Developing students’ speaking skills through role-play

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ABSTRACT

One of the main purposes of learning foreign languages, particularly English, which has become lingua franca in many parts of the world, is the ability to communicate effectively with other users of the target language. Teaching to communicate in real, everyday situations is very often neglected and students have little chance to practise ordinary language in class. Therefore, teachers ought to provide learners with opportunities to improve their speaking skills. The prime objective of this diploma paper is to investigate whether role-play activities contribute to developing students’ speaking skills in the ELT classroom. This thesis consists of three chapters; the first two sections deal with a theoretical background and the third one focuses on implementing role-play activities in the classroom.

Keywords: learning foreign languages; ELT classroom; theoretical background; play activities in the classroom
Table of contents

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1: TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS
  1.1. THE PLACE OF SPEAKING AMONG THE FOUR LANGUAGE SKILLS
  1.2. REASONS FOR TEACHING SPEAKING
  1.3. COMPLEXITY OF THE SPEAKING PROCESS
  1.4. A SUCCESSFUL SPEAKING LESSON
  1.5. CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATIVE SPEAKING ACTIVITIES
  1.6. TYPES OF SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

CHAPTER 2: ROLE-PLAY IN THE ELT CLASSROOM
  2.1. WHAT IS ROLE-PLAY?
      2.1.1. Definition of role-play
      2.1.2. Types of role-play
      2.1.3. Role-play and simulation
  2.2. THE ORGANISATION OF A ROLE-PLAY ACTIVITY
  2.3. ADVANTAGES OF ROLE-PLAY
  2.4. PAIR WORK AND GROUP WORK AS PATTERNS OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN ROLE-PLAY
  2.5. THE TEACHER’S ROLES IN ROLE-PLAY

CHAPTER 3: IMPLEMENTING ROLE-PLAY IN THE LESSONS
  3.1. ORGANISATION
  3.2. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS
  3.3. PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE
  3.4. LESSON ONE
  3.5. LESSON TWO
  3.6. LESSON THREE
  3.7. LESSON FOUR
  3.8. LESSON FIVE
  3.9. LESSON SIX

CONCLUSIONS

REFERENCES

APPENDICES
INTRODUCTION

The first chapter attempts to describe the process of teaching speaking skills. It starts with placing speaking among the four language skills. Then, reasons for teaching speaking are presented. Quite a vast section is devoted to the linguistic knowledge of the speaking process, as such knowledge is very important when discussing the complexity of the process. Next, some tips on successful speaking activities are presented. Characteristics of communicative activities are also provided and the last subchapter concerns types of speaking activities.

The second chapter is dedicated to the concept of role-play activities in the ELT classes. The first subchapter, comprising of three parts, is concerned with explaining what a role-play activity is, distinguishes two types of role-play and confronts role-play with simulation. Also, a closer look is taken at the organization of a role-play activity. It also presents a number of advantages and some bad points about role-play. There are also two patterns of interaction, namely, pair and group work. Finally, the teacher’s roles are described.

The practical part is the implementation of the theory into practice. A series of six lessons conducted in a lower-secondary school and their analyses are presented. The teacher’s and the observer’s comments and the students’ evaluations of the lessons supplement the third chapter.

CHAPTER 1: TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS

1.1. The place of speaking among the four language skills

The aims of language teaching courses are commonly defined in relation to the four language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing. Depending on the language user’s activity, Widdowson (1978: 57) groups them into receptive and productive ones. Reading and listening belong to receptive skills, whereas speaking and writing are classified as productive skills. Effective foreign language learning necessitates assimilation of all the four skills, hence SLA seems to be both quite a complicated and time-consuming process.

Speaking and writing are called productive skills because they involve language production. While uttering sounds gives a chance to communicate orally, writing skills enable people to communicate in a written form. Nevertheless, Penny Ur in her book titled ‘A course in language teaching’, indicates:

(...) of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as ‘speakers’ of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing; and many if not most foreign languages learners are primarily interested in learning to speak (Ur 1996: 120).

The author of these words emphasises the importance of speaking and also the fact that it involves quite a vast knowledge of different language aspects, ergo, speaking may be perceived as a complicated process. Furthermore, speaking seems to be one of the most difficult skills students may possess since it requires first and foremost a great deal of practice and also exposure. Nowadays, many people identify fluency in speaking with the most desirable ability in their target language, for being able to talk smoothly with a native speaker very often proves the actual linguistic level. Accordingly, for most people, the ability to speak a foreign language is synonymous with knowing that language because speech is for them the
basic means of human communication. Teaching the other productive skill, namely writing, tends to be called the process approach because focus is on what writers do and not on what is being produced. Those teachers who advocate the process approach pay attention to various stages that any piece of writing goes through (Harmer: 2001: 257). The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill and hence must be exercised; additionally, writing involves composing letters, essays, etc. in relevance to the sets of given rules.

In sharp contrast to productive skills, listening and reading are the ways in which people extract meaning from what they hear or see. Learners do not need to produce language on their own; rather, they receive and understand it. Indeed, Widdowson (1978: 57) also names receptive skills as passive skills, whilst writing and speaking are called active skills. People process various messages from the media, such as radio, television and then activate listening comprehension in various communicative situations. According to Dakowska (2005: 212), “[l]istening is involved in all areas of our life, both public and personal.” Taking part in a conversation requires not only the ability to talk in the target language but also cautious listening to a partner. Similarly, reading results in understanding when an interactive process goes between a reader and a text.

Interestingly, not only can these four skills be divided in terms of producing and receiving information, but, as shown in the paragraph above, the skills may also be classified according to the medium of communication. “Speaking and listening are said to relate to language expressed through the aural medium and reading and writing are said to relate to language expressed through the visual medium” (Widdowson 1978: 57). To put it in other words, speaking and listening are held when sounds are being produced, whereas the other two skills are concerned with visual perception. In this case, it is the way of communicating information that is emphasised.

1.2. Reasons for teaching speaking skills

Although the answer to this seemingly apparent question is easy, it must be explained, as teaching any part of a language has to be firmly supported. Effective foreign language learning necessitates assimilation of all four skills, but special emphasis is put on teaching speaking, which has become noticed and appreciated in today’s methodology.

Essentially, being able to speak a foreign language means having communicative efficiency. It is inconceivably difficult to imagine what life would look like if people could not communicate verbally. Dakowska (2005: 231) claims that speaking is now the most emphasised skill in the field of foreign language teaching, but unfortunately, it is also recognised as the most difficult one to develop in classroom conditions. Students are constantly encouraged to use the target language during classes, but when the lesson is over, they have no possibility to use it in real communication. Of course, some learners seek the opportunity to speak their foreign language outside the classroom; however, most do not try to practise the target language at all. Certainly, one of the disadvantages of teaching English as a foreign language is that students cannot use the language in everyday speech. De facto, speaking a foreign language means being able to interact with people in authentic situations, not only during classroom controlled speaking activities. Therefore, teachers’ task to develop that skill is extremely challenging and needs much time, as only by practice may learners succeed. In the majority of schools, however, communicative efficiency is still not a priority. In most classes teachers fail to provide students with activities that would reflect genuine interaction. Students rarely talk to each other and rarely have the possibility to talk to a teacher as well (Gołębiowska 1991: 9).
As a matter of fact, an act of speech also requires knowledge about linguistic elements that are crucial for spoken production and which make discourse a complex procedure. Before thoughts are articulated, some linguistic factors have an influence on the process of speaking.

