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**The Effect of the Cooperative Learning Method on Developing the EFL
Learners’ Speaking Skill**

*The case of First-year undergraduate students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben
Yahia University*

**Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English in Candidacy for the
Degree of Doctorat “Es- Sciences” in Applied Linguistics**

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Dedication

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ABSTRACT

The study attempts to probe the efficacy of the cooperative learning method in developing the speaking skill. Based on the general hypothesis that cooperative learning may bring about positive outcomes in advancing speaking accuracy, fluency, and complexity, this study was conducted through a mixed-method research design. Two quantitative data collection instruments were used. First, a questionnaire was submitted to 69 out of 258 first-year undergraduate students majoring in English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University of Jijel to inspect the participants' attitudes towards learning the speaking skill via cooperative learning and to unveil how this method's tenets are applied. Second, the quasi-experimental study (non-equivalent pretest-posttest group design) was used to investigate the impact of the cooperative learning method on a sample of 49 participants' oral performance. In addition, focus group discussions were conducted with 23 participants to account for the merits and shortcomings of the method applied in oral skill classes. The research findings disclosed the participants' high appreciation for and readiness to cooperate while performing orally though such practices were not fully cooperative. More importantly, the results confirmed the hypotheses as the tests revealed a high statistically significant difference in the performance of both groups in favour of the experimental group in the three speaking features (accuracy, fluency and complexity). Being over-controlled by some peers in groups and prone to mockery were the most negative factors experienced in the treatment. Contrariwise, the method was deemed powerful in enhancing some language components, psychological and social aspects. In the light of these results, some pedagogical recommendations and suggestions are put forward.

Keywords: Cooperative learning method, speaking skill, accuracy, fluency, complexity

List of Abbreviations

- AS-Unit:** Analysis of Speech Unit
- BAC:** Bacculaureate Exam
- C.G:** Control Group
- CC:** Constructive Controversy
- CL:** Cooperative Learning
- CLL:** Cooperative Language Learning
- CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching
- EFC:** Error-Free Clauses
- EFL:** English as a Foreign Language
- ESL:** English as a Second Language
- EX.G:** Experimental Group
- FL:** Foreign language
- FLCAS:** Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
- GI:** Group Investigation.
- GTM:** Grammar Translation Method
- ISGS:** Interpersonal and Small Group Skills
- L1:** First language
- L2:** Second Language
- LMD:** Licence-Master-Doctorat
- LT:** Learning Together.
- NNSs:** Non-Native Speakers
- NPR:** Noun Pronoun Reference
- OE:** Oral Expression
- SLA:** Second Language Acquisition

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SS: Sentence Structure

STAD: Student Teams-Achievements Division

STD: Standard Deviation

STD: Standard Deviations

SVA: Subject Verb Agreement

TAI: Team Assisted Individualization

TBLT: Task-Based Language Teaching

TGT: Teams-Games-Tournament

TPS: Timed Pair Share

Vs: Versus

WCR: Weighted Clause Ratio

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

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1. Background of the Study

Cooperative learning is part of a wide paradigm shift witnessed in education (Johnson, Johnson, Holubec, 1994, p.101). Grounded on the assumptions that knowledge ought to be transferred from teacher to learners, considering learners as empty-vessels in the learning process and prioritising competition among individuals, the old teaching paradigm was eventually revolutionised. Put differently, the shift in the new teaching methodologies and practices came as a reaction to the conventional principles viewing learners as passive proponents in the learning context. Innovations in education started to put learners at the forefront of classroom practices by involving them more in the learning process, stimulating them more to discover and expand their knowledge and competencies, reconsidering the social relations established in classrooms and above all appreciating cooperation over competition (Johnson et al., 1994, p.103).

In the context of English as a Second or a Foreign language (ESL/EFL), inclination towards establishing more communicative classrooms, encouraging engagement, risk-taking and attempting to generate genuine interaction made educationists and practitioners resort to group activities (McCafferty, Jacob and DaSylva Iddings, 2006, p.3). Thus, group instruction was perceived as an integration to the Communication Language Teaching. Though advantageous the group work strategy seems to be as it increases learners' opportunities to practise the target language, creates a positive atmosphere in the classroom, and enhances learners' autonomy (Brown, 2001), problems in implementing it may arise including learners' reluctance to participate, inability to deal with peers, and passivity in doing tasks (McCafferty, 2006, p.3).

Came as a response to the obstacles faced when applying group work in the classroom, cooperative learning has started to gain interests in the educational field since the 1970s.

Nothing is new and magical about using group work if cooperation is not established. Traditional language classroom always set learners in groups to perform tasks. However, no cooperation takes place due to individuals' ethos and competition incentives (Jolliffe, 2007, p.4). Hence, what turns an ordinary group to become a thriving cooperative group is to work together to accomplish shared goals (Jolliffe, 2007, p.4).

The new demanding era of globalisation urged learners worldwide to make a bid for speaking English fluently as it is reckoned to be the language of technology, science and global communication emerging from social media. As confirmed by Ur (2009), "of all the four language skills, speaking seems intuitively the most important" (p.120). Orally communicating in English fluently today paves the way for the learners to get more opportunities for getting jobs, running businesses, convey messages fittingly. In the same vein, Thornbury (2005) stressed that: "speaking is so much a part of daily life that we take it for granted" (p.1). Moreover, speaking, as highlighted by Hedge (2000), is a criterion upon which individuals are judged, she worded: "it is a skill by which they are judged while first impressions are being formed" (p.261). Hence, demonstrating the ability to communicate effectively in English is a well-established goal in English language teaching in contemporary classrooms (Hedge, 2000, p.44).

Nonetheless, learning to speak the language competently is not a trouble-free task, as learners' abilities to integrate many components, of which grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary, are overtly revealed. This fact urged researchers, teachers and coursebook designers to contemplate designing language activities meant principally for enhancing fluency and accuracy. With the advent of the communicative approaches, new orientations as to teach speaking came into the scene. A tendency to teach this productive skill in a less controlled way and to make speaking classes learner-centred was watershed for generating

new syllabi to instruct oral communication in English as a foreign/second language classrooms. In the words of Hedge (2000):

teachers have been concerned to ensure that students not only practise speaking in a controlled way in order to produce features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and structure accurately, but also practise using these features more freely in purposeful communication. It has therefore become usual to include both accuracy- and fluency based activities. (p.261)

Thus, teaching speaking becomes no more about instructing language components for later accurate use. With the introduction of the communicative approaches, the aim of teaching speaking went far beyond ensuring accuracy solely. Eventually, communication was at the forefront of the teaching and the learning of speaking.

In the hope of maximising communication opportunities, attempts have recently been made to develop teaching methods that can integrate group work into classroom instruction and improve peer interaction (Ning, 2011, p. 60). Hence, cooperative learning is a promising method to the speaking instruction that serves as an alternative teaching method for promoting speaking and social interaction among students (Ning, 2011; Al-Tamimi and Attamimi, 2014).

Research conducted so far suggests that cooperative learning is of great effect on developing students' speaking skills and abilities (Pattanpichet, 2011; Liao, 2009) and also in improving their attitudes towards learning (Slavin, 1995) (as cited in Al-Tamimi & Attamimi, 2014, p.28). Incorporating cooperative learning into a second or a foreign language classroom is deemed urgently needed to facilitate the optimal development of learners' ability to communicate in the target language because it exposes them to comprehensible input, real-life language use situations, and constructive peer interaction (McCafferty et al., 2006). It also contributes to creating a well-structured and supportive

learning environment that is non-threatening and highly motivating for learners. In the context of foreign language learning, learners typically have limited access to the authentic target language and few opportunities to use it in the context of foreign language learning (Ning, 2011, p.62).

In the Algerian context, the incorporation of cooperative learning is not new to language instructors and teachers. Accrediting its practicality and positive outcomes in a plethora of experimental studies investigating different subject areas, cooperative learning started to be applied in English as a foreign language Algerian classrooms. For instance, Boussiada (2010) (as cited in Bousbai and Hamdini, 2019, p.381) conducted a descriptive study to examine cooperative learning activities' effect on the learners' speaking production. Similarly, another descriptive research was pursued by Kribaa (2013) (as cited in Bousbai & Hamdini, 2019, p.381) to examine the effects of cooperative learning on enhancing the learners' oral proficiency and communicative skills. Likewise, Chabani (2017) (as cited in Bousbai & Hamdini, 2019, p.381) conducted a descriptive piece of research to explore the significance of cooperative learning in promoting speaking production and communicative skills. All these studies revealed positive findings as to the integration of cooperative learning in teaching speaking.

2. Statement of the Problem

Although the speaking skill is given a prominent position in learning EFL as it is the medium of global communication, the oral performance of first-year undergraduate Algerian learners of English as foreign language at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University is not satisfactory as voiced by teachers in informal discussions. Learners start learning English, as a compulsory subject, in the first grade of the middle school cycle. Then they spend three other years learning it in the secondary school.

Bearing in mind the fact of spending seven years studying English before specialising in the English language and literature- as a university branch- makes first-year students expected to demonstrate a good speaking skill level as to producing accurate, fluent, and complex speech. Nevertheless, the overall observed weaknesses to speak good English and the constant teachers' dissatisfaction with their learners' oral performance level in OE classes raise serious doubts about the efficiency of the adopted teaching methodologies and syllabi. Put differently, this reality may mirror the weakness of the speaking skill teaching methodologies and syllabi that seem neither satisfy the students' needs nor prove efficiency to help them decrease their language accuracy, fluency, and complexity speaking problems.

Moreover, informal conversations held with teachers of the speaking skill revealed that no specific teaching method was implemented in their classroom practices and few group work tasks were assigned. Bearing in mind that the cooperative learning method proved its efficacy in teaching different aspects of the language, the current study pursues to consider how this method may bring positive effects on the oral performance of first-year undergraduate Algerian learners of English as a foreign language. Leaning toward the incorporation of more cooperative learning techniques may solve many speaking problems and may develop many aspects of this skill than do other adopted methods. Put otherwise, structuring the lessons meant for instructing the speaking skill under the framework of the cooperative learning method may give promising results to the progress of the learners' oral production components since they are expected to engage more with other peers in groups to maximise their speaking opportunities.

3. Aims of the Study

In the light of what has been advanced above, the present thesis bids for probing the effectiveness of the cooperative learning method in enhancing first-year LMD Algerian undergraduate students' speaking skill abilities. The aim of the present study is threefold.

First, it purports to disclose first-year students' perceptions towards studying the speaking skill under the scope of the cooperative learning method. Likewise, it aspires to infer the extent to which its principles are relevantly applied in oral expression (speaking skill) module classes and to ponder the compatibility of classroom practices with the cooperative learning method. More importantly, the research attempts to gauge the participants' readiness to espouse cooperative learning tenets in the quest for developing speaking.

Second, it endeavours to contemplate the impact of teaching speaking based principally on the cooperative learning principles. Proved thriving in bettering many aspects of studying languages, the aim of the study is to consider how cooperative learning groups can affect first-year learners' speech accuracy. Moreover, it purports to highlight any significance of the method in making them more fluent while speaking. Likewise, it attempts to probe the relevance of the cooperative learning groups in generating more complex speech. Yet, it is worthy to mention that the present research is limited to the study of the three components of the speaking skill abilities and it does tackle its functional aspects.

Third, the thesis aims at disclosing the stances of the participants involved in the treatment phase (first year undergraduate EFL learners) about their experience of learning the speaking skill within the cooperative learning framework. Similarly, it seeks to unveil the merits gained from this experience and expose the method's shortcomings when applied in speaking skill classes.

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research intends to respond to the following questions:

1. What attitudes do first-year undergraduate Algerian learners of English as a foreign language at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia university hold towards the cooperative learning method implementation in learning the speaking skill?

2. Do first-year undergraduate Algerian learners of English as a foreign language practise appropriately the cooperative learning method principles to learn the speaking skill?
3. To what extent is the cooperative learning method effective in promoting English as a foreign language learners' speaking skill accuracy?
4. To what extent is the cooperative learning method effective in promoting English as a foreign language learners' speaking skill fluency?
5. To what extent is the CL method effective in promoting English as a foreign language learners' speaking skill complexity?
6. What are the merits and drawbacks experienced by first-year undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language while implementing the cooperative learning method in speaking skill classes?

Following the research scope of investigation and considering the aims and the above-addressed questions, the subsequent hypotheses and their counterparts are formulated:

✓ **Hypothesis One:** Cooperative learning would develop first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language speaking accuracy.

Null Hypothesis One: Cooperative learning would not develop first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language speaking accuracy.

✓ **Hypothesis Two:** The cooperative learning method would develop first year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language speaking fluency.

Null Hypothesis Two: The cooperative learning method would not develop first year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language speaking fluency.

✓ **Hypothesis Three:** The cooperative learning method would develop first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language speaking complexity.

Null Hypothesis Three: The cooperative learning would not develop first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as foreign language speaking complexity.

✓ *Hypothesis Four: (General Hypothesis).* The cooperative learning method would be efficient in enhancing first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as foreign language overall speaking skill.

Null Hypothesis Four: The cooperative learning method would not be efficient in enhancing first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as foreign language overall speaking skill.

5. Significance of the Study

The present research may contribute to documenting the significance of applying the cooperative learning method to enhance the speaking skill components. As few experimental studies have been conducted in Algeria to investigate the relevance of this method in advancing the speech features of university learners of English, the present study may fill in the gap found when probing the issue. Hopefully, it may bring about findings that might stimulate further research about implementing the aforementioned method in teaching speaking.

The application of the cooperative learning method is deemed innovative and creative for both teachers of speaking skill module classes and learners of English. Hence, the findings yielded from implementing a different technique may advance practical suggestions for adopting a new teaching method of this productive language skill in the Algerian university context.

Moreover, given that the cooperative learning method leans towards making a learner-centred classroom, the study results may be a watershed in teaching speaking. Hopefully, the method adopted in the present study will inspire teachers to renovate their speaking skill classes' methodologies and classroom practices. In doing so, teachers may

make English as foreign language university learners more enthused to attend speaking skill module classes. Likewise, they may hold their students more responsible in the learning process.

6. Research Methodology and Instruments

As defined by Murray (2002, p.20), research methodology refers to the theoretical paradigm or framework of the study. According to him, the researcher adopts either a quantitative or qualitative paradigm in his framework; builds up his assumptions on solid arguments, including the choice of research questions and hypotheses.

