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PRINCIPLES OF DESIGNING FUNCTIONAL
DIALOGUES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH:
THEORY AND PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at identifying the principles and procedures behind the functional dialogue design and developing a procedure for implementation of functional dialogues based on the findings.

In Chapter I, background to the study, the aim and the scope of the study are presented.

In Chapter II, review of literature is presented.

Chapter III deals with characteristic features, design and use of functional dialogues.

Chapter IV introduces the traditional and the new suggested way of handling dialogues. It also presents a sample unit.

In Chapter V, the conclusion of the study is given.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Sayfa
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Presentation	1
1.2. Background to the Study	1
1.3. Aim and Scope of the Study	3
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	5
2.1. Presentation	5
2.2. Human Communication	6
2.3. Nature of Human Communication	7
2.4. Communication and Language Teaching	8
2.5. Communicative Competence	10
2.6. Teaching Communicative Competence	11
2.7. History of Dialogue in Language Teaching	12
2.8. Approaches to the Use of Dialogue in Language Teaching	15
2.8.1. Audio-Lingualism	15
2.8.2. The Natural Approach	16
2.8.3. Suggestopedia	16
2.8.4. Communicative Approach	16
2.9. Dialogue as a Communicative Activity	17
2.10. Definition of Terms	18

2.10.1. What is a Dialogue?	18
3. CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES, DESIGN AND USE OF FUNCTIONAL DIALOGUES	
DIALOGUES	20
3.1. Presentation	20
3.2. Characteristic Features of Functional Dialogues	20
3.3. Design of Functional Dialogues	21
3.3.1. Basic Principles	21
3.3.2. Organization of Principles	42
3.4. Use of Functional Dialogues	45
4. IMPLEMENTATION OF FUNCTIONAL DIALOGUES	48
4.1. Presentation	48
4.2. Traditional Way of Handling Dialogues	48
4.3. A Survey for Understanding the Present Situation at Traditional Way of Teaching Dialogues	50
4.4. The New Suggested Way of Handling Dialogues	51
4.4.1. The Presentation Stage	53
4.4.2. The Practice Stage	59
4.4.3. The Production Stage	66
4.5. Sample Unit	68
4.5.1. Teacher's Manual	68
4.5.2. Student's Book	74
4.6. Observations on Sample Unit	78
4.6.1. Psycholinguistics Perspective	78
4.6.2. Sociolinguistics Perspective	80

5. CONCLUSION	82
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX A	84
APPENDIX B	86
APPENDIX C	87
APPENDIX D	88
APPENDIX E	89
APPENDIX F	90
APPENDIX G	91
REFERENCES	92



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. PRESENTATION

In this chapter, the reasons for the study will be introduced and the aim and the scope of the study will be explained.

1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The need for the study arises from the problem that although our foreign language students know a lot about the language, they don't have the ability to function in a communicative setting. In other words, they have difficulties in saying the right thing, in the right situation even on a very simple level. Why? For the reasons we have to go back to the classroom.

Rivers (1981:199) states. "Many students who were well trained in using language structures have found themselves completely at a loss in conducting a conversation with a native speaker of the language because the books from which they (and their teacher before them) learned the language forms failed to emphasize the characteristic features of everyday spoken language and persistently used outdated

or pedantic turns of phrase. Such students may be perfectly at home with the language of an ode or a classical play, yet find their ears assailed by unfamiliar phrases as soon as they hear two native speakers in discussion. They may be able to talk fluently about peasants and palaces, carriages and wooden ploughs, but be quite unable to ask for air to be put in the tires of their car or the price of a new film for their camera".

It is a fact that the teaching of languages has traditionally concentrated on certain aspects of the code. The students are expected to manipulate certain aspects of the language without creating any communication of their own. Since they do not know the social formulas of the language, they are not able to apply what they have learnt in the classroom to real life.

Today, the principle objective of language teaching programs is to help the students develop their communicative competence. In these programs, students get the ability to produce the language which is not only correct but also appropriate in real-life situations. It is the teachers' job to foster this ability simply, pleasantly and effectively by providing many opportunities for the students so as to practice what they have learnt in the classroom. These opportunities can be supplied by means of communicative activities which create situations in which the students can transfer their learning to real situations.

On the part of the teacher the problem is that the language teachers are in need of finding answers to the question how they can

help the students pass from the storing of linguistic knowledge and information to the actual use of this knowledge in order to establish contact with other individuals. Many teachers do not use communicative activities as effectively as they could. The significant reason is that the teacher does not know the purpose, description and limitations of each communicative activity. This result comes from the fact that they are not aware of the principles and procedures behind the design of each activity.

1.3. AIM AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to find out the principles and procedures used in functional dialogue design and to suggest a way for handling functional dialogues effectively in the language classroom.

It is hoped that the findings will increase the students' awareness of language and efficiency and sensitivity in the use of language.

Robinett (1977:42) states, "The effective use of the materials depends upon the teacher's knowing the principles behind the textbook design: i.e. the reasons for presenting items in certain ways, the reasons for selecting certain items and omitting others and the reasons for a given sequence of items".

Since awareness of the principles and procedures behind the dialogue design is the prerequisite to teacher competence and the

effective teaching, it is also hoped that this study will be helpful to the teacher as regarding handling dialogues effectively in the classroom.



CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. PRESENTATION

In this chapter, human communication, the nature of human communication, the relationship between communication and language teaching, communicative competence, teaching communicative competence, history of dialogue in language teaching, approaches to the use of dialogue in language teaching and dialogue as a communicative activity will be surveyed. There will be a section on definition of key terms.

"Know theyself"

ARISTO

"The more we talk, the more
we know ourselves, the more
we know ourselves, the more
we understand life."

ELLEN GREENLAND

(Moskowitz, 1978: 319)

2.2. HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Human communication is an exchange between people of knowledge, of information, of ideas, of feelings. In other words, as Murcia (1984:2) states: "Human communication is a system of giving and receiving information".

As far as human communication is concerned we have to talk about its two aspects: one is verbal and the other is non-verbal communication.

Information can be conveyed non-verbally via gesture, facial expression and many other non-verbal means. To quote Abercrombie (1963:70) : "... although our vocal organs are enough for the mere production of speech sounds, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that we need our entire bodies when we converse".

However, verbal communication is carried out by means of speech. Argyle (1967:45) defines 'speech' as, "Speech is the most complex, subtle and characteristically human means of communication. Human speech is learnt, can convey information about external events and has a grammatical structure". Verbal communication is the most important characteristic feature of human beings. It is not possible for two or more human beings to be together without communicating. They communicate through language. Therefore, communication is the most obvious function of language.

Imhoof (1980:22) states: "The ability to communicate is man's

salvation as a social animal and his sanity as an individual. Learning how to communicate effectively through the conscious and purposeful study of language and rhetoric can not only satisfy immediate needs in education and work, but can also provide the means for carrying on a dialogue with the world".

2.3. NATURE OF HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Since human communication is a highly complex phenomenon, the followings are the most common characteristics which explain the nature of human communication.

Canale (Jack Richards 1983:34) gives the following characteristics of human communication following Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977) and Widdowson (1978).

a) is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;

b) involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;

c) takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances;

d) is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;

e) always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade or to promise);

f) involves authentic, as opposed to textbook contrived language; and

g) is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes (For example, communication could be judged successful in the case of a non-native English speaker who was trying to find the train station in Toronto, uttered 'How to go train' or a passer-by, and was given directions to the train station).

Under the light of these generalizations mentioned above, it is reasonable to conclude that communication is an exchange of information between at least two individuals and these generalizations do not only apply to the spoken word, but written communication as well.

2.4. COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the preceding section, the characteristics which the great majority of communicative events share have been outlined. They bring us to the point that communication is a principle function of language and language is a matter of human behaviour.

According to Imhoof (1980:26) "There is a basic human need to impose order or structure on our world... I think the study of language is the most relevant of the humanities".

In order to meet his basic need mentioned above, he has to learn how to communicate effectively through language. It is apparent that he has a real need for a language. He has a real need not only

for his native language but foreign languages.

The term 'communication' has had a long tradition in linguistics and language teaching. Murcia (1984) points out that communication has been formally associated with linguistics and language teaching since 1930s. In 1933 Bloomfield defined language as a system of vocal symbols by means of which communication is achieved between member of the same culture. In other words, the main goal of language teaching is to enable the learners to communicate in the target language. However the audio-lingual approach has defined language learning as a habit formation. This approach gave great importance to the manipulative phase of language teaching and as a result it had been a failure at getting language learners to communicate in the target language.

In 1965, Noam Chomsky made a distinction between 'competence - a speaker's intuitive knowledge of the rules of his native language - and performance what he actually produces by using these rules. He was talking about grammatical rules.

Another distinction was made by Hymes (1962) between 'communicative competence' - a knowledge of appropriateness of language to the situation and 'linguistic' competence - a knowledge of language items

Today, the first objective in language teaching is to enable the learner to communicate effectively. Widdowson (1973:3) states, "Teachers must teach the learners the 'use' of the language as well as its 'usage'." In other words, linguistic competence is no good to a language learner if he does not have communicative competence which

is the ability to function in a language.

2.5. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

According to Strevens the changes in methodology of language teaching usually results from two main sources; changes in our attitude to language and changes which come from the economic, political role of language in the world. Strevens (1980:112) states that "The most basic linguistic idea to have influenced language teachers widely in recent years is that of 'communicative competence'. This term extends the idea of linguistic competence which Chomsky popularized to include not only knowledge of the rules which enable a speaker to distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical sentences in the language but also the rules that determine appropriate use of the language in living situations".

Since language is for communication, in language teaching the main concern is the communicative use of language. In other words, we have to pay attention to the social use of language. This type of language use is called 'communicative competence' by Dell Hymes. Communicative competence includes two sorts of knowledge. The first is the knowledge of syntax, lexion and phonology of the language which is called linguistic competence. It forms part of communicative competence. The second includes all types of knowledge necessary for the use of the language effectively in the real world. These two types of competence are interrelated and they provide the student the ability to communicate effectively in the target language.