### 1.3. Complexity of the speaking process

It has barely been mentioned that being able to communicate successfully in a foreign language demands not only practice but also the understanding of some linguistic elements which are important for verbal interaction. Therefore, the next part of first chapter tries to explain some crucial notions of linguistic knowledge.

Firstly, a clear explanation of the term communication must be provided. A famous writer and editor David Crystal gives a detailed description of this basic entry that acts as the skeleton in relation to linguistic and phonetic studies.

Communication refers to the transmission and reception of INFORMATION (a ‘message’) between a source and a receiver using a signalling system: in linguistic contexts, source and receiver are interpreted in human terms, the system involved is a LANGUAGE, and the notion of response to (or acknowledgement of) the message becomes of crucial importance. In theory, communication is said to have taken place if the information received is the same as the sent (…) (Crystal 2008: 89).

Primarily, Crystal stresses the fact that exchanging information must be held between a source and a receiver, which means that if a receiver does not understand a message sent by a source, then this process cannot be described as communication because information was not transmitted accurately. Next, a very important issue is stated, namely, the author distinctively highlights that the signalling system of communication is a language used by people. Furthermore, he adds that the information received should be the same as the sent one.

Language used by humans thereby must present some characteristics that make it so unique and different from the way animals communicate. Yule’s work (2006: 9 – 12) outlines the six crucial attributes of human language. The first feature presented by the author is displacement. This trait allows users of a language to discuss events, people and things not present in the immediate environment. The second property is arbitrariness, which informs people that a relationship between a linguistic form and its meaning does not exist – it is entirely arbitrary. For example, deducing the meaning of a word wardrobe from only the form would be difficult for a novice of a second language learner. There are some onomatopoeic words that seem to mirror the sounds they stand for, but they are relatively occasional. The next feature, productivity, informs us that the possibility to produce the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite. Children are able to create new sentences they have hitherto never heard. What is more, people who find themselves in new situations can describe the new position, whilst animals cannot. The fourth characteristic of human language is discreteness, which points out that distinctions among sounds of a language are significant. To illustrate this phenomenon, the apparently small difference between the /p/ and /b/ sounds is meaningful when used in words like pig and big. The last but one quality of human language is duality. This property notifies that people’s language is organised at two levels. At one level, we are able to produce separate discrete sounds, like /i/, /p/ and /n/. At another, the mentioned sounds may be arranged into “nip”, but also into “pin”. Finally, cultural transmission informs us that while physical features such as face shape or the eye colour may be inherited, a language cannot. Children are born with an innate capacity to acquire language, but they do not have a genetic predisposition to acquire a specific one.
At this point, another significant question should be explained, namely: what does it actually mean to know a language? Yule (2006: 169) defines it as “[t]he general ability to use language accurately, appropriately and flexibly as communicative competence”.

The first component of this definition emphasises the accuracy of producing and understanding words and structures, which Yule then names as grammatical competence. The only concentration on that competence will surely not provide a student with the ability both to provide and produce L2 precisely, and for that reason other elements of communicative competence must be distinguished. According to Tarone and Yule (1989: 18), “[s]ociolinguistic competence allows the language user to select which utterance form, from any number of possible correct forms, is considered appropriate within a language community on a particular interactive occasion.” It means that students must learn which structures are appropriate to the situations they are in and the people they are talking to. The last part of the entry from the beginning of the paragraph pertains to strategic competence that is connected with the ability to utilise communication strategies to cope with difficulties which arise in the course of getting man’s message across to a particular listener. For example, a woman may know a target deal about the grammatical structure of German as a second language, and yet be unable to use the language to get herself from the airport to the hotel in Germany. In view of what an intended and actual act of speech looks like, Fromkin, Rodman and Hyamas (2003: 9) define the knowledge of a language a person knows as linguistic competence, whereas the procedure of how people exploit that knowledge in real speech production and comprehension is defined as linguistic performance. What a speaker actually says is influenced by non-linguistic features like hesitation or stress, which may result in making grammatical mistakes. The way a student utters sounds during a foreign language lesson is very often influenced by these factors, thus, what was planned to say, unfortunately differs from the actual speech.

Still, in the issue of communicative competence, the work of Harmer (2001: 269-271) clarifies that if a person is able to speak a language it means that the speaker possesses the knowledge of the target language’s features, and he or she has the ability to process information on the spot. The author indicates that language’s features make reference to linguistic competence and comprise the following elements: connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language. Students should be aware that natural processes like omitting words or weakening sounds occur in real-life situations during speeches. Activities which practise connected speech, rather than activities focused only on individual phonemes, improve learners’ fluency.

It is also advisable to try to implement certain suprasegmental features in order to show emotions and attitudes, for instance by varying the speed of utterance or changing facial expressions. Students also need to know various phrases and conversational patterns since negotiation language involves expressions people often use for clarifications, such as “could you explain it to me one more time, please? ”

Next, the author adds that not only are the above-mentioned language’s features necessary to succeed in speaking process but “[s]uccess is also dependent upon the rapid processing skills that talking necessitates” (Harmer 2001: 271). These skills are: language processing, interacting with others and (on-the-spot) information processing. Language processing allows retrieving the words and phrases that are stored in one’s memory and then arranging them in syntactically correct sentences. Secondly, effective speaking also requires a good deal of listening to and understanding other participants’ feelings, as well as cultural and social rules such as turn-taking or how loud to speak. Finally, the pace of processing the
information plays an important role – the faster a speaker is able to respond, the more efficient communication is.

Beyond question, linguistic knowledge about the notion of communication and then about a language is very important when investigating teaching speaking a foreign language. The areas of communicative competence attempt to explain what knowledge about a target language a learner should possess.

1.4. A successful speaking lesson

Having explained the term of speaking from the linguistic point of view, another step to present the principles of a good lesson is devoted to interaction between students. Needless to say, the key to a successful speaking lesson is a successful speaking activity. Nonetheless, it might not be easy to design and that is why teachers should be familiar with the basic characteristics of a profitable oral exercise.

According to Ur (1996: 122), learners should have a chance to talk a lot using the target language. What is difficult to achieve, although still possible, is the desire to have the time devoted to such an activity filled with learner talking time to the maximum. What a teacher can do to promote speaking is to divide students into groups. Working in groups increases the amount of practice learners can get, as well as the amount of their speaking. When students sit in a small circle, their inhibitions are lowered and thus they are encouraged to speak. Nevertheless, it is more natural for them to speak in their mother tongue than in the target language, thus teachers very often keep on reminding learners to use L2 (Dobson 1989: 14). This author also proposes that one student from each group should have the role of monitoring the rest of his peers and remind them to speak only in the target language.

Another feature of a successful speaking activity, pointed by Brown (2001: 270) is even participation. All students should get a chance to speak; moreover, contributions ought to be fairly evenly distributed. Therefore, teachers’ task is to strive towards engaging the less active learners and make sure that all students are involved in an equal way. Additionally, a task ought not to be dominated by a few students who like to take control over an exercise. Dobson (1989: 11) suggests that in order to make sure that every learner has a possibility to practise the target language, the teacher can appoint a group representative responsible for equal participation among peers.

Motivation also plays an important role in a successful lesson devoted to speaking. Without showing a genuine concentration on performing a task, the class faces no efficiency. To meet learners’ eagerness in a lesson, the teacher ought to choose topics that are of genuine interest among the suitable group of students. Topics which appeal to teenagers, however, may not appeal to adult learners and thus they may not willingly take part in an activity. There are two main kinds of motivation: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. According to Harmer (2001: 51), “[e]xtrinsic motivation is caused by any number of outside factors, for example, the need to pass an exam, the hope of financial reward, or the possibility of future travel.” A student feels obliged to acquire a language because outside factors motivate him or her to learning. The second kind of motivation – intrinsic motivation, on the contrary, stands in total contrast to extrinsic one since it comes from within the person (Harmer 2001: 51).