The selected research methodology for any educational research emanates directly from the asked research questions and the set hypotheses. Hence, in considering the present research enquiries, the mixed research seems to be more reliable. Tavakoli (2012, p. 363) defined the mixed research method as a research approach comprising the quantitative and qualitative data collection at a given stage of the research process within a single study to understand more comprehensively a given problem. It can be conducted by relying on both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis. Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 51) viewed that the quantitative and qualitative research methods as complementary because what can be missed by the quantitative research is explored by the qualitative one and vice versa (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 53).

Accordingly, the quantitative method is followed in the present study by designing a questionnaire-as a research tool- to generate quantitative data from first-year undergraduate LMD students at the English language department of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University. The questionnaire helps elicit information related to their attitudes toward learning the speaking skill under the scope of the cooperative learning method and discloses their classroom practices to develop the skill and their readiness to espouse the cooperative learning tenets in speaking skill module classes. A quasi-experiment method is used to

generate quantitative data through two speaking tests. The test results help confirm or refute the formulated hypotheses and respond to the research questions raised before.

A Focus Group Interview is used as a research tool to generate qualitative data. It is principally designed to probe the participants' attitudes towards the applied method in learning the speaking skill. It intends to voice their impressions about the adoption of the cooperative learning in speaking skill classes and to disclose its merits and shortcomings.

7. Structure of the Study

The present thesis is structured into seven chapters. The first two chapters embody the literature review relevant to the variables of the study. Chapter one reviews the literature related to the cooperative learning method. It provides basic definitions, discusses the principles directing its application and the theoretical foundations contributing to its growth. The first chapter also reviews the merits gained in applying the cooperative learning and some issues pertaining to its classroom implementation, such as techniques, factors influencing the success of adopting it, roles of both teachers and students in a cooperative learning classroom. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the pitfalls that may result from the cooperative learning method adoption.

Chapter two portrays the literature review of the speaking skill. It introduces definitions to the concept of speaking, explains the discrepancy between speaking a first and a second language. It discusses speaking and language acquisition issues, speech production processes, and speaking features, namely accuracy, fluency, and complexity. It also portrays issues in connection with language and discourse components. Speaking activities and assessment are finally advanced within the frame of the second chapter.

Chapter three embodies the research design framing the present study. It describes the population involved and portrays the research tools used to gather quantitative and qualitative data. It elucidates the procedures through which the data are collected. The

chapter puts into plain words the test' reliability and validity. Operational definitions of the constructs being investigated are advanced in chapter three, along with an explanation of the data analysis procedures.

Chapter four accounts for the pre-experimental phase of the study, which is conducted through a questionnaire. The latter aims at gauging the participants' attitudes towards adopting the cooperative learning method in learning the speaking skill and unveiling whether the method's principles are practised in the speaking skill class. It describes the sample involved, the setting in which it was conducted and the distribution procedures. It also clarifies the different items in the questionnaire' sections. It exhibits the discussion of the findings yielded in the questionnaire analysis.

Chapter five, which stands for the experimental phase, explains the treatment stage. It puts into plain words the stages of the speaking instruction with both groups. The chapter advances how the variables are manipulated. Finally, it expounds on the findings and the discussion of the quasi-experiment to elucidate the effect of the cooperative learning method in developing the participants' oral performance.

Chapter six- the post-experiment phase of the study- discusses the conducted focus group discussion stages, the context and the participants involved. The focus group is a qualitative tool that is used in the present study to triangulating the data. The findings of the focus group discussions are interpreted and analysed within the frame of this chapter to probe the merits and shortcomings of the cooperative learning method application in speaking skill classes.

Chapter seven summarises the conclusions of the study by reconsidering the research questions and examining the hypotheses. It also discusses the major limitations faced while conducting the present research. Finally, the chapter advances some pedagogical recommendations and suggestions for further research in light of the findings.

CHAPTER ONE: The Cooperative Learning Method

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Introduction

The contemporary English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms strongly accentuate learners-learners interaction. Researchers, pedagogists, and practitioners in the educational field (Johnson, 2004) aligned the teaching methods' success with the extent to which they prioritise peer interaction. The latter proved to be powerful in enhancing many language areas, psychological and social aspects than do teacher-learner interaction. Structuring group works in the classroom became urgent in the new era of teaching ESL/EFL classrooms. Therefore, the Cooperative Learning (CL) method, an offshoot of the Communicative language Teaching (CLT), was adopted worldwide to maximise peer interaction. Hence, the first chapter aims at first exposing the literature relevant to the CL method. Basic definitions related to CL are advanced, a historical and theoretical foundation is also outlined in the chapter. The basic CL elements, its different forms, academic, social and psychological outcomes are highlighted in the scope of chapter one. Second, the first chapter introduces some CL classroom implementation issues, including the different used techniques, teachers and learners role in a CL classroom and factors influencing the success of the method implementation. Finally, the chapter concludes by portraying the pitfalls that may arise in applying it.

1.1. Definitions of Cooperative Learning and Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperation, as a concept, needs to be explained before introducing the general definition of CL and Cooperative Learning (CLL). According to the Oxford Learners Dictionary of academic English (2014), cooperation is defined as the action or process of working together towards a shared aim. Johnson, Johnson and Smith (2014) viewed that 'Cooperation' works together to accomplish shared goals). Similarly, Argyle (1991) highlighted that cooperation could be defined as: "acting together, in a coordinated way at work, leisure or in social relationships, in the pursuit of shared goals, the enjoyment of the

joint activity, or simply furthering the relationships " (as cited Tuomela, 2000, p.22). Hinde and Groebel (1991) considered that cooperation occurs when two individuals help each other reach or obtain what is "needed or sought". Both scholars further elucidated that the essence of cooperation entails two or more individuals assisting each other to reach the same end (as in cited Tuomela, 2000, p.22). Hence, cooperation occurs when individuals, principally, agree on having a common goal and strive for perfectly accomplishing it for the benefits of the whole members of the cooperative group.

1.1.1. Cooperative Learning

CL is an instructional method in which learners are set in groups to accomplish specific individual and shared goals. In using CL, learners are supposed to interact together while assigned a task in the classroom context to meet common goals (Macpherson, 2007). In applying CL in the classroom, learners are involved in small teams of different levels and abilities to do a given assignment, and every individual in the team is expected to improve his/her understanding of the task through collaborating with the other teammates. Hence, every learner in the team is responsible for his/her understanding of the task, but s/he is instead supposed to assist his/her partners in understanding the task. Accordingly, successful learning occurs mainly when all the team members achieve the set goal of the academic task and complete it cooperatively. The challenge of cooperatively fulfilling a task is aligned with how all the group members strive to do the task and how every individual gain from partners' efforts. All the learners in a CL classroom must believe that they all share a common goal and that one's success is definitely, linked and caused by the rest of the teammates. Gillies (2008) defined CL as a pedagogical practice implemented in a classroom context to stimulate learners' eagerness to learn through their classmates and peers (p, 239). Cooperatively learning denotes that learners are requested to support each other during the process of learning. In so doing, they are likely to be more motivated to provide information, prompts

and help the rest of the group partners to comprehend the task. (Gillies, 2003a; Gillies & Ashman, 1998) (as cited in Gillies and Boyle, 2010, p. 933).

CL is certainly not synonymous with group work, as explained in the subsequent sections. It is different from group work because it came as a reaction to the main shortcomings of group work application in the classroom context (McCafferty et al. 2006). On their part, and as the founding fathers of the CL method, Johnson, Johnson and Holubec (1993) suggested the following definition: "cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximise their own and each other's learning" (p.9).

Johnson, Johnson and Stanne (2000, p.2) further asserted that CL had become an 'instructional procedure' widely implemented worldwide in classroom contexts and different levels in the three past decades, from elementary school through graduate school. The three scholars stated that CL is used to teach different subjects areas and that the implementation of cooperation in learning has pervaded educational realms by referring to it in countless textbooks, teachers' journals, and used materials (Johnson et al., 2000, p.2). Likewise, Olsen and Kagan (1992) proposed a very similar definition to CL:

group learning activity organised so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others. (as cited in Sachs, Candlin, Rose and Shum, 2003) (p.191).

CL is then not about arranging learners to work collaboratively in groups, it is instead a more complex process since it stimulates the involved teammates within the same group to use diverse strategies so as exchange their knowledge with their peers, and they are responsible for ensuring their own and their peers' learning. In so doing, a high level of social interaction is yielded. Mcpherson (2007) considered CL as an implemented

teaching/learning technique that is widely used in the classroom context for 'structuring' activities that comprise essential components requisite for enhancing, developing and enriching the potential of grasping the elements of subject matters by the involved participants to ensure deep learning (p.1). Gillies (2008) ascertained that CL is a pedagogically practised technique in classroom contexts to stimulate learners' interaction and interest in learning by involving them to perform a task (p.239). Gillies and Boyle (2010) further stated that CL enables the learners to help and assist each other throughout the process of learning, and in so doing, they are offered a wide range of opportunities to interact, get information, prompts, and reminders and encouragement. (p.933). So, CL is a learner-centred method since it boosts learners' level of understanding and develops their reasoning ability.

CL is acknowledged to be a successful instructional technique that encompasses activities meant to maximise the active participation of all the group members while performing those activities. The involved participants are then requested to discuss and share their perspective related to the task in the hope of facilitating their teammates' comprehension of task components and, more importantly, to achieve the set goals for a task cooperatively,

Since the current study endeavours to investigate the significance of integrating the CL principles in the language classroom to develop learners' oral performance, it is of paramount importance to shed light, though succinctly, the application of CL in a language classroom setting.

1.1.2. Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) is not extensively and amply defined as the concept of CL. Though CL notion was defined significantly by different scholars and in different areas of study, a minimal number of definitions to the concept of CLL have been

provided. Thus, in the words of Richards and Rodgers (2001), CLL is: "a part of a more general instructional approach also known as Collaborative Learning (CL). Cooperative Learning is an approach of teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom" (p.192). CLL stems its basic principles from the broad concept of CL in its practice in the language classroom context. In so doing, language teachers assign a task to their learners in small groups to perform it cooperatively.

Moreover, Richards & Rogers (2001, p.193) stated that regarding the Second Language (L2) teaching context, CLL is the most predominantly used term to refer to CL. Both scholars considered the former as no more than an extension of the CLT approach principles, as both CLL and CLT strived to ensure the best quality of communication and interaction in the classroom. Richards & Rogers (2001) classified CLL as a basic learner-centred approach that came as a reaction to all the conventionally established teacher-fronted classrooms approaches (p.193). They further elucidated that CLL attempts to promote 'cooperation' rather than 'competition'. It strives to develop learners' critical thinking skills and communicative competence by implementing socially structured interaction activities (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 195).

Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) viewed CLL as a small group-based instructional approach that is fundamentally built on *group dynamics* (p.7). Similarly, Kessler (1992) ascertained that CLL is about setting learners into groups to work cooperatively on a given assignment in the language classroom. In so doing, they would practise the target language all along the course of their interaction together. CLL relies on arranging language learners in small groups to achieve a common goal of an assignment cooperatively. As a language learning practice in the classroom context, CLL accentuates the participants' social interaction throughout doing tasks.

1.1.3. Cooperative Learning and Collaborative Learning

As a preliminary step, it is worth defining the notion of collaborative learning before spotting the divergence between the CL and collaborative learning concepts. Richards and Rogers (2001, p.192) elucidated that CL is a part of a more general instructional approach known as collaborative learning. The latter is viewed by Barkley, Major, and Cross (2014) as a general expression standing for group learning (p.4). Smith & MacGregor (1992) termed collaboration learning as:

an umbrella term for a variety of educational approaches involving a joint intellectual effort by students or students and teachers together. In most collaborative situations students are working in groups of two or more, mutually searching for understanding solutions, or meanings, or creating a product. (as cited in Barkley et al., 2014, p.4)

Assigning students to learn collaboratively denotes being actively engaged in accomplishing the set objective of the task. Nevertheless, all the group members should more or less contribute equally to the performance of the task (Barkley et al., 2014, p.4). Similarly, Nelson (2007) defined collaborative learning as: "An umbrella term for the variety of approaches and models in education that involve the shared intellectual efforts by students working in small groups to accomplish a goal or complete a task" (p.179).

In scrutinising the definition of collaboration learning, one may get confused to distinguish between both models, i.e., cooperative and collaborative learning. Thus, it is worth mentioning that most educators tend to use both terms interchangeably (Barkley et al., 2014, p.5) (Ashman & Gillies, 2003, the expertise gradually many scholars (such as Brufee, 1995; Panitz, 1997; Roschelle & Teasley, 1995) (as cited in Ashman & Gillies, p.71), the two models of learning are distinct and should not be swappable in labelling them. In an attempt to draw the disparity underlying both concepts, Panitz (1999) drew a clear-cut distinction in stating that "collaboration primary philosophy of interaction and personal lifestyle where

individuals are responsible for their actions, including learning and respect the abilities and contributions of their peers" (p.3). On the other hand, he regarded that cooperation as "a structure of interaction designed to facilitate the accomplishment of a specific end product or goal through people working together in groups." (p.3). Thus, from Panitz's (1999) perspective, collaborative learning stretches classroom contexts since it is a personal philosophy that cannot be confined to represent merely a classroom technique.

CL is less broad than collaborative learning as the former is the most structured approach to learning in groups, whereas the latter is less structured (Ashman & Gillies, 2003, p.71). Put differently, in the CL paradigm, the teacher imposes the lesson's structure and sets his learners to perform the objective of the task. Contrariwise, collaborative learning is less structured than CL, for learners are given more control and power over their learning processes. In line with the same perspective, Millis and Cottell (1998) (as cited in Barkley, 2014, pp.5-6) concluded that CL is a more structured form of collaborative learning. Thus, this leads us to induce that CL tends to be more teacher-centred in tendency than collaborative learning, in which teacher's inclusion is less reduced, and much emphasis is given to learners. Put differently, the teacher's role in cooperative learning is still prime since he is the one who designs and assigns structured learning tasks, manages time, monitors students' learning, and checks learners' remaining on tasks (Barkley et al., 2014, p.9). As a group work pedagogical method, collaborative learning is grounded in underpinning epistemological assumptions perceived as different from CL ones. Collaborative learning stems from social constructivism, advocating that knowledge is socially constructed rather than confined simply to individual construction. Barkley et al., 2014, p.9).

In short, collaborative learning and CL are intertwined concepts that are not opposed in the premise. Both of which are interchangeably used as terms by many scholars in the educational realm. Nevertheless, cooperative learning is more structured in the frame

compared to collaborative learning. While collaborative learning is a philosophy of interaction putting forward learners' focal and prime responsibility to control their learning processes, CL is an instructional interaction encompassing learning in groups. Nevertheless, CL does not marginalise and downgrade the teacher's role in supervising and monitoring his/her learners' learning process.

1.1.4. Cooperative Learning versus Group Work

CL is not a fact of gathering students in groups and expects them to work cooperatively. Jolliffe (2007) highlighted that group work has always been used in traditional teaching/learning classrooms. She stated, "Traditionally, primary schools have often organised pupils to sit in groups of four or six, although the interaction between them may be very limited." (p.4). What makes a group work cooperative is the presence of the prerequisite pillars constructing CL (positive interdependence and individual accountability)

Congruent with the same standpoint, Heywood (2000) elucidated that group work is different from CL since, in the latter, learners' interaction is more structured and emphasises more individual accountability and the social skills elaboration (p.209). He asserted that group work, especially in higher education, has never been systematised in CL's way (p.210). Salkind & Rasmussen (2008) elucidated that CL has more structural features crucial to determine how the students work within groups to achieve academic and social outcomes. Both researchers highlighted that the keystone discrepancy that makes CL different from traditional group work is that it does not incorporate individual accountability in its real practice. In the former context, however, individual accountability- in which each individual does his share of the work- is the prime pillar upon which CL groups function. Setting a group goal for accomplishing a task is a significant attribute discerning CL and traditional group work (Salkind & Rasmussen, 2008, p.187).

1.1.5. Cooperative Language Learning: an Offshoot of the Communicative Language Teaching

Fundamental changes have taken place in the educational setting since the 1970s, and drastic innovations have been adopted in teaching and learning languages. Educators started to adhere to making language learners more communicative and interactive in the learning process. The shift from the focus on linguistic accuracy in teaching foreign languages to communication was a significant turning point in education and pedagogy. The notion of 'communicativeness' stemmed from the concept that language is not merely about purely accurate linguistic structures but rather fundamentally social (Halliday, 1973) (as cited in Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, p.115). Put otherwise, the fact of mastering the linguistic rules to construct accurate linguistic structures started to decline with the advent of the '*communicative competence*' suggested by Hymes (1971) (as cited in Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p.115).

Regarding CLT application in language teaching, it is based on the principle that language is embedded in communication. Accordingly, practitioners, educationists, and researchers in education started to focus on developing language learners 'communicative competence'. The latter term was coined by Hymes (1972) as a reaction to Chomsky's theory of competence that conceptualised language competence embodied in the speaker's ability to generate abstract correct grammatical structures. Contrariwise, Hymes advocated that language teaching should incorporate the teaching of communication and culture; accordingly, he devised the term '*communicative competence*' to refer to what the speaker needs to know to competently communicate in the speech community (as cited in Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.159).

Moreover, it is pivotal to highlight that CLT came as a reaction to the previous approaches: situational language teaching and audio-bilingualism approaches. In adopting a

CLT, there was a tendency to rely more on humanistic approaches to teaching, and much emphasis was given to interactive processes in classroom contexts. CLT underwent many innovations, and it was revisited many times to become what is known today as CLT. Halliday (1970) elaborated the theory of Hymes and opted for an alternative one prioritising the teaching/learning of the language functions. He claimed that an L2 is acquired by mastering linguistic means to perform different functions (as cited in Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.160). Halliday (1970) elaborated the scope of the CLT in striving to design syllabuses in terms of functions and compatible with the notion of communicative competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, pp.172-173, Brumfit, 2001, p.51). Moreover, unlike all the previous language-teaching approaches, CLT emphasised diagnosing learners' needs in the teaching process to make it as communicative as possible. As an approach, CLT also brought novelties in terms of the activities practised in the classroom since it sought to make its methodology communicative and interactive in relying more on group work and task-work activities.

Exposing, though succinctly, the principles underlying CLT is necessary to fully grasp the interconnection between the philosophical dimensions forming CLL and CLT. The latter approach has continued to evolve constantly since its inception. New trends and shift in CLT practice have yielded due to its application and innovative contemporary perspective overriding language teaching and learning, which led to new modern CL approaches. Thus, Jacobs and Farrell (2003, p.10); Jacob and Farrell (2010, pp.8-11) shed light on the eight changes that marked the novelties in the practice of CLT; they are subsequently summarised:

- **Learner autonomy** entails making him the central focus (internal stimuli) instead of the teacher and the material (external stimuli). In brief, learners' autonomy is to make the instruction learner-centred rather than teacher-centred. Given that, ESL/EFL learners should have a great share of responsibility towards their learning. (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003, p.11).

- **The social nature of learning** implies considering the learner's social component by prioritising learning instead of considering him a decontextualised individual. The new contemporary CLT approaches view the social environment in which ESL/EFL learners learn as important. Cooperation is valued over the competition without marginalising the latter entirely since the former makes learners take leadership roles in learning (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003, p.12).
- **Curricular integration:** is discerned in developing new curricula based upon making connexions between different curriculum strands. This integration strives to teach EFL/ESL as a jointly teaching process with the other subjects to be as holistic as possible. In today's ESL/EFL communicative classrooms, there is no fragmentation of content disciplines but an integration of the teaching of the language that should be aligned and structured along with the other disciplines (Jacobs & Farrell, 2010, p.9).
- **Focus on meaning:** is a significant innovation in recent versions of CLT since meaning is recognised as a driving force for learning. In focusing on meaning, learners should not learn to pass their exams, but they should be excited about making their learning for life. Concerning EFL, Jacobs & Farrell (2010, p.10) stated that learners should comprehend what they are learning instead of rote via drills.
- **Diversity:** stands for viewing learners' differences as sources to be recognised and taken care of instead of considering them as impediments. In the revolutionised versions of CLT, diversity in ESL/EFL classroom is highly appreciated. Differences in language background, learners' profile, personality, race, ethnicity, differences in opinions are regarded as positive engines upgrading the quality of language learning. (Jacobs & Farrell, 2010, p.10).
- **Thinking skills:** language can develop a high level of critical thinking. Therefore, learners of an FL should use their thinking skills by reflecting on their learning process to

apply them in situations beyond the classroom. The innovations of the CLT approach on that facet shifted its emphasis from product-oriented teaching into process-oriented teaching. (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003, p.18)

- **Alternative assessment:** drastic changes have taken place at the level of assessment in the revisited CLT versions. Testing in ESL/EFL classroom should no more rely on standardised, objective-items and multiple-choice tests. Alternatively, tests should take diverse forms and be constructed thoroughly to assess learner's understanding effectively. (Jacobs & Farrell, 2010, pp.10-11).
- **Teachers as co-learners:** this genuine innovation of CLT approaches contemplates the teacher as a partner in the process of learning instead of considering him as the ultimate source of information or a spoon-feeder. EFL/ESL teachers should consider learning as a dynamic process, a long-life one in the sense of believing that they can learn and their students and their fellow teachers likewise. In only doing so, the teacher can play diverse roles instead of limiting his role to a source of information and knowledge provider (Jacobs & Farrell, 2010, p.11).

In an attempt to unveil the fundamental essentials that energise the bright merit of CLT in terms of teaching ESL/EFL, Jacobs & Farrell (2003; 2010) displayed those essentials in the inserted subsequent figure. The circular nature of the figure stands for the changes that are parts of a whole, and the successful implementation of each change is dependent on the successful implementation of others (Jacobs & Farrell, 2010, p.8). Hence, Jacobs & Farrell (2010) emphasised that ESL/ESL educators and stakeholders should consider the eight previously exposed essentials and holistically integrate them instead of practising them fragmentally as piecemeal to be efficacious in applying the modified CLT challenging innovations.

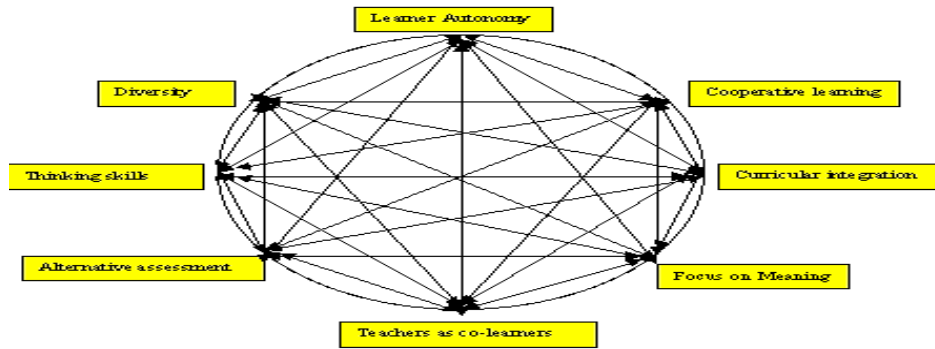


Figure 1. Eight essentials of successful second language teaching. Adapted from Understanding and Implementing the CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) Paradigm (p.7), by G. M. Jacobs, & T. S. C. Farrell, 2003, RELC Journal, 34 .1. p.10

Jacobs & Farrell (2003) suggested that the eight changes exhibited in figure 1.1 are an real embodiment of the CL since the latter stimulates learners' autonomy through arranging group activities that make them less dependent on their teachers. Curriculum integration is highly facilitated in CL since L2/FL can invest their knowledge to perform cross-curricular projects. CL fits with the suggested innovations brought to CLT practice since the former stresses the significance of encompassing L2/FL in meaningful communications. Thus it emphasises meaning. Diversity is also demonstrated in CL classroom in forming heterogeneous groups whose members are expected to use their collaborative skills to highlight their experiences and ideas all along their learning course. CL also attempts to develop thinking skills in assigning an L2/FL learners to work collaboratively. In so doing, they need to explain concepts and procedures to their mates, debate, receive feedback upon their contributions to the group assignment. All these actions result in promoting their thinking skills. Alternative assessment is also exceedingly incited in CL via the implementation of different types of assessment, of which is peer assessment.

Conclusively, CL advocates the necessity of making teachers be co-learners. Teachers should often work with their colleagues to gain from one another's experiences in education via conducting classroom research. On the other hand, teachers are expected to spend more time assisting their learners in the learning process. One of the best techniques

teachers may opt for is to be facilitators in the classroom. In doing so, they are likely to learn many things from their learners (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003, p.23).

Portraying annotation about the CLT approach and the alterations that underwent its practice within the last 40 years is indispensable because discerning the pillars founding CLT paves the way for the reader of the present thesis to identify the similarities between CLT and CLL.

CL started to evolve within the framework of CLT since the former approach aspires to ensure cooperation in the classroom all over arranging communicative activities such as pair works and group works that are types of activities stemming originally from CLT (Basta, 2011, p.128). Most CLT classroom activities were often used in CLT classroom, as suggested by Richards, Platt & Platt (1992) (as cited in Azizinezhad, Hashemi and Darvishi, 2013, p. 139). Similarly, Kagan (1995) stated that CLT and CL are intertwined in teaching an FL since there is a natural match between CLT and CLL in FL teaching (p.21). Richards & Rodgers (2001, p.193) maintained that CLT promotes classroom interaction and communication since CL emerged from CLT. Hence, CLL is an extension of CLT as both considered learner-centred approaches prioritise cooperation over competition in learning. Both encourage critical skills development and strive to ensure communicative competencies by attentively selecting activities expected to foster social interaction. CLT incorporation into CL was not a novelty as the latter applied many CLT techniques (Richards, Platt and Platt 1992) (as cited in Basta, 2011, p.128). Inspired by the application of CLT, CLL practitioners endeavoured to embrace two primary components of CLT that are: constructing socially-oriented lessons and achieving group work interaction (Kagan, 1995). All in all, and as explicated by Basta (2011, p.128), the embodiment of CL is demonstrated via teaching techniques whose spirit is stemmed from CL foundations.

Unlike traditional approaches to language teaching and learning such as the Grammar-translation Method, Audio-Lingual...etc. that were in, essence, teacher-centred approaches, CL and CLT approaches were learner-centred ones. Traditional approaches focused on teaching some aspects of the language and marginalised the significance of 'practice'. Learning an FL in traditional approaches was based upon enabling learners to memorise rules and facts to manipulate the morphology and the syntax of the language with little and minimal learner-initiated interactions. Learners are set to acquire knowledge about the language passively with no reference to communicative competence. Contrariwise, CL and CLT accentuated the need to develop communicative skills over accurate language production. Both the contemporary approaches that consent broadly promote interaction and communication among learners, learners, and teachers (Zhang, 2010, p. 81).

In contrast with the traditional approaches, CLT and CL made colossal innovations in assigning new roles to both the learners and teachers in the language classroom to renovate the roles of the teachers to be guides, facilitators, and negotiators sole knowledge providers. Learners, on the other hand, are no more passive recipients of knowledge. They are relatively active proponents since both CLT and CL give primacy to learner's autonomy and centrality in the learning process, underscore the social network of the learners by optimising integrity among them and fostering the sense of responsibility towards their learning processes and their peers' one (Zhang, 2010, p. 81). Being acknowledged as one of the most thriving and appealing methods applied worldwide in teaching different contents and disciplines, CL is stated to bring about positive outcomes in learning processes.

1.2. Types of Cooperative Learning Groups

There are three basic types of CL: formal, informal, and based groups. They are subsequently portrayed.

1.2.1. Formal Cooperative Learning

In *formal CL*, students work for one class period to several weeks to achieve a common learning goal and perform specific assignment and tasks. This type of CL can be used in different ways to learn new information, conduct scientific experiments, complete compositions, read and comprehend a story, a play, write a report (Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1998a). Informal cooperative learning, teachers and instructors need to follow the following steps:

- *Making a set of pre-instructional procedures* such as deciding on the size of the group that should range from two to four members according to the nature of the task and the time available to it. Furthermore, teachers and instructors relying on the application of the formal CL should consider the distribution of the students into groups. It can be done randomly and in different ways. Teachers also need to consider the classroom arrangement and how students sit together; the closest they sit together, the better teachers ensure eye-to-eye contact. The latter is put at the heart of successful cooperative groups. They must also decide on the students' roles and the materials needed to conduct the lesson.
- *Explaining the task to the students and put into plain words the expected objectives from the academic assignment.* It means that students' strategies need to be explicitly worded to optimise learners' achievement. Furthermore, to successfully implement formal CL, instructors must explain positive interdependence and individual accountability, speaking and explaining ordinary social skills.
- *Monitoring students' learning and intervening to assist students with tasks or with interpersonal and group skills:* in assigning learners to work cooperatively, teachers need to observe and collect data about how students perform when working together.

Thus, teachers should be present whenever they notice that their learners cannot perform at any level of the task performance.

- *Evaluating learning and processing Interaction:* to evaluate learners adequately, on the one hand, teachers may test their learners by giving them papers and presentations to assess their understanding of the task. They may rely on a wide range of assessment formats. They can even involve their learners in the process of evaluation by making them evaluate each other. On the other hand, students need to reflect on their course of interaction through receiving feedback from their teacher. Receiving feedback provides opportunities for them to identify the way their group functioned and thereby help them decide on practical actions that should be taken in the following sessions they interact.

Johnson et al., (1998, p.33).

1.2.2. Informal Cooperative Learning

Espousing informal *CL* in classroom practices implies on the teacher giving a task, which might be learned in temporary and ad hoc groups that lasts for few minutes to a one-class period (Johnson et al., 1998a, pp.33-34). Teachers may rely on films, presentations, videos, guest speakers as materials to teach. In setting students to work via informal *CL* groups, misconceptions, misunderstandings, and gaps in understanding can be identified, unveiled and corrected, as learners are likely to personalise their learning experience. The teacher's challenge in using this type of *CL* lies in ensuring the student's implementation of the intellectual work, namely organising, explaining, and summarising. Thus, informal *CL* is so practical to involve them in cognitive processes of information. Johnson et al. (1998b) highlighted that lecturers and instructors might get many objectives in implementing this type of *CL*:

- Focus students' attention on the material to be learned;
- set a mood conducive to learning;

- help organise the material to be covered in a future class session and;
- provide closure to an instructional session. (p.27)

To ensure the intellectual and cognitive involvement of the learners, teachers and instructors need to arrange focussed discussions before and after the lecture as suggested by Johnson et al. (1998b). Those discussions should be structured into three basic steps listed subsequently:

- *Introductory-Focused Discussion*: learners set in pairs and triads are given four minutes to answer a question that matches the topic of the upcoming lecture. At this stage, they are supposed to achieve a consensus and use any prior knowledge about the topic.
- *Turn-to-Your-Partner Discussions*: that last for 10- to 15-minute segments. During that time, instructors incite their learners to work cooperatively to answer a question. The latter may incorporate summarising the material to which the learners were exposed, and the question needs to be answered within few minutes.
- *Closure-Focused Discussion*: at this stage, teachers ask their learners to summarise what they learned from the lecture in four to five minutes. They need, as well, to stimulate their learners to integrate and incorporate their newly acquired information with prior background information (Johnson et al., 1998b, pp.27-28).

1.2.3. Cooperative Base Groups

DeZure (2000) elucidated that *cooperative based groups* as longer-term groups (lasting for at least a semester) whose stable memberships are responsible for providing the necessary support to all mates in an attempt to achieve academic progress (p.211). Cooperative base groups, according to Johnson et al. (1998b), are: (1) heterogeneous in memberships; (2) meeting regularly daily or biweekly; (3) last for a long duration; a semester a whole year or all members have graduated. A cooperative base group enhances learners' commitment to facilitating the learning process of their mates as it also boosts their

motivation to help one another overcome faced problems since they know they will stay together for some time (p.26).

Practically speaking, teachers formulate cooperative base group whose number ranges between three to four members. Then set learners meet each other at the beginning and end of each session (or week) to complete academic tasks such as checking each member's home works; providing assistance to writing papers, listening to the faced obstacles...etc. Hence, teachers can maintain long-term relationships that may persist longer by structuring their classes' cooperative base.

The three types of cooperative learning stated above might be used together since they complement each other. A teacher may start a lecture through a joint base group meeting that lasts for 5-to 10 minutes. Afterwards, the teacher may switch to the informal CL by introducing the lesson, covering its topic, objectives, and presenting it into a short presentation. Subsequently, the teacher may rely on the formal CL by assigning the students to perform tasks meant to deepen their understanding and mastery of the material exposed to them. Once again, he may implement informal CL at the end of the session by discussing the material's ideas and conclusions drawn by the formal cooperative groups and homework. In due course, the teacher ends up the lecture by a cooperative base group. He asks the groups to meet again to review the material and negotiate how the assignment would be performed and afford support to the members who might face an impediment to accomplish the task (Johnson et al. 1998, p.28) (Spectrol, Merrill, Merrienboer, et al., 2008,p.405).

1.3. Cooperative Learning: a Historical Background

CL process has gone through diverse turning points of development. Slavin (1995) stated that it is not a newly adopted method in education; it rather emerged a long time ago. He pointed out that its emergence can be traced back to the 17th century. Likewise, Johnson & Johnson (1989), along with Salkind and Rasmussen (2008, p. 188), asserted that CL is an

old concept that arose in the first century when Quintillion argued that students might benefit from teaching one another. Likewise, Comenius (1592-1679) stressed that students would undoubtedly benefit from teaching and being taught by other students (Salkind & Rasmussen, 2008, p. 188). A solid impetus to exercise CL in classroom context was concretely practised by Lancaster and Andrew Bell in the late 1700s when they used CL groups in England. Immediately, the concept of adopting it in educational settings was extended to the United States of America when a school under the name of the Lancasterian School was constructed in 1806 in New York City. Meanwhile, CL continued to be widely advocated in the USA in the early 1800s by the Common School Movement (Johnson & Johnson, n.d., p.9).

During the late three decades of the 19th century Colonel Francis Parker, one of the most inspiring proponents of the CL concept, played a crucial role in making its practice in school settings successful, thriving and foremost practical. In sustaining the advocacy of establishing a democratic and practical CL atmosphere, Parker managed at designing an accurate and vivid classroom, and only then it took a turning point in its spread all over the USA (Pederson and Digby, 2013, p.87).

John Dewey, one of the most revolutionary educationists in the 20th century, promoted CL in educational contexts (Gillies and Ashman, 2003, p.87). He emphasised establishing democracy in schools and providing opportunities for students to practice the skills to live in a democratic society. Dewey accentuated the social aspects of the learning process to prepare the learners to be future individuals who would live in a cooperative and democratic society. Hence, this very appealing aim can only be achieved through adopting the principles of CL in education.

In the era of 1920s and 1930s, a lot of social theorists such as Allport (1924); Shaw (1932); Watson (1928); May and Doob (1937) (as cited in Gillies & Ashman, 2003, p.3) shed

light on the individuals' behaviour when working individually or in groups while doing problem-solving activities. Nonetheless, research investigating the valuable outcomes of cooperation traces its progress with the studies of Kurt Lewin and Morton Deutsch during the 1940s (Johnson & Johnson, n.d., p.9). Deutsch (1949a) proposed a theory of cooperation versus competition in which he hypothesised that when group members cooperate in their process of learning, their productivity is much higher than in the cases where they work individually. Put differently, Deutsch's concepts about CL stemmed from Lewin's reasoning about social interdependence; since the former was one of his students, he tried to develop his teacher's ideas about the paramount significance of social interaction among the individuals working in groups. Moreover, Deutsch conducted a study in 1949 with first-year university students to test his set hypothesis. Accordingly, he hypothesised that individuals might perceive themselves more interdependent psychologically speaking while working cooperatively in groups than working individually in competitive learning situations (Gillies & Ashman, 2003, p.4). Deutsch is acknowledged as one of the most prominent pioneers who structured conceptually known as CL to date. Deutsch's outstanding theory of cooperation versus competition was extended and applied in the educational realm by Johnson & Johnson (1970, 1974, and 1989) at the University of Minnesota (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p.37).

Nonetheless, CL did not gain much interest at that juncture due to the strong emphasis on individualistic learning in schools, as the interpersonal competition was more stressed than collaborative learning during the 1960s. The latter continued to be over accentuated and drew the attention of educationists till the 1980s when CL received more spotlight in the educational settings (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p.37); (Gillies & Ashman, 2003, p.5). CL regained in schools during the late 1970s with more impetus when David Johnson and Roger Johnson took the initiative to train teachers at the University of Minneapolis to implement CL (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p.28). Moreover, several studies and researches that

contributed to the renovation of CL application in schools were introduced afterwards. For instance, in the mid-1970s, Robert Slavin proposed a cooperative curriculum, while Spencer Kagan enhanced the use of the CL method among children (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p.28). Likewise, Shlomo Sharan, Yael Sharan, Elliot Aronson, Elizabeth Cohen and other scholars continued to develop the notion of CL (Agarwal, & Nagar, 2011, p.28). Nevertheless, the latter did not spark the interest of educators till the early 1990's when the first Annual Cooperative Learning Conference was held at Minneapolis University in 1996, and it was mainly then that it started to appear strong on the educational scene and became ultimately prevalent (Agarwal, & Nagar, 2011, p.28).

A partial timeline table is subsequently structured in a hierarchical way to highlight in-depth all the researchers' contributions to the development of the CL method. To have a comprehensive overview of the CL historical background,

Table1

Timeline of the History of Cooperative Learning

Date	Event
Early	John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky
1900s	
The	
1960s	
The	Stuart Cook: Research on cooperation
1960s	Madsen (Kagan): Research on cooperation & competition in children
	Bruner, Suchman: Inquiry (Discovery) Learning Movement
	B. F. Skinner: Programmed learning, behaviour modification
1962	Morton Deutsch (Nebraska Symposium): Cooperation & trust, conflict
	Robert Blake & Jane Mouton: Research on intergroup competition
1966	David Johnson, U of MN: Begins training teachers in Cooperative Learning

	Roger Johnson: Joins David at U of MN
The 1970s	
1970	David Johnson: <i>Social Psychology of Education</i>
1973	David DeVries & Keith Edwards: Combined instructional games approach with intergroup competition, teams-games-tournament
1974-	David & Roger Johnson: Research review on cooperation/competition
1975	David & Roger Johnson: <i>Learning Together and Alone</i>
The mid-1970s	Annual Symposium at APA (David DeVries & Keith Edwards, David & Roger Johnson, Stuart Cook, Elliot Aronson, Elizabeth Cohen, others) Robert Slavin: Begins development of cooperative curricula Spencer Kagan: Continued research on cooperation among children
1976	Shlomo & Yael Sharan: <i>Small Group Teaching</i> (group investigation)
1978	Elliot Aronson: <i>Jigsaw Classroom</i> , <i>Journal of Research & Development in Education</i> , (Cooperation Issue) Jeanne Gibbs: <i>Tribes</i>
The 1980s	
1981,	David & Roger Johnson: Meta-analyses of research on cooperation
1983	
1985	Elizabeth Cohen: <i>Designing Groupwork</i>
	Spencer Kagan: Developed structures approach cooperative learning
	AERA and ASCD special interest groups founded
1989	David & Roger Johnson: <i>Cooperation & Competition-Theory & Research</i>

The	
1990s	
Early	Cooperative learning gains popularity among educators
1990s	
1996	First Annual Cooperative Learning Leadership Conference, Minneapolis

Note. Adapted from Cooperation in the Classroom, Johnson, Johnson and Holubec (1998, pp. 32-33)

As demonstrated in the table above, CL is the outcome of the continuous outstanding contributions of a long list of researchers who strived for establishing what is known today as CL. It has been stemmed and rooted from different foundational psychological and sociological theories. Thus, the following section sheds light on those prominent theories that contributed to developing CL's concept and its application in education.

1.4. Theories Underlying Cooperative Learning

It is requisite to expose the different outstanding theories underlying the development of CL as a currently adopted and prevailing teaching method around the world. All those well-established theories subsequently listed contributed ,in a way or another, to shape its application in a classroom context. Put otherwise; CL is the upshot of diverse philosophical and theoretical perspectives that affected its driving principles and dynamic practice all along its foundation.

Theories that inspired the construction of CL are differently classified. Johnson& Johnson (2015, p.17) explained that the cognitive-development theory, the social-cognitive, the behavioural-learning, and the social interdependence theories are the four basic theoretical orientations that governed the shaping of CL. Alternatively, Kagan (2009) listed seven theories: the cooperative learning, the classic learning theory, the social learning theories; the brain learning theories; motivation theories; the individual differences theories and the expectation theory (pp.82-100). McCaFerty et al. (2006, p.9) opted to refer to the

underlying fundamental theories that brought about CL to thrive further in education. All those theories stem from psychological roots. Hence, the subsequent section sheds light on the most common theories triggering the underpinning of CL and framing research on it.

1.4.1. The Cognitive Developmental Theory

The cognitive development theory and its inspiration in developing CL are closely related to the cognitivism trend's most prevailing perspectives: the Piagetian and Vygotskian models.

1.4.1.1. Piagetian Perspective

In the words of Johnson & Johnson, "an early theory of cooperation is a cognitive-developmental theory" (2015, p. 4); that is to say; the latter had a paramount role in developing the perspectives upon which CL is founded. Hence, it is of great significance to refer to the pioneers and theorists who developed the cognitive-developmental theory as Piaget, Vygotsky ...etc. since they are the most notable developmental psychologist and thinkers of the twentieth century (McCaFerty et al., 2006, p.10)

As a prominent developmental theorist, Piaget advocated the premise that socio-cognitive conflicts would undoubtedly arise when individuals cooperate in the environment, resulting in a cognitive disequilibrium. Given that fact, perspective-taking ability and cognitive development are incited among individuals. Piagetian argue that while cooperating, individuals discuss and interact and during that process of interaction, cognitive conflicts are likely to come out and be resolved. Moreover, individuals' inadequate reasoning is exposed and modified (Johnson et al., 1994, p.14). Put differently, Johnson & Johnson (2015) explained that: "Cooperation in the Piagetian tradition is aimed at increasing a person's intellectual development by forcing him or her to reach consensus with others who hold opposing points of view about the answer to the problem" (p.5). Hence, Piagetians stressed the value of cooperation in modifying one's wrongly established reasoning.

Likewise, Kagan and Kagan (2009) consented with the Piagetian perspective in stating that when the learners, as individuals, interact, they exchange new information and acquire new ways of thinking and reasoning to assimilate the newly exposed information. Along the process of cooperation, learners are "pushed to a higher-level cognitive framework—they come to a point at which the new information cannot be assimilated into their old conceptual system, so they must accommodate. That is, they move up to more differentiated thinking" Kagan and Kagan (2009, p.67). Thus, Piagetian philosophers stressed that cooperation is the engine that stimulates the intellectual and cognitive development of individuals that take place mainly in the process of cooperation.

One of the most exclusive concepts that the Piagetian theory brought is that cognitive development leads ultimately to learning. The latter can never be achieved in isolation; it is a process by which learners are vigorously constructing and reconstructing their knowledge. Moreover, and concerning classroom context, Piaget is the founder of the 'discovery learning environments at schools because he acknowledged that intelligence is eventually developed by incorporating assimilation and accommodation (Liang, 2002, p. 27). Furthermore, Piaget pointed out that teachers should assess their learners' actual cognitive level and diagnose their weakness and strength. In so doing, teachers are expected, on the one hand, to address individual instruction. On the other, they provide ample opportunities for their learners to interact, communicate, argue, and debate. Accordingly, teachers are no more the driving force in the classroom from the Piagetian perspective; they are facilitators of knowledge construction, guide, permissive enough to tolerate their learners' mistakes. Hence, learners were required to make their learning process meaningful by experimenting independently instead of being spoon-fed by their teachers. The latter should trust their learners' ability to learn by discovering in the classroom (Liang, 2002, p. 28).

To conclude, it is worthy to note that Piaget theory is one of the fundamental theories that shaped the foundation of CL since it was widely interpreted as having accentuated and overemphasised the active roles that the learners play when they engage in actual or at least realistic tasks assigned in a classroom context (Slavin, 1995).

1.4.1.2. Vygotskian Perspective

Lev Semenovich Vygotsky' (1978), the Russian semiotician and developmental psychologist, proposed basic concepts that comply mainly with the ones proposed by Piaget. However, he emphasised the social aspect of the learning process, Johnson & Johnson (2015, p.5). In other words, Vygotsky, as a socio-cultural theorist and similarly to Piaget, based his theory on the premise that knowledge is social and it is ultimately constructed from individuals' cooperative efforts to learn, understand and solve problems. All along the process of interaction, the members of the group are supposed to exchange information, share different perspectives, discover weak aspects in each one's reasoning strategies, achieve peer correction and ultimately adjust one's understanding based on others' understanding (Johnson et al., 1994, p.15). One of the original concepts developed by Vygotsky is that human beings are social by nature. Their cognitive development takes place in social interaction. Individuals are apt to learn and acquire many things relevant to their societies, mainly by participating in other individuals' experiences. Vygotsky postulated that learning occurs as long as social interaction takes place. The fact of being surrounded by socio-cultural contexts is likely to exert an immediate influence on individuals' development (Vygotsky, 1978, p.102)

Vygotsky socio-cultural perspective revolved around two basic notions. First, he assumed that the cognitive growth that the child achieves takes place in a socio-cultural context that shapes the form it takes. Second, most of the essential cognitive skills development that the child makes occurs as an outcome of the social interactions with his

parents, old peers, teachers and other more competent associates (Shaffer and Kipp, p.281). Schinke-Llano (2010) stressed that development could only happen as the result of meaningful verbal interaction. The latter is dialogic relationships that relate novices with experts in the social environment (p.22). It is noteworthy to state that Vygotsky's epistemological perspectives shed more light on the child's development. However, his ideas were applied in ESL/EFL research as his theory gained more interest recently in SLA research (Schinke-Llano, 1993) (as cited in Schinke-Llano, L. 2010, p. 22).

One of the most outstanding premises that Vygotsky proposed is the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD). It is considered as a fundamental principle upon which the constructivist developmental socio-cultural theory operates. Vygotsky (1978) termed the ZPD as: "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers." (p.86). Put otherwise, ZPD refers to a person's ability of what he/she can do on his/her own and what the person can achieve while working cooperatively with other individuals or more experienced peers.

Concerning classroom learning contexts, The ZPD is a vivid conceptualisation of the learning process. As suggested by Vygotsky, successful learning is likely to occur if the instruction is within the ZPD. Accordingly, all educators should fully understand the ZPD (Kagan& Kagan, 2009, p.87). The zone is where teachers should aim their sensitive instruction and where new cognitive growth is expected (Shaffer & Kipp, p.283). ZPD is not synonymous with *scaffolding*. Although scaffolding can be a part of the activities in the ZPD, the latter does not always involve scaffolding. During learning, the instructor as a facilitator can scaffold or support that process as he assists the learner with comprehension by utilising extra resources to enhance the learning outcomes.

As a socio-cultural cognitive logician, Vygotsky based his theory on tenets that emphasised the learner-centeredness of the learning process. Learners are perceived as active proponents in language learning; they construct their knowledge and meaning by interacting verbally. Furthermore, from a Vygotskian standpoint, language is seen as the tool through which the novice interprets and regulates the world he lives in. The individual's mind is mediated accordingly, and language is considered a tool that the individuals implement in their social and cognitive activity (McCaFerty et al., 2006, p. 11).

1.4.2. The Social Learning Theory

Referred to as the social learning theory, Albert Bandura (1971) developed the social cognitive theory, a prominent social theorist (as cited in Liang, 2002, p.28). His social learning theory bridges the cognitive and behavioural learning theories (Tran, 2013, p.108). The concept that is observing others' behaviour has a significant role for an individual to learn and acquire new things related to one's environment is the basic premise upon which the theory is based (Agarwal& Nagar, 2011, p.52). Bandura (1977) stressed that learning occurs as an outcome of observing and modelling (as cited in Tran, 2013, p. 108). He highlighted that most of what one learns is acquired through watching and listening to others. To him, most children in the very preliminary stages of their development do observe the behaviour of the persons surrounding them; especially their parents, close members of their family as siblings, and later their teachers and older persons in their society and start ultimately imitating them (Agarwal& Nagar, 2011, p.52). Hence, the social learning theory emphasises the significance of the social forces on behaviour. Put simply, an individual's behaviour may be affected by observing others' behaviour.

Concerning the learning process, the social learning theory suggests that learners can develop their knowledge and retention through observing and modelling. This idea is demonstrated in the words of Bandura's words (1977): "most human behaviour is learned

observationally through modelling" and that from "observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action" (p.22) (as cited in Tran, 2013, p. 108). Bandura's theory stressed observational learning and valued the significance of modelling (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.86).

Regarding classroom context, Kagan & Kagan (2009) explained that giving complicated instruction to learners might make it impossible for them to grasp it. Therefore, the teacher can model the complex procedure to accomplish the task (p.86). Schunk (2007) demonstrated that learning does occur in a social environment from the social learning perspective, in which learners obtain knowledge, rules, strategies, and attitudes through observing the persons surrounding them (as cited in Tran, 2013, p. 108).

According to the social learning theory, learning occurs as an outcome of the interaction of three components: persons, behaviours and environment (Schunk, 2007) (as cited in Tran, 2013, p. 108). Bandura (1986) stated that the individual personality develops as the three previously mentioned components interact positively together to develop the learners' self-efficacy, which impacts the learning outcomes of learners (Tran, 2013, p. 108). The triadic interaction model comprises the individual's environment, psychological processes, and behaviour, which increases his self-efficacy, which has a significant influence on his learning process.

Concerning the concept of cooperation, the social learning theory puts the latter concept at the heart of the learning process. For achieving the desired outcome in the learning process, individuals need to cooperate through a collective power to secure what they cannot accomplish on their own individually, Johnson & Johnson (2015, p.5). Nevertheless, other variables are required, such as modelling, coaching and scaffolding. All along with his collaboration with other partners, the learner is likely to rehearse, organise his newly

acquired pieces of information, and he may further explain the material to his collaborator (Johnson & Johnson, 2015)

The social learning theory has two central premises on which it revolves around: behavioural and cognitive frameworks. While the behavioural theoretical foundation relates to the basic assumption underlying modelling in the behavioural learning process, the cognitive framework demonstrates encompassing memory, attention, and motivation as indispensable variables requisite for successful learning to occur.

1.4.3. The Social Interdependence Theory

Historically speaking, the generation of the social interdependence theory is traced to the emerging school of the Gestalt psychology school in Berlin University in the early 1900s (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). The pillars of the Gestalt school advocated that "humans develop organised and meaningful views of their world by perceiving events as integrated wholes rather than as a summation of parts or properties" (Johnson & Johnson, 2009, p. 366). Kurt Koffka, a significant founder of the Gestalt school, pointed out that groups, as dynamic wholes, are gathered interdependently, and that interdependence among the group dynamic wholes is variant. Kurt Lewin (1935, 1948), an influential Gestalt thinker and psychologist, suggested that the essence of a group lies in the interdependence of its members. He further asserted that the group as dynamic wholes might contribute to the change of any member or subgroup and that interdependence is attained when all the group members are set to achieve a common goal. Furthermore, Lewin stressed that once the members of the same group strive for achieving the same goal, a state of positive tension would arise to motivate them to achieve that shared goal (Johnson & Johnson, 2009, p.366)

Morton Deutsch (as one of Lewin's students) was the first researcher who, practically speaking, formulated the social interdependence theory in the 1940s. In his theory, Deutsch advocated that interdependence can be positive (cooperation), negative (competition), or

non-existent (individualistic efforts) (Deutsch, 1949a, 1962) (as cited in Johnson & Johnson 2002a, p. 120). Deutsch extended Lewin's concepts by observing how tension systems of different members within the same group are interrelated (Johnson & Johnson, 2009, p.366). Deutsch postulated two basic types of social interdependence they are respectively: positive interdependence and negative interdependence. The former results when there is a positive correlation among an individual's goal attainments. Hence, the mandatory element that helps the individuals of the same group attain such positive interdependence is their absolute perception that they can attain their goal 'if and only if' the other members of the same group with whom they are cooperatively linked attain their goal well. It is worthy of mentioning in that point that promotive interaction leads to positive interdependence. Put differently, when the learners within the same group assist, help and encourage one another constantly (and this is *promotive interdependence*) to achieve the same shared goal, positive interdependence occurs (Johnson & Johnson, 2009, p. 367).

Nevertheless, negative interdependence occurs when there is a negative correlation among the individuals' goal attainments. When learners within the same group perceive that their goal can be attained 'if and only if' their partners with whom they are competitively linked fail to achieve their goals. Hence, negative interdependence results when an oppositional or conflicting interaction arises—being negatively interdependent manifests, as a phenomenon, when the individuals of the same group tend to discourage and hinder their mates' efforts to achieve their goal (Johnson & Johnson, 2009, p. 367).

Inspired by Deutsch as his previous teacher and Koffka (1935) with his theory of dynamic wholes, David Johnson developed the social interdependence theory (Thanh-Pham, 2013, p.14). Grounded on Deutsch and Koffka underpinnings, the social interdependence theory stresses that the way the social interdependence is structured determines the individuals' interaction and determines the outcomes (Johnson & Johnson 2002a, p. 120) ultimately.

Concerning the structures of the social interdependence theory, Johnson & Johnson (2002a) posited three basic structures parallel with the ones devised by Deutsch. The three structures are fully elucidated subsequently:

Positive interdependence (cooperation) results from promotive interaction as explained beforehand; the latter occurs when individuals support and facilitate each other. Promotive interaction occurs when individuals strive to sustain each other and make efforts to facilitate learning for their peers. It is worth mentioning that positive interdependence can be attained unless the individuals set goals to achieve, and those goals should be positively correlated. Individuals are required to perceive that their goal can be mainly achieved if all the other individuals with whom they are cooperating reach their own set goal (Johnson & Johnson 2002a, p. 120).

Since positive interdependence creates promotive interaction as individuals attempt to facilitate each other's efforts to reach the set goal and strive to maximise each individual's learning outcomes, Johnson & Johnson (2015) elucidated how they can promote their peers' achievement successfully throughout their interaction. The two scholars listed the actions that should be performed productively by the group members during their promotive interaction.

- Giving and receiving help and assistance (both task-related and personal).
- Exchanging resources and information.
- Giving and receiving feedback on task work and teamwork behaviours.
- Challenging each other reasoning.
- Advocating increased efforts to achieve goals. Encouraging others increases their and one's commitment.

- Mutually influencing each other. Group members actively seek to influence and be influenced by each other. If a member has a better way to complete the task, groupmates should quickly adopt it.
- Acting in trusting and trustworthy ways.
- Engaging in the interpersonal and small group skills needed for effective teamwork.
- Processing how effectively group members are working together and how the group's effectiveness can be continuously improved. (Johnson & Johnson, 2015, p. 9)

Negative interdependence (competition) typically results in conflicting interaction as individuals discourage and obstruct each other's efforts to achieve. Negative interdependence (competition) exists when individuals' goal achievements are negatively correlated. Each individual has to perceive that when one person achieves his/her goal on his/her own, the others with whom they are competitively linked are likely to fail in achieving their goals (Johnson & Johnson, 2002a, p.120).

No interdependence is conceptualised when the group members tend to make individual efforts since they do not attribute their set goal to their peers. There would be no correlation among individuals' goal attainments, and no interaction is developed as every individual is working independently without any interchange with other partners. Every individual perceives that he/she can accomplish his goal regardless of whether the rest of the individuals would attain their goal (Johnson & Johnson, 2002a, p.120). For a better illustration, the subsequently inserted figure illustrates plainly the structure of the social interdependence theory.

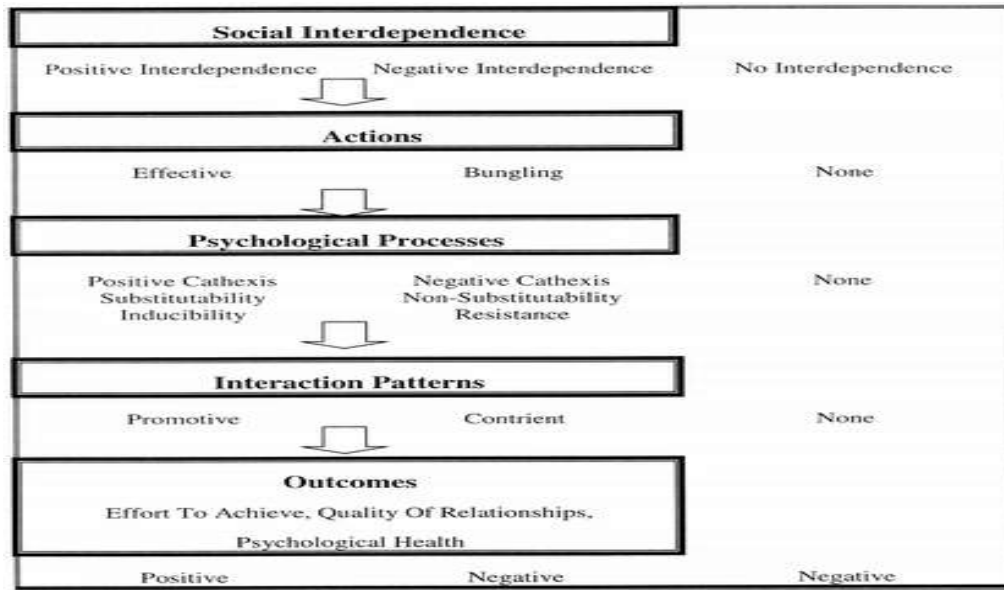


Figure 2. Overview of the social interdependence theory. Adapted from "New Developments in Social Interdependence Theory" by Johnson & Johnson, 2005. Journal of the American Psychological Association Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 131 (4).p.289. Copyright 2006 by Heldref Publications.

Exposing the prominent theories underlying the theoretical foundations of CL is worthwhile since it helps in identifying the fundamental conceptions upon which it is founded. It is significant to shed light, subsequently, on the parallels and disparities that lie in those theories as an attempt to amplify comprehensively how each theory shaped the development of CL as a ripen and thriving learning theory that is applied worldwide.

1.5. Elements of Cooperative Learning

Cooperating successfully implies that learners to strive for achieving productive outcomes. Teachers endeavouring to make CL an effective practice need to make a challenge to establish its essential elements. It is not a matter of assembling and banding students together in groups and waiting for them to work on tasks cooperatively. It is somewhat more challenging than that. Unless its essential elements explicated subsequently are ensured, students would be away from being perceived as cooperative. The five elements that are strongly allied with the proficient implementation of CL are perceived as its internal dynamics that make individuals' interaction valuable. These principles are: *positive*

interdependence, individual accountability; promotive interaction; social skills and group processing; each element is explained subsequently.

1.5.1. Positive Interdependence

Positive interdependence is a basic premise that teachers need to establish among their learners. It has to be appropriately achieved as an internal dynamic as it is considered the heart of cooperative efforts (Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 2013). Positive interdependence cannot exist unless learners perceive themselves as strongly connected to others. They can do so by believing that their success is tied to their peers' one and vice versa. To Johnson & Johnson (2002), positive interdependence might be embodied in the principle of '*sink or swim together*' (2002b, p.2). In a positive interdependence situation, learners are required to assume two responsibilities; firstly, they need to learn the material and ascertain that all the peers in the group do the same. Hence, this dual responsibility is technically known as positive interdependence (Tindale et al., 2002, p. 27).

Aligned with the previously stated explanations of positive interdependence, Kagan & Kagan (2009) alleged that this concept refers to the two distinct conditions that promote cooperation: 1) a positive correlation of outcomes and 2) interdependence. When the two conditions occur, learners' achieve outcomes that go up and down together, becoming positively interconnected (p.326).

Thus, it is worthwhile for an instructor who strives to apply CL to make his learners believe that their 'success' is no more seen as an individual achievement. It is instead attained when all the group members succeed in accomplishing the assigned task. Regarding its practice, Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1998) suggest that teachers might simply supplement this positive interdependence by adding *joint rewards* such as giving bonus points to the whole members of a given group who score well in a test or when performing a task. Instructors can *divide resources* among the group members, giving each a part of the

requisite information to accomplish the task. Teachers might also stimulate the realisation of positive interdependence through enhancing *complementary roles* among the peers of the same group. Hence, in so doing, every learner within the same group might play a definite role (reader, checker, encourager, elaborator) (Johnson et al., 1998, p.30). However, it is worthy of denoting that those roles overlap but are not independent since they are complementary.

A favourable interdependence situation incorporates two basic procedures. Firstly, each student should perceive that his work benefits his groupmates and the work of his peers would be beneficial to him as well. Moreover, groupmates are expected to work together to maximise all the members' learning by exchanging the acquired resources, providing assistance, encouragement, and ultimately celebrating the merited success (Johnson et al., 1998, p.27). Eventually, to establish positive interdependence skillfully, each learner would be convinced of the worth of his efforts and that his contributions are indispensable for the whole group's success.

Positive interdependence needs to be carefully structured to ensure the pursued aims and make CL work productive. Therefore, instructors and teachers should know how to structure positive interdependence within a learning group. To so doing, Johnson & Johnson (2004) proposed the four following ways of structuring it.

First, learners cooperating in a group should assume some responsibilities. They are expected to learn the assigned material and then make sure the group members grasp the material. They are ultimately required to feel responsible for the task's comprehension by all the students in the class. Provided students believe they are, indeed, in a 'swim or sink together' learning situation, only then teachers are deemed successful in setting positive goal interdependence (Johnson & Johnson, 2004, p.29). Put otherwise; teachers create positive interdependence by structuring positive joint learning goals. Adequately structuring positive

interdependence entails that, on the one hand, there can be 'no free riders' since every student in a CL group should save no efforts to make the whole group succeed in achieving the set task's goal. On the other hand, every student is supposed to make a unique contribution to the joint effort because of his resources, role, and task responsibilities (McCafferty et al., 2006, p.39).

Second, to develop the quality of cooperation, teachers can add joint rewards when they achieve their set goal. Thereby, all the group members would receive the same reward for the attained goal. To support positive goal interdependence, teachers might, for example, add five points as a bonus for all the students provided all the individuals within the same group score 90% on the test. Alternatively, teachers might as well give first an overall grade for the achievement of the whole group and grades for each individual in the test next to bonus points that can be given in case all the members approach the set criterion of task (Johnson et al., 1994, p.28). Offering sustained and constant reward to students and enabling them to celebrate their success would undeniably enhance the cooperative spirit and reinforce the quality of cooperation.

Student's grades should not be based on the average grade of his/her group. As termed by McCafferty et al. (2006): "Other possibilities include the group's average as a percentage of each members' grade and bonus points if the group's average increases or is above a certain score" (p.40). It should be noted that grading groups may lead to problematic issues and bring about adverse outcomes. Moreover, in knowing previously that all mates in the group would be graded upon the work of the whole groups, two negative results may occur. Students might be encouraged to freeload and be unenthusiastic to make efforts since they are convinced that the other peers would increase their grades by their contribution. On the other hand, hardworking students may feel less predisposed to do their best since they are

convinced that their hard work would be pulled down by a given freeloader mate in the group (Kagan, 1995, pp.68-69).

Third, positive interdependence can be fostered by establishing resource interdependence relates to the sources that learners combine to succeed holistically. One of the most favourable outcomes yielded from positive resource interdependence is that it develops complementarily perception. Hence, this type of interdependence might pertain to either complementary resources or common resources (Topping, Buchs, Duran, & Van Keer, 2017, p. 67). The first can be introduced in three ways; each student is given resources on specific ability or skill, making the resources available in a team, albeit varied, but complementary. Then, complementary resources can be initiated in instruction forms. For instance, a teacher may ask each student to prepare one part of the task before the group discussion occurs. Finally, the teacher may provide each student with a part of the material to study or pieces of information or resources required to attain the assigned goal. In so doing, learners are said to be in a positive resource independence situation as there would be a mutual dependence on each other's resources. Perderson & Digby (2013) stated that "individuals benefit only from obtaining resources from each other, not from giving their resources to each other" (p.34).

As for classroom contexts, teachers might highlight cooperative relationships by providing their students with limited resources that must be shared. For example, they might give them a single copy of the problem or task per group). Alternatively, teachers might hand each student in the cooperative group with a part of the required resources that the group must fit together for the task completion (Johnson et al.,1994, p.28). McCafferty et al. (2006) stated that one of the best examples of establishing positive resource interdependence is to assign the students to perform a jigsaw activity. Each student is provided with a unique source of pivotal value for the whole group achievement. Concretely speaking, in a biology

project, one can have been handed a camera, while a student might hold a notebook, and the third can use instruments to measure the water quality (McCafferty et al., 2006,p.41).

Finally, in positive role interdependence, students learn to assume responsibility for achieving the assigned task (Galton et al., 2015, p. 78). Being assigned a definite role in teamwork fosters their commitment to play their specific roles perfectly. Performing tasks by playing a definite role is a complementary and highly requisite responsibility for accomplishing the task lucratively. Positive role interdependence is complementary since each member's role in the team is interconnected and paired not to be partitioned. Put otherwise, Johnson et al. (1994) elucidated that the teacher might allocate the roles in a group by dispensing them with complementary roles "such as reader, recorder, checker of understanding, encourager of participation, and elaborator of knowledge" (p.28).

Topping et al. (2017, pp.66-.67) suggested that teachers should first let their learners select their roles by themselves to make them feel more comfortable with the roles they chose to play. They may suggest changing these roles each time for improving their weak competencies. In the classroom context, McCafferty et al. (2006) stated that we could create diverse roles:

- a facilitator: the student is the coordinator in the task performance.
- An observer of collaborative skills: the student checks if the group members use collaborative skills, which are indispensable for boosting the groupmates' interaction.
- A transcriber: the student is in charge of recording the achievements of the group.
- A keyboarder: the student is in charge of typing the decisions taken by the group into a computer.
- A timekeeper: this implies the student remind the groupmates about the deadlines, so they stay on the same schedule with the rest of the groups in the classroom.

- A reporter: the student reports the others about the group's work (McCafferty et al., 2006, p. 41).

Topping et al. (2017, p.67), McCafferty et al. (2006, p.41) reckoned the must to make the attributed roles rotating around the students to enable each one to develop his skills. Teachers would ensure that low proficient students do not always have minor roles to play in the group. When group members perceive their efforts as dispensable for the group's success, they might save their efforts to achieve success for the whole group. It boosts learners' achievement and enhances the concept of tutoring among them, as revealed by Kagan & Kagan (2009), . It also has numerous effects on individuals' motivation and productivity. It results in outstanding and worthy outcomes once applied purposefully and rigorously.

Many researchers such as Tindale et al. (2002), Kagan & Kagan (2009) summarised the outcomes of series of research that have been conducted to investigate the impact of positive interdependence on learners' achievement; these outcomes are subsequently listed:

- Positive interdependence is conceived as a stimulating factor fostering the learners' sense of responsibility. (Tindale et al. (2002).
- Positive interdependence is highly vital to make interpersonal interaction advantageous and practical. As confirmed in many studies (Lew, Mesch, Johnson & Johnson, 1985a, b; Mesch, Johnson, & Johnson, 1988; Mesch, Lew, Johnson, Johnson, 1986a, b) (as cited in Tindale et al., 2002), learners attained higher achievement under positive goal interdependence than they do when set to perform tasks individualistically.
- Incorporating goal and reward interdependence is conducive to incite learners to be productive in their process of learning (as cited in Tindale et al., 2002).
- In working cooperatively, learners would strive to achieve reward and simultaneously avoid the loss of reward (Tindale et al., 2002).

- West, Tjosvold and Smith (2003) ascertained that establishing positive interdependence produces cooperation. It boosts learners' achievement and enhances the concept of tutoring among them. When group members perceive their efforts as dispensable, they might save their efforts to achieve success for the whole group (West et al., 2003, p.174).
- Establishing positive interdependence produces cooperation. It boosts learners' achievement and (2009).

Highlighting the concept of positive interdependence with its diverse facets through which it might be structured is pivotal for teachers who attempt to apply it in their classes and their teaching process. The success of implementing CL is aligned with the adequate structuring of positive interdependence since the latter is the core element of CL next to the other components listed subsequently.

1.5.2. Individual/Personal Accountability

Positive interdependence is posited to stimulate 'responsibility forces' that are highly needed for inciting and provoking learners' feeling of responsibility and accountability (Gillies, 2008, p.22). As a primary component of CL, individual accountability exists when each student is assessed according to his/her performance. Afterwards, the results are given back to the individual and the whole group's members. In so doing, every student is held responsible for ensuring his/her fair share in achieving success (Johnson & Johnson, 2002b).

Slavin (1987, p.5) explained that individual accountability demonstrates when: "[T]he team's success depends on the individual learning of all team members." He further asserted that all groups should encourage their members to participate and meaningfully demonstrate their knowledge and skills (Slavin, 1987, p. 5). McCafferty et al. (2006, p.5) added that in developing individual accountability, the overall knowledge of the group is likely to develop as all members would strive for attaining the goals and subgoals set for the

task. That is, each individual would do his to be successful on his own. Given that, he is supposed to extend the whole group's knowledge.

To know more about the implementation of individual accountability and structure it efficiently, there are some tips suggested by Johnson et al. (1994, p. 31) and adopted in the classroom. First, they should minimise the size of the CL learning group, assign individual tests for each student regularly. They should also record the frequency with which each group contributes to assignment performance and designate a 'checker' to establish individual accountability. "Simultaneous explaining" is another practical tip that teachers can use to make their learners responsible. In practising 'simultaneous explaining', each individual teaches other individuals what he/she learnt (McCafferty et al., 2006, p. 5)

Teachers should care for the appropriate implementation of individual accountability to ascertain that it does not overlap with positive interdependence because individual accountability reduces the possibility of the 'free rider' effect.

1.5.3. Face-to-face Promotive Interaction

A substantial nexus between positive interdependence and promotive interaction exists as elucidated by Galton, Lai and Chan (2015) since the latter results in face-to-face promotive interaction (p.80). Being positively interdependent entails a face-to-face promotive interaction to take place. In accomplishing a task cooperatively, this type of interaction occurs among students who are supposed to encourage each other and facilitate the other members' achievement of the task's goals. In so doing, learners do foster and promote the quality of interaction.

Hence, positive interdependence is not on its own sufficient to develop learners-learners interaction. Promotive interaction reinforces the feeling of commitment and caring among individuals. It results, as elucidated by Johnson et al. (1994), in the following outcomes:

- Provides efficient and practical help and assistance to each other,

- exchanges needed resources such as information and materials,
- enables learners to process information adequately and effectively,
- develops learner' ways of addressing feedback to improve subsequent performance,
- promotes high-quality decision making and deepens insights into the problem being considered throughout inciting learners to challenge each other's conclusions and reasoning,
- develops learners' commitment to achieving a common goal,
- enhances trust among students,
- makes learners more striving for mutual benefits,
- makes learners experience less stress and anxiety Johnson et al. (1994, p.30).

Hence, face-to-face promotive interaction importance lies in the fact that it makes learners involved emotionally in promoting the progress of their partners, as it develops their level of reasoning and their attempt to solve problems holistically as a group. As a component of CL, promotive interaction is crucial since it forges learners' emotional bonds and makes them socially and emotionally connected. Face to face promotive interaction paves the way for the individuals to develop their social skills; the latter is another fundamental pillar constructing CL, and it is exposed subsequently.

1.5.4. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills

Interpersonal and small group skills (ISGS) are basic teamwork skills required to function effectively. Nevertheless, it is pivotal to ensure that learners who learn cooperatively practise it efficiently. It is not sufficient to place students in groups in a CL classroom and ask them to work cooperatively. Teachers who endeavour to teach with this method need to teach these skills to their learners at the outset explicitly. Otherwise, their students are likely to experience quarrels and conflicts while working in groups (Gillies, 2007, p.41). Accordingly, learning in a CL context is said to be more complex and intricate

than learning in an individualistic /competitive context, as highlighted by Johnson et al. (1994)

Bearing in mind the significance of establishing ISGS, teachers are advised to train their learners about the essential social skills needed to cooperate, such as communication, conflict resolution skills, effective leadership, and decision-making skills. Gillies (2007) made a classification of those skills as follows:

a. Interpersonal Skills

- Actively listening to each other
- Stating ideas freely
- Accepting responsibility for one's behaviours
- Providing constructive criticism

b. Small-Group Skills

- Taking turns
- Sharing tasks
- Making decision democratically
- Trying to understand the other person's perspective
- Clarifying differences (Gillies, 2007, pp.41-42)

If teachers train their learners recurrently how to trust one another; communicate effectively; tolerate differences in perspectives; resolve conflicts constructively, group productivity will be higher qualitatively and quantitatively. In stressing the implementation of ISGS, learners would be more motivated to cooperate.

1.5.5. Group Processing

As the fifth element of CL, group processing is significant to determine whether learners cooperate efficiently or not. Group processing occurs when the group members reflect on (i.e, process) how well they functioned (Pederson& Digby, 2013, p.38). From

the scholars' perspective, group processing entails making ongoing reflection sessions where students (a) report which members' actions were helpful and unhelpful, (b) decide what actions to continue and to change. In so doing, light is shed on the effectiveness of each member in attaining the task's goals.

Few studies have been conducted so far to consider the impact of group processing on academic achievement. Nevertheless, an experimental study was conducted by Yager, Johnson and Johnson (1985a, p.2) in which three contexts were examined: in the first, students were learning in a cooperative group and implemented group processing by discussing how well their group members were functioning. In the second context, students were learning in cooperative groups but without any group processing. In the last one, students learned in an individualistic context. Thus, the study's findings revealed that high medium and low achieving students who used the group processing technique outperformed the others belonging to the two other contexts in the first context.

As suggested by Johnson et al. (1994, p.33), there are two levels of group processing, *small group processing* and *whole class processing*. The first occurs when the teacher allocates some time to his students at the end of each session to process and consider how well they effectively performed as group members. Small group processing may result in positive outcomes that are listed subsequently:

- Making good working relationship among learners,
- facilitating the learning of cooperative skills,
- ensuring the reception of feedback to each individual,
- ensuring that learners consider their metacognitive and cognitive skill,
- Creating opportunities to celebrate group success and reinforcing positive behaviour.

(Johnson et al., 1994, p.33)

Making small group processing successful entails devoting adequate time and presenting structures of practising it such as 'e.g., list three items that your group is doing well today and one thing you could do better as recommended by Johnson et al. (1994). Moreover, Teachers need to stress the importance of addressing specific rather than general feedback and relying more on positive feedback; they have also to try keeping their students involved in the processing course. They need to remind their students about the significance of using their cooperative skills and highlighting clear expectations about the processing.

Concerning the second level, namely *whole class processing*, teachers may put it into practice periodically. They may, for instance, observe learners who are working cooperatively in groups and detect faced problems, provide feedback to each group. Practically speaking, teachers can use observation sheets to note the progress and needed data of each group. Subsequently, teachers need to conduct the whole class processing at the end of the class. They discuss their observations all along with their students' ones in case groups assign a group observer.

The strength of both small class and whole class group processing lies in the fact that they both boost learners' sense of involvement; promote high achievement that hopefully results in enthusiasm, commitment, sense of belonging, and self-efficacy.

1.6. Merits of the Cooperative Learning Method Implementation

A great deal of research has, so far, proved the efficacy of implementing CL in different areas in the educational field, such as learning, self-esteem, liking for school and interethnic relations (Jacobs and Hall, 2002, p.53). In conducting series of research that is firmly grounded, scholars such as Webb (1982, 1983, 1985); Slavin (1990, 1994); Jonson & Johnson (1985) reported positive correlations between academic achievement and the implementation of CL techniques (as cited in Jacob, 1999, p.14). CL results in positive outcomes in diverse classroom settings, as strongly contended by many researchers, who

have so far proven that cooperative learning may solve various educational problems (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith 1991; Slavin 1991) (as cited in Hendrix, 1996, p.334).

Oxford (1997) shed light on the positive outcomes that learners might benefit from in learning cooperatively. These benefits are broadly academic, cognitive, and psychological. Cohen (1994); Johnson & Johnson (1989); Sharan (1980) (as cited in Mcpherson, 2009, p.13); Slavin (1995), and many other researchers conducted hundreds of studies across a wide range of subject areas and with different age groups to see the outcomes yielded from the application of the CL principles. Thus, Mcpherson (2009) acknowledged that learning within the realm of CL, and following the plethora of research conducted on CL, students attained superior results regarding different variables, including achievement, thinking skill, interethnic relation, school liking, self-esteem. The merits of the application of CL are classified into cognitive and academic achievement outcomes, psychological outcomes, and social outcomes. They are subsequently explained:

1.6.1. Cognitive and Academic Outcomes

CL has been proven practical in creating learning environments fostering academic achievement for learners of all levels and all disciplines (Johnson & Johnson, 1993) (as cited in Thanh-Pham, 2014, p.16). Being actively engaged in CL activities, learners learn best and more of what is taught, retain better what they are being instructed than they do in conventional teacher-fronted classrooms as suggested by many scholars such as Cohen and Lotan (1995); Dillenbourg (1999); Folley and O'Dodonnell (2002); Soliman and Okba (2006) (as cited in Thanh-Pham, 2014, p.16). A rigorous meta-analysis that comprised 122 studies probing diverse variables: such as developing learners' acquisition, retention, accuracy, creativity, and problem-solving, was introduced. All these studies have been conducted to scrutinize the effects of CL on each variable in different grades, levels, gender, age, and subject matters. Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson & Skon (1981) concluded that

cooperation promotes higher achievement and enhances productivity than individualistic and competitive learning contexts (p.56) concerning different subjects as reading, writing, mathematics and others (Johnson et al., 1981). Mcpherson (2009) asserted that in experimental-control comparison studies of the achievement effects of cooperative learning, most confirmed significantly more outstanding achievement in cooperative than control classes (p. 13).

Nevertheless, the prerequisite to achieve better academic outcomes, individual accountability and group goals must be present for these gains to be attained, as stressed by Slavin (1990, p.52). Mcpherson (2009) highlighted that in learning cooperatively, learners who provide and receive more elaborated explanations are the ones who benefit the most from the assigned tasks (p.13).

Johnson & Johnson (1985b) confirmed that the process of elaborative rehearsal of the material, receiving support from team members, and 'constructive controversy' among students increase the achievement benefits of CL. Johnson et al. (1994) recapitulated that: "over 357 experimental studies on achievement have been conducted over the past 90 years, a meta-analysis of all studies indicates that cooperative learning results in significantly higher achievement and retention than do competitive and individualistic learning" (p.19).

Thus, in what follows, some of the most pivotal academic achievements that might yield from CL are summarized:

1.6.1.1.Higher Level Thinking Development

CL is posited to develop learners' level of thinking in any subject and discipline. Agarwal & Nagar (2011, p.143) stated that learners learn how to debate, negotiate, and discuss to clarify their ideas to their mates in interacting together. Both scholars stated that all along the process of working in groups of three to four members, learners learn how to listen, discuss the question under investigation. In doing so, they are likely to develop their

problem-solving skills, receive feedback on their partners, and respond to the addressed questions and comments.

Slavin (1992) upheld the developmental perspective (namely, the Piagetian and the Vygotskian perspectives, which were discussed in **section 1.4.1.**) that considers learners' interaction as an incentive to emerge from cognitive controversies. Thus, those cognitive controversies are highly needed to attain a high understanding (p. 162). Similarly, Johnson et al. (1994) concurred with Slavin's perspective that academic conflicts (referred to as controversies by Slavin), which are conceived as inevitable once CL is established in the classroom, are likely to result in a high level of thinking and reasoning. The researchers elucidated that academic conflicts exist when one student's ideas, information, conclusions, and opinions are incompatible with another, and the two seek agreement (p.79). When each learner endeavours to convince his peers of his position, he would try to be as persuasive as possible. Simultaneously the other mates are supposed to listen carefully, take notes, analyse critically, and evaluate the information. In having different opposing positions, learners would have a variety of facts and information about the task. They would tackle the topic from diverse standpoints to achieve agreement and accomplish the shared goal. Johnson et al. (1994) further asserted that the divergence of the learners' opinions and the conflicts arising while cooperating is postulated to lead to inquiry. The latter enhances their critical thinking, higher level of reasoning, and transferring learning to new situations (pp.79-80).

Congruent with the same viewpoint, Totten, Sills, Digby, & Russ (1991, as cited in Gokhale, 1995) highlighted that collaboration among peers in the classroom paves the way for them to engage in discussions and become ultimately critical thinkers. Gokhale (1995) inferred, after conducting an experimental study to investigate the effectiveness of cooperative learning vs individual learning in enhancing critical thinking skills, that the

participants in the cooperative group significantly outperformed those who were learning individually (p.28).

1.6.1.2. Language Practice Opportunities

McGroarty (1989) stressed the growing importance that CL has gained in the realm of second language acquisition (SLA). She listed six outstanding benefits that are likely to be generated from CL application in L2 classrooms, ranging from social, linguistic to pedagogical outcomes. Among those linguistic outcomes are the pivotal opportunities offered to ESL learners to practise the language and have more possibilities to negotiate to mean as highlighted by the scholar: "In second language classrooms, cooperative learning as exemplified in small group work provides frequent opportunity for natural second language practice and negotiation of meaning through talk." McGroarty (1989, p.131).

Long and Porter (1985) reviewed the benefits of EFL/ESL learners while working in groups. Both researchers argued that group work increases language practice opportunities. From their perspective, ESL/EFL learners' low achievement may result from not having the time and the chance to produce the target language ; accordingly, their oral/aural skills are not adequately developed (Long & Porter, 1985, p. 208). Moreover, Long & Porter (1985) highlighted that contrariwise to teacher-fronted classrooms, in which rigid patterns of interaction occur, the face-to-face communication prevailing in group work results in natural conversations that enhance the quality of learners' talk. Unlike ESL/EFL classrooms that advocate group work in learning processes, ESL/EFL learners in teacher-fronted classrooms may not be given sufficient opportunities to develop their discourse competencies, as Long & Porter (1985) confirmed. Both scholars clarified that: "Two or three students working together for five minutes at a stretch are not limited to producing hurried, isolated "sentences." Rather, they can engage in cohesive and coherent sequences of utterances, thereby developing discourse competence, not just (at best) a sentence grammar." (p.209)

Group work paves the way for learners to negotiate meaning more and develop their interlanguage when assigned to perform tasks in a small group (Long & Porter, 1985). After conducting a study on interlanguage development in an adult EFL context in Mexico, Long, Adams, McLean, and Castañios (1976) concluded that group work did not only enhance the quality of language practice of non-native speakers (NNSs), it further improved the quality of the talk they produced as to the negotiation process (as cited in Long & Porter, 1985, p.215). Likewise, Varonis and Gass (1985) argued that by engaging in conversations, learners as NNSs would find a valuable and a non-threatening context, in which they can practise diverse language skills and make the input to which they are exposed more comprehensible by practising more negotiation (as cited in Long & Porter, 1985, p.217).

1.6.1.3. Cognitive Outcomes

Impressing is the effect of CL on boosting learners' cognitive development, as documented by many researchers, among whom are Kagan & Kagan (2009). The researchers put into plain words that while learning cooperatively, learners do interact. In so doing, they provide each other with new information and new ways of thinking about information. Accordingly, they develop a higher level of the cognitive framework since they are likely to come across situations in which the newly exposed information may not be assimilated into their old conceptual system; thus, they are required to accommodate (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.67). Necessary and prerequisite are for ESL/EFL learners to improve their cognitive strategies underscored by Oxford (1990): "Cognitive strategies are essential in learning a new language" (p.43). Among these cognitive skills are language practice, and analysing and reasoning. Learners, who are assigned to perform tasks cooperatively, might be more apt to develop their cognitive aspects than learners in competitive/individualistic classroom contexts.

1.6.1.4.Retention Enhancement

CL paves the way for learners to teach and tutor one another in different situations. It entails a depth of knowledge and understanding of the concepts, organization, and memory. Hence, the consistent attempt to teach the others basic concepts makes learners retain them better, as highlighted by Hartman (2001) when he reported: "Cooperative learning provides situations for students to teach each other. When students explain and teach concepts to each other, retention of these concepts improves" (p.165). Similarly, Agarwal & Nagar (2011) clarified that in CL tasks, learners' attempt to grasp the content of a text; for instance, they would try to explain to their peers what they understood and evaluate each other's explanations. In so doing, they are likely to develop more critical thinking. They would attempt to frame the new concepts and information using their vocabulary and base them on their prior knowledge. Thus, all along that process, learners might enhance and deepen their understanding of the material and retain for a long time what they have assimilated (Agarwal and Nagar, 2011, p.145).

Likewise, Johnson & Johnson (1989) asserted, "Cooperation, when compared with competitive and individualistic efforts, tends to promote greater long-term retention" (p.371). Tran (2014) documented the attribution of CL in promoting retention by reporting the results of many experimental studies conducted to see its relevance to developing learning retention and whose results proved to be efficient. Among these studies, Susa's one (2006) revealed that the method proved to be efficient in enhancing learners' retention than other teaching methods (as cited in Tran, 2014, p.133). Moore (2008) also conducted a study whose findings confirmed that 65% of the taught material had been retained by the students who taught one another in cooperative groups (as cited in Tran, 2014, p.133). Similarly, Zakaria, Chin, & Daud (2010); Webb (2008) (as cited in Tran, 2014); Johnson & Johnson (1989) all concluded that in CL situations, students retain more knowledge when they offer

more explanation and elaboration to others. As Schraw (2001) highlighted, metacognition consists of knowledge regulatory skills used to control one's cognition and the knowledge one has about his/her cognitive processes (p.4). Metacognition is different from cognition in the sense that the latter is necessary to perform tasks in learning situations; whereas metacognitive skills (as centring one's learning, arranging and planning one's learning and evaluating one's learning as suggested by Oxford, 1990, p.17), are pivotal to understand how the task was performed (Schraw, 2001, p.3). In developing their metacognitive skills, learners recognize and analyse more their learning processes, be more trained to detect errors and work on their correction by monitoring their performance. Agarwal& Nagar (2011, p.144) clarified that CL methods create learning strategies independent of content and can be transferable to different subject matters.

Moreover, Johnson& Johnson (1994) elucidated that the efficient practice of group processing as a fundamental component of CL is supposed to improve learners' metacognitive strategies. Group processing provides them with opportunities to think about their performances (Johnson& Johnson,1994, p.33). Consistent with the same concept, Agarwal& Nagar (2011) clarified that while working cooperatively, learners engage in oral discussion that encompasses diverse metacognitive strategies, which are planning, monitoring, and evaluating their performances. More importantly, CL, most often, results in conflicts in which learners strive for accommodating their prior information to their peers' ones. Only in discussing, debating their perspectives and ideas, they adjust many of their metacognitive strategies and end by ripening them positively. The striking effect of CL on learners' metacognitive skills development can be discernible in considering learners' capacity to externalize their ideas by sharing them with their peers. In so doing, they elaborate their reasoning, be more skilled at self-monitoring, and self-regulate their learning process. CL groups make each member evaluate his contribution to the task and enable each

member to discern the best suggestions they could adopt in their future performances (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p. 145).

1.6.2. Psychological Outcomes

CL is deemed valuable in achieving positive psychological outcomes compared to individualistic and competitive learning contexts, as stated by Macpherson (2009): “Learners in classrooms with a significant amount of cooperative learning were psychologically healthier than learners who were not. They had higher self-esteem. Learners in cooperative learning classes have more positive feelings about themselves than do learners in traditional classes.” (p.14)

As documented by a plethora of research, learning is effective in boosting some psychological and affective variables. It helps developing self-esteem, motivation, enthusiasm, groupmates feeling reinforcement, creating positive attitudes towards learning. Its diverse implemented techniques promote many positive psychological outcomes, as confirmed by Johnson and Johnson (2017). In what follows, a succinct summary of some psychological welfares of CL- or preferably named as psychological health components by Johnson & Johnson (1994), is exposed.

1.6.2.1. Positive Attitudes towards Learning

Having conducted many series of research in which he attempted to corroborate the significance of CL in developing learners' attitudes towards learning, Slavin (1987) validated the fact that a positive attitude towards learning and school is strongly aligned with learning cooperatively. He further asserted that learners in CL classrooms tend to like school better and hold positive commitments towards the process of their academic success and their classmates' one (as cited in Hendrix, 1996, p. 334). Regarding learning foreign languages, the French one namely, Gunderson and Johnson (1980) stated that: "While competitive and individualistic learning do have their place, the use of cooperative learning groups is an

important teaching strategy for promoting positive attitudes toward learning a foreign language" (p.39). Moreover, in working on academic assignments cooperatively, learners' involvement intensifies due to empowering them. A positive feeling towards their learning process transpires accordingly (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p.161)

As far as ESL/EFL classroom context is concerned, Ning and Hornby (2014) reported that a study was conducted in Thailand by Waugh, Bowering, and Chayarathee in 2005 to compare the impact of CL vs traditional teaching. The results provided evidence prioritizing the use of CL to improve students' attitudes and behaviour towards EFL learning (Ning & Hornby, 2014, p.5). Consistent with the same findings, Gömleksiz (2007) carried out a study to investigate the differences between a CL model and whole-class instruction in influencing students' attitudes towards English learning. Thus, the findings were statistically in favour of the use of CL as to the enhancement of learners' attitudes towards English language learning and proved to be efficient in developing better interactions among them (as cited in Ning & Hornby, 2014, p.5). Ning & Hornby (2014, pp. 11-12) reviewed many studies conducted to investigate the practicality of CL compared to traditional teaching in heightening EFL learners' positive attitudes towards learning (Gömleksiz 2007; Sachs et al. 2003; Waugh, Bowering, and Chayarathee 2005) (as cited in Ning & Hornby, 2014, p.5). Thus, all these studies statistically corroborated its significance in enhancing learners' positive attitudes towards learning foreign languages.

1.6.2.2. Self-esteem Enhancement

Porter (2000) defined self-esteem as a measure of how much one values his skills and capacities; how one perceives his quality determines the extent to which he is psychologically healthy. So far, several studies have been carried out to investigate the relevance of the CL to enhancing learners' self-esteem. Slavin (1985) reported that most of these studies concluded that the latter is a direct outcome of CL with its diverse techniques

and classroom settings as most of the learners involved in these investigations experienced the sense of being appreciated and liked by peers on the one hand. On the other hand, academically succeeding developed their sense of self-pride, self-efficacy, and self-esteem as stated by Slavin (1985) "Almost every cooperative learning study that included a self-esteem measure found significantly positive effects on this outcome" (p.12).

Being caring and committed to achieving one's and others' success by cooperatively completing assignments is pivotal to ensure more psychological health and higher self-esteem than does compete with peers or working independently. Johnson & Johnson (2017) further asserted that making joint efforts to achieve mutual goals promotes learners' self-esteem, self-efficacy, personal control, and confidence in their competencies. All these components are prerequisites to achieving psychological health that compels the construction of the feeling of respect from others. The latter is fostered and creates friendship relationships that nurture self-esteem among learners and ultimately leads to more adjustment (Johnson & Johnson, 2017, p.9). Likewise, Blaney, Stephen, Rosenfield, Aronson, and Sikes (1978, p.127) investigated the manifestation of self-esteem in interdependent learning group context vs traditional learning context; they concluded that self-esteem increased considerably in the former context than in the latter one.

Considering the significance of the affective variables, self-esteem in the learning processes is a prerequisite. Language teachers should give it a prime position in their teaching practices. Williams (1994) highlighted an inevitable substantial nexus that binds language learning: an L2 or an FL- and the affection domain since the language being learnt is the vehicle by which individuals express their feelings and emotions. Thus, the fact of not mastering the vehicle of expression, i.e., a foreign language, as Williams (1994) clarified, might affect negatively one's self-esteem, self-image, and one's identity as well (as cited in Arnold, 2011, pp.11-12).

Arnold (2011) further asserted that fostering learners' competence in a target language brings about more confidence; hence, the learning process of the target language might become easier (p.16). He also elucidated that enhancing target language learners' self-esteem is not merely telling them 'you can do it; it rather denotes great efforts from the target language teachers. He put it into plain words: "...to work with self-esteem, and other affective issues are done to provide a supportive atmosphere in which we can better encourage learners to work hard to reach their learning potential" (Arnold, 2011, p.16). The researcher assumed that TL teachers must deal with any negative self-belief in learners that may provoke their self-esteem to decline, such as bad prior experience in learning processes. Accordingly, those negative self-beliefs that could have occurred can severely inhibit their progress in learning a target language. In light of the findings of his study, Arnold (2011, p.20) stressed the necessity of adopting new educational programmes in teaching languages, educational programmes, such as CL, to fit with affect variables comprising self-esteem.

1.6.2.3. Motivation Enhancement

Motivating students to learn is one of the most challenging and appealing tasks that most educators and teachers strive to achieve. Succeeding in the learning process implies that learners are engaged emotionally, cognitively, and behaviourally to accomplish tasks in the classroom (Woolfolk, Hughes, and Walkup, 2013, p.429). Motivation has been widely investigated in the field of education, namely, the learning processes sphere. However, no agreed-upon definition has been, so far, provided for the concept of motivation. Woolfolk et al. (2013) termed motivation as: "an internal state that arouses, directs and maintains behaviour" (p. 430). They further clarified that motivation, like most researchers in psychology, is energized from internal, personal factors such as needs, interest, and curiosity that psychologists name *intrinsic motivation*. The latter is stimulated by the natural personal tendency to conquer and seek out challenges from one's driving force without being enthused

by getting a reward afterwards. Being intrinsically motivated makes learners interested in the activity itself, not the reward is given. On the other hand, the motivation that may stem from external factors such as earning grades, fearing punishment, gaining other's interest and approval is the second type of motivation called *extrinsic motivation*. To be extrinsically motivated entails being interested in the gains after performing the task rather than being interested in conducting the task itself (Woolfolk et al., 2013, p.430).

Effective is CL in developing motivation compared to traditional teaching methods as validated by many studies. In an analysis that encompassed 15 studies, 11 demonstrated moderate and significant effects of CL implementation on enhancing learners' motivation (Snowman, McCown and Biehler, 2012, p.474).

As elucidated by Snowman et al. (2012), CL works' incentive is its features, of which is positive interdependence. These features are appealing and inspiring as they stimulate achievement-oriented behaviours as trying hard, praising the performance of others, and receiving constructive assistance from peers and teachers. In a classroom where the method is implemented, learning is an obligation that entails the full engagement of all groupmates to achieve success. In brief, learning is highly valued, which makes it motivating and fascinating (Snowman et al., 2012, p.425).

Many motivation theorists maintain that learning in traditional classroom contexts, in which learners tend to compete with each other for reinforcement, reduces others' opportunities to succeed (Ning & Hornby, 2014, p.111). Therefore, peers' attempt to make more efforts is diminished (p.111). Contrariwise, learners in CL strive to reinforce all the group members since they are positively interdependent. Similarly, Dörnyei (1997, p.487) and Slavin (1995, p.16) reported that CL could affect motivation in L2 due to three components: *goal structure, reward structure, and group dynamics*. Goal structure- a fundamental pillar upon which CL operates- is one of the most imperative mechanisms that

boost learners intrinsic motivation from pre-school to graduate school settings, as asserted by Dörnyei (1994, p.279).

Next to goal structure, the reward structure of CL is linked chiefly to group rewards, in which students are assessed upon the whole group performance or the sum of individual performances (Ning & Hornby, 2014, p.111). Thus, being rewarded upon the whole group performance is a driving fuel that provokes extrinsic motivation, which is at the heart of successful learning and a starting point that brings about intrinsic motivation as declared by many scholars such as Dörnyei (2001); Kagan & Kagan (2009). Group dynamics arouse motivation, as well, since those dynamics are mainsprings that promote learners' motivation. In learning via teamwork, learners experience increased self-control and gain more ownership of their learning process. They get self-satisfaction from helping others and being part of group efforts, resulting in more motivation to learn.

Cooperatively Learning augments their autonomy and peer-evaluation. These are prime psychological needs in the process of learning and are only available in CL contexts (Ning & Hornby, 2014, p.111). In line with the same perspective, Johnson and Johnson (2003) stated that: "the more cooperative individuals' attitudes, the more they see themselves as being intrinsically motivated" (p.164). In sum, motivation is strongly aligned with the implementation of CL, as reviewed in the literature provided on both concepts: motivation and cooperative learning.

As far as ESL/EFL classroom contexts are concerned, it is significant to satisfy learners' needs and interests (Nunan and Lamb, 1996) and create a comfortable environment in the classroom (Dörnyei and Csizer, 1998) (as cited in Tuan, 2010, p.66). Hopefully, social connections are strengthened. Learners' excitement to learn is likely to elevate. Their sense of self-respect can intensively boost as cooperatively working is meant to establish respect among groupmates. Moreover, Tuan (2010, p.66) reckoned that the method is beneficial to

enhancing motivation because its application in ESL/EFL classrooms establishes a relaxing atmosphere in which errors are tolerated. Learners might interact more without hesitating or feeling frustrated. Likewise, Dörnyei (1994) acknowledged the practicality of implementing the cooperative goal structure to promote intrinsic motivation in SL/FL classrooms.

1.6.2.4. Anxiety Reduction

The anxiety experienced by many learners in L2/FL classroom contexts is labelled as foreign language anxiety (FL anxiety). Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) defined it as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviour related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process." (p.128). Horwitz et al. (1986) were the pioneers who developed the concept of FL anxiety and asked for treating it as a distinct phenomenon particular to language learning and measuring it quantitatively through the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Wang, 2009, p.20-21). In analysing the factors provoking FL anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) concluded that three types of anxieties are displayed while performing in the classroom: communicative apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (p.127).

Communicative apprehension stems afterwards learners' discomfort and worries to communicate verbally via the target language . It manifests in situations where learners are supposed to speak in public, listen to others speaking the target language , and respond to them. Test anxiety prevails in the sesame group surpasses failure when expected to be evaluated upon their performances in tests. Test- anxious students hold negative perceptions of their performance before even taking specifics. This type of anxiety amplifies more in oral tests since FL learners are expected to react on the spot (Horwitz, 1986, pp.127-128). The fear of being negatively evaluated is defined by Horwitz (1986) as: "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (p.128). The fear of negative evaluation is broader than test-

taking evaluation since the former may extend to comprise any social-evaluative situations such as conducting a job interview (Horwitz, 1986, p.128).

Many researchers such as Horwitz et al. (1986); Gardner, Smythe, & Lalonde (1984); Trylong (1987); Young (1991) (as cited in Duxbury and Tsai, 2010, pp.1-2) have substantiated that anxiety has a debilitating effect on learners' achievement in a language classroom. Campbell and Ortiz (1991) revealed that anxiety in the FL classroom was alarming, and CL has been suggested as one possible and practical means to reduce FL anxiety (as cited in Duxbury & Tsai, 2010, p.4). Likewise, Bailey, Daley, and Onwuegbuzie (1999, p.63) conducted a study comprising 146 university students to determine the combination of learning modalities that might correlate with foreign language anxiety. Interestingly, the findings revealed that those students who showed reticence towards cooperatively learning proved to be prone to higher levels of FL anxiety. Bailey et al. (1999) further asserted that CