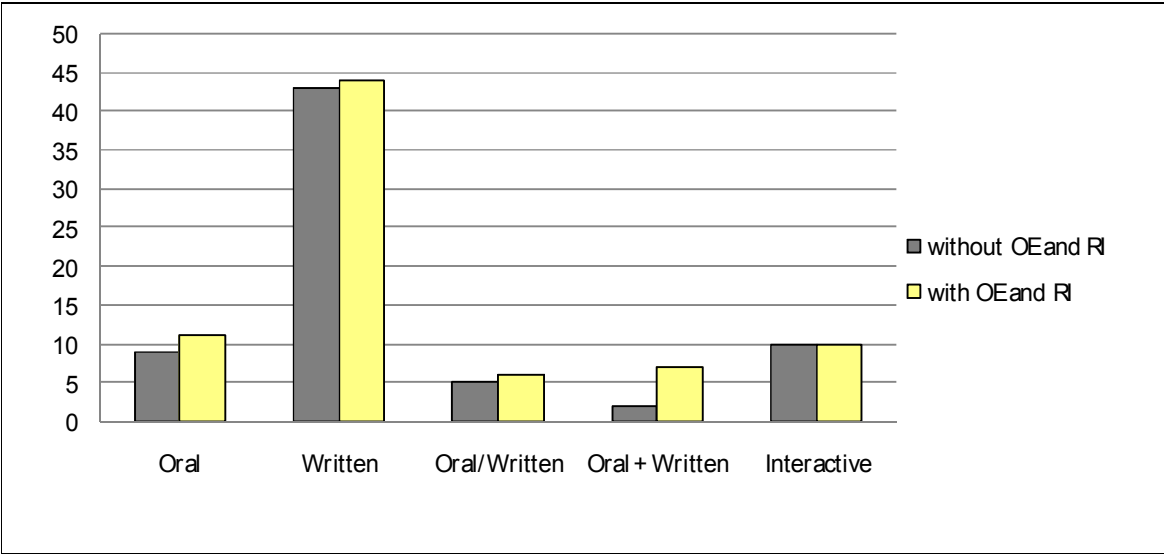


**Figure 2: Project 4 practice without/with OE and RI tasks**



Aditionally, reduction of the imbalance between the oral and written practice is slightly more feasible, provided that tasks from the oral/written category are again fulfilled orally.

Figure 1 and Figure 2 prove that OE and RI tasks make the learners' practising PP more adequate for making progress towards its active use in communication.

## 6.4 Practice Task Types in the Project Course

The final quality of the performed practice, in general, depends on a variety of techniques that can be detected among the tasks the learners have fulfilled. Both oral and written techniques should include the tasks that range from the most controlled ones to those that require the creativity of learners. In many aspects, the tasks provided by the individual Project components obey this methodological 'rule'. Before learners deal with fluency-oriented tasks, they are supposed to be able to perform activities focused on form.

As for the diversity of techniques, both Project 3 and Project 4 make the learners manipulate with the structure of PP tense in various ways, which means that grammar practice that follows the stage of presentation usually involves more than one technique.

The following classifications are based on the distinction of practice techniques described in the theoretical part.

### 6.4.1 Oral Practice

Although Project practice of PP involves more written tasks (*see* Table 3 and Table 4), within oral practice, learners perform tasks based on different techniques. Table 5 and Table 6 show the oral task types represented in Project (marked with the symbol '●').

The list of Project 3 practice techniques (*see* Table 5) proves that learners are exposed to PP in activities that are mechanical (e.g. drill) and controlled, but, on the other hand, they also fulfil more enjoyable tasks (e.g. miming).

**Table 5: Oral practice techniques in Project 3**

| Classification of oral practice techniques | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| OPTIONAL EXTRA AND REVISON IDEA TASKS | | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| **Drill** | **Oral d.** | | ● | ● |
| **Special types of oral drill** | **Pronunciation d.** | Repetition d. | ● | ● |
| | | Production d. | ● | ● |
| | **Chain d.** | | ● | ● |
| | **Transformation d.** | | ● | ● |
| | **'Dialogue' d.** | Cue-response d. | ● | ● |
| | | Mixed question and answer d. | | |

| Classification of oral practice techniques | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **OPTIONAL EXTRA and REVISON IDEA TASKS** | | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| **Special types of oral drill** | **'Dialogue' d.** | Phase d. | ● | ● |
| **Discrete-item activities** | Fill-in | | | |
| | Sentence completion | | | |
| | Matching | | ● | ● |
| **Translation** | | | | ● |
| **Interaction activities** | Information gap activities | | ● | ● |
| | Asking or answering questions | | ● | ● |
| **Play-acting** | Role-play | | ● | ● |
| | Simulation | | | |
| **Discussion** | | | ● | ● |
| **Narrating** | | | | ● |
| **Games/game-like activities** | Quizz | | ● | ● |
| | Miming | | | ● |
| | Guessing game | | | ● |
| | Find the pair | | | ● |
| **Personalised tasks** | | | ● | ● |
| **READING** | Answering detailed questions | | ● | ● |
| | True or false | | | |
| | Three-way matching | | | |
| **LISTENING** | Identification | | | |
| | Multiple-choice | | | |
| | True or false | | | |
| | Sorting out information | | | |
| | Answering questions | | | |

In Table 5, the technique called oral drill represents a group of tasks that cannot be classified as either of the drills that belong to any technique included among special types of drilling. An example of such a drill, taken from Hutchinson (2008a: 63), is: *We/have lunch* (The learners are supposed to make a positive sentence using the cues.) → *We've just had lunch.*

Despite the translation being typically regarded as a written technique, in Project 3, this type of task is used orally to stimulate the learners to participate in a discussion on the Czech meaning of several expressions of everyday English.

Oral practice in Project 4 (*see* Table 6) is slightly distinct from that offered in Project 3. Unlike Project 3, it does not give any ideas for games or game-like activities. On the other hand, Project 4 provides the learners with more oral techniques connected with reading. Neither Project 3 nor Project 4 suggest the special type of play-acting, simulation. The classification also revealed that no listening task is followed by oral task.

**Table 6: Oral practice techniques in Project 4**

| Classification of oral practice techniques | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| OPTIONAL EXTRA and REVISON IDEA TASKS | | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| **Drill** | **Oral d.** | | | |
| **Special types of oral drill** | **Pronunciation d.** | Repetition d. | ● | ● |
| | | Production d. | ● | ● |
| | **Chain d.** | | ● | ● |
| | **Transformation d.** | | ● | ● |
| | **'Dialogue' d.** | Cue-response d. | ● | ● |
| | | Mixed question and answer d. | | |
| | | Phase d. | | |
| **Discrete-item activities** | Fill-in | | | |
| | Sentence completion | | ● | ● |
| | Matching | | ● | ● |
| **Translation** | | | | |
| **Interaction activities** | Information gap activities | | ● | ● |
| | Asking or answering questions | | ● | ● |
| **Play-acting** | Role-play | | ● | ● |
| | Simulation | | | |
| **Discussion** | | | | |
| **Narrating** | | | | ● |
| **Games / game-like activities** | Quizz | | | |
| | Miming | | | |
| | Guessing game | | | |

| Classification of oral practice techniques | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| OPTIONAL EXTRA and REVISON IDEAS | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| Games / game-like activities | Find the pair | | |
| Personalised tasks | | ● | ● |
| READING | Answering detailed questions | ● | ● |
| | True or false | ● | ● |
| | Three-way matching | | |
| LISTENING | Identification | | |
| | Multiple-choice | | |
| | True or false | | |
| | Sorting out information | | |
| | Answering questions | | |

In Project 3, the group of games and game-like activities was represented in practice after OE and RI tasks were introduced into practising PP. Not only do the OE and RI tasks contribute to the practice of PP with more opportunities to speak English during the lessons (*see* Figure 1 and Figure 2), they also enrich the practice stage by additional task types.

### 6.4.2  Written Practice

Project tasks are predominantly aimed at written practice (*see* Table 3 and Table). Very often, written tasks are drills or discrete-item activities, but, as opposed to the oral practice, since OE and RI tasks do not strongly influence the whole written practice stage, the amounts of distinct practice techniques with and without the OE and RI tasks integrated into the lessons are comparable (*see* Table 7 and Table 8).

**Table 7: Written practice techniques in Project 3**

| Classification of written practice techniques | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| OPTIONAL EXTRAS and REVISON IDEAS | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| Drill | Written d. | ● | ● |
| | Transformation d. | ● | ● |
| | Cue-response d. | ● | ● |

| Classification of oral practice techniques | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| OPTIONAL EXTRA and REVISON IDEAS | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| Discrete-item activities | Matching | | |
| | Multiple-choice | | |
| | Fill-ins | ● | ● |
| | Sentence completion | ● | ● |
| Text completion | Cloze | | |
| | Gapped text | ● | ● |
| Word ordering | | ● | ● |
| Translation | | | |
| Sentence writing | | ● | ● |
| Parallel writing | | | |
| Productive writing | | | |
| Interaction activity | Note-taking | ● | ● |
| Dictation | | | |
| Dictogloss | | | |
| Games / game-like activities | Questionnaire | ● | ● |
| Personalised tasks | | ● | ● |
| READING | Answering detailed questions | ● | ● |
| | True or false | ● | ● |
| | Matching | ● | ● |
| | Sorting out information | ● | ● |
| LISTENING | Identification | ● | ● |
| | Multiple-choice | ● | ● |
| | True or false | | |
| | Matching | ● | ● |
| | Fill-in missing information | ● | ● |
| | Answering questions | ● | ● |
| | Sorting out information | | |

**Table 8: Written practice techniques in Project 4**

| Classification of written practice techniques | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **OPTIONAL EXTRA and REVISON IDEAS** | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| **Drill** | Written d. | ● | ● |
| | Transformation d. | ● | ● |
| | Cue-response d. | ● | ● |
| **Discrete-item activities** | Matching | ● | ● |
| | Multiple-choice | | |
| | Fill-ins | ● | ● |
| | Sentence completion | ● | ● |
| **Text completion** | Cloze | ● | ● |
| | Gapped text | ● | ● |
| **Word ordering** | | | |
| **Translation** | | | |
| **Sentence writing** | | ● | ● |
| **Parallel writing** | | | ● |
| **Productive writing** | | ● | ● |
| **Interaction activity** | Taking notes | ● | ● |
| **Dictation** | | | |
| **Dictogloss** | | | |
| **Games / game-like activities** | Questionnaire | | |
| **Personalised tasks** | | ● | ● |
| **READING** | Answering detailed questions | ● | ● |
| | True or false | ● | ● |
| | Matching | ● | ● |
| | Sorting out information | | |
| **LISTENING** | Identification | ● | ● |
| | Multiple-choice | ● | ● |
| | True or false | ● | ● |
| | Matching | ● | ● |

| Classification of oral practice techniques | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| OPTIONAL EXTRA and REVISON IDEAS | | WITHOUT | WITH |
| **LISTENING** | Fill-in missing information | ● | ● |
| | Answering questions | ● | ● |
| | Sorting out information | ● | ● |

Although learners of Project 3 and Project 4 frequently deal with the written form of PP in isolated sentences without opportunity to apply their knowledge to more fluency-based activities, they are also engaged in activities that gradually improve other language skills. Within the set of the Project tasks, PP appears in tasks based on reading and, furthermore, learners are also exposed to this structure while listening to Audio CDs. Task types supporting the development of reading and listening skills are similar to or the same as the techniques that require just writing (*see* Table 7 and Table 8). Nevertheless, reading and listening tasks give deeper practice with real-life element.

### 6.4.3  Interactive Practice

Nowadays, teenagers spend a great deal of their leisure time playing computer games or searching for information of their interest, so why not employ technology to  enliven the grammar teaching and thus motivate the teenagers to practise PP? The Project CD-ROM with interactive tasks can serve its purpose whether it is used at home or in the lessons.

Mostly, the CD-ROM tasks are discrete-item activities for quick practice. As far as the variety of distinct practice techniques is concerned, Project 3 is more heterogeneous (*see* Table 9 and Table 10). On the other hand, the computer game on the Project 4 CD-ROM may be a great source of entertainment for teenagers, who will appreciate any innovative way of language practising.

A few tasks in both Project 3 and Project 4, besides being interactive, have to be fulfilled by writing the correct responses. Their number is marked with symbol '*'. So in Project 3, there are three out of ten activities with writing as a part of the successful task fulfilment (*see* Table 9) and in Project 4, only one task integrates writing (*see* Table 10).

**Table 9: Interactive tasks in Project 3**

| Interactive tasks | |
| --- | --- |
| **Task type** | **Number** |
| Identification | 1 |
| Matching | 1 |
| Multiple-choice | 2 |
| Fill-in | 4 (2*) |
| Word ordering | 1 |
| Error correction | 1* |
| Total number | 10 |

**Table 10: Interactive tasks in Project 4**

| Interactive tasks | |
| --- | --- |
| **Task type** | **Number** |
| Multiple-choice | 4 |
| Fill-in | 3 (1*) |
| Word ordering | 2 |
| Game | 1 |
| Total number | 10 |

### 6.4.4 The Most Frequent Task Types

Considering the fact that teenagers are complete beginners with PP, their practising should start with the controlled tasks, then progress to communicative activities focused on fluency. The Project practice tasks are ordered to meet this recommended criterion of sequence.