The last but not least important principle, mentioned by Ur (1996: 120), is the acceptable level of the language used. An educator can achieve it by selecting activities whose language level is similar to students’ linguistic level. Such oral tasks empower students and give learners the possibility to clearly express their ideas and opinions through fluent speech.
1.5. Characteristics of communicative speaking activities

There are many types of classroom speaking activities. Harmer (2001: 271) declares that a lot of classroom oral tasks fall at or near the communicative end of the communication continuum for it is sometimes difficult to match an activity strictly to one continuum. The author distinguishes non-communicative and communicative activities.

First of all, communicative activities’ greatest feature is that they contain information gap, which gives a purpose and desire to communicate. Students’ task is to find information that is missing, thus there is no alternative way but talk to each other Harmer (2012: 114). In his book titled ‘Essential Teacher Knowledge,’ there are also two kinds of such activities presented: closed and open information gap activities. In open ones students may use a variety of language items, whereas in closed ones the learners can use only precise language items (Harmer 2012: 114). It is worth pointing out that all communicative activities are information gap activities but not the other way round. In order to become an information gap activity, these oral tasks need to meet other requirements. Such activities should put more emphasis on the content, not on the form. Then, although students should try to attend to form, it is fluency that is emphasised in the first place. However, one may notice that not all spoken activities are aimed at producing language independently; in that event, misleading may be oral repeating after the teacher – so-called drilling or re-producing given examples to duplicate. The next feature describes the teacher’ role during a communicative activity. Namely, an educator does not interfere during the performance but gives delayed feedback when students finish the activity. To add more, Harmer (2001: 271) states that there should not be any material control, as they may impose specific language forms to be used by students. Finally, there is also a free choice of language; learners may decide which language structure or words to use.

1.6. Types of speaking activities

Knowing the principles of communicative activities, it is now easier to distinguish certain types of this spoken interaction. Many authors list such activities according to various characteristics, for example in relation to their popularity or completely accidentally. The activities below are not enumerated in accordance to their popularity.

According to Gołębiowska (1987: 13), in discussions, learners are presented with a problem and have to express their own opinions about it. Students also retain their personalities and views and their task is to come to an agreement considering an issue introduced by the teacher.

Communication games are another type of speaking activities proposed by Harmer (2001: 272); the word game suggests an element of fun during a lesson (indeed, learners draw pictures, solve puzzles, etc.), but of course games are designed to provoke communication between students and often depend on an information gap.

In prepared tasks, learners are asked to make a presentation on a topic of their own choice. The aim of such tasks is to develop informal, spontaneous conversation. Although it is more of a writing-like task, if possible, students should speak from notes rather than write.

By being pre-planned, a questionnaire ensures that both the questioner and person responding to the questioner have something to say to each other; if well prepared, they may encourage the natural use of clear and repetitive language patterns.

Dakowska states that an interview involves two roles: the role of an interviewee, which is more demanding according to factual information, and the role of an interviewer. Very often interviews are integral parts of more structured tasks, such as simulations or projects (Dakowska 2005: 245).
Undoubtedly, speaking skills are the skills which are both the most difficult to possess, but, yet, they are also in the highest demand since people’s biggest desire nowadays is the ability to speak English without any mistakes. Without the ability to communicate in different languages the world simply could not have been able to function and that is why developing speaking skills should be of great importance at schools.

CHAPTER 2: ROLE-PLAY IN THE ELT CLASSROOM

2.1. What is role-play?

Role-play can be a very successful tool in the teacher’s hands. As its prime goal is to boost students’ interaction in the classroom, educators should not forget about incorporating such a speaking activity to reflect learners’ theoretical knowledge of a language in practice.

Definition of role-play

For the reason that there is no one precise definition of role-play and various authors see it in a different way, the beginning of this chapter deals with three different explanations of this speaking exercise.

According to Porter-Ladousse (1987: 3), “role play activities range from highly-controlled guided conversations at one end of the scale, to improvised drama activities at the other; from simple rehearsed dialogue performance, to highly complex simulated scenarios.” The author of these words puts a lot of emphasis on a wide scope of role-play activities. Such a speaking task may be a limited one and be supported by prepared cues, for example by dialogues; or, conversely, role-play might be an activity where students rather improvise than rely on the practised dialogue. Porter-Ladousse also points out that role-play may differ in complexity, that is, some performances may be very short and simple, whereas some utterances may be very structured. The difficulty of the activity depends, therefore, on the language level.

Another definition is proposed by Scrivener:

In role-play, learners are usually given some information about a ‘role’ (e.g. a person or a job title). These are often printed on ‘role cards’. Learners take a little preparation time and then meet up with other students to act out small scenes using their own ideas, as well as any ideas and information from the role cards. A simple role card could do nothing more than name the role e.g. mother, detective or alternatively they could offer guidance as to what to do rather than the role itself, e.g. buy a train ticket to Brighton (Scrivener 2005: 155).

It is clearly stated that students are assigned particular roles to play. Scrivener also has it that role cards have an important function, thus, thanks to them learners are equipped with crucial information about their roles. Guidelines put on such cards help students in conveying important facts about their characters to be played and also make the speakers feel more secure, as basic clues are included on paper. The weaker learners may base their utterances only on a card, while the strong ones find role cards as prompts. A good set of role cards is frequently designed so that the participants may have different points of view and obvious disagreements (Scrivener 2005: 156). This author also inclines that students need an appropriate amount of time to prepare ideas and language before playing their roles. What is more, he says that learners not only use the ideas put on role cards, but also try to add any language they possess.
Gołębiowska (1987: 13) indicates that in role-play learners are given a task to complete and in order to do it, they are told who they are, what their opinions are, and what they know that is unknown to the other students. She stresses the fact that students are told who they are, namely, that they play the role of somebody else. Being cast in a role of a different character may diminish the fear of speaking, as these are not the speakers who make mistakes, but the personalities played by them. The key feature of role-play is that learners can become anyone they want for a short time. Their task is to pretend a different person and it may be, for example, a doctor, a pop star, a parent, a millionaire, etc.

Types of role-play

It has been mentioned that role-play may differ in length and in difficulty. There are also two different types of role-play, that is to say, real-plays and surreal-plays.

A role-play activity which is a rehearsal for the real world is called real-play (Al-Arishi 1994: 339). Therefore, textual material should be authentic, realia may be brought into the classroom. Moreover, real-playing fits in the desire for realism because it gives students the chance to practise typical activities they will probably perform in real life; these are: ordering food in a restaurant, greetings, asking for directions, booking holidays at a travel agency, etc. Thanks to that kind of role-playing, learners have a possibility to rehearse these activities and then, in the future, they may have fewer problems because they have practised in the classroom. Still, in the issue of real-playing, Scrivener (2005: 158) figures that one of learners plays himself or herself, but in the context other than a room where they are taught. Interestingly, the author implies that this type of role-play is especially useful or business for professional people. Next, Scrivener adds that speakers may create their own real-play cards rather than being given a set of prepared ones.

In sharp contrast to real-play, surreal-play should encourage an imaginative self-expression of the inner world of each student’s mind (Al-Arishi 1994: 337). While real-play seeks approval for believing that a classroom can become the real world, surreal-playing calls for promoting an expression of thoughts and feelings of each student’s mind. Such an activity is also called imaginative role-playing. As stated by Doff (1988: 240), not only children fantasize, but also teenagers and adults often imagine themselves in different situations. In this case, teachers let students do what they naturally find enjoyable.

Role-play and simulation

The distinction between role-play and simulation is very often of small attention and even omitted. These speaking activities may often overlap in practice and different authors give different definitions, but, regardless of role-play and simulation similarities, one should remember that there is a difference.

According to Dakowska (2005: 111), the contrast between these two speaking activities is a matter of degree. In simulations, students are usually invited to participate in an exercise which resembles a real-life event. Unlike role-plays, in which role cards tell the learner what to say and what view to adopt, in simulations learners have the freedom to respond as they think (Dummett 1994: 41). The author clearly states that in a simulation the players are not restricted to what to say. Next, Dummett also suggests that students do not take any roles, but they imagine themselves in different, existing in actual life situations. In almost the same way, Harmer (2012: 121) sees simulation as “a chance to rehearse real-life encounters. For example, we can move the classroom furniture so that we represent a station office with a
ticket window.” This situation requires playing a role of a passenger and a travel clerk, so one learner likewise in a role-playing, must take on a role of somebody else.

As presented above, the distinction is not clear and it could be only proposed that in role-plays students are cast roles of different characters, whereas in simulations players do not take any roles and play themselves in real-life situations.

The organisation of a role-play activity

For a role-play to be a successful speaking exercise it is useful to know some basic principles about organizing such an activity. This subchapter presents advice on conducting role-plays.

Firstly, it is important to mention that if a teacher is not convicted about the validity of using role-playing, the activity itself “will fall flat on its face just as you expected it to” (Porter-Ladousse 1987: 8). The educator has to be convicted that role-play is an exciting technique to use and has many benefits. If the teacher is not enthusiastic about the play, the students will not as well.

Any teaching sequence necessitates three vital elements: the engage stage, study stage and activate stage. In the first phase − the engage stage, the teacher’s task is to attract and keep learners’ attention and interest in a lesson. Students’ minds have to be involved and emotionally connected with a lesson, for example by a pleasant situation or a nice picture (Harmer 2012: 178). Then, learners need to study the new language; it may be grammar or vocabulary exercises. Having known the new item, students are given a possibility to activate both the new language and the language they have known. Learners do it when they speak freely. Having been engaged, being presented the new language and having practised it, learners try to activate it. Harmer points out that some lesson sequences such as PPP follow the cycle of ESA. Students are presented the new language, practise it, and, finally, they make an effort to produce the new language or any language. The author indicates that role-playing is an excellent way to put the language into action.

Doff (1988: 237) states that if role-play is not based on a dialogue in a course book or a text, students themselves have to decide what language to use and how a conversation should develop. Therefore, in order for role play to be a profitable activity, careful preparation would be essential. The educator may cause brainstorming in the classroom on what the speakers may say. Also, writing prompts on a board and necessary vocabulary may guide students during role-play. Budden (2004) adds that drilling the structures the players would need to use is very helpful, as learners are equipped with suitable language.

It is also worth remembering that the teacher should make sure that students have understood both the situation to play and also what is on the role cards before the activity begins (Porter-Ladousse 1987: 12). If learners follow the activity, then, they will not have problems with conducting the activity properly. Of course, role cards should be legible and within students’ language level.

Moreover, educators should not use role-plays which are too difficult or too emotionally loaded until students are used to that kind of activity. Rather, starting with very simple information-gap role-plays is advisable. During the first role-play learners may be more or less inhibited, but soon they will get accustomed to role-playing (Porter-Ladousse 1987: 11).

Beyond question, students will need some time to prepare for a performance and then also try out their roles privately (Doff 1988: 237). Depending on the learners’ language level, the amount of planning time may differ. Players at this stage of an activity work in pairs or groups and discuss together what they might say. At higher levels, students will not need so much help with the language but they will need time to get into roles.
Equally importantly, realia can help to bring role-play to life. For instance, when playing the role of a waiter and a customer, learners might be asked to do or bring to a class menus and aprons. These simple props may make the whole process more memorable for the class (Budden: 2004). The author also has it that rearranging the furniture helps with playing the roles. She gives an example of playing the roles of a travel agent and a customer where in order to make it more real, students may even leave the room and then enter by knocking at the door. One desk may be put in the centre of a classroom to pretend a travel agency, too.

Next, Doff (1988: 238) explicates that demonstration of the role-play is significant. The educator’s task is not only to tell the class the situation to play, but also to do the exercise. The teacher may also elicit some structures that would be used in an activity. Having explained the whole task, the lecturer divides the class into pairs or groups. At the very end, she or he sets a strict time limit and tries to make every effort to stick to it.

Finally, Huang (2008) proposes that the teacher should assess the effectiveness of the role-play activity and examine if learners have successfully comprehended the meaning of vocabulary, sentences and dialogues. The author adds that there are several ways to check students’ evaluation. She suggests that learners should be given oral and listening tests related to the role-plays. The players may be asked to answer some questions connected with their roles, repeat some parts of utterances, or translate the role-play into their native language. Apart from that, the teacher’s task is to evaluate students’ understanding and comprehension while monitoring their role-play performances (Huang: 2008).

Advantages of role-play

Some teachers are unaware of the possibilities of role-play. They may feel that such an activity is not appropriate for classes which cause discipline problems and that conducting role-play would create chaos. In addition, they claim that students may be reluctant to be someone else, or, that their level of language is too low. The section below attempts to present rationale for using role-play activities in English foreign language classrooms.

Kowalska (1991: 113) believes that role-playing develops learners’ fluency in speaking. The wide range of language functions, for example apologising, greetings, etc., is exercised more than in any other activities. Learners’ focus is put on the communication of meaning rather than on the appropriate use of language. Therefore, through role-playing teachers may train students’ speaking skills in any social situations. It means that learners are put in conditions which require speech that is used to communicate socially more than the language necessitated by teaching syllabuses (Porter-Ladousse 1987: 6). The author takes the view that thanks to role-playing learners have the possibility to develop the language which is necessary in social relationships, but which is neglected in teaching syllabuses. He also notices that a lot of students believe that the language in foreign language classes is only used to pass on particular information from one person to another.

The next reason for incorporating role-playing in EFL classes is that some people learn for specific roles in life. They may want to work or travel in worldwide context. It is very advantageous for these students to have tried out in pleasant and safe environment of a classroom with the language they will presumably use. For such learners, role-play is a helpful rehearsal and what is more, it allows them not just to acquire phrases, but to learn how to interact in a variety of circumstances (Porter-Ladousse 1987: 7).

Kowalska (1991: 113) remarks that role-playing develops learners’ imagination. For the roles given to learners may require creative thinking, players’ imagination is in high demand. In addition, being able to think inventively might occur a useful skill in the future. Some
jobs demand imaginative thinking and the best way to practise it is just through role-playing and also by reading books.

Another advantage of role-playing is that learners are given a chance to pretend someone else. Such a technique may help timid students to overcome their shyness of speaking. Reticent students often have difficulty talking about their experiences or about themselves. The fact that they are someone else makes them feel that their own personality is not implicated (Porter-Ladousse 1987: 7).

Finally, there is no doubt that the element of fun advocates using role-playing in foreign language classes (Budden: 2004). Apart from being involved in language production, players enjoy themselves and have a really great time.