Over the past few years there has been increasing interest in the communicative language teaching. Since the language student is in need of using the linguistic competence for the social purpose of language, the goal of communicative language teaching is to develop the students' communicative competence.

II.6. TEACHING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

According to Paulston (1976:56) the goal of teaching communicative competence is to teach how, when and to whom it is appropriate to use the linguistic forms.

One of the American methodologists Prator (1965) pointed out that language teachers have to make the students gain the ability to communicate in the target language and they can achieve this goal by using communicative activities and drills effectively in the classroom.

Savignon (1972) suggested that the most effective way of communicative language teaching is to make use of communicative activities.

Harmer (1983:37) states, "In most communicative activities the students will be using any and/or all the language that they know: they will be forced to retrieve the English that they have in their language store, and they will gradually develop strategies for communication that an over concentration on presentation and practice would almost certainly inhibit".

In conclusion, it is possible to say that as many experienced teachers will acknowledge, the most effective way to teach the communicative competence in classroom is to make use of real-language activities which are called communicative activities.

II.7. HISTORY OF DIALOGUE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Kelly (1969:119) states, "In a sense, all teaching is dialogue, it being understood that the pupil questions and the student answers".

The dialogue has been in constant use in the language classroom right through the history of language teaching.

It was first used among the Greeks in order to make the philosophical texts easier for the reader. In the Middle Ages, the dialogue was widely used in the teaching of spoken Latin. The two best-known examples of Latin teaching dialogue were Aelfric and Alexander of Neckham which were written in the eleventh century.

During the fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries, a collection of useful everyday dialogues for travellers to France was written by an unknown East Anglian author. It was one of the first examples of situational language teaching textbooks.

Joseph Priestley's Rudiments of English Grammar written in the sixteenth century is a typical example for the catechistic technique which uses questions as prompts to the memory and breaks the text

into digestible chunks which makes it possible to learn the text by heart. Throughout the whole period to 1800, the catechetical way of language teaching appeared.

In 1483, a manual which was a short book of dialogues and other texts was prepared by William Caxton. It contains no linguistic information about either French or English.

In the 1580s, two small English manuals were written by Jacques Bellot for the French-speaking refugees. His second book, 'Familiar Dialogues' (1586) is a collection of everyday dialogues and conversations. In the preface of Familiar Dialogues, Bellot explains why the book is written for. Howatt (1984) gives this preface. "The experience having in the old time learned unto me what sorrow is for them that be refugiate in a strange country, when they cannot understand the language of that place in which they be exiled, and when they cannot make them to be understood by speech to the inhabitants of that country wherein they be retired. ... I thought good to put into their hands certain short dialogues in French and English".

Bellot's English Manuals are important historically as the earliest examples of textbooks intended only for the teaching of English as a foreign language.

Claudius Holyband wrote his two textbooks during the last quarter of the sixteenth century. They are 'The French Schoolmaster' and 'The French Littleton'. Dialogues are widely used in the two textbooks and they portray the everyday life.

John Florio's two manuals 'First Fruits' and 'Second Fruits' consist of Italian and English dialogues. These dialogues deal with social calls, addressing, courting and quarreling as well as the usual shopping and traveling. John Florio's work portrays the social aspects of language.

In the seventieth century Miège wrote *Nouvelle Méthode* which consists of a grammar, a compact dictionary and a dialogue manual. A collection of everyday dialogues on situations like shopping make up the second half of the book.

In 1797 John Miller published the book 'The Tutor'. It is considered as an example for the use of dialogue so as to teach English in the eighteenth century.

In the nineteenth century, dialogues are used to develop the speech skill in the classroom.

'Essential English' which was written by C.E. Eckersley in 1938 includes samples of everyday dialogue. The book 'Essential English' was used in EFL courses for around thirty years. Howatt (1984) points out that Eckersley's work is important since it shows the return to the neglected dialogue format in the twentieth century.

During the twentieth century, dialogue became an integral part of the language teaching curriculum.

2.8. APPROACHES TO THE USE OF DIALOGUE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Here, I will view some widely used methods, audio-lingualism, cognitive-code teaching and some new approaches; The Natural Approach, Lazonov's Suggestopedia and Communicative Approach. All these approaches use dialogue to some extent.

Here is the summary of to what extent the approaches stated above make use of dialogue in the language classroom.

2.8.1. Audio-Lingualism

The common feature of audio-lingual language teaching is that each lesson begins with a dialogue which contains the structure and the vocabulary of the lesson. Kreshen (1982:131) states, "The goal is the memorization of the dialogue, not the comprehension of a message".

In audio-lingual approach dialogue is used for pattern practice

2.8.2. Cognitive-Code Teaching

Dialogue is used as an activity to develop the communicative competence since it provides the practice in meaningful situations.

2.8.3. The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach is designed to enable students to talk about ideas, perform tasks and solve problems.

In the Natural approach as Krashen (1982:139) stated, "Some tools for conversational management are provided in the form of very short dialogues, designed to help students converse with native speakers on predictable and frequent topics". So, dialogue is used as a tool to enable the student to communicate in the target language.

2.8.4. Suggestopedia

Krashen (1982:143) says that 'New material is introduced in the form of dialogues based on situations familiar to the students.... The dialogues are very long'.

2.8.5. Communicative Approach

Communicative approach focuses on the communicative function of language. Its starting point is that language is for communication and as Wilkins (1975) states, "Learning a language is learning to communicate".

Communicative approach aims at teaching language in communicative situations which portray the social formula of the language.

Dialogues serves the goal of communicative approach as a communicative activity which provides real-life situations.

2.9. DIALOGUE AS A COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITY

As stated before, in order to foster the ability which is called *communicative competence* we use plenty of *communicative activities* in class. One of them is dialogue.

Finocchiaro (1966:6) points out, "When we think of language, we normally envisage two or more people talking together in some setting or situation about a present, past or future happening. Accordingly, procedures in the classroom should emphasize those activities that recreate real-life situations and that give learners the opportunities for practice in them. There is consensus among language teachers that the learning of a dialogue is particularly well-suited for this purpose".

According to Julia Dobson, a dialogue creates a social context in which the students practice the new language.

It is obvious that if the language teacher has enough knowledge about how to handle the dialogue as a communicative activity, it will serve the goal of language teaching.

2.10. DEFINITION OF TERMS

2.10.1. What is a Dialogue?

Dobson (1972) defines 'dialogue' as a short conversation between two people which is presented as language model. She (1972:20) states, "What language teaching device used as early as 200 A.D appears in countless textbooks around the world today? The dialogue ! Yes, the dialogue - short conversation between two people, presented as a language model - is probably the oldest of all language teaching aids. Nearly two thousand years ago Greeks learned Latin from dialogues; and although many language-teaching techniques have come and gone since then, the dialogue has survived right down to the present day".

According to McCready a dialogue is any oral interchange between two or more people. It may be a question and its answer:

- Have you finished typing?
- Yes, I have.

It may take the form of a statement with a statement response:

- It's a nice day, today.
- Yesterday was warmer, though.

A dialogue is condensed, sometimes to highlight a grammatical point, sometimes to clarify the meanings of certain words or expressions, sometimes to exemplify specific cultural features or customs.

In this study, I deal with functional dialogue which can be defined as a text which from two-sentence lines to the most complex one portrays real life situations focusing on the communicative function of the language.



CHAPTER 3

CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES, DESIGN AND USE OF FUNCTIONAL DIALOGUES

3.1. PRESENTATION

In this chapter, first, characteristic features of functional dialogue will be presented. Then principles and procedures behind functional dialogue design will be discussed. Finally, use of functional dialogues will be introduced.

3.2. CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF FUNCTIONAL DIALOGUES

The great majority of successful functional dialogues share the following features:

1. Communicative competence is the starting point.
2. The language is relevant. That is, the grammatical, and lexical items are the ones which meet the students' need for building up the ability to communicate.
3. The language is appropriate. That is, there is an adequate match between the type of language that is used and the context in which it is used. In other words, functional dialogues attempt to teach an active use of language in which form and context are correctly

matched.

4. They give cultural context to communication.
5. The topics are relevant to the students' needs and interests.
6. It is long enough to develop a believable conversation.
7. Design of functional dialogues aim at maintaining the students' motivation.

All these characteristic features conclude that the priorities of functional dialogues are determined by the nature of the acts of communication in which the learner can be expected to participate.

3.3. DESIGN OF FUNCTIONAL DIALOGUES

In this section, basic principles used in functional dialogue design and their organization will be introduced.

3.3.1. Basic Principles

The principles which guide the writer can be summarized as follows:

1. *The students' communication needs and interests:*

It is essential to specify the learner communication needs and interests in order to meet them.

2. *Main factors which make up the dialogue*

Any functional dialogue is made up of many factors in addition to linguistic forms and structures. There are:

A. *SITUATION*

Designing a dialogue which prepares students to interact in specific roles in real-life situations requires that the dialogue designer must find out in what situations the student is going to use the language.

What is situation? Rivers and Temperley quote the definition of the term from Titone (1978:57) "the sum of those extra linguistic elements that are present in the minds of speakers or in external physical reality at the moment of communication... (which) play a part in determining the form or the function of the linguistic elements".

Rivers (1978:231) states, "Learners of a new language will need to know how to express their intentions appropriately (that is, comprehensibly) for many purposes. "For many purposes" implies "in many contexts". She adds, "there is no meaning without context. There is always a context for language".

The social context can be defined as a factor which makes the activity of language meaningful.

S.P. Corder (1973:42) has remarked, "There is no one-to-one relation between a class of speech acts and the grammatical form of

an utterance and that it appears that almost any utterance can have almost any function in some context and situation. It is thus not only the form of the utterance which determines how we understand it, but the characteristics of the whole speech situations.

As regards language teaching, the student needs to know how to choose forms of language that are appropriate to the type of situation in which he finds himself in.

