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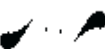
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## Enhancing EFL Learners' Speaking Accuracy and Fluency Through Using Pictorial Input

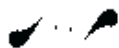
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### Abstract

Second language acquisition (SLA) has been affected by many internal as well as external factors. Among them, the language input that learners receive in SLA is one of the external factors which plays a fundamental role. Considering the vital role of input, this study examined the effect of pictorial input on Iranian elementary EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency. To do this study, 54 Iranian elementary EFL learners were selected among 80 students at a private English Language Institute. Then, the selected participants were divided into two equal groups; experimental group and control group. After that, both groups were pretested by a speaking pre-test. Then, both groups received the treatment. The experimental group was taught through using the pre-speaking strategies; the researcher provided the students with pictorial inputs. On the other hand, the students of the control group were taught through traditional speaking activities including repetition and over-learning. The treatment took 15 sessions of 50 minutes each under the guidance of the supervisor. In the first session, the participants were homogenized. In the second session, the students were pretested. During 11 sessions, the students were taught by using pictorial input, and in the last session the two groups took the speaking post-test. After the treatment, both experimental groups took the post-test of speaking. The results of paired t-test and MANOVA revealed that the experimental group had better performance on their accuracy and fluency post-test compared to their pre-test. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the performances of the experimental and control group on the accuracy and fluency post-test. Finally, implications arising from the findings and suggestions for further research were explained.

**Key words:** Accuracy, Fluency, Speaking skill, Pictorial input



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## **Introduction**

Learning a foreign language is a complex process, which must not necessarily be connected with a classroom and a teacher. Most definitions of learning describe it as a conscious process of internalization of new facts, retention of information or skill, gained mostly through formal instruction.

One of the main concerns of language learners is how to improve their speaking proficiency in general and different components of speaking proficiency such as fluency, accuracy, accent, vocabulary, comprehension, and communication in particular.

Speaking is a crucial part in foreign/second language teaching-learning. It has occupied a significant and delicate rank all the way through the history of language teaching, despite its importance teaching speaking has been undervalued and just in the last two decades that it wins its right to be an independent branch of teaching, learning and testing (Bygate, 2003; Namaziandost, & Nasri, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2019). Different notions have been given concerning the definition of speaking skill; according to the Oxford Dictionary of Current English (2009) speaking is “the action of conveying information or expressing ones’ thoughts and feelings in spoken languages (p. 414)”. However, Brown (1994) considers speaking as “an interactive process of constructing, receiving and processing information,” whereas Chaney (1998) notes that speaking is “the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal or non-verbal symbols in a variety of contexts (p. 13)”.

In English language teaching and learning, speaking is considered as a skill that has to be practiced and mastered (Namaziandost & Ahmadi, 2019; Shohib, 2011). It is regarded by the learners as the measure of knowing a language and the most important skill they can acquire; because they assess their progress in the terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication (Burkart, 1998). Speaking a language is especially difficult for foreign language learners because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions as stated by Mackey (1978) “speaking is the most complex of linguistics skill, since it thinking of what is to be said while saying what has been thought (p. 263)”.

One good method to improve EFL learners’ speaking skill is using strategies-based instruction. Strategies-based instruction has a number of possible manifestations in the classroom (Brown, 2000; Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, Nasri, & Mirshekaran, 2018). Strategies-based Instruction is the application of both learning and communication strategies to classroom learning (Cohen, 1998 in Brown 2000, p 130). Cohen (1998) states that the underlying premise of the strategies-based instruction is that students should be given the opportunity to understand not only what they can learn in the language classroom, but also how they can learn the language more effectively and efficiently. Research seems to suggest that there is a wide variety of strategies that learners can use to meet their language learning and using needs (online) (Nasri, Biria, & Karimi, 2018).