However, role-play may have disadvantages, too. Thornbury (2005: 96-98) indicates that “(…) learners who feel self-conscious performing in front of their peers, especially if this involves a degree of improvisation, and care has to be exercised in choosing and setting up such activities so as not to make even more demands on them than speaking in another language normally requires”. To put it in other words, the author notes that a public performance itself may cause a big problem for some students. Then, he adds that the preparation stage may be helpful to overcome the fear of speaking. Teachers must be careful during role-playing not to make any learners feel awkward.

Pair work and group work as patterns of classroom interaction in role-play

Role-playing, as mentioned before, is an activity that involves at least two students. Regardless of the number of learners involved in the exercise, pair work and group work are the patterns of classroom interaction which are the subject of this part of chapter two.

In pair work, students have both the possibility to practice the language or study a text together. Working in a pair dramatically boosts the amount of time devoted to speaking any student can receive in the class. Moreover, it also allows students to work and interact independently without the necessary help from the teacher, hence it promotes the learner’s autonomy. Pair work also gives an educator a possibility to work with one pair while the other learners continue speaking. To add more, students learn to share responsibility and such a classroom interaction pattern promotes cooperation which helps the classroom to be a more likeable place (Harmer 2001: 116).

However, there are some bad points about pair work. Harmer (2001: 116) stresses the fact that many teachers and even students may dislike it and to add more, working with a partner can be noisy. Therefore, educators keep thinking that they may lose power over their class and do not let learners work in pairs too often. Another disadvantage is switching to L1. As there is no teacher control and students work on their own, they may talk in their mother tongue rather than in the target language.

Group-based learning is used on a large scale in many forms of teaching (Richards and Bohlke 2011: 17). Firstly, it changes the interactional dynamics in the classroom and increases students’ talking time (Harmer 2001: 117). Altering the classroom interaction is important because it prevents learners from getting bored when working still on their own. There is also a greater opportunity of different opinions and varied involvements than in pair work, and it encourages learner’s autonomy by allowing students to make their own choices within the group, without being told what to do.

Similarly to a pair work, group work is likely to be an interaction pattern which is typical of full of noise (Harmer 2001: 117). Some teachers may feel that they lose control over the whole class. In addition, not all learners enjoy group work since they would prefer to be the focus of the teacher’s interest rather than work with their classmates. Occasionally,
students find themselves in a not pleasant clique and they wish they could work with somebody else. Finally, setting up such activities contains a number of challenges: “putting students into group may be time consuming, students often seat themselves in cliques by age, language group, friendship, and so on (...), low-level students may have difficulty following instructions or be intimidated working in a group with stronger students (...)” (Richards and Bohlke 2011: 17).

The teacher’s roles in role-play

Having analysed the definition of role-play, the organization of such an activity, its advantages and also the notion of pair and group work, another very important issue has to be explained, namely, the teacher’s role in a role-play activity.

One of the teacher’s function is being a facilitator. As learners practise role-play they may discover that they lack words or phrases (Budden 2004). They may need new language to be given by the educator. This role makes the teacher act as a kind of a ‘walking dictionary’, evaluating the class and offering help when it is necessary. However, if rehearsal time is long enough, offering assistance might not be required.

At times, teachers may want to become involved in a speaking activity. This way they can prompt the exercise, introduce new information to help the role-play along and ensure continuing student engagement in the speaking (Harmer 2001: 276). Although educators have to bear in their minds that they should not participate too much, that is, take control over the task and draw all the attention to themselves.

The third role of the teacher is being a spectator. His or her task is to watch the role-play and then give remarks and advice at the end of the performances (Budden 2004). The teacher walks round the classroom listening to the students talking and putting down the mistakes that should be discussed (Porter-Ladouss 1987: 15). Then, Porter-Ladouss adds that after role-play, the educator can correct forms from the learners by writing them on the board, or by giving some kind of remedial task that he or she had predicted would be needed. This author also suggests that the teacher should include such a remedial exercise into a later lesson and he also puts emphasis on the fact that while role-play is in progress, the teacher should not let the consideration of errors suppress the exercise, as the first priority is developing fluency.

Role-play seems to be an important tool in teaching speaking skills. Although there is no one definition of role-play and there are some weak points about that activity, its’ numerous advantages far outweigh the disadvantages. The activity gives a chance of having a rehearsal for the language one day students may be exposed to, for example ordering food at a restaurant.

CHAPTER 3: IMPLEMENTING ROLE-PLAY IN THE LESSONS

Organisation

This project was conducted in Lower Secondary School number 1 in Lesznio. The aim of this research was to observe whether implementing role-play activities during English lessons develops students’ speaking skills. The research was carried out among one group of sixteen participants aged fifteen, who were in the second grade of a lower secondary school at a pre-intermediate level. The project took place on the days when the teacher had two lessons in a row with the same group of students. Such an arrangement of classes made it possible to organize the research in a way that the first lesson was the preparation for the target activity, role-play, which was held during the second lesson. The participants took part in the lessons
actively, they were engaged in the topics and were disciplined. They were also enthusiastic about the idea of that kind of a speaking activity and eager to cooperate with their friends during role-play.

Data collection tools

Three types of data collection tools were used during the sequence of six lessons: a questionnaire for the students (See Appendix A, p. 44), an observation sheet for the mentor teacher (See Appendix B, p. 45) and the teacher’s observations.

Preliminary questionnaire

Before starting the research, the teacher conducted a preliminary questionnaire (See Appendix C, p. 46) to find out whether the students were familiar with role-play and to get the students’ general views on speaking skills.

The answers to the first question, namely, which language skill causes the most difficulties were varied: five students claimed that speaking was the most difficult one, four that it was grammar that caused a lot problems, and finally, three learners claimed that listening was the most difficult language skill. All the students agreed that developing speaking skills during English classes was necessary. When asked about the degree of difficulty in communicating in English, almost all the students circled that the difficulty depended on the topic of the conversation and only three learners admitted that communication in English caused no problems for them. For fourteen students role-play was a known activity, whereas when asked if they liked role-playing, only ten answered they liked such a kind of activity and three claimed that they sometimes liked role-playing. It turned out that thirteen learners would like to develop their speaking skills through role-playing. When asked about exemplary topics of role-play, they suggested, for example: at a restaurant, at a travel agency, in a bank, paying for clothes in a shop.

The results of the questionnaire assured the teacher that, indeed, speaking in English causes the biggest problems to learners and that speaking is considered a necessary skill. Moreover, the questionnaire was helpful because the teacher learnt that almost all of the students were familiar with role-play and eager to develop speaking through role-playing. In addition, the teacher had a possibility to learn which topics the students would like to cover during the research project, which turned out to be quite an important hint.

Lesson one: At a travel agency (part one)

Aims:

Students will be involved in the topic of travelling
Students will be able to read four texts on summer destinations
Students will be able to design their own travel brochures

Teaching aids: a handout – travel brochure (See Appendix D, p. 49), texts adapted from students’ course book (See Appendix E, p. 50), blackboard, dictionaries, travel catalogues.

Procedure:

Engage:

The teacher tells students what they are going to do during the two lessons. Then, she writes some questions on the blackboard. Students work in pairs and ask each other questions on travelling, written on the blackboard: Do you like travelling? Have you ever been at a
travel agency? Would you like to work at a travel agency? Where would you like to go on your summer holidays? The teacher asks students to open their books and asks them to describe the pictures in pairs.

Study:

Students read the texts and answer to questions below the texts. The teacher translates the unknown words into Polish, and students write down the words in their notebooks. The teacher tells them about the activity they are going to do during the second lesson. Now listen everyone. Imagine you work at a travel agency; each travel agency has two agents, so you will work in pairs. Each travel agent will design his or her own travel brochure about one city in Poland. Then you will work in fours; first, students from one pair are travel agents and the others are customers who want to buy a trip. Then you change your roles. Finally, you have to choose only one option from the two trips and book a trip. If we have time, you will have a chance to go to other travel agencies. The teacher explains the whole activity one more time in Polish to make sure students understood the procedure. The teacher distributes the blank travel brochures to students and they are to fill it in. The teacher translates the unknown words into Polish.

Lesson two: At a travel agency (part two)

Aims:

Students will be able to read an example dialogue
Students will have known new expressions
Students will be able to role-play: at a travel agency
Students will be able to justify their choice of one summer destination

Teaching aids: a handout – an example dialogue (See Appendix F, p. 51), a handout - useful expressions (See appendix G, p. 52).

Procedure:

Study:

Students read in pairs the example dialogue. The teacher translates the expressions in bold into Polish. The educator also drills the expressions several times to make sure students remember them better: Ok, now please repeat after me: I would like to go on a trip, etc. Then, the teacher distributes useful expressions to students and asks them to read the expressions and then she translates the unknown words into Polish.

Activate:

The activate stage is based on communication. Students role-play — at a travel agency. Learners may look at the example dialogue or take down their own notes. If they ‘visit’ the travel agencies in their group, they can go to the other agencies in a classroom. Finally, students choose only one summer destination which seemed to be the most attractive one for them and arrange buying a ticket. At the end of the lesson learners are asked to write in their notebooks five sentences justifying their choice.
Evaluations of lesson one and two:

This kind of a speaking task was appropriate for that talkative group. The students really liked that kind of a speaking activity and also the topic was nice for them. What is more, the learners claimed that designing their own travel brochures was really appealing. The students liked the idea of bringing travel catalogues by the teacher into a classroom because it was much easier for them to choose a city to describe in a brochure. However, the students were so exited with the catalogues and designing their own travel brochure that they very often used Polish. The example dialogue turned out to be an excellent idea since speaking was much easier for them when they had some prepared clues. Bringing useful expressions by the teacher and then drilling some phrases was helpful as well. Only a few (three or four) students relied on the example dialogues entirely; the rest of the group tried their best to activate the new language and the language they already knew. The learners were eager to cooperate with their partners in a group. To add more, they enthusiastically reacted to the idea of visiting other travel agencies. The activity at first seemed to be a complicated one, but when the teacher explained it in Polish, the students had no doubts what to do.

Lesson three: ‘Mum, can I go to a concert?’ ‘No way!’

Aims:

- Students will be able to read a dialogue and choose the best summary to it
- Students will be able to match the words with their definitions
- Students will be able to role-play the conversation

Teaching aids: role card 1: a son/daughter (See Appendix H, p. 53), role card 2: a mum/dad (See Appendix I, p. 54), students’ course book- page 105 (See Appendix J, p. 55), dictionaries.

Procedure:

Engage:

The teacher tells students what they are going to do during this lesson. Today you are going to read a text about a girl who is negotiating with their parents because she wants to stay at the party until 12 o’clock. Then, she asks questions to students: Tell me, have you ever had such a situation? What time do you have to return home? Is the time the same for your siblings? Do you ever argue with your parents about staying out late?

Study:

Students work in pairs and describe what they can see in the pictures. Then they read the dialogue and do exercise 2 and 3. Students practise reading the dialogue aloud in pairs with the use of proper intonation and gestures. The teacher translates the unknown words from the dialogue into Polish.

Activate:

Students role-play a conversation. The teacher gives the instructions: Ok, now please listen to me carefully, you are going to role-play a conversation between a parent and a child. One person is a mum/dad and the second one is a daughter/son. The child wants to go to a concert or at a summer music festival and your task is to persuade your parent that the concert is safe. The mum’s/dad’s task is to make her child resign from that idea. The teacher
distributes the role cards and then she translates the unknown words into Polish. The educator asks students to write down minuses any time they hear his or her friend talking in Polish.

**Evaluation of lesson three:**

The participants took part in the lesson actively and they were engaged in the topic of the lesson because the theme was about the teenagers and thus concerned them. The role cards turned out to be a very helpful teaching aid because the instructions were clearly written on them and students could refer to them any time. The learners were willing to speak and the teacher’s request to write down minuses any time a partner talks in Polish worked because there were fewer teenagers talking in L1. There were moments when the teacher heard the students talking only in English.

**Lesson four: ‘I am not addicted to the Internet’— role-play.**

**Aims:**

- Student will be able to brainstorm for different addictions
- Students will be able to read a text and decide if the sentences are true or false
- Students will be able to role-play a situation where one child is addicted to something and a parent tries to make him/her resign from the addiction

**Teaching aids:** role card 1- a son/daughter (See Appendix K, p. 56), role card 2- a mum/dad (See Appendix L, p. 57), students’ course book- page 101 (See appendix M, p. 58), dictionaries.

**Procedure:**

**Engage:**

The teacher asks students to get into four groups consisting of four students and brainstorm for different types of addictions. Then, one student from each group goes clockwise the classroom and compares his/her group’s ideas with the ideas proposed by the friends. Next, one representative from each group reads his/her group’s results aloud.

**Study:**

The teacher asks students to look at the picture on page 101 and describe it to a friend sitting next to him/her. Then, learners read the text and do exercises two and three. Students listen to a dialogue and decide which option (a or b) is correct.

**Activate:**

The teacher gives instructions to the role-play: *Now, listen everyone; you will be working in pairs: one person will be a mum/dad and the second student will play the role of a daughter/son. The child is addicted to something and she/he tries to persuade his/her mum/dad that the addiction is not dangerous. A mum/dad tries to make his/her child resign from the addiction. If you finish, please change your roles. The teacher asks questions to students: Adam, can you tell me whose roles you are going to play? Kasia, can you briefly describe the exercise in Polish? The teacher distributes the role cards.*
Evaluation of lesson four:

The students again took part in the lesson actively and they were quite engaged in the topic since the theme was to some extent connected with problems teenagers face nowadays. The role cards turned out to be a very helpful teaching aid because the students could refer to them to make sure what the activity is about. Overall, the learners were willing to speak in English.

Lesson five: Ordering food at a restaurant - preparation.

Aims:

Students will have known how to order food at a restaurant
Students will be able to ask and answer questions to a friend on eating and then tell the rest of the class what they found out

Teaching aids: flashcards with various food items (See Appendix N, p. 59), sample restaurant dialogue (See Appendix O, p. 60), a sample restaurant menu (See Appendix P, p. 61), dictionaries.

Procedure:

Engage:

The teacher writes a few questions on the blackboard: How often do you eat out? Do you like eat in restaurants or in bars? how often do you eat fast foods? Have you ever been to a restaurant abroad? Then, learners report to the rest of the class what they found out about their friends. The teacher elicits names of food items by showing the pictures.

Study:

Each student gets a sample restaurant conversation and has some time to read the text. Then, the teacher reads the conversation out loud. The educator tries to elicit from students the meanings of some phrases (Are you ready to order? How was everything?) The teacher writes on the board: I’d like… and I’ll have… and explains that they mean the same. Students work in groups of three and read the scripted dialogue loud.

Activate:

Each group receives a sample restaurant menu and writes a rough draft of the dialogue they are going to role-play during the next lesson. If there is time, learners role-play their own restaurant dialogues.