In order to achieve this goal, the student has to be aware of the ingredients of situation such as, setting, role, topic and so on. Generally speaking, situation falls into two neat categories such as:

- a) Formal
- b) Informal.

The level of formality depends upon the elements which make up the situation as stated above.

The following dialogues are two versions of the same situation. They portray the formality of the situation.

DIALOGUE A:

"(Informal)

Situation: Charles has just arrived at Pam's flat and they have just greeted one another.

Pam : Here, let me take your coat.

Charles : Thanks. I'm not too early, am I?

Pam : No, 'course not. Anyway, Charles, come along into the other room and meet the others.

Charles : Yes, OK. Thanks."

Peter Watcyn-Jones (1980)

DIALOGUE B

"(formal)

Situation: Mr. Brignall has just arrived at a business party being given by an acquaintance of his, Mrs. Hayes. They have just greeted one another.

Mrs. Hayes : Do let me take your coat, Mr. Brignall.

Mr. Brignall : Thank you. I do hope I'm not too early.

Mrs. Hayes : Oh no! Not in the least. Now, Mr. Brignall, perhaps you'd like to come into the other room and meet the others.

Mr. Brignall : Yes, I'd love to. Thank you."

Peter Watcyn-Jones (1980)

B. SETTING

Munby (1978) states, "Setting is the situational variable that refers, inter alia, to the time and place of the communication, i.e. the physical circumstances in which the language will be used".

Munby (1978) suggests two categories under setting.

- a) Physical setting which includes the time and place in which the language is used.
- b) Psychosocial setting which includes different environments in which the target language is used. Such environments are noisy, demanding, unfamiliar and so on.

According to A. Moley (1978) as a physical environment, setting may or may not directly influence the language used.

In my opinion, physical setting is still important for the dialogue writer.

Today, functional dialogues are printed in a way that at the beginning of each dialogue the physical setting is indicated. It will help the language learner to master when and where in other words in what physical setting he will use what language forms and functions.

Here are two short dialogues which indicate the physical setting.

DIALOGUE A

"At a party

Alan : Hello there. May I join you?

Pat : Yes, of course.

Alan : Not a bad party, is it?

Pat : No, it's very good, actually.

Alan : The name's Alan, by the way.

Pat : Oh, hello, I'm Pat."

Peter Watcyn-Jones (1980)

DIALOGUE B

"At a conference

Mr. Wilde : Excuse me, is anyone sitting here?

Miss Jones : No, of course not.

Mr. Wilde : Thank you. What do you think of the conference so far?

Miss Jones : Oh! It's very interesting actually.

Mr. Wilde : Yes, I agree. Oh, perhaps I should introduce myself.

I'm David Wilde from Shell.

Miss Jones : How do you do, Mr. Wilde?

I'm Catherine Jones from I.B.M.

(They shake hands)

Mr. Wilde : How do you do, Miss Jones? Pleased to meet you."

(Peter Watcyn-Jones (1980)

C. TOPIC

Topic is an important situational determinant of language choice and it is what goes on in an act of communication in other words; what it is about.

As S.P. Corder (1973:43) states, "... where we are, who we are with and at what time may limit what we talk about and how we talk about it, but they are not, for that reason, the topic of our conversation. Of course there are places and times for talking about certain things as also for not talking about them. The topic of discourse is obviously an important element in the speech situation. Whatever the function of an utterance may be, it will nearly always be about

something, it will have what I have called a propositional element in it...". Each topic has its own special and related language features.

The way topics are selected for dialogue constitutes an important dimension of functional dialogue design. It is clear that topic identifies the choice of language forms and functions.

It is possible to classify the topic along a scale such as this:

- a) Formal
- b) Informal

The formality of topic is greatly influenced by the social situation in which it is selected.

Here are two short dialogues which exemplify formal topic (Dialogue A) and informal topic (Dialogue B).

DIALOGUE A

The social situation: Susan is interviewing with two politicians and Mrs. White is giving her opinion of the government.

Susan : Mrs. White, what do you think of the government?

Mrs. White : From my point of view, I think the government has been irresponsible.

Susan : I'm sorry... I don't quite understand what you mean by irresponsible.

Mrs. White : Well you see, the point I'm trying to make is that this new tax rise should never have been introduced. It's yet

another example of the government's inefficiency.

Harmer (1978).

DIALOGUE B

The social situation: Mary is talking to her friend; Jill, during the lunch time at the office.

Mary : What do you think of my boss?

Jill : It would seem to me that he's a bit difficult.

Mary : I'm not sure. I'd go along with you on that.

D. PARTICIPANT

We have seen that a dialogue consists of exchanges. According to Eckard (1981) exchanges are the indicators of a two-way process. This brings us to the point that dialogue is a two-way process ^{since} the message is communicated between the participants; that is to say the sender (the speaker) and the receiver.

Munby (1978) defines the participant as "A participant is someone who takes part in an act of communication involving a foreign language..." He suggests that the identity of the participant which include the following headings; sex, age, nationality and place of residence .

Both research findings and common experience suggest that the characteristics of the participant as a speaker or a receiver influence each other's act of communication.

Here is an account of the characteristics of the participant from the point of view of foreign language teaching.

a) SEX

Sex is one of the complexes of social behaviour. Since language is defined as a social behavior, sex is an important factor which determines the language use.

Certain differences associated with sex have been observed between the characteristic language use of men and women.

Wardhaugh (1976) exemplifies this difference, "Women also tend to use some words that men do not use or to use certain words in different ways from men. Women use more different names for colors than men: mauve, lavender, turquoise, lilac and beige are good examples. Men either do not use such color words or, if they do, tend to use them with great caution. Intensifiers such as 'so', 'such' and 'quite', as in 'He's so cute', 'He's such a dear, and 'We had a quite marvelous time comprise a set of words used in a way which most men avoid; emotive adjectives such as adorable, lovely and divine are hardly used at all by men.

Giles (1975) gives a comparison between the sexes. He states, "Men, on average, used more than twice as many nonstandard forms of speech as women did...".

It is apparent that languages have sex classification and as

a result sex differences exist in language use. As far as language teaching is concerned student must learn the differences between the language use of men and women in order to communicate in the target language appropriately. Dobson (1972) points out the importance of teaching the distinction between the language use which result from the sex difference in language classroom. "... There are, for instance, some exclamations or expressions that every speaker of the language may use. Other expressions are used only by men, or only by women, or only by children. The following dialogue illustrates an English interjection - "Eeek!" - common only to women.

John: Look! There's a mouse.

Mary: Where? I don't see it.

John: It's under those rocks... oh now it's next to the tree.

Mary: Eeek! It's coming toward mee.

John: Don't worry! It'll run away.

In English, woman may exclaim "Eeek!" when they are frightened or startled by something, but men as a rule do not use this interjection. Students of English must learn this distinction" (Dobson (1972)).

Dobson (1972) points out that situation-based dialogues are helpful in showing the differences stated above. I agree with Dobson that functional dialogues help the teacher to achieve his purpose of teaching the differences between the language use of men and women by developing the students' communicative competence.

Here is a dialogue which demonstrates the use of word 'pretty'

which is used for women but not for men and 'handsome' which is used for only men. In addition, it reveals the way how are women and men are addressed, in other words, the use of 'Mr' and 'Mrs' in English.

(At a party).

A - Who's the woman next to that handsome man.

B - Which woman? There are three women around him.

A - The pretty one.

B - That's Mrs. Wilson. We work in the same company.

Let me introduce you to her right now.

Mr. Wilson, I would like you to meet Mr. John Anderson.

A - How do you do, Mrs. Wilson?

B - How do you do?

b) AGE

As a social behaviour, language use varies with age through the life cycle. As R. Wardhaugh (1976:127) has remarked, "Because language use varies quite predictably with the age of its user we can say that certain language usages are age-graded. Each individual seems to pass through a sequence of "age" grades on the way to linguistic 'maturity'.

During the act of communication, when there is a difference in age between the participants, this difference affects the choice of language forms. For example, Levine (1982) points out that if there is a difference in age between two individuals, formal titles and

last names are used unless the person of lower age is told to use the first name. He (1982:4) illustrates this difference with the following dialogue:

Accountant (age 50) : Hello, my name is Bob Thomas.

Student (age 20) : It's nice to meet you, Mr. Thomas.

Accountant : Please, just call me Bob.

c) *ROLE*

A role is the pattern of behavior which is shaped according to the situation. It includes a variety of aspects which are the work done, attitudes, beliefs, clothes worn and the choice of language use while interacting with other members of the society (Argly 1967).

When an individual takes up a role, he maintains a relationship with other members of the society. This relationship is formed by means of the appropriate language to the role. His ability to use the appropriate language to the role enables him to take up new roles with which he is faced.

"... Being a member of society means occupying a social role; and it is again by means of language that a 'person' becomes potentially the occupant of a social role. Social roles are combinable, and the individual, as a member of a society, occupies not just one role but many at a time, always through the medium of language. Language is again a necessary condition for this final element in the process of the development of the individual,...) (Halliday, 1978).

In talking about dialogue design, the dialogue designer should decide what social, roles the dialogue is going to fulfill according to the learners' interest and needs.

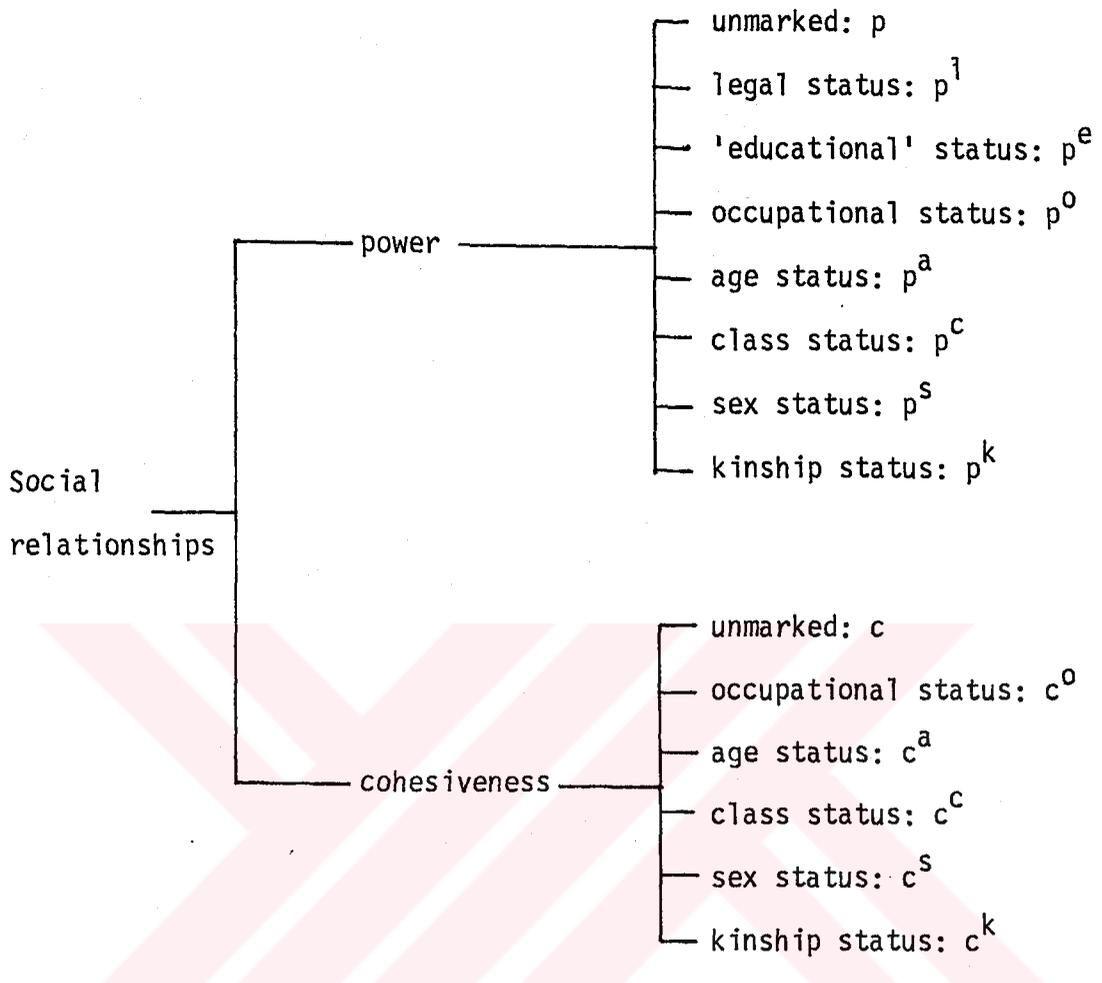
E. SOCIAL RELATIONSHIP

M.A.K Halliday (1978) points out that a society consists of not only participants but their social relations. And language is the medium through which a human being enters in social relationships.

Munby (1978) has remarked, "Social relationships are either symmetrical or asymmetrical. The common denominator of symmetrical relations is 'cohesiveness', in terms of the degree of solidarity or familiarity between the participants. The underlying characteristic of asymmetrical relations, on the other hand, is mainly 'power', in the sense of one participant being able to exercise some degree of control over the other".

According to Munby the status between the participants may determine the social relationships. He states, "This status is based on age, class (social or socio-economic), kinship, occupation or sex".

Munby (1978) classifies the social relationships as follows:



He also exemplifies these social relationship as follows:

- | | | | |
|----------------|----------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|
| p | : subordinate-superior | p ^k | : parent-offspring |
| p ^l | : authority-offender | c | : equal-equal |
| p ^e | : learner-instructor | c ^o | : professional-professional |
| p ^o | : server-customer | c ^a | : adult-adult |
| p ^a | : adult-child | c ^c | : own class-own class |
| p ^c | : lower class-higher class | c ^s | : man-man |
| p ^s | : male-female | c ^s | : spouse-spouse |

In conclusion, it can be summarized that social relationships indicate who is talking to whom.

The dialogue designer must specify the social relationships because they influence the way the speaker uses the language.

Munby gives a more detailed description of social relationships. As regarding language teaching, the dialogue designer can classify the social relationships in the following way keeping in mind the students' needs and interests. The category that I present is the combination of social relationships suggested by Jon Blundell (1982) and Peter Watcyn-Jones (1980). There is no doubt that they are not definitive.

- I. Friend - Friend
- II. Acquaintance - Acquaintance
- III. Stranger - Stranger
- IV. Stranger - Official
- V. Employer - Employee.

The following two dialogues illustrate two different social relationships and accordingly the way how they influence the language.

DIALOGUE A

Social relationship: (Friend - Friend)

"Jill : Thanks for the party, Kevin. I really enjoyed it.

Kevin : Oh, that's good. But you're not leaving yet, Jill, are you?

Jill : "Fraid so. Got to get up early in the morning."

Kevin : Oh, I see. Well, I'm glad you enjoyed it, anyway.

Jill : Yes, I did, Kevin. Very much."

Peter Watcyn-Jones (1980)

DIALOGUE B

Social relationship: (Acquaintance - Acquaintance)

Mr. Brown : Thank you so much for inviting me, Mrs. Watkins.

It's been a super evening.

Mrs. Watkins : Oh, I'm so pleased, Mr. Brown. But have you really got to leave now?

Mr. Brown : Yes, I have to, I'm afraid. I've got to catch an early train to London in the morning.

Mrs. Watkins : Yes I understand. But I'm so pleased you enjoyed the evening.

Mr. Brown : Yes, I did, Mrs. Watkins. Very much indeed."

Peter Watcyn-Jones (1980)

F. LANGUAGE

Language is highly influenced by the social situation in which it is used. In general, it is possible to classify all languages along a scale such as:

a) Formal

b) Informal

In some situations, we use formal language but sometimes, because of the situation we are in or the people we are talking to, or the topic we select we use informal language. This implies that the formality of language depends upon the social situation. In order to communicate effectively in the target language, the student need to use the language appropriately. In other words, the student has to develop his ability to use the appropriate language for a special situation.

The student must become aware of the fact that he must use formal language in formal situations and informal language in informal situations. Otherwise, he can have opposite effect.

Joe Blundell (1982) explains the importance of appropriate use of language with the following dialogues which consist of only two exchanges.

DIALOGUE A

- Would you give us a report on your department's work over the last three months, Mr. Jones?
- Yeah, sure.

Here, Mr. Jones's very informal reply, in a formal situation, will probably cause the chairman not to think well of him."

DIALOGUE B

- And now could we go on to your report, Mr. Jenkins?

- Certainly.

Mr. Jenkins uses the right formal language for the formal situation and has no problems."

G. STYLE/REGISTER

All languages are made up of many varieties. Fromkin (1978:271) states, "When you are out with your friends, you talk one way; when you go on a job interview, you talk differently." This means that the choice of the language depends on the situation. The varieties of language based on situation is called style. Generally speaking, everybody has at least an informal and a formal style.

M.A.K Halliday (1978:31) suggests that situation in which language is produced differ from one another in three respects: "first, what is actually taking place; secondly, who is taking part; and thirdly, what part the language is playing." These points determine the register which refers to the choice of vocabulary, grammar and etc., appropriate to a particular situation.

Registers are ways of saying different things while styles are different ways of saying the same thing. In this respect, register and style are closely interconnected. Neither can be clearly separated from the other. This means that, a particular register tends to have

a particular style associated with it.

The dialogue designer specifies the styles and registers so that this identification helps him to find out what situational factors determine what linguistic features.

H. CHANNEL

Munby (1978:78) states, "... the channel through which the communication in the target language will take place, e.g. television, print." He gives twelve categories of channel of communication. From the point of view of language teaching, the dialogue designer selects the two types of channel. These are; face to face and telephone.

I. FUNCTION

Language functions are the purposes for which we use the language. It implies what we want to do with the language. It is apparent that every language serves many purposes. But, of course, every language express these functions in different ways.

For successful communication in the target language, the student has to demonstrate the ability to produce the appropriate language needed to perform for a particular function.

The dialogue designer deals with the most essential functions for successful communication.

The following list covers the major functions listed in the Threshold Level proposed for the European Unit/Credit system.

1. Greetings, Introductions and Hospitality
2. Meeting, Approaching and Talking to strangers
3. Leave-taking (Thanks, Reasons, Persuasion, Regards)
4. Seeking and giving information
5. Suggestions (Likes, Dislikes, Preferences)
6. Invitations and Arrangements
7. Requests, offers, permission
8. Opinions (Agreement and Disagreement)
9. Problems and Advice
10. Availability, Wants, Needs, Necessity
11. Greetings, Inquiries, News, Reactions
12. Apologies, Complaints, Excuses.

J. STUDENTS' TARGET LANGUAGE

a) Identification of Students' Target Language

Identification of target language enables the dialogue designer to determine the language and the social formulas which will be expressed through the dialogue.

b) Present Command of the Target Language

The dialogue designer has to consider the students' present level of proficiency in the target language. He should know whether it is:

- a) zero
- b) false beginners
- c) elementary
- d) lower intermediate
- e) upper intermediate
- f) advanced.

The specification of the level of the students' present command of the target language determines the appropriate linguistic forms and language functions to be used in a dialogue.

3. Language function

Functions which are associated with the spoken language are the most important aspect of functional dialogue design.

4. Linguistic form

It is necessary to find out the appropriate linguistic form which characterises a particular language function. That is, grammar and vocabulary as two properties of language are also taken into consideration in functional dialogue design.

3.3.2. Organization of Principles

1. Determination of the students' communication needs

The students' communication needs are determined according to the level of linguistic and communicative competence that the students are expected to have in certain situations.

2. Determination of the factors which make up the dialogue

As dialogue is used as speech act to develop the students' communicative competence, the principle factors which determine any speech act are those which make up a dialogue.

3. Organization of the factors

The factors which have been explained in 3.3.1 can be organized in the following way:

A. Situation

1. Formal
2. Informal

B. Setting

1. Physical setting
 - a) time
 - b) place
2. Psychosocial setting
 - a) time
 - b) place

C. Topic

1. Formal
2. Informal

D. Participants

1. Age
2. Sex
3. Role

E. Social relationship

1. Friend-friend
2. Acquaintance-Acquaintance
3. Stranger-Stranger
4. Stranger-Official and so on.

F. Language

1. Formal
2. Informal

G. Style/Register

H. Channel

I. Function

J. Students' target language

1. Identification of students' target language
2. Present command of the target language.

4. Determination of language functions

In language, some functions are related to writing and reading while other functions are commonly associated with the spoken language, such as inviting, apologising, and so on.

In dialogue design, the writer deals with the functions associated with the spoken language.

5. *Determination of linguistic form*

Linguistic form refers to the grammatical and lexical properties of language and its determination depends on the language function which is going to be expressed.

It is clear that one grammatical form may have more than one function and one function may be expressed by different forms. As D.A. Wilkins (J. Ward, 1981:12) states, "There is no one-to-one relationship between grammatical forms and ... language function."

Since one grammatical form has more than one function and vice versa, the dialogue writer prefers the grammatical form(s) which is well-suited to a particular function.

As far as the choice of vocabulary is concerned, what the dialogue writer does is to focus on specific groups of lexical items which are the most common and useful. The lexical items are determined according to the analysis of the factors underlying the design of a particular dialogue. The analysis helps the dialogue writer specify the most frequent lexical items which are considered as the most common and useful ones. As Troike (1976:37) states, "Primary criteria for the selection of vocabulary should be the students' need to know the words, the opportunities the students will have to use and repeat them and the extent to which the students are or can be interested in the words referents-their relevance."

6. Association of language function and linguistic form

Under the light of analysis and determination of grammatical and lexical items, the appropriate linguistic form on a restricted set of forms are selected for a particular function.

3.4. USE OF FUNCTIONAL DIALOGUES

First of all, vocabulary can be developed through functional dialogues. They provide contexts from which the students can get the meaning of words. The students have the opportunity to observe the vocabulary in various situations. This helps them use the vocabulary more effectively and accurately whenever he needs in any communication setting.

Second use of functional dialogues is in the teaching of grammar. Since the students are in need of developing grammatical competence so as to communicate, functional dialogues provide contextual opportunities to increase the ability to produce the appropriate grammatical sentences for a certain function.

Thirdly, functional dialogues can be used to practice the intonation, the rhythm, the stress. In addition, Rivers (1981:200) says, "All the elements of the sound system recur in the natural context and are practiced without being artificially isolated and distorted."

Fourthly, strategies for social interaction can be developed through functional dialogues. The social strategies suggested by Fillmore (1976) include initiating interaction with others, establishing and maintaining relationships, providing others with encouragement, and counting on others for help.

As Scarcella (1978:44) states, "... These strategies are essential for communication and language development. In fact, social interaction is often considered the first stage of L₂ acquisition. Students must develop strategies for making and maintaining relationships in order to receive the necessary input."

Fifthly, it is a fact that expressions used in discourse strategies occur frequently in functional dialogues. For example, attention-getters such as, "Excuse me," "Hello," and "How are you?" and "By the way," "I've been thinking," and "You know what else," which are used for changing topics. Therefore, discourse strategies for attention-getting, topic initiation and topic change can be learnt through dialogues.

Sixthly, functional dialogues are used to highlight the cultural points of the target language. Since language and culture are inter-related, awareness of cultural points enable the students to communicate effectively.

Most important of all, functional dialogues exemplify the rules of sociolinguistic behaviour. These include learning when it is appropriate to speak and with whom, what topics are appropriate to

which speech events, which forms of address to use to whom and in which situations and etc...

It can be concluded that the most important and effective use of functional dialogues is in the development of the students' communicative competence.



CHAPTER 4

IMPLEMENTATION OF FUNCTIONAL DIALOGUES

4.1. PRESENTATION

In this chapter, traditional way of handling dialogues and a survey for understanding the present situation at traditional way of teaching dialogues will be introduced. In addition, a new suggested way of handling functional dialogues and a sample unit and observations on sample unit will be presented.

4.2. TRADITIONAL WAY OF HANDLING DIALOGUES

There are many alternative traditional ways to handle the dialogues. These ways are compatible with the teacher's teaching style. The one that I present here is the most common one used in language classroom. The striking point in the traditional way of handling dialogue is that dialogue is used to present and practice both new structures and vocabulary since it provides a context.

Here is the definition of the steps followed:

I. The teacher reads the dialogue at normal speed and with

appropriate stress and intonation or plays the tape once or twice.
The students listen with books closed.

II. The teacher reads the dialogue or plays the tape again.
The students follow with books open.

III. The teacher teaches the new vocabulary which cannot easily
be understood from the context and the unknown structures.

IV. The teacher reads the dialogue or plays the tape again.
The students listen with books closed. Then the teacher sets up the
situation using visual aids if they are available. Finally the teacher
asks some general questions to make sure that the students have under-
stood the main points of the dialogue.

V. The teacher has the class repeat the dialogue sentence by
sentence after him or the taped version of the dialogue. For this,
the class is divided into as many groups as there are speakers in the
dialogue. In this way, each group takes the part of one speaker.

VI. The teacher has the students open their books and read
the dialogue aloud. This is done first by groups then by individual
students.

VII. The teacher asks detailed questions about the dialogue.

VIII. The teacher writes some cues on the blackboard or uses
visual aids and asks the students to reconstruct the dialogue.

IX. For practice, the student use either the whole dialogue
or part of dialogue for substitution work.

X. Students can practice reading the dialogue in pairs or
groups.

XI. Some teachers ask the students to memorize the dialogue
for practice.

4.3. A SURVEY FOR UNDERSTANDING THE PRESENT SITUATION AT TRADITIONAL TRADITIONAL WAY OF TEACHING DIALOGUES

In order to provide language teachers with reference information regarding the disparities between the traditional and the new suggested way of handling dialogues, an investigation has been made concerning the communicative use of language of thirty first year students at Hacettepe University. Their proficiency level is intermediate.

The survey deals with the students' language performance which considers what the students are going to do through language.

To reveal the present situation at traditional way of teaching dialogues, the students have been given certain situations (Appendix A) and asked to write down the appropriate language. Since language is for communication, the emphasize is on the communicative use of language in the given situations.

As the students have given their responses to the situations in the written form, grammar and spelling errors have been expected and ignored until they don't interfere with the meaning.

The results of the survey reflect several aspects worth considering:

1. They make grammatical sentences but they don't have the ability to use the language used as it is in real life. For example,

for situation 1 (Appendix A) they use the form "I want to help you" which in many situations would sound strange instead of "Can I help you?".

In other words, the responses are book based.

2. They are not aware of the fact that language performs some useful purposes. As a result, they are not able to use the appropriate language for a particular everyday function.

3. The students' responses reveal the point that the students are not aware of the direct relationship between the language and the situation. That is, they use formal language in informal situation or vice versa.

4. They don't know to use pause words, rejoinders and interjections. In fact, it is essential for a language student to use them correctly.

5. They are not aware of the language differences which results from the channel differences.

4.4. THE NEW SUGGESTED WAY OF HANDLING DIALOGUES

As it is true for traditional ways of handling dialogues, many alternatives of many ways of handling dialogues are also possible.

The suggested way aims at developing the students' communicative competence in a way that they will be able to function in the

target language effectively.

Before presenting the procedures to be followed, a few important points can be made clear.

In the first place, the most striking point in my suggestion is that the teacher introduces one function at a time and uses two dialogues for each function. While one is the formal version, the other is the informal version. The length, the topic and the number of the two dialogues are more or less the same. The emphasis in using two versions is on the difference between the formal and informal language.

To teach the formality of language causes the students to develop a sense of appropriateness. That is to say, they become aware of the importance of using formal language in formal situations and informal language situations.

The use of two versions of a dialogue serves the goal stated above in a way that the students see immediately the difference between the language used in informal and formal situations.

Secondly, the steps to be followed for each version are the same.

Finally, the new suggested way of handling functional dialogues consists of three main stages. These are as follows:

1. The presentation stage
2. The practice stage
3. The production stage.

4.4.1. The Presentation Stage

In this stage, the new material is presented by the teacher. The following set of procedures outlines the approach to presenting dialogues in average classroom conditions.

1. CONTEXTUALIZATION

Since motivation is the first step in a successful teaching process, contextualization which is the way by which the teacher sets up the situation is an extremely essential and helpful step. The basic method of handling this step is as follows:

- A. Preview
- B. Introduction of function

A. PREVIEW

Presentation of a dialogue is preceded by the preview which may take three forms:

1. A text which is made up of one or two short paragraphs which clarify the contextual factors of the dialogue such as, setting, topic, situation, participants and so on.

The students listen with the books closed while the teacher is setting up the situation by referring to the picture(s), and drawing(s) if available. These visual aids provide pictorial help for the teacher.

2. The contextual factors stated above can also be previewed in the form of questions based on the dialogue.

First, the teacher reads the dialogue at normal speed or plays the tape while the students listen with books closed. The students look at the picture(s) or drawing(s) as they listen.

Second, after the students have listened the dialogue, they try to answer the questions. The teacher always asks the students to give evidence for their answers. In this way the teacher makes the students do the work of setting up the situation.

Here is a list of some question types and the contextual factors that they indicate.

1. Where are the speakers? (setting)
2. Who are the speakers? (participants)
3. What are they talking about (topic)
4. What is the purpose of the dialogue?
Is it disagreeing, asking for advice, etc? (function)
5. What is the relationship between the speakers?
(social relationship) and etc.

If the students can't answer the questions after listening to the dialogue once, they try to find the appropriate answers after the second listening.

3. The third alternative of the way of contextualization is the form of uncompleted statements!

The teacher writes up the statements on the blackboard and after listening to the dialogue, the students are asked to complete them and give evidence for their answers. The students discuss their answers in pairs. Then the teacher checks them with the whole class.

Here is an example:

What did you find out?

1. Maggie and Paul are *friends*.
2. They are *at the restaurant*.
3. They are talking about *French drinks*.
4. Paul uses formal language to *the waiter*.
5. The waiter calls Paul as *'sir'*.

B. INTRODUCTION OF THE FUNCTION

Introduction of the function indicates that the teacher is going to inform the students explicitly about the particular function that they are going to learn. For example, the teacher says, "Today, you are going to learn how to invite your friend to your birthday party."

This introduction motivates the students since it gives them a reason to study the dialogue. Effectiveness of this type of introduction of the function on the part of the students' success was emphasized by James Ward. He (1981:12) states, "Instead of telling students that you will teach them the present continuous verb tense, tell your class that today they will learn one way to provide information without being asked for it."

Students find this shift from an overt grammar focus to a function focus highly motivating and challenging, because the language seems human and not a textbook abstraction."

2. PRESENTATION OF THE DIALOGUE

A. COMPREHENSION (I)

The students listen to the dialogues again with the books closed and try to answer the pre-questions written on the blackboard for each dialogue before listening.

The questions are general ones and aim at checking that the students have understood the gist of what they have been listening to.

B. VOCABULARY STUDY AND PRACTICE

The students listen to the dialogues with their books open. There may be difficult words they don't understand. In this case, they are asked to figure out the meaning or at least the general idea of a word by looking at the context. If there isn't enough information in the context to explain the word, the teacher paraphrases or translates it.

Some types of vocabulary exercises are used to give students practice in using the new vocabulary items.

C. STRUCTURE STUDY AND PRACTICE

The teacher introduces the main structure by referring to the context of the dialogues. He writes up the structure in the box form on the blackboard and goes through its rules by giving examples.

The new structure is practiced by means of various types of drills.

The grammatical and the lexical items that the teacher deals with are the ones which might seriously interfere with overall understanding and enjoyment of the dialogue.

D. PRESENTATION OF THE FUNCTION

The teacher presents the function to be taught by referring back to the contextual factors stated before. Then he writes up the appropriate phrases on the blackboard in the box form. These phrases form the appropriate language needed to form the particular function. Here, the teacher writes up the formal and informal language in different columns on the blackboard and draws the students' attention to the differences between them.

Then, the formal and informal language items are repeated after the teacher with groups by paying particular attention to the pronunciation and intonation.

If there are any alternative phrases for the same function,

they can be studied in a way as stated above.

E. PRESENTATION OF CULTURAL POINTS AND PRACTICE

In dialogues, there may be cultural points related to the language use. These points are discussed in the classroom and some questions are asked to stimulate cross-cultural understanding and to help the students increase their familiarity with the target language customs and responses.

Since it increases the students' interest it can be recommended that the discussion on cultural points can be conducted in the students' mother tongue.

F. COMPREHENSION (II)

This comprehension is different from the first one in a way that the students are asked to answer detailed questions about the dialogues with the books closed.

The questions can be presented in different forms, such as, 'true, false', 'fill in the blanks' and so on. In any case, the students work in pairs or groups and then the teacher checks the answers with the whole class.

This activity may be optimal since there is no need to the students get detailed information from the dialogue. It is a fact that what they need is to learn how to communicate in the target language effectively.

4.4.2. The Practice Stage

Practice activities are completely based on the practice of the particular function presented and the dialogue itself. It is expected that students progress systematically from controlled dialogue work to writing dialogues of their own. Furthermore, they can be conducted both in oral and written form.

A. ORAL PRACTICE

PRACTICE I

After writing up the appropriate formal and informal language items on the blackboard, the students practice them by looking at the board in groups or in pairs until they use them with confidence. During the pair or group work, they use information about themselves, such as, their own names.

PRACTICE II

The sentences of each dialogue are given in a mixed order. The students are asked to put them in the right order and to say them as a pair or group work. The sentences of each version are practiced separately.

PRACTICE III

The formal and informal version are written on the blackboard and covered with a paper, the teacher rubbs out one item at a time

and tells the students to construct the dialogue orally—with books closed - as pair or group work.

PRACTICE IV

The teacher stops reading or the tape at various points in the dialogues and asks what the speaker will say. In this way, the dialogues are constructed orally again.

PRACTICE V

Practice is also possible through 'cued dialogues' in which the students interact on the basis of a series of cues. The cues may be either written on the blackboard or each learner may have separate role card.

With cued dialogues, the students try to produce language in response to the functional and social demands of social interaction.

We can exemplify the cued dialogue with the following one.

(Littlewood: 1981:14).

PARTNER A

You meet B in the street.

A: Greet B
B:
A: Ask B where he is going?
B:
A: suggest somewhere to go together.
B:
A: Accept B's suggestion
B.

PARTNER B

You meet A in the street

A:
B: Greet A
A:
B: say you are going for a walk.
A:
B: Reject A's suggestion. Make a different suggestion.
A:
B: Express pleasure.

PRACTICE VI

In this practice, the students' attention is completely on the differences between the formal and informal language.

The teacher writes exchanges from each version in a mixed order and asks the students to find out the opposite equivalence of each exchange. For example, if the students see a formal exchange he tries to say its informal version.

B. WRITTEN PRACTICE

PRACTICE I

The sentences of each dialogue are given in a mixed order and the students are asked to put them in the right order and rewrite each dialogue.

PRACTICE II

The dialogues are written on the blackboard in a way that the students write their own part of the conversation using the instructions in parentheses. Here is an example.

You : _____
(Introduce yourself)

Mary : I'm Mary Green.

You : _____
(Say it is nice to meet her)

(ask her what she does)

Mary : I'm a student at Columbia and I work
part-time at a supermarket.

You : _____
(ask her how she likes her job)

Mary : It's OK. What do you do?

You : _____
(say what you do)

After constructing the dialogue, the students can practice it
as pair or group work.

PRACTICE III

The two versions of the dialogue are written on the blackboard
in a way that in each version both formal and informal language are
used. The students are asked to write each version correctly.

PRACTICE IV

Formal or informal phrases are written on the blackboard and
the students replace them with the opposite ones.

Since the activities for both oral and written activities are
completely based on the dialogues presented before, it is not
surprising how easy the dialogue will seem to the students and this
is a very useful way of building up their self-esteem as well as
giving them a feeling that they are improving.

C. FOLLOW-UP (FURTHER PRACTICE)

Follow up activities enable the students to practice what they have learned without depending on a dialogue they have practised before.

PRACTICE I

With the books closed, the teacher asks the students which sentence or question they can remember and accepts either the stimulus or the response. If they give the stimulus, the teacher asks another student for the response, and vice versa.

This practice is highly motivating, if they can remember something, since in this way their confidence will be built up.

PRACTICE II

The aim of this activity is to enable the students to contextualize a dialogue. The students are familiar with the technique because of the teacher-directed contextualization steps stated before.

The teacher tells a sentence and then asks questions. For example, he writes on the blackboard: "Sally, come along into the other room and say hello to the others." Then he asks the following questions:

"Who is speaking to Sally?"

"Where are they?"

"Are they in a formal or informal situation?"

"How will Sally say 'hello' to others?"

In this way, they will practise the contextual factors which determine the use of language.

After the class has contextualized the dialogue above, two students can act it out in front of the class.

PRACTICE III

The student are given cues, and they discuss the relationship among the speakers and the level of formality. Then using this information, they complete the dialogue orally with phrases that they have learned.

Example:

A: _____

B: Yes, who's that?

A: _____

B: Mary! Where are you now?

A: _____

B: I am coming. See you in five minutes.

PRACTICE IV

The students are given particular situations, then they write down what you think the person says.

Examples:

Situation: You're in the street and you want to know what the time is.

What do you say to a stranger:

Possible answer: "Excuse me, what is the time, please?"

PRACTICE V

The students write a dialogue of their own according to a given situation and then try to act it out.

Example: (Peter Watcyn-Jones: 1980:21)

Situation: Tom and his girl friend, Joanna, are walking through the park when Tom meets an old friend of his, Alan. They greet one another and Tom introduces Joanne to him. Alan asks Tom and Joanna to have a cup of coffee with him. They accept.

ACTIVITY VI

The students are given a strip cartoon (Appendix G) either to write or produce its text orally.

ACTIVITY VII

The students are given a photograph (Appendix FF) which include empty speech balloons for the persons in it. The students either write or say orally what they are saying.

Here, a few points about the suggested way can be explained:

First, all activities presented in this chapter are not meant to be definitive.

Second, after each activity, the teacher does not have to miss the opportunity to move into improvisation as much as possible. While the students are acting out the dialogues, language learning process will be meaningful to the students.

4.4.3. The Production Stage

Byrne (1986:4) states, "It is a pity that language learning so often stops short at the practice stage (or at least does not regularly go beyond it). Many teachers feel that they have done their job if they have presented the new material well and have given their students adequate, though usually controlled, practice in it."

At the production stage, the students are given opportunities to use the language that they have just learned freely. In other

words, they use language as they wish, to express their own ideas. This stage provides the students opportunity to become aware of the fact that they can do something through language and are encouraged to go on learning.

At this stage, the teacher is a guide or a manager or an adviser. But that is all.

The following are some examples for the activities which can be used at the production stage.

ACTIVITY I

The teacher chooses some pictures (Appendix D, E) which accompany the language presented and practiced. The students are asked to choose a picture among the others and write a dialogue of their own describing the conversation between persons in the picture. The number of exchanges may be limited by the teacher.

Here, what the students are expected to do to use their own image to express their feelings and ideas about the picture. That is, they will express themselves as they wish.

ACTIVITY II

The students are given a topic and are asked to write a dialogue around that topic. They are free in choosing the participants, setting, situation and etc. (The number of the exchanges may be limited).

4.5. SAMPLE UNIT

The dialogue has been selected from Kernel one (Robert O'neill: 1979:45). It is one of the coursebooks used during the first year at Hacettepe University. The dialogue in the coursebook is the informal version so, as discussed in Chapter 4.4, the formal version has been prepared. Since the original dialogue focuses on mostly greetings and introduction, the other version also presents the same two functions. In fact, towards the end of the original dialogue another function which is "offering" is presented. But keeping in mind the principle of presenting one or two functions at a time we ignore that third function.

Apart from teacher's manual, student's book is presented.

4.5.1. Teacher's Manual

DIALOGUE I : Informal version (Appendix B)

DIALOGUE II : Formal version (Appendix C)

1. CONTEXTUALIZATION

A. The students listen to dialogues with the short paragraphs preceeding them as they are looking at the drawings. Then they answer the following questions by giving evidence from the dialogue.

Possible answers for Dialogue I:

1. They are in a pub since the picture shows the people who are sitting and drinking. It is evening because Mike says, "Terry! How are you this evening?"

2. They are Anna, Janet, Mike and Terry. Anna, Janet and Mike are friends and Terry and Mike know each other. The preceding paragraph says that Anna, Janet and Mike are friends. We learn the relationship between Terry and Mike from the dialogue. Anna asks Mike whether he knows Terry and he says "Yes".

3. They are talking about Terry. Because the dialogue gives information about him.

4. It is informal. Especially the greeting and introduction parts of the dialogue reveal this point.

5. Its purpose is to teach informal greeting and introduction.

1.2. Possible answers for Dialogue II

1. The drawing and the paragraph preceding the dialogue explain that they are at a business conference and it is afternoon.

2. They are Mr. Carter, Mr. South and Miss Baker. Mr. Carter and Mr. South are acquaintance while Mr. South and Miss Baker are acquaintances too. In other words, they know each other but they are not friends. We understand this from their way of addressing each other. They don't use their first names.

3. Mr. Carter and Mr. South are talking about Miss Baker.

4. It is formal. The language used in greeting and introduction reveals it.

5. To teach formal greeting and introduction.

B. The teacher may introduce the functions in the following way:

"Do you know how to greet someone and introduce someone in formal and informal situations. Today, you are going to learn these."

2. A. Possible answers for Dialogue I

1. He plays guitar
2. Usually on Saturdays
3. Mike does.

Possible answers for Dialogue II

1. at a business conference
2. she is the Personnel Manager
3. No, she doesn't.

B. There is no unknown vocabulary items in each dialogue.

C. In the original dialogue, the difference between the Present Continuous and the Simple Present Tense is emphasized and the use of frequency adverbs in everyday speech is practiced.

C. PRESENTATION OF THE FUNCTION

Both the teacher's manual and the student's book include the following boxes which show the functions presented and the appropriate language to express them.

1. A) Greeting (Informal)

A: Hello, (John) How are you?
How's it going?

B: Fine,
Not too bad, thanks (Janet) and you?

A: Oh, pretty good, thanks
thank you
can't complain.

B) Greeting (Formal)

A: Good (morning) (Mr. South). How are you?

B : I'm very well
I'm fine thank you.
(Mrs.Green) And how are you?

A: I'm very well,
fine, too, thank you.

2. A) Introduction (Informal)

A: (Mary), this is (Jack)
(Mary), (Jack)

C: Hello.
Hi!

B: Hello, Pleased to meet you.
Hi, (Jack). Nice to meet you.

B) Introduction (Formal)

A: (Miss Baker), May I introduce you to (Mr. Carter).
I'd like you to meet

B: How do you do, (Miss Baker).

(They shake hands)

C: How do you do, (Mr. Carter).

The teacher asks the students to repeat the items in the boxes after him. Then they tell the differences between the formal and informal language by examining the items in the boxes.

Possible responses are:

- In informal language we use the first names whereas in formal language we don't.
- In formal 'introduction, the person to whom one is introduced greets the person who is introduced first while in informal introduction the person who is introduced greets the other person to whom he is introduced first.

D. Possible answer is:

In formal introduction, after the person to whom one is introduced greets the person who is introduced they shake hands.

E. Key to T/F questions.

DIALOGUE I

1. F. He does not play piano, he plays the guitar.
2. T.
3. F. She is Janet's friend.
4. T.
5. F. She does not smoke. She tells Terry
"No thanks, I don't smoke."

DIALOGUE II

1. F. They are not at a political meeting, they are at a business conference.
2. F. They do not know each other. They have just met at the conference.
3. T.

F. 1. While the students are practising the dialogue, the teacher walks around and listens to them.

2. Key to Dialogue I

e
d
a
c
b
f

Key to Dialogue II

g
d
a
f
c
e
b

3. Key to the dialogue I

A: Hello, How are you?

A: Just fine. Where are you going?

A: OK. I'll see you later.

Key to the dialogue II

A: Mr. Wilson, I'd like to introduce you to

Dr. Edward Smith

C: How do you do?

After the practice, the teacher asks two students for the first, three students for the second dialogue to act out the dialogues in front of the classroom.

4. The students are given a picture and asked to say what the persons in the picture are saying each other.

4.5.2. Student's Book

1.A. Answer the following questions for each dialogue and give evidence as much as possible:

1. Where are they and what part of the day is it?
2. Who are the speakers and what is the relationship between them?
3. What are they talking about?
4. Is the language formal or informal?
5. What is the purpose of the dialogue?

2.A. Answer the following pre-questions for each dialogue.

DIALOGUE I

1. What does Terry do in the "Bell"?
2. When does he usually play?
3. Who knows Terry?

DIALOGUE II

1. Where are they?
2. What is Miss Bakers job?
3. Does she know Mr. Carter?

C. PRESENTATION OF THE FUNCTION

1. A) Greeting (Informal)

A: Hello, (John) How are you?
How's it going?

B: Fine, thanks (Janet) and you?
Not too bad,

A: Oh, pretty goods, thanks
Thank you
can't complain

B) Greeting (formal)

A: Good (morning) (Mr. South). How are you?

B: I'm very well
I'm fine
thank you
(Mrs. Green) And how are you?

A: I'm very well,
fine, too, thank you.

2. A) Introduction (Informal)

A: (Mary), this is (Jack)
(Mary), _____ (Jack)

C: Hello.
Hi!

B: Hello, (Jack). Pleased to meet you.
Hi, Nice to meet you.

B) Introduction (Formal)

A: Miss Baker May I introduce you to (Mr. Carter).
I'd like you to meet

B: How do you do, (Miss Baker).

(They shake hands)

C: How do you do, (Mr. Carter).

Repeat after me and try to find out the differences between the formal and informal language presented in the boxes.

D. Are there any cultural point in these two dialogues? If any, explain them by giving evidence from the dialogues.

E. T/F Questions. Give the reasons if the answers is false.

DIALOGUE I

- 1) Terry plays piano in the "Bell".
- 2) Janet doesn't know Terry.
- 3) Anna is Terry's friend.
- 4) He often plays guitar in the "Bell".
- 5) Janet smokes.

DIALOGUE II

- 1) They are at a political meeting.
- 2) Miss Baker and Mr. Carter know eachother very well.
- 3) She is the Personnel Manager.

F.1. Look at your books and say the dialogues as group work.

2. Look at the board and try to put the exchanges of each dialogue in the right order in written form and then say it as a group work.

DIALOGUE I

- a. Fine thanks. Oh. Terry. This is Anna Parker. And this is Janet Snow.
- b. Hello. And . . . pardon what's your name?
- c. Hello, Terry. Nice to meet you.

- d. Oh, hello, Mike. How are you?
- e. Terry. How are you this evening?
- f. Janet. Janet Snow.

DIALOGUE II

- a. I'm very well, too, thank you. You don't know Miss Baker, our Personnel Manager, do you?
- b. How do you do, Mr. Carter?
- c. Miss Baker, I'd like you to meet Mr. Carter.
- d. Very well, thank you, Mr. South. And how are you?
- e. How do you do, Miss Baker?
- f. No, I don't
- g. Good afternoon, Mr. Carter. How are you?

3. Try to find out the missing parts of the following dialogues.

DIALOGUE I

- A:
- B: Fine, thanks _____ and you?
- A:
- B: To the library.
- A:
- B: Good-by.

DIALOGUE II

- A: _____
- B: How do you do, Dr. Smith?
- C: _____

After writing the missing parts, practice it with a partner.

4. Tell me what they are saying eachother. (Appendix H).

4.6. OBSERVATIONS ON SAMPLE UNIT

Most instructors would agree that dialogue is an effective communicative activity if it is handled in an effective way in the language classroom.

In order to explain the effectiveness of the new suggested way of functional dialogues, the observations on the implementation of the sample unit can be summarized.

The observations can be summarized in both psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics perspective.

4.6.1. Psycholinguistics Perspective

The way the sample unit is implemented facilitates communication by focusing on certain psychological factors which elicit the desired behavior in the individual.

These factors are motivation, empathy, sensitivity to rejection, self-esteem and spontaneity.

A. MOTIVATION

It is a fact that motivation is the most important factor which seems to have a strong effect on success or failure in language learning. Harmer (1983:3) states, "... it seems reasonable to suggest that the motivation of the student is perhaps the single most important thing that he brings to the classroom."

Since the students learn how to function in the target language through functional dialogues, its purposefulness provides a strong motivation for language learning.

B. SELF-ESTEEM

The relationship between self-esteem and the ability to orally produce a second language was found by Heyde (1979). He claimed that students with high self-esteem have higher language production than low self esteem students.

The new suggested way helps the students develop their self-esteem.

C. SENSITIVITY TO REJECTION

In a language classroom, one of the problem that the teacher faces is the students' fear to use the language. This results from the fact that they lack of communicative competence. In other words, they do not have the ability to recognize and produce language that

is socially appropriate. They are afraid of what others think of his command of the language.

The students feel safety in the situation created by the way of handling functional dialogues since they become aware of the language use.

D. EMPHATY

The students use the language in both formal and informal situations and learn to apply what they have learned to new situations easily. As a result students are more flexible and develop sensitivity to others.

E. SPONTANEITY

Corsini defined spontaneity as "natural, rapid, enforced, self-generated behaviour to new situations."

Students develop this type of behavior by practising the language and they become a speaker of the second language.

4.6.2. Sociolinguistics Perspective

In the sociolinguistic perspective, the effectiveness of the way I suggest can be explained in the following way.

a) It increases the students' intake.

An important factor for 'intake' is attention. Scarcella (1978: 45) states, "Good activities capture the students' attention.

b) The students study the social determinants of the language such as setting, topic, social relationship and so on for the appropriate use of language which has a major importance in communication.

c) Students learn cultural points related to language use.

d) Students develop the ability to use the appropriate language for a particular function.

It is reasonable to conclude that the students learn to say the right thing in the right situation which is what they need to communicate successfully.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

Imhoof (1980:26) states, "Good education-that is, education that fulfills human needs-presents the learner with alternative strategies for solving life's problem. The study of language is a good exemplification of this concept. As you expand your vocabulary, you have appropriate alternatives for conceptualizing and labelling; as you grasp increasingly complex grammar, you have alternative styles of expression: as you learn rhetorical principles, you have the power to shape your listener's or reader's thoughts. When you learn a second language you compound all these alternatives, because you acquire another language system."

In recent years, there has been great emphasize on the importance of the active use of language in language teaching. This results from the fact that language learners need to use the language for communication. It is believed that if the language learners gain the ability to communicate through language, they will be able to carry on a dialogue with the world.

In language teaching, there are plenty of communicative activities used to foster the ability stated above. Teachers generally know the types of activities to include in a lesson. However, it is necessary for them to be aware of the facts which enable him to

handle these activities in the classroom effectively.

The present study deals with the dialogue as a communicative activity. It tries to show three important points:

1. It is possible to teach the use of language in a natural way by means of functional dialogues since the principles used in functional dialogue design are similar to the principles of a speech event.

2. If the students become aware of the contextual factors which make up a functional dialogue, they will learn the social formula of the language and they will be able to use the language effectively in a communicative setting in order to meet their needs.

3. On the part of the teacher, awareness of the principles and procedures behind the dialogue design will cause the effective teaching in a way that the teacher will be able to teach the social formula of language that is what students need to communicate.



APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SITUATIONS

I. You are at your friend's flat. You are in the kitchen and you want to help her. What do you say? What does your friend say?

II. You see a house that appeals to you advertised for sale. You knock on the door and ask if it is convenient to look around.

III. You are starting work in a new office and you have just met the person you are going to work with.

Introduce yourself.

Explain what you did before starting this job.

Give some general information about yourself.

IV. You are phoning your adviser Mr. Anderson. How can you introduce yourself?

V. You are with a friend in a cafe. How can you offer your friend a cup of coffee?

VI. Tom and his girlfriend, Jill are walking through the park. They meet his old friend, Alan. How do they greet one another? How does Tom introduce Jill to him? How does Alan ask Tom and Jill to have a cup of coffee with him. How do they accept or refuse?

VII. You are late for lesson. Apologize to your teacher.

VIII. Tom doesn't know where the library is. He stops a young girl and asks the way.

What does he say to her?

(Unfortunately, she can't help him)

What does she say to him?



APPENDIX B



I ©

It is nine thirty and Janet is in "The Bell" with Mike and Anna. Mike and Anna are her friends. Terry is playing his guitar. He is finishing now.

ANNA: Hmm. Very good. He plays very well.

JANET: Yes, I think so, too. What's his name?

ANNA: I don't know. Mike! Do you know him?

MIKE: Yes, I do. His name's Terry Carter. He's a student. He often plays the guitar here.

JANET: Really? When?

MIKE: Well, usually on Wednesday and Friday.

JANET: Oh.

ANNA: He's coming over here now.

MIKE: Terry! How are you this evening?

TERRY: Oh, hello, Mike. How are you?

MIKE: Fine, thanks. Oh, Terry. This is Anna Parker. And this is Janet Snow.

ANNA: Hello, Terry. Nice to meet you.

TERRY: Hello. And . . . pardon . . . what's your name?

JANET: Janet. Janet Snow.

TERRY: Nice to meet you. Erm . . . do you often come here?

JANET: No. Not often. Sometimes.

TERRY: Oh? When?

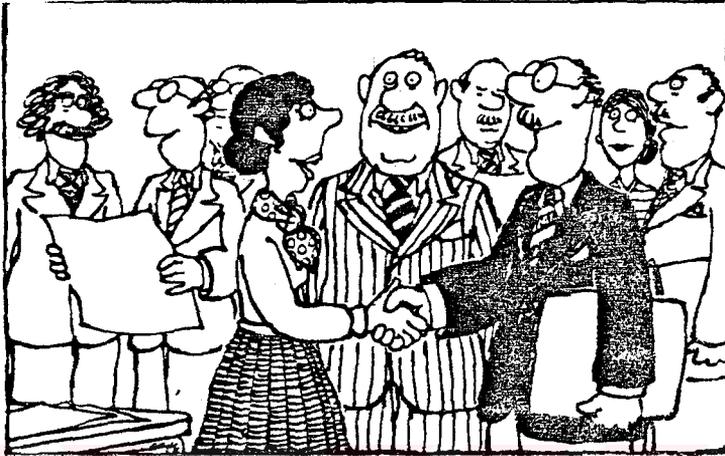
JANET: Usually on Saturdays.

TERRY: Oh? Really? Erm . . . cigarette?

JANET: No thanks. I don't smoke.

APPENDIX C

DIALOGUE II.



It is three and Mr. South and Mr. Carter are at business conference. They know each other because they work for the same company. Miss Baker is there too.

Mr. South: Good afternoon, Mr. Carter. How are you?

Mr. Carter: Very well, thank you, Mr. South. And how are you?

Mr. South : I'm very well, too, thank you. You don't know
Miss Baker, our Personnel Manager, do you?

Mr. Carter: No, I don't.

Mr. South:: Miss Baker, I'd like you to meet Mr. Carter.

Mr. Carter : How do you do, Miss Baker.

(They shake hands)

Miss Baker: How do you do, Mr. Carter.

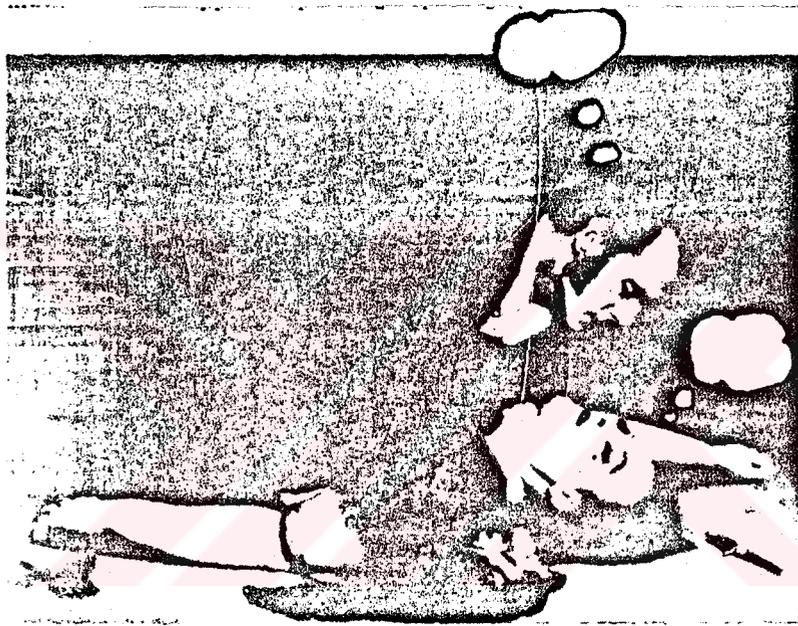
APPENDIX D



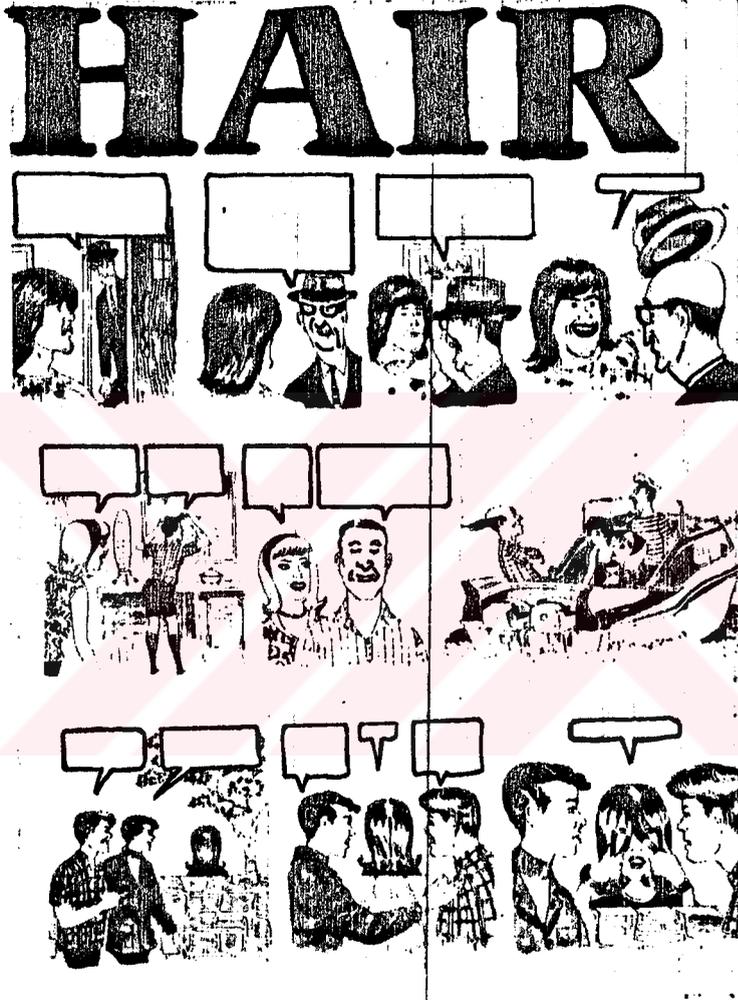
APPENDIX E



APPENDIX F



APPENDIX G



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