An important component of language programs is that of speaking strategies. According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990), speaking strategies are important as they help learners “in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language” (p. 43). Therefore, classrooms should support the use of spoken language and provide a place where strategic speaking is valued. By assigning speaking tasks, language instructors

can help learners use strategies for effective communication (Nasri & Biria, 2017). These strategies may appear at three stages in task performance for (1) getting prepared for upcoming speaking tasks, (2) monitoring language input and output, and (3) evaluating or reflecting back on the task.

Pictorial cues are one the strategies which can help the teachers to warm up the students and provide them with background knowledge before starting to teach the lesson (Azadi, Biria, & Nasri, 2018). According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, cues are defined as charts, posters, pictures or images that help to make a point or enhance a presentation. They can be films, slides, charts, and other devices involving the sense of sight (other than books), used in teaching, illustrating lectures, etc. (Hosseini, Nasri, & Afghari, 2017; Wehmeier, 2000). Moreover, pictorial cues are something you look at (such as a chart or film) that is used to make something easier to understand, and also, they are instructional device (as a chart, map, or model) that appeals chiefly to vision.

### **Objectives and Significance of the Study**

This study aimed to help Iranian EFL learners to develop their speaking skill through strategy-based instruction. Therefore, the main objective of the current research was to investigate the possible effects of using pictorial input as a pre-speaking strategy on EFL learners' speaking fluency and accuracy at the elementary level.

This study is significant since it provides some implications both for English teachers and learners to improve their speaking skill by using pre-speaking strategies. In pre-speaking strategies, the teacher introduces the topic and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do at the task stage and might help the students to recall some language that may be useful for the task. The pre-speaking strategies can also familiarize the students with the target topics. This gives the students a clear model of what will be expected of them. The students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task. The findings of the current research can help the teachers to provide their learners with more background knowledge. The findings of the study would help to influence the Ministry of Education to take into account the importance of implementing the pre-speaking strategy instruction and to provide teachers with pre- and in-service training in using pre-task activities.

### **Research Questions and Null Hypotheses**

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

**RQ 1:** Does using pictorial input have any significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' speaking accuracy?

**RQ 2:** Does using pictorial input have any significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' speaking fluency?

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

**HO 1.** Using pictorial input does not have any significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' speaking accuracy.

**HO 2.** Using pictorial input does not have any significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' speaking fluency.

### **Review of the Literature**

Speaking is a basic skill that language learners should master with the other language skills. It is defined as a complex process of sending and receiving messages through the use of verbal expressions, but it also involves non-verbal symbols such as gestures and facial expressions. Harmer (2001) defined speaking as a skill by which people are judged while first impressions are being formed. To speak the foreign language fluently and accurately, learners need to be able to know some elements which are very important to develop this skill. Harmer (2001) mentions these elements which refer to the language features that learners should have knowledge about. In addition to the processes of the language and information in the same time when an interlocutor interacts with them. The researcher tries to give more understanding about the elements of speaking namely; knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, fluency and also attitude. These are the main core of speaking that have to be learned by the learner who are willing to learn foreign language (Namaziandost, Nasri, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2019).

In recent teaching context, a lot of attention has been paid to design activities which focus more on tasks that are balanced between the need to achieve fluency and accuracy. These criteria are also based upon in the assessment of the oral skills. In the task-based approach, fluency and accuracy are of the main characteristics of this approach, and they are seen as complementary in accomplishing a given task (Namaziandost, Abedi, & Nasri, 2019). Although Richards and Rodgers (2001) mentioned that "fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: Accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context", and this is an obvious point since the emphasis of TBLT is on the communicative process between learners or teachers-learners, rather than mastery of the language forms.

Many questions have been raised about the role of accuracy in TBLT theory. Lee (2000) made the important point that "The Task based approach somehow excuses teachers and learners from a consideration of how to develop high levels of accuracy in the use of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary" (p, 61). Learners, should develop a communicative competence through classroom practice; however, simultaneously they should know how the language system works in a correct and appropriate way (Namaziandost, Abedi, & Nasri, 2019).