Lesson six: Ordering food at a restaurant — role-play

Aims:

Students will be able to order food at a restaurant
Students will be able to use and understand the vocabulary on food and expressions used for ordering food

Teaching aids: plastic cups and plates, small candles, table napkins, notepads, aprons for waiters, copies of three different menus (See Appendix Q, p. 62, Appendix R, p. 63 and Appendix T, p. 64).
Procedure:

Study:

Learners practise their sample restaurant conversations they worked on during the previous lesson. Then, waiters are given menus to look at them but they cannot show them to the rest of the group. They are also equipped with aprons and notepads to look like professionals.

Activate:

Students get into their groups and take up roles of customers and waiters. The teacher shortly reminds what ordering food at a restaurant looks like. The teacher had prepared the tables and the equipment before. Students choose a restaurant they want to visit and role-play ordering food. Once students have finished role-playing at their restaurants, they visit another restaurants. Finally, groups role-play ordering food at their chosen restaurant in front of the rest of the class.

Evaluations of lesson five and six:

The first lesson aimed at preparing the students for the role-play which took part during the next lesson. The sample dialogue was very helpful as the students could learn the necessary expressions from them. The colourful flashcards were made in order to arouse the students interest in the topic of food and thanks to them the learners refreshed the names of food items. That time, the students had no problems with understanding the educator’s instructions, as the requests were clear and the students could easily follow them. The learners took part in the lessons actively and throughout the two lessons they were really engaged in the topic. What the participants really enjoyed, were the circumstances in which the activity was conducted, namely, the arrangement of a classroom resembling a real-life restaurant; also props made that exercise more realistic because the students could better play their roles.

CONCLUSIONS

An inspiration for this diploma paper occurred to the teacher when she had preliminary teaching practice in September in lower secondary school. The educator observed that speaking skills are neglected in Polish schools. Most teachers put emphasis on grammar and vocabulary exercises and they forget about so important speaking skills.

The aim of this paper was to examine whether role-play activities develop students’ speaking skills. In order to check it, research in a lower secondary school among sixteen students was carried out.

First of all, the research revealed that implementing role-play activities develops students’ speaking skills. Such a task is more appealing to the learners because they find it funny to play someone else’s role. The majority of the students claimed that they felt that their speaking skills increased. What is interesting, the learners told the teacher that when they used English during an ordinary lesson, some of them felt stressed and intimidated. The teacher also observed that when conducting the research lessons almost all of the students were really involved in the exercises. Compared to the lessons the teacher had with the class before starting the research, during the research lessons, the students tried their best to get into the roles and use only English (although there were always some students who despite being told three times not to use Polish they would continue doing so).
Furthermore, some students claimed that they had overcome their fear of speaking because they had quite much time devoted only to speaking in the target language. To add more, the learners also liked the fact that they could move in the classroom when, for example, visiting travel agencies. Also, working in pairs and groups was appealing to the students, because they could overcome their fear of speaking in front of people with whom they did not have a close relationship.

Altogether, role-play seems be an efficient speaking exercise and teachers should not forget to implement such an exercise from time to time. What the students told the teacher after finishing the last research lesson was that such a type of task had many benefits but having such an exercise during each week might be a little boring and predictable for the students.

References


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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Ankieta dla ucznia

1. Na dzisiejszej lekcji byłem/byłam:
   a) aktywny/a
   b) w ogóle nie uczestniczyłem/łam w zajęciach
   c) trudno określić

2. Czy podobało Ci się ćwiczenie wykonywane na lekcji? (odgrywanie ról)
   a) tak
   b) nie
   c) nie wiem
   Uzasadnij swój wybór w kilku zdaniach:
   ............................................................................................................................
   ............................................................................................................................
   ............................................................................................................................

3. Co Ci się najbardziej podobało podczas dzisiejszej lekcji, a co nie bardzo?
   ............................................................................................................................
   ............................................................................................................................
   ............................................................................................................................

4. Czy ćwiczenie pomogło nabrać Ci pewności w mówieniu?
   a) tak
   b) nie
   c) nie bardzo

5. Podkreśl właściwe słowa/słowo w zdaniu:
   Dzisiejsze zajęcia były interesujące, nudne, nieprzydatne, pożyteczne, bardzo trudne, trudne,
   łatwe, bardzo łatwe.

6. Czy instrukcje nauczyciela były dla Ciebie zrozumiałe? Jeśli nie, dlaczego?
   ............................................................................................................................

Appendix B

An observation sheet for the mentor teacher

1. How many students were involved during the lesson?
   a) all of them
   b) almost all of them
   c) most of them
2. The atmosphere during the lesson was:
   a) stressful
   b) neutral
   c) relaxing

3. Did you observed any difficulties the students might have encountered?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Circle the percentage of the use of L2 during the lesson:
   100 % > 80% > 60% > 40% > 20% >0

5. Your comments and suggestions:
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix C

Ankieta wstępna

Odpowiedz na pytania samodzielnie i szczerze! © Pamiętaj- ankieta jest anonimowa. Twoja opinia będzie dla mnie pomocnym materiałem podczas pisania pracy dyplomowej.

1. W języku angielskim największą trudność sprawia mi:
   a) gramatyka
   b) słuchanie
   c) czytanie
   d) mówienie
   e) pisanie

2. Oceń swoje umiejętności komunikacji w języku angielskim.
   a) 5
   b) 4
   c) 3
   d) 2

3. Rozwijanie zdolności mówienia podczas zajęć jest niezbędna.
   a) Zgadzam się
   b) Nie mam zdania
   c) Nie zgadzam się
4. Czy komunikacja w języku angielskim sprawia Ci trudność?
   a) tak
   b) nie
   c) nie wiem
   d) zależy od tematu rozmowy

5. Co sprawia Ci największą trudność podczas rozmowy w języku angielskim?
   a) wymowa, akcent
   b) brak słownictwa
   c) użycie gramatyki
   d) zrozumienie osoby z którą rozmawiam
   e) komunikacja w języku angielskim nie sprawia mi trudności

6. Czy kiedykolwiek wcielałeś/wcielałaś się w jakąś rolę podczas lekcji języka angielskiego?
   a) tak
   b) nie
   c) nie pamiętam

7. Czy lubisz odgrywać role, wcielać się w inne postacie? Uzasadnij swój wybór.
   a) tak
   b) nie
   c) czasami

8. Czy odgrywanie scenek (np. zamawianie dań w restauracji itp.) byłoby ciekawą formą rozwijania umiejętności mówienia?
   a) tak
   b) nie
   c) trudno powiedzieć

9. Zaproponuj tematy scenek, które chciałbyś/chciałabyś odgrywać na lekcjach:

   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………

   Dziękuję! 😊
Appendix D

Summer holidays in a Polish city – a brochure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation (hotel / hostel / camping):</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist Attractions:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customs:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix E

Rozumienie tekstów pisanych

3 Przeczytaj teksty 1-4 i odpowiedź na pytania. Zaznacz jedną z trzech możliwości: A, B lub C.

1. If you want to enjoy some peace and quiet, and you like hills, lakes and forest, come to the north of Poland. You can start from Suwalski and go cycling around the area, enjoying the clean air, local food and amazing views. The roads may not be the best, but the area is not crowded and relatively cheap.

   In the north of Poland ...
   A. there are a lot of tourists.
   B. the roads are specially prepared for cycling.
   C. there are a lot of different landscapes.

2. Hel Peninsula, which separates the Bay of Puck from the Baltic Sea, is the best place to visit if you want to try out windsurfing or kitesurfing. Of course, you can practise these sports on any lake, or at Krynica Morska, but only at Hel Peninsula, with the shallow waters of the Bay, can beginners learn without stress. Even though the water is quite cold, lots of people go to Chalupy or Jastarnia to try out windsurfing. In these two places, there are numerous camp sites and surf schools, which offer the opportunity to not only learn with experienced instructors, but also have fun and meet new people.

   Hel Peninsula is a good place to learn windsurfing and kitesurfing because ...
   A. the water is not so cold.
   B. the water in the Bay isn’t deep.
   C. it’s the only place in Poland where you can try out these sports.
Adapted from the students' course book Voices 3.
Appendix F

Example dialogue - at a travel agency

T- travel agent    C- customer

T: Good afternoon. How can I help you?
C: Hello! I would like to go on a trip to a Polish city.
T: Great! Where would you like to go?
C: I don’t know… What can you recommend (me)?
T: I recommend Poznań.
C: What is Poznań famous for?

…. (questions)

C: Could you tell me more about the hotel?
T: It is a five-star hotel, there is a pool…
C: Is the hotel in the centre of Poznań?
T: Yes…
…
C: Thanks for the information. I’ll think about it.
T: You’re welcome.


Appendix G

Useful expressions:

>What is the weather like in….?  
>What can I do there? 
>What is it famous for? 
>Can you tell me more about…?  
>Are there any special customs? 
>Is there anything else to do? 
>I will think about it. 
>high price/ low price 
>a five-star hotel- hotel 5-cio gwiazdkowy 
>by car/ by air/ by train- samochodem, samolotem, pociągiem

Appendix H

Role card 1 – a son/daughter

Role 1: a son/daughter:

- imagine that you want **to go to a concert** or at a summer **music festival** i.e. Woodstock
- **try to persuade** your parent that the concert/summer festival is safe and nothing dangerous can happen to you

- what concert?
- the date
- accommodation
- say that all your friends got the permission >zgoda/pozwolenie
- say what you are willing to do to get the permission

Appendix I

Role card 2 – a mum/dad

Role 2: a mum/dad:

- your son/daughter wants to go on a concert or at a summer music festival
- try to **make him/her resign** from the idea
Appendix J

Reading

Negotiate with your parents!

There’s a party tonight and you want to stay out late. Here’s a typical conversation you might have:

Girl: Dad, what time do I have to be in tonight?
Dad: Not too late! Ask your mother...
Girl: Mum, can I stay at the party until twelve o’clock? Jane doesn’t have to be home until then. I asked Dad and he said it’s fine.
Mum: No way! You must be home by eleven! That’s late enough.
Girl: Oh, Mum, it’s not fair! I’ll look stupid if I have to go home so early. Do I have to leave at eleven?
Mum: You must be here by eleven!
Girl: But I won’t have time for anything if I have to leave so early!
Mum: And what exactly do you need time for?
Girl: Oh, Mum, please! I’ll do anything! I promise I’ll tidy my room and do the vacuuming for a whole month! I’ll do anything you say!
Mum: No, and that’s my final word.
Girl: But why?
Mum: Because I say so!

1. Before reading the text, answer the questions below.
   1. What time do you have to return home in the evening?
   2. Is it the same for your brothers and sisters?
   3. Do you ever argue with your parents about this?

2. Read and listen. Choose the best summary of the text: a, b or c.
   a) It’s an argument about household chores.
   b) It’s a discussion about staying out late.
   c) It’s a conversation about a party they all went to.

3. Words in context: Find words 1–6 in the text and match them with the correct definitions a–f.
   1. stay out late
   2. to be in
   3. final word
   4. Because I say so!
   5. to get your own way
   6. build trust
   a) the last and definite decision
   b) to be out of home late in the evening or at night
   c) to achieve your personal objective
   d) to develop a feeling of confidence
   e) ‘My decision is final.’
   f) to arrive home

4. Read the text again and decide if the sentences are true (T) or false (F). Find evidence in the text.
   1. The girl wants to have a party at home. T
   2. First she talks to her mum. T
   3. The girl asks if she can come home at midnight. F
   4. Her mum says she must be home by eleven o’clock. F
   5. The girl promises to do the ironing for a month. F
   6. The author says you should never introduce your friends to your parents. F

Follow these rules:
1. The first few times you want to stay out late, don’t! You have to build their trust slowly.
2. Talk to your parents when you get home. Tell them about your evening (well, not everything...).
3. Introduce your friends. Choose the most normal friends you’ve got!
4. Organise your transport home. Then they won’t worry so much.

Good luck!

Adapted from the students’ course book Voices 3.
Appendix K

Role card 1 - a son/daughter

Role 1: a son/daughter
- imagine you are addicted to something
- try to persuade your mum/ dad that your addiction is not so bad

Appendix L

Role card 2 - a mum/dad

Role 2: a mum/dad
- your son is addicted to something
- try to make him/her resign from the addiction
- tell her/him about the dangers connected with the addiction
Appendix M

Adapted from the students’ course book *Voices 3*
Appendix N

Adapted from: http://en.islcollective.com/resources/printables_page?id=15608 (and adapted by the teacher).
Appendix O

At a restaurant- a sample dialogue

Waiter: Welcome to Antico’s. Here are your menu. Today’s special is grilled salmon. I’ll be back to take your order in a minute.

Waiter: Are you ready to order?

Customer 1: I’d like the seafood spaghetti.

Waiter: And you?

Customer 2: I’ll have Caesar salad and well done steak.

Waiter: Would you like anything to drink?

Customer 1: I’ll have a glass of wine, please.

Waiter: And for you?

Customer 2: Just water, please.

Waiter: OK. So that’s one seafood spaghetti, one Caesar salad and well done steak, one wine, and one water. I’ll take your menu.

Waiter: Here is your food. Enjoy your meal.

Waiter: How was everything?

Customers 2: Delicious, thanks.

Waiter: Would you like anything for dessert?

Customer 1: No, just the bill please.

Adapted from http://www.eu-languages-research.com/home/Teachers%20Sheet/Food.htm and adapted by the teacher.
Appendix P

A restaurant menu

Appendix Q

DISHES:
- Veggie pizza: $5
- Spaghetti bolognese: $7
- Lasagne: $6
- Mediterranean pizza: $7.50
- Ham and cheese pizza: $8.20

SIDE DISHES:
- Tomato salad: $2
- Spring salad: $4
- Olives: $1.50

DRINKS:
- Red wine: $10.00
- White wine: $10.25
- Juice: $1.50
- Cola: $1.00

Adapted from http://en.islcollective.com/resources/printables_page?id=275
## Appendix R

**My Croatia**

**DISHES:**
- Stuffed peppers: $5
- Sarma: $7
- Fish soup: $6
- Roast Turkey: $9

**SIDE DISHES:**
- Mashed potatoes: $2
- Mlinci: $4
- Season salad: $1.50

**DRINKS:**
- Red wine: $10.00
- White wine: $10.25
- Juice: $1.50
- Cola: $1.00
- Coffee: $2.00

*Adapted from [http://en.islcollective.com/resources/printables_page?id=275](http://en.islcollective.com/resources/printables_page?id=275)*
Appendix S

Joe's burgers

BURGERS:
- Veggie burger: $5
- Turkey burger: $7
- Pork burger: $6
- Chicken de luxe: $7.50
- Ham and cheese: $8.20

SIDE DISHES:
- French fries: $2
- Spring salad: $4
- Onion rings: $1.50

DRINKS:
- Coffee: $1.00
- Milk: $1.25
- Juice: $1.50
- Cola: $1.00

Adapted from http://en.islcollective.com/resources/printables_page?id=275