Although the level of cognitive development enables teenagers to be involved in tasks in which they can demonstrate their creative skills and originality, within the Project practice of PP, the majority of activities are mostly oral drills, whereas among written tasks, most often, learners are required to complete the sentences with correct words or phrases.

Hedge (2000) points out that even the controlled practice is worth spending time on. Firstly, it extends the number of examples of the particular structure so that the learners have

more opportunities to notice the structure itself and, secondly, learners doing controlled-practice tasks are obliged not to ignore the syntactic rules of English.

Nevertheless, form-focused practising does not encourage the learners to produce their own language. At least, even this kind of practice is personalised. Personalised tasks do not represent one technique, but rather an element that increases learners' interest, as it allows them to use PP to talk about themselves, not the imaginary situations from Project. Both oral and written practice in Project 3 and Project 4 include this element (*see* Table 3, Table 4, Table 5 and Table 6).

## 6.5   Differences in Practice between Project 3 and Project 4

In Project 3, learners have not been introduced to all aspects of the usage of PP and that is why Project 4 extends the learners' knowledge of the tense by specification of its other functions.

Whereas Project 3 mentions PP with experiences up to now or recent events (Hutchinson, 2008a), later, with Project 4, learners find out its use is much wider, namely that it can express details about the actions that started in the past and continue to the present or their result somehow influences it (Hutchinson, 2009a). Differences in presentations inevitably result in distinct practising PP with Project 3 and Project 4.

### 6.5.1   *Practice Tasks on Present Perfect*

Practising individual language items connected with PP should not take place prior to their presentation. The traditional sequence in grammar teaching gives the learners time to perceive the new material before they get any practice tasks aimed at their active language production. Basically, during the Project practice stage, there are not evident any discrepancies between the amount of language the learners are presented with and the number of activities intended for the subsequent practice of that particular language material.

An overall practice of PP in Project 3 together with Project 4 makes a consistent system of mutually related tasks that gradually develop learners' competence in communication through oral and written channel. However, learners practising with Project 3 (*see* Table 12, where symbol '■' denotes the items being practised with Project 3 and Project 4) do not deal with the same quantity of grammatical items as offered in Project 4*,* which contains not only the tasks on the grammar having been practised with Project 3, but also those focused on other aspects of PP, newly introduced in its grammar sections. As illustrated in Table 12, learners practise making syntactic structures with Project 3 and later, with Project 4, they

revise using PP in all kinds of statements from Project 3, but, moreover, they familiarise themselves with the prepositions typical of the time phrases being used to talk about activities started in the past but continue and somehow affect the present. And, finally, until Project 4, learners have not been engaged in activities asking them to make distinctions between PP and PS.

**Table 12: Differences in practice of the present perfect tense**

| Differences in practice of the present perfect tense | | PROJECT 3 | PROJECT 4 |
|---|---|:---:|:---:|
| Past Participle | | ■ | |
| Positive statements | | ■ | ■ |
| Negative statements | | ■ | ■ |
| Questions | | ■ | ■ |
| Short answers | | ■ | ■ |
| Long answers | | ■ | ■ |
| Question-tags | | | ■ |
| Pronunciation | | ■ | ■ |
| ADVERBS | ever | ■ | ■ |
| | never | ■ | ■ |
| | just | ■ | ■ |
| | recently | | ■ |
| PREPOSITIONS | since | | ■ |
| | for | | ■ |
| Been vs. gone | | | ■ |
| Present perfect vs. past simple | | | ■ |

### 6.5.2  Present Perfect versus Past Simple

It has been already mentioned that learners very often confuse PS and PP. Project 3 introduces the contrast between these two tenses with the first presentation of PP, although subsequently, the practice stage does not provide the learners with any tasks explicitly based on this distinction. But Figure 3 suggests that also in Project 3, there are such activities. These are, however, the tasks in which learners do not have to decide on the correct tense usage, but

they deal with both tenses rather unconsciously. With Project 4, contrary is the case, as its tasks are designed for intentional differentiating the tenses.

**Figure 3: Present perfect vs. past simple in Project 3**
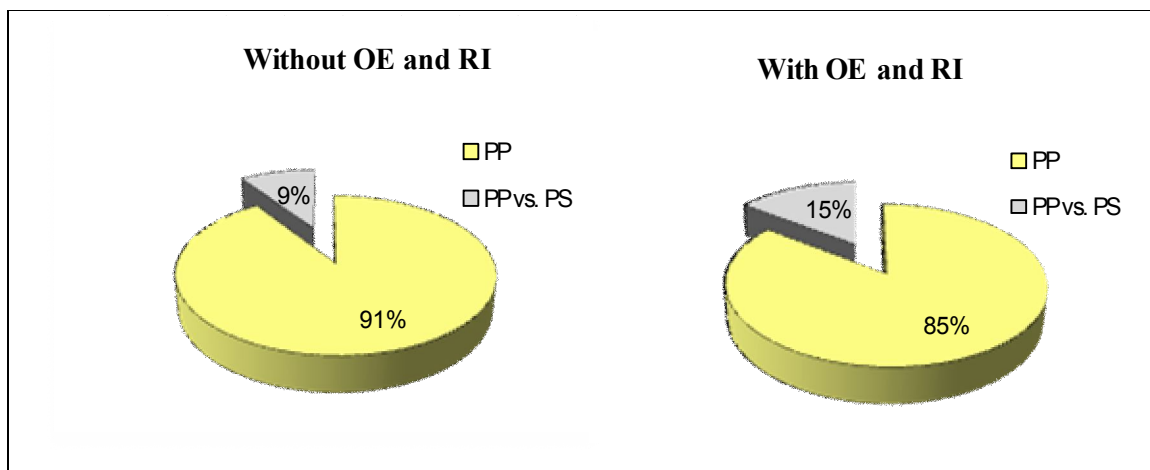


And whereas in Project 3, a majority of activities are aimed at PP, Project 4 has a plentiful supply of exercises for practising apropriate using both PP and PS in context (*see* Figure 4). To be specific, almost fifty per cent of its tasks are concerned with this specific distinction.

**Figure 4: Present perfect vs. past simple in Project 4**
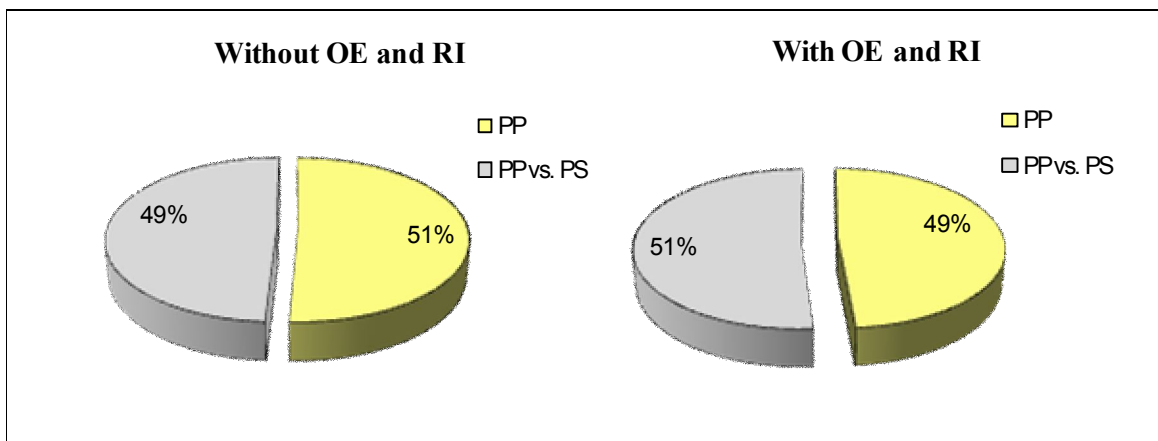


Furthermore, Figure 3 and Figure 4 suggest that additional activities recommended in Teacher's Book change the proportion between the two types of tasks really slightly.

## 6.6  Summary of Analysis

Commonly, practising becomes the predominant part of the study of grammatical rules. Teenage learners understand the benefits and purpose of the ability to speak a foreign language, so the effectiveness of the practice stage can be enhanced by the properly chosen tasks with an embedded element of motivation appropriate to learners' age. Practice tasks should activate the learners to performance, whether it is an open-ended or close-ended activity.

The above analysis of the Project PP practice revealed basic features of the set of tasks provided by this course. These qualities can be summarised creating general characteristics of overall practising PP in Project 3 together with Project 4. The Project practice was analysed regarding three main dimensions of learners' practising. First, attention was paid to the proportion of oral to written activities, then, it attempted to classify all the techniques represented among speaking and writing tasks and the third examined quality of the Project practice  was the difference between the learners' practicing with Project 3 and Project 4. Since Teacher's Book suggests supplementary activities, namely OE and RI tasks, the further objective of the analysis was to find out if these activities affect markedly the three dimensions of practising.

The close study of the individual components of Project 3 and Project 4 (without iTools) proved that learners are mostly asked to practise PP through written tasks, although they should develop their ability to communicate using this tense. In addition, a large majority of represented practice techniques are drills or, with written tasks, fill-in activities and sentence completions. In fact, these procedures do not give the learners chance to produce original ideas and thus develop creativity. The last area of this analytical study revealed that as learners proceed with practising PP they always revise all the aspect they have learned with the previous level of Project before they start to extend their knowledge. Involving OE and RI tasks can modify each of the dimensions. The most beneficial effect of these activities can be detected in the change of the amount of oral tasks in both Project 3 and Project 4, and especially with Project 4, they are of vital importance, for its shortage of oral practice tasks.

The whole stage of practice is to a great extent determined by the activities offered in the components of Project. Nevertheless, in spite of the limited choice of practice tasks on the part of a teacher, the prescribed activities do not always have to be the final determiners of the lessons dedicated to PP and its proper absorption. The next chapter will attempt to suggest activities that can contribute to the increase in communication during practising PP.

# 7 Present Perfect through Oral Practice

Huge imbalance between the oral and written ways of practice in *Project 4* can be redressed by additional oral activities teachers include in teaching the present perfect tense. Any grammar teaching should be appropriate to the level of a particular group of language learners. In the following parts, there are several recommendations of activities intended for oral practising PP with lower-secondary learners. Mostly, the tasks correspond to the level of language skills of the Project 4 learners, but some of the tasks are offered with variations for the learners of Project 3.

The tasks are divided into two groups. First group deals with PP, whereas the second focuses on practising PP along with PS. The selection of the practice techniques was, to some degree, influenced by the fact that Project 4 does not provide its learners with any game or game-like activity. If there is a problem with vocabulary used in activities, teacher should present the unknown words before an activity itself.

The length of time for the performance of individual activities has been either estimated or based on used sources.

## 7.1 Present Perfect

### 7.1.1 Pair discussion

**UNUSUAL SITUATIONS** Based on Gairns and Redman (1995: 91)

**Grammar points:** *PP in positive/negative statements, for/since*

**Level:** Project 4

**Time:** 15 minutes

**Aim:** to make positive and negative statements, deduce from the given information

**Organisation:** Pair work/group work

**Materials:** A list of eight sentences with unusual situations (*see* Appendix 1)

**Procedure:** Learners in pair or groups are provided with a piece of paper that lists situations unusual for Susan and her friend Jim. Learners do not get any further information about them. The purpose of this pair work is to come up with as many explanations for the unusual situations as possible. Learners try to think of the reason for these situations.

*Example:* Jim has not paid the bills for half a year.

Possible explanation: He has lost his job.

He has forgotten to pay the bills.

His wife always pays them.

**Follow-up:** All learners together with their teacher present their ideas about the reasons for the unusual situations.

### 7.1.2  Games

<u>**WHAT HAVE YOU DONE!**</u> Based on Obee (1999: 56 – 57)

**Grammar points:** *exclamations, PP in positive statements/short answers, just*

**Level:** Project 4

**Time:** 30 minutes

**Aim:** to practise using several English exclamations typical of real-life communication and use PP in positive statements and short answers

**Organisation:** Whole class

**Materials:** One set of exclamation cards for the class (*see* Appendix 2)

**Pre-task:** Teacher gives each learner one exclamation (one half of the card):
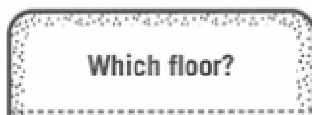
 (Obee, 1999: 57)

The learners are supposed to think about the meaning of their exclamations. Then tell their suggestions to the rest of the class. The whole class can discuss the meaning of individual exclamations.

**Procedure:** The whole class is divided into teams with roughly the same number of members (three to four teams). Each learner is given one or two cards so that each team has got the same number of cards. Learners fold their cards along the line not to show to members of other teams the sentence with PP.
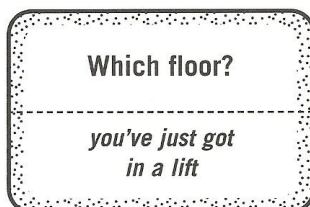
 (Obee, 1999: 57)

The teacher asks a member of one team to start – hold up his or her exclamation and say it aloud to the rest of the class. Members of the other teams have to guess what has just happened.

> *Example:* A Which floor?
>
> B You've just came to your friend.
>
> A No, I haven't.
>
> C You've just got in a lift.
>
> A Yes, I have.

The player who suggests a sentence with the meaning similar to that being written on the back of the exclamation, wins the card. The team with most cards wins the game.

**Variations:**

**Level:** Project 4

**Time:** 25 – 30 minutes

**Organisation:** Pair work, then whole class

**Materials:** One set of exclamation cards for the class (*see* Appendix 2)

**Pre-task:**

Time: 10 minutes

Organisation: Pair work

　1. The class is divided into pairs and each pair gets one set of cards cut into halves.



|  |  |
|---|---|
| Which floor? | you've just got in a lift |
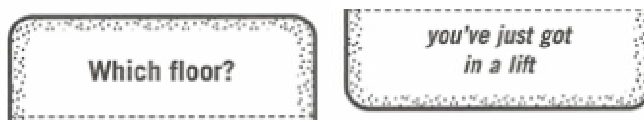
(Obee, 1999: 57)

In pairs, learners try to match the exclamations with the sentences to make the cards.

　2. Checking the answers with the teacher. Each pair reads one card. Learners can ask about the unknown vocabulary. Then the learners give all the cards back to the teacher.

**Procedure:** The same as the previous on page 61.

**YES/NO – CHANGES** Based on Lee (1986: 19 – 20)

**Grammar points:** *PP in positive statements and short answers*

**Level:** Project 3/Project 4

**Time:** 5 - 10 minutes

**Aim:** to practise vocabulary connected with clothes, appearance, classroom, etc. in statements with PP

**Organisation:** Whole class

**Procedure:** One of the learners goes outside the classroom and there does something to change his or her appearance. This change should not be too obvious. When the learner comes back to the classroom, the others try to guess what he or she has done. The learner says by means of short answers if they are correct or not.

> *Example:* A You have undone your sweater.
>
> B No, I haven't.
>
> C You have combed your hair.
>
> A Yes, I have.

Then another learner can go outside the classroom, etc.

**Variation: What has changed?**

**Level:** Project 3 / Project 4

**Time:** 5 – 10 minutes

**Organisation:** Whole class

**Procedure:** The class is divided into two groups. Before one of the groups goes outside the classroom, its members look round the classroom to see where various objects are. While the group is behind the doors, the second group moves some objects in the classroom so that they have a different position. Then the group returns and each member suggests what he or she thinks has changed in the classroom. Members of the second group, one by one, say if it is correct or not.

> *Example:* A The flowers have moved to the left side of the table.
>
> B No, they haven't.
>
> C Jane has taken her pullover off.
>
> A Yes, she has.

## 7.2 Present Perfect vs. Past Simple

### 7.2.1 Picture description

<u>ACCOUNTING FOR MOODS</u> Based on Ur (1991: 240-242)

**Grammar points:** *PP and PS in questions, positive/negative statements*


**Level:** Project 4

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Aim:** to practise talking about mood and reasons for them

**Organisation:** Pair work

**Materials:** A set of pictures with people in different moods (*see* Appendix 3)


**Pre-task:** Each pair is given the set of pictures with people (or any even number of pictures). Learners look at the pictures and then the whole class together with their teacher define the feelings of the people in the pictures. There can be more possibilities for one picture. Teacher or learners can write the suggestions on the board.

> *Example:* The man in the first picture is exhausted/tired.
>
> The woman in the picture No. 10 is frightened.


**Procedure:** Learners, in pairs, talk about the pictures. First, one learner asks his or her partner about what has happened to the person in the picture that made her/him feel this way.

> *Example:* What has happened to the man in the first picture and made him exhausted?

The second learner gives the reason for his mood.

> *Example:* The man is exhausted because he has worked for many hours in his office. *or* The man is exhausted because he has done too much work today.


With another picture, learners change their roles.


**Follow-up:** The whole class discuss their ideas with the teacher.


### *Variation:*

**Level:** Project 3/Project 4

**Organisation:** Whole class

**Materials:** A set of pictures large enough to be displayed to the whole class. (*see* Appendix 3)

**Procedure:** The activity is performed in the same way as before. The only difference is that it is a teacher who asks the questions and the learners suggest the possible reasons.

### 7.2.2 Games

<u>**NOUGHTS AND CROSSES/TIC-TAC-TOE**</u> Based on Harmer (1987: 48)

**Grammar points:** *PP and PS in positive/negative statements, questions*

**Level:** Project 4

**Time:** 10 minutes

**Aim:** to practise making meaningful statements and questions

**Organisation:** Whole class

**Materials:** Grid drawn on the board with words or phrases (*see* Figure 6)

**Procedure:** The teacher divides the class into two teams (Team A and Team B). The nought (0) represents Team A and Team B is represented by the cross (X). Team A chooses one square of the grid and any member of this team has to make a positive/negative statement or a question with the word or phrase in the square. If the sentence is correct, they put a nought (0) on that square. Then Team B chooses a square and scores a cross (X) on the square if they make a correct sentence. The team with a straight line of noughts or crosses in horizontal or vertical direction is the winning team.

**Figure 6: The grid for 'Noughts and crosses'**

| YESTERDAY (0) | SINCE 2009 | GONE |
|---|---|---|
| BEEN | JUST | LAST MONTH |
| RECENTLY | AT THE WEEKEND | FOR ONE YEAR |

*Example:* (0) John was in the cinema yesterday.

<u>**Variation 1:**</u>

**Grammar points:** *PP and PS in positive/negative statements, questions, past form and past participle of irregular verbs*

65

**Level:** *Project 4*

**Time:** 15 minutes

**Aim:** to practise transformation of several irregular verbs into their past form and past participle and use them in sentences

**Organisation:** Pair work

**Materials:** Table with words and phrases (*see* Appendix 4), one set of infinitives of irregular verbs (*see* Appendix 6)

**Procedure:** Learners work in pairs. Student A is represented by the nought (0), Student B by the cross (X). Each pair gets one table and the set of the small cards with infinitives of irregular verbs. Learners put the cards face down on their desks.

After Student A picks up one of the cards, he or she chooses one of the squares of the table, then is supposed to make a sentence using the word or phrase written in the square and the correct form of the verb that he or she has chosen. If the student makes a correct sentence, he or she puts a nought on the square. If he or she cannot create such sentence, then it is Student B's turn, who follows the same instructions as Student A.

Cards with the verbs to which the learners were not able to make the past form or past participle are put aside and they are used in case learners do not have enough verbs to finish the game.

The student who gets a row of three noughts or crosses either horizontally or vertically is the winner.

**Variation 2:**

**Level:** Project 3

**Materials:** Table with words and phrases (*see* Appendix 5), a set of infinitives of irregular verbs (*see* Appendix 6)

**Procedure:** Learners follow the same scenario as with *Project 4*. Because *Project 3* does not provide the learners with much practice on the difference between PP and PS, teacher can give the learners either the table with expressions to be used only with PP, or the teacher can adjust the table so that it corresponds to the amount of language included in presentation.

**BOARD GAME – SNAKES AND LADDERS** Based on Rinvolucri (1984: 28 – 30)

**Grammar points:** *PP and PS in positive/negative statements, questions, question-tags, since/for*

**Level:** Project 4

**Time:** 30 – 40 minutes

**Aim:** to decide on the use of PP and PS

**Organisation:** Group work

**Materials:** One board (*see* Appendix 7) and one die per four learners

**Procedure:** Teacher divides the class into fours. The learners sit so that everybody from the group can see the board. Each learner takes some small object to represent him or herself (e.g. counter, coin or rubber) and puts it on START. The aim of the game is to get from START to FINISH. On the board there are some sentences. During the game, learners have to decide which is correct and which is incorrect.

Rules of the game:

1. The first player throws the die and advances to the square indicated. If there is a sentence on that particular square, the player decides on its correctness. In case the player thinks it is incorrect, he or she should correct it. The rest of the group has to decide whether the player is right or wrong. The player moves forward three squares if all three players (or at least two of them) think the same. Nevertheless, if they disagree with the player, he or she goes back three squares. If there the square is without a sentence, the player stays there and then it is another player's turn.

A player who lands on a square at the bottom of a ladder must go up it. Landing on a square with the mouth of a snake means that a player must move down it.

2. The player being the first on or beyond the FINISH becomes the winner of the game.

3. The players do not discuss one sentence more than once, so a player who lands on a sentence that has been solved goes to the next non-discussed sentence.

4. On condition that a member of the group thinks the others are not right about their judgements, he or she can ask the teacher after the game.

The game ends when most groups have finished. The teacher should not interrupt the game by correcting wrong verdicts.

# CONCLUSION

Grammar teaching, the role of which has sometimes been underestimated, forms the basis for the second language acquisition, since the methodological courses commonly used in language lessons develop their syllabus structures with regard to the sequence of individual grammatical points. Achievement of the communicative competence is the main objective of any language learning and even though the present perfect, connecting the past with the present, belongs to the most difficult English tenses, learners should be provided with an appropriate practice that would make them its active users in real-life situations.

The amount of practice tasks chosen for learners' dealing with the present perfect tense always have to be sufficient enough for a repeated engaging the learners in manipulation with this tense, but, on the other hand, both oral and written techniques need to be combined so that they create a purposeful and well-balanced collection designed for an effective grammar practising.

The aim of this study was to analyse and evaluate the practice of the present perfect tense at lower-secondary stage with regard to the quality and quantity of the tasks, by means of which learners accustom themselves to using this tense in communication. In addition, the overall analysis of the activities was aimed at an attempt to find out if the optional extra and revision idea tasks are somehow beneficial to learning the present perfect tense.

As the Czech lower-secondary learners are frequently taught with the Project courses, for the purpose of this analysis, I categorised all the practice tasks on the present perfect tense offered in all the components of the third edition of both Project 3 and Project 4 courses. However, Project iTools, the newest components of the Project courses, were excluded from the analysis, since these have not been so far significantly widespread among English teachers. Individual tasks were distinguished according to the verbs and phrases included in Teacher's Book instructions to the tasks, specifying the way in which the tasks should be performed.

Moreover, the quality of the Project practice was judged by the variety of oral and written task types represented in all the components. Again, the classification of practice techniques was carried out on the basis of the task instructions but, this time, also the task design helped with the categorisation.

Finally, the analyses focused on the learners' progress with the grammatical items related to the present perfect tense in Project 3 and Project 4.

Despite a large number of practice tasks in both courses, Project 4 offers the learners only several tasks for oral fulfilment, even less then included in oral practice of Project 3. Optional extras and revision ideas suggested in Project Teacher's Books support oral practice and thus redress the balance between the oral and written practising.

Not only do the Project courses give the learners insufficient opportunities to make progress in communicative skills, predominance of controlled tasks also inhibits the learners from producing creative and original ideas, although with lower-secondary learners, the imagination has almost reached its peak.

As for the difference between the scope of grammar being practised in Project 3 and Project 4, the former does not deal with the same quantity of grammatical items as offered in the successive Project 4, which contains the tasks on the grammar having been practised with Project 3, but also those focused on other aspects of the present perfect tense, newly introduced in its grammar sections.

The above mentioned characteristics of practising the present perfect tense in Project 3 and Project 4 shows that lower-secondary learners do not foster the speaking skills to the same degree as the writing ones. Therefore, I recommend the English teachers to pay more attention to the quality of the practice of the present perfect tense and not consider the Project instructions as the only determiners of the whole practice stage and, last but not least, it is necessary to point out that if the teacher want to extend the learners' practising, of course, they should bring to the class the activities appropriate to the age and level of learners, but, more importantly, these supplementary tasks should be highly communicative.

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# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

| | |
|---|---|
| OE | optional extra |
| PP | the present perfect simple tense |
| PS | the past simple tense |
| RI | revision idea |
| Project | the Project course (without iTools) |
| Project 3 | the Project 3 course (without iTools) |
| Project 4 | the Project 4 course (without iTools) |
| ● | represented task types |
| ■ | practised grammatical items |
| * | number of written tasks among interactive tasks |
| ⊞ | advantage |
| ⊟ | disadvantage |

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Table 3: Representation of oral and written practice techniques in Project 3

Table 4: Representation of oral and written practice techniques in Project 4

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Table 6: Oral practice techniques in Project 4

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Figure 1: Project 3 practice without/with OE and RI tasks

Figure 2: Project 4 practice without/with OE and RI tasks

Figure 3: Present perfect vs. past simple in Project 3

Figure 4: Present perfect vs. past simple in Project 4

## APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Unusual situations

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Appendix 3: Accounting for moods – Pictures with people in different moods

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Appendix 5: Noughts and crosses – Table with words and phrases for the Project 3 learners

Appendix 6: Noughts and crosses – Set of infinitives of irregular verbs

Appendix 7: Snakes and ladders – Board

**Appendix 1: Unusual situations**

> **Here are some unusual situations of Susan and her friend Jim. How many explanations can you think of for each one? Work with a partner.**
>
> 1. Susan has not driven her car for one year.
> 2. Jim hasn't been ill since 2001.
> 3. Susan and Jim have not seen each other for two months.
> 4. Susan has not smoked for ten years.
> 5. Jim has not travelled abroad since he bought since he bought his new house.
> 6. Susan hasn't been at work since last year.
> 7. Jim has not played the guitar for six years.
> 8. Susan has not seen any film for eight months.
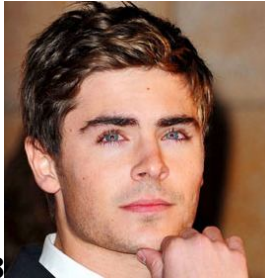
Based on Gairns and Redman (1995)

**Appendix 2: What have you done! – Exclamation cards**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **I'm full.** *you've just eaten/had a meal/dinner* | **Which channel?** *you've just turned on the TV* | **It's OK – I'll answer it!** *you've just heard the phone* |
| **I look terrible there!** *you've just seen a photograph* | **Wrong number, sorry.** *you've just answered the phone* | **That's odd, no-one's home.** *you've just rung the bell/knocked on the door* |
| **And you are?** *you've just introduced yourself/said your name* | **Yuk!** *you've just tasted something awful/terrible* | **I need a plaster/band-aid.** *you've just cut yourself* |
| **Fasten your belt.** *you've just got in a car* | **I need a sharpener.** *you've just broken your pencil* | **My feet are so wet.** *you've just been (out) in the rain* |
| **Like my tan?** *you've just been on holiday.* | **Which floor?** *you've just got in a lift* | **I need a rubber/an eraser.** *you've just made a mistake* |
| **It fits.** *you've just tried something on* | **I need a tissue now.** *you've just sneezed* | **There's no ice again.** *you've just opened the fridge/freezer* |

Taken from Obee (1999: 57)

**Appendix 3: Accounting for moods – Pictures with people in different moods**



(POSSIBLE KEY: 1. exhausted/tired/sleepy, 2. angry, 3. excited/happy, 4. happy, 5. surprised, 6. sad/lonely, 7. depressed, 8. confused, 9. angry, 10. frightened/excited)

Pictures taken from Google Images (online)

Based on Ur (1988)

**Appendix 4: Noughts and crosses – Table with words and phrases for Project 4**

| YESTERDAY | SINCE 2009 | HAS |
|---|---|---|
| WHEN | JUST | LAST MONTH? |
| RECENTLY | AT THE WEEKEND | FOR ONE YEAR |

Based on Harmer (1987)

**Appendix 5: Noughts and crosses – Table with words and phrases for Project 3**

| YESTERDAY | CINEMA | EVER |
|---|---|---|
| ? | JUST | LAST MONTH |
| HAVE | HOLIDAY | NEVER |

Based on Harmer (1987)

**Appendix 6: Noughts and crosses – Set of infinitives of irregular verbs**

| |
|---|
| **to BE** |
| **to DRINK** |
| **to GIVE** |
| **to HEAR** |
| **to RUN** |
| **to SING** |
| **to READ** |
| **to STEAL** |
| **to TELL** |
| **to WRITE** |
| **to TAKE** |
| **to GO** |
| **to EAT** |
| **to COME** |
| **to FIND** |

## Appendix 7: Snakes and ladders – Board
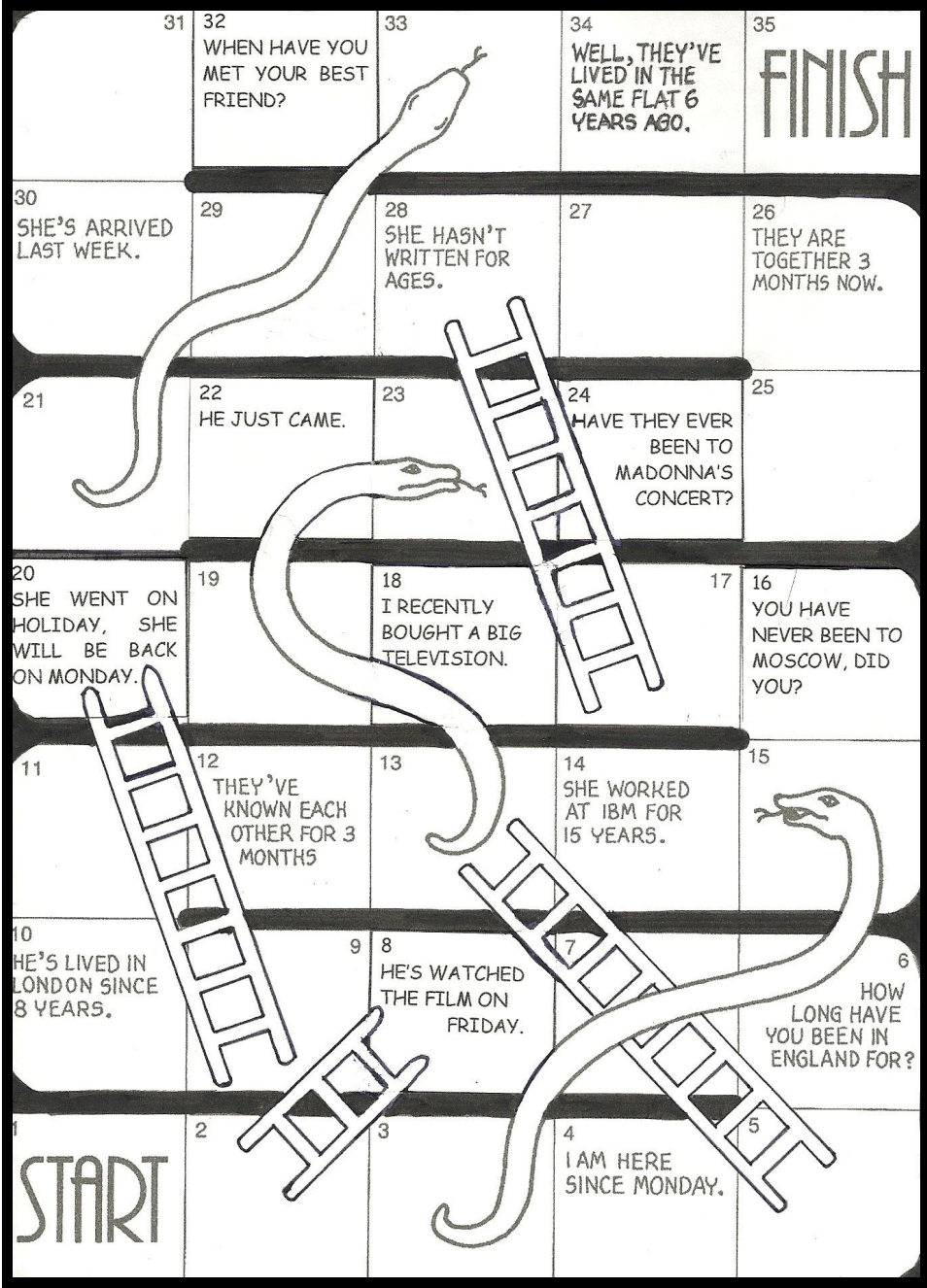


Based on Rinvolucri (1984)

# RÉSUMÉ

Přestože je význam gramatiky ve výuce angličtiny často podceňován, většina publikovaných kurzů na jejím základě staví svůj učební plán, podle kterého jsou žáci vedeni k dosažení komunikativní kompetence svých jazykových schopností. Přestože podle mnohých žáků patří předpřítomný čas mezi obtížně pochopitelné anglické struktury, jeho procvičování by mělo být uskutečňováno tak, aby z žáků činilo jeho aktivní uživatele.

Soubor úkolů k procvičování by proto měl být dostatečně velký, aby měli žáci možnost tento čas opakovaně používat, ale zároveň by měl být při jeho výběru brán zřetel na jeho složení. Efektivita procvičování totiž mimo jiné záleží na vyváženosti ústních a písemných forem procvičování.

Cílem této práce bylo analyzovat a zhodnotit procvičování předpřítomného času na druhém stupni základní školy s ohledem na kvalitu a množství nabízených úkolů. Dále bylo zjišťováno, do jaké míry jsou při procvičování přínosná rozšiřující cvičení navržená příručkou pro učitele.

Protože se žáci na druhém stupni základních škol většinou učí podle kurzu Project, zvolila jsem pro účely analýzy procvičovací úkoly ze všech komponentů kurzů Project 3 a Project 4, jež jsem roztřídila podle sloves a frází instrukcí k jednotlivým úkolům v příručce pro učitele. Do této analýzy jsem nezahrnula Project iTools, nejnovější pomůcku určenou pro výuku angličtiny s pomocí interaktivní tabule, jelikož ještě není v českých školách velmi rozšířená.

Dalším faktorem, který při evaluaci rozhodoval o kvalitě procvičování jako takového, byla pestrost technik, s jejichž pomocí se žáci učí předpřítomný čas používat. Stejně jako u předchozího, i tato kategorizace byla provedena na základě pokynů zkoumaným cvičením. Zároveň však bylo u daných aktivit nutné sledovat jejich vizuální stránku.

Třetím sledovaným aspektem bylo, jak žáci při procvičování s kurzem Project 3 a následně Project 4 postupují. Jinak řečeno, jakým způsobem v daných kurzech procvičují jednotlivé gramatické položky.

Při analýze bylo zjištěno, že i když je v obou kurzech velké množství úkolů, Project 4 žákům nabízí pouze několik úkolů k ústnímu procvičování, a to dokonce méně než Project 3, který předpřítomný čas vůbec poprvé prezentuje. Doplňková cvičení z učitelského manuálu tuto nerovnováhu částečně vyvažují.

Nejenom že kurzy Project žákům nedávají dostatečné množství příležitostí pro ústní komunikaci, také jim brání uplatnit kreativní nápady, jejichž produkce je u žáků druhého stupně základní školy téměř na vrcholu.

Co se týká rozsáhlosti procvičování předpřítomného času u jednotlivých kurzů, s kurzem Project 3 se žáci v rámci procvičování nezabývají stejným množstvím jazyka jako následně s kurzem Project 4, který ve svých cvičeních zahrnuje nejen gramatiku procvičovanou s kurzem Project 3, ale také další, nově prezentované, aspekty předpřítomného času.

Uvedená charakteristika procvičování v kurzech Project 3 a Project 4 ukazuje, že žáci druhého stupně nerozvíjí své dovednosti mluveného projevu do stejné míry jako psaného. Proto učitelům anglického jazyka doporučuji, aby při procvičování dbali na jeho kvalitu a efektivitu a sami si pokyny k úkolům upravovali podle aktuálních potřeb svých žáků. Dále bych chtěla zdůraznit, že pokud by učitelé chtěli procvičování podpořit dalšími aktivitami, měli by je vybírat nebo upravovat tak, aby odpovídaly věku a jazykové úrovni žáků. A co je nejdůležitější, měly by být vysoce komunikativní.

# ANNOTATION

| | |
|---|---|
| **Jméno a příjmení:** | Jana Kořínková |
| **Katedra:** | Anglického jazyka |
| **Vedoucí práce:** | Mgr. Silvie Válková, Ph.D. |
| **Rok obhajoby:** | 2010 |
| **Název práce:** | Procvičování předpřítomného času u žáků druhého stupně ZŠ |
| **Název v angličtině:** | Practising present perfect with lower-secondary learners |
| **Anotace práce:** | Tato práce se zabývá fází procvičování u žáků druhého stupně základní školy v procesu výuky předpřítomného času. Nejprve podává shrnutí metodologických poznatků vztahujících se k procvičování jako takovému, poté jsou v praktické části analyzována a zhodnocena cvičení určená k procvičování předpřítomného času v kurzech Project 3 a Project 4 s ohledem na obecné zásady úspěšného procvičování. Tato část zároveň nabízí několik aktivit, které by mohly zmírnit nedostatky zjištěné v průběhu analýzy. |
| **Klíčová slova:** | Procvičování gramatiky a jeho metody, předpřítomný čas prostý, žáci druhého stupně základní školy, motivace k procvičování, procvičování v kurzu Project 3 a Project 4 |
| **Anotace v angličtině:** | This study deals with the stage of practice in the process of teaching the present perfect tense to lower-secondary learners. First, it summarizes methodological background related to practising grammatical structures in English lessons, then, in practical part, it attempts to analyse and evaluate the Project 3 and Project 4 tasks designed for practising the present perfect simple regarding the general characteristics of an effective grammar practice. This part also suggests several activities that could reduce deficiencies revealed during the analysis. |
| **Klíčová slova v angličtině:** | Grammar practice and its techniques, present perfect simple, lower-secondary learners, motivation to practice, practice in Project 3 and Project 4 |
| **Přílohy vázané v práci:** | 7 příloh |
| **Rozsah práce:** | 72 stran |
| **Jazyk práce:** | Angličtina |