If someone wants to learn a foreign language, he will obviously meet with all kinds of learning problems. Dalley (2009) defined that these difficulties have to do with the learning of the new sound system, the new of vocabulary items, and the learning of the unfamiliar ways of arranging the foreign words into sentences. In learning a foreign language, the researcher explains that the student will meet the difficulties in his learning process may be easily understood. Since childhood, he has been speaking in mother tongue, which has been deeply implanted in him as part of his habit. Therefore, it will be difficult for him to sounds or to produce the foreign sound.

In strategies-based instruction, teachers may start with the established course materials and then insert strategies, or start with a set of strategies and design activities around them or insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons when appropriate (Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1995) outline a sequence for the introduction of strategies that emphasize explicit strategy awareness, discussion of the benefits of strategy use, functional and contextualized practice with the strategies, self-evaluation and monitoring of language performance, and suggestions for or demonstrations of the transferability of the strategies to new language tasks (Mirshekaran, Namaziandost, & Nazari, 2018).

The steps are (1) Language activity: ask learners to do a language activity without any

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strategy instruction; (2) Discussion of strategy use: have them discuss how they did it, praise any useful strategies and self-directed attitudes that they mention, and ask them to reflect on how the strategies they selected may have facilitated the learning process; (3) Suggestions for complementing strategy repertoire: suggest and demonstrate other helpful strategies, mentioning the need for greater self-direction and expected benefits, and making sure that the students are aware of the rationale for strategy use. Learners can also be asked to identify those strategies that they do not currently use, and consider ways that they could include new strategies in their learning repertoires; (4) Strategy practice: allow learners plenty of time to practice the new strategies with language tasks; (5) Strategy transfer: show how the strategies can be transferred to other tasks; (6) Strategy practice with new tasks: provide practice using the techniques with new tasks and allow learners to make choices about the strategy they will use to complete the language learning task; and (7) Evaluating strategy use: help students understand how to evaluate the success of their strategy use and to gauge their progress as more responsible and self-directed learners (Chamot, 2005; Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, & Sepehri, 2018).

Strategies-based instruction activities are designed to raise awareness about strategies, to train students in strategy use, to give them opportunities to practice strategy usage and to encourage them to personalize these strategies for themselves. Teachers also allow students to choose their own strategies and do so spontaneously, without continued prompting from the language teacher (Cohen *et al.*, 1995; Namaziandost, Sabzevari, & Hashemifardnia, 2018).

According to Webster's dictionary, a "cue" is "any sound, word, or action that signals an action; a guiding hint or suggestion." Delivering cues to your students, both verbally and non-verbally, will aid them in understanding the message you are trying to explain. Context clues are hints that an author gives to help define a difficult or unusual word. The clue may appear within the same sentence as the word to which it refers, or it may follow in a preceding sentence (Namaziandost & Shafiee, 2018; Wehmeier, 2000). Because most of one's vocabulary is gained through reading, it is important that you be able to recognize and take advantage of context clues. There are at least four kinds of context clues that are quite common: 1) a *synonym* (or repeat context clue) which appears in that sentence; 2) an *antonym* (or contrast context clue) that has the opposite meaning, which can reveal the meaning of an unknown term; 3) an explanation for an unknown word is given (a definition context clue) within the sentence or in the sentence immediately preceding; and 4) specific examples (an example context clue) used to define the term.

There may also be word-part context clues in which a common prefix, suffix, or root will suggest at least part of the meaning of a word. A general sense context clue lets the reader puzzle out a word meaning from whatever information is available - and this is the most common kind of context clue. Others describe context clues in three ways: 1) semantic or meaning clues, e.g., When reading a story about cats, good readers develop the expectation that it will contain words associated with cats, such as "tail," "purr," "scratch," and "whiskers"; 2) syntactic or word order clues where the order of the words in a sentence can indicate that a missing word must be (for example, a verb); and 3) picture clues where illustrations help with the identification of a word (Wehmeier, 2000).

Gaillard (2013) examined the impact of three different planning conditions, namely no

planning, solitary planning and Thompson's teacher-led planning, or Prelude to Conversation, on the fluency (measured through total duration of the speech sample, words per minute, and pauses per minute), complexity (measured through the words per utterance), accuracy (measured through the percentage of errors), and anxiety level (measured through anxiety scales) of 37 students performing short speaking tasks. Subjects were all enrolled in first semester French classes and were divided into three groups that rotated through the three planning conditions, each group starting with a different planning type in the cycle. Each week, the speaking task was common across all subjects, but depending on the group, the treatment was different. Their performance level during the speaking task and their anxiety level were compared for each treatment. Results show that planning has an impact on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy of the students but not on their anxiety level. Findings also show that pre-speaking has a more positive influence on the quality and the quantity of production of the students than solitary planning and no planning. Task and pre-task anxiety influenced the anxiety level of the students, demonstrating the role that specific tasks can have on student performance no matter how teachers try to prepare them for the tasks. Results also suggest that more personal-oriented tasks, e.g., student schedules, will elicit better responses than more outward-oriented tasks, e.g., school systems, cultural differences.

Moradi and Talebi (2014) attempted to find out if pre speaking strategies instruction in strategic planning has any effects on Iranian EFL students' use of pre- speaking strategies as well as their fluency and lexical resources. Two groups of control and experimental were given a picture- cued narrative task to think and speak about it, and then a pre-speaking strategies questionnaire as pre- and post-tests. The experimental group received pre-speaking strategies instruction in strategic planning with ten minutes of planning time. Data analysis showed the experimental group outperformed the control group. Therefore, for effective speaking, strategic planning should be coupled with pre- speaking strategies.

## **Method**

### **Participants**

The participants of this study were 54 Iranian elementary students who were selected among 80 students at a private English language institute. The participants' age range was from 12 to 13. Their level of English language proficiency was determined on the basis of their scores on the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). Only females were participated in the current study. The participants' first language was Persian and they were selected based on random sampling. The participants were randomly divided into two equal groups of 27; one control group and one experimental group.

### **Instruments**

The first instrument which was used in the present study to homogenize the participants is the OQPT. It helped the researcher to have a greater understanding of what level (i.e., elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate) her participants were at. According to this test, the learners whose band score is between 1-17 (out of 60) are considered as the beginner learners.

The second and the most important instrument for gathering information was a researcher-made speaking pre-test. The pre-test included several topics and questions from the learners' textbook (i.e., Let's Go One). The learners were asked to talk about the topics of the units about 5 minute and their speech was recorded for the second rater.

The reliability of the pre-test was calculated through inter-rater reliability by means of Pearson correlation analysis and it was 0.981.

The third instrument was a post-test of speaking. The post-test was similar to the pre-test in form and different on topics. The topics of this test were selected from the textbook mentioned. The difficulty level of the topics was the same in the pre and post-tests. The reliability of the post-test was computed through inter-rater reliability by means of Pearson correlation analysis and it was .894. The pre and post-tests were validated by four English experienced teachers.

The fourth instrument was the speaking checklist (Hughes, 2003). It was used to aid the raters score the participants' speech. The raters scored the participants' speech based on the mentioned speaking checklist.

### **Data Collection Procedure**

To conduct the present study, the researcher attended a private English language institute and gave OQPT to 80 Iranian EFL learners to determine their level of English proficiency. The researcher selected 54 elementary students and divided them into two groups of 27; one control group and one experimental group. Then, both groups were pretested by administering a speaking test. Then, the participants of experimental group received the treatment. Regarding the treatment, the experimental group were taught by using the pre-speaking strategies. The researcher provided the students with pictorial inputs. For example, the researcher prepared some attractive pictures about the topics and showed them to the students before teaching the topic. The researcher required the students to give their comments on the pictures in order to warm up them for the target materials. On the other hand, the students of the control group were taught through traditional speaking activities including repetition and over-learning.

The instruction lasts 15 sessions of 50 minutes. In the first session, the respondents were homogenized and in the next session they were pretested. During 12 sessions, the pre-speaking strategies were trained and in the last session, the two groups took the post-test of speaking. Their speaking performances (speaking 5 minutes on different topics) was recorded and scored by two raters through Hughe's (2003) speaking checklist.

### **Data Analysis Procedure**

The gathered data through the above-mentioned instruments were analyzed and interpreted based on the objectives of the study. Firstly, in order to check the normality of the data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was used. Then, paired samples t-test and MANOVA was used to find out the impacts of the treatment on Iranian EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency.

## **Results**

Before conducting any analyses on the pretest, and posttest, it was necessary to check the normality of the distributions. Thus, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was run on the data obtained from the above-mentioned tests. The results are shown in Table 1:

**Table 1. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (Groups' Pre and Post-tests)**

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
EG. AC. Pretest	.18	27	.06
EG. AC. Posttest	.19	27	.11
CG. AC. Pretest	.20	27	.09
CG. AC. Posttest	.17	27	.13
EG. FL. Pretest	.21	27	.12
EG. FL. Posttest	.17	27	.07
CG. FL. Pretest	.18	27	.06
CG. FL. Posttest	.20	27	.08

Note. EG: Experimental Group; CG: Control Group; AC: Accuracy; FL: Fluency

The *p* values under the *Sig.* column in Table 1 determine whether the distributions were normal or not. A *p* value greater than .05 shows a normal distribution, while a *p* value lower than .05 indicates that the distribution has not been normal. Since all the *p* values in Table 1 were larger than .05, it could be concluded that the distributions of scores for the accuracy pretest, accuracy posttest, fluency pretest, and fluency posttest obtained from EG and CG learners had been normal. It is thus safe to proceed with parametric test (i.e. paired samples t-test and MANOVA in this case) and make further comparisons between the participating groups.

To compare the pretest and posttest scores of the EG and CG learners with respect to speaking accuracy and fluency, one-way MANOVA was utilized. This statistical test is used when there is one independent variable (in this case, the use of Pictorial Input, which surfaces as the experimental vs. control groups), and two or more related dependent variables (fluency and accuracy in this case) which are subcomponents of speaking in this study. Tables 2 and 3 deal with comparing the EG and CG learners on the pretest of speaking accuracy and fluency:

**Table 2. Descriptive Statistics Results Comparing EG and CG on Speaking accuracy and fluency Scores of the Pretest**

	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AC. Pre	EG	11.42	1.21	27
	CG	12.12	1.96	27
	Total	11.77	1.65	54
FL. Pre	EG	11.25	.75	27
	CG	11.61	1.16	27
	Total	11.43	.98	54

The pretest means scores of the EG and CG for fluency and accuracy are shown in Table 2. There were minimal differences between the mean scores of the two groups on both the subcomponents of speaking. To make sure whether the differences were of statistical significance or not, the researcher had to refer to the MANOVA table below (Table 3):



**Table 3. MANOVA Results Comparing EG and CG on Speaking accuracy and fluency Scores of the Pretest**

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Groups	Pillai's Trace	.08	2.44	2.00	51.00	.09	.08
	Wilks' Lambda	.91	2.44	2.00	51.00	.09	.08
	Hotelling's Trace	.09	2.44	2.00	51.00	.09	.08
	Roy's Largest Root	.09	2.44	2.00	51.00	.09	.08

Since the most commonly reported statistics is Wilk's Lambda, here the value for this statistic is reported (.91). The Wilk's Lambda's associated *Sig.* value was found to be .09, which is larger than the significance level (i.e.,  $.09 > .05$ ). This shows that the two groups of EG and CG were not significantly different on their pretest in terms of (the two subcomponents of) speaking. What follows is the results of a similar data analysis procedure performed for the speaking accuracy and fluency posttest scores of the EG and CG. Any possible changes on the posttest could be attributed to the treatment provided for the EG (that is, using the Pictorial Input).

**Table 4. Descriptive Statistics Results Comparing EG and CG on Speaking accuracy and fluency Scores of the Posttest**

	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AC. Post	EG	16.85	1.09	27
	CG	12.53	1.78	27
	Total	14.69	2.62	54
FL. Post	EG	16.14	1.14	27
	CG	12.24	1.32	27
	Total	14.19	2.32	54

The posttest mean score of the EG and CG for fluency and accuracy as shown in Table 4, were different from one another. However, to find out whether these differences were statistically significant or not, the researcher needed to consult to the MANOVA table below (Table 5):

**Table 5. MANOVA Results Comparing EG and CG on Speaking accuracy and fluency Scores of the posttest**

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Groups	Pillai's Trace	.81	110.30	2.00	51.00	.00	.81
	Wilks' Lambda	.18	110.30	2.00	51.00	.00	.81
	Hotelling's Trace	4.32	110.30	2.00	51.00	.00	.81
	Roy's Largest Root	4.32	110.30	2.00	51.00	.00	.81

The Wilk's Lambda's associated *Sig.* value was .00, which is lower than the significance level ( $.00 < .05$ ). A *p* value less than or equal to the significance level shows that there was a significant difference between the two groups. Thus, the two groups of EG and CG were significantly different on their posttest in terms of the accuracy and fluency variables of speaking.

To find out whether the difference between the fluency and accuracy pretest and posttest scores of the EG and CG learners was statistically significant or not, the researcher had to examine the paired-samples *t* test table (Table 6):

**Table 6. Results of Paired-Samples t Test Comparing the accuracy and fluency Pretest and Posttest Scores of the EG and CG Learners**

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	EG. AC. Post – EG. AC. Pre	5.42	1.74	.33	16.19	26	.00
Pair 2	CG. AC. Post – CG. AC. Pre	.40	1.18	.22	1.78	26	.08
Pair 3	EG. FL. Post – EG. FL. Pre	4.88	1.53	.29	16.56	26	.00
Pair 4	CG. FL. Post – CG. FL. Pre	.62	1.77	.34	1.84	26	.07

Since the *p* value under the *Sig.* (2-tailed) column in Table 6 was smaller than the significance level ( $.00 < .05$ ), it could be understood that the difference between the accuracy pretest ( $M = 11.42$ ) and accuracy posttest ( $M = 16.85$ ) of the EG learners was statistically significant. Moreover, as the *p* value under the *Sig.* (2-tailed) column in Table 6 was smaller than the significance level ( $.00 < .05$ ), it could be construed that the difference between the fluency pretest ( $M = 11.25$ ) and fluency posttest ( $M = 16.14$ ) of the EG learners was of statistical significance. Regarding the control group, the difference between accuracy pretest and accuracy posttest as well as the difference between fluency pretest and fluency posttest is not significant ( $.08$  and  $.07 > .05$ ). Thus, the researcher made a conclusion that using pictorial input in the experimental group's classroom affected both speaking accuracy and fluency positively. Therefore, both null hypotheses of this study are rejected.

### Discussion and conclusion

After collecting the data, the researcher analyzed them in order to find out the effectiveness of the treatment on the students' speaking accuracy and fluency. The findings showed that the students who received the instruction through pictorial input had better performance on their post-test compared their pre-test. The results statistically revealed that pictorial input group significantly did better on the fluency and accuracy post-test ( $p < .05$ ). Therefore, both null hypotheses of the study were rejected. In fact, the experimental group gained higher scores on their post-test. This may be due to some appealing features the pictures have. It can be claimed that pictures are very useful tools which can help the students speak English language more accurately and fluently. There are many reasons for using pictures in language teaching. As Wright (1990) pointed out, they are motivating and draw learners' attention. the fact that they provide a sense of the context of the language and give specific reference point or stimulus. Based on the findings, teaching English speaking through pictures was more effective than audio-visuals aids. One reason of this may be the attractiveness of pictures for young learners the other may be that pictures have a more permanent effect on learners (Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019). The other reason may refer to the fact that Iranian teachers use colorful pictures less than audio-visual aids thus; it was interesting for younger learners to be taught through picture presentation. Pictures are those kinds of visual instruction materials that can be used more effectively to develop and sustain motivation in producing positive attitudes towards English and to teach or reinforce language skills. Teachers felt that pictures attract the pupils' attention and deepen their understanding of words; teachers also felt that when pupils associate new words with a picture, they find it, easier to remember the meaning of the word. These positive views about the role of pictures in teaching speaking reflect those mentioned in the literature review earlier (e.g. Harmer, 2001; Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019). As Hill (1990) pointed out, the standard classroom is usually not a very suitable environment for

learning languages. That is why teachers search for various aids and stimuli to improve this situation. Pictures are one of these valuable aids which bring “images of reality into the unnatural world of the language classroom.” (Hill, 1990 p. 1) Pictures bring not only images of reality, but can also function as a fun element in the class. Sometimes it is surprising, how pictures may change a lesson, even if only employed in additional exercises or just to create the atmosphere. Pictures meet with a wide range of use not only in acquiring speaking, but also in many other aspects of foreign language teaching. Wright (1990) demonstrated this fact on an example, where he used one compiled picture and illustrated the possibility of use in five very different language areas. His example shows employing pictures in teaching structure, speaking, functions, situations and all four skills can be very effective. Furthermore, he pointed out that “potential of pictures is so great that only a taste of their full potential can be given” in his book. (Wright 1990, p. 6) To be more specific, beside lessons where pictures are in the main focus, they might be used just as a “stimulus for writing and discussion, as an illustration of something being read or talked about, as background to a topic and so on” (Hill, 1990 p. 2). Pictures, being suitable for any group of learners independently on age or level can be used in lots of various ways. As Hill (1990 p. 2) stated, “What is done is limited only by the preparation time available, the visuals to hand and the imagination of the individual teacher.”

The results of this study are in contrast with Heidari and Araghi (2015) who investigated the effects of pictures and songs on vocabulary learning. One pre-test was administered before the study and one post-test after program for measuring the effectiveness of the treatments. The results were analyzed by SPSS indicated that clustering is more effective than pictures; this was so because the words which are interrelated in their meaning reinforce the learning and recalling of the other. It can be said that through using clusters of words the relevant schema is activated in effective manner.

Moreover, the findings of this study are supported by Baralaei and Najmabadi (2015) who examined the effect of images on Iranian EFL learners' retention of vocabulary. The experimental group received instruction with images, whereas the control group taught the same lessons but the instruction was informed of giving text and definition. At the end of the treatment, a post-test was administered and the results indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups. In fact, images had positive effects on improving Iranian EFL learners' retention of vocabulary.

The first conclusion to be drawn from this study is that the using pictures is beneficial to EFL students. The result of this study also showed that using pictorial input had a positive effect on the speaking accuracy and fluency of language learners. Pictures improved Iranian EFL students' speaking skill and also helped them to speak more fluently and accurately than the traditional methods. Those students who were instructed through pictures could speak more fluently and accurately after the treatment.

The followings are pedagogical implications from the writer for model of teaching speaking by using pictures for elementary students, that there are so many approaching type and method that can be developed by teachers for having a good and enjoyable class situation to reach out the curriculum target.

The teacher should choose the technique and materials that are appropriate with the students. needs and experiences so the class atmosphere becomes enjoyable and interesting. 2. The teacher should give short, clear and simple instruction. 3. The teacher

should keep in control the students' activities. 4. The teacher should present the language in an enjoyable and relaxed way. It could be done by using pictures, songs, games etc. 5. The teacher should creative and active to find various methods to teach the beginner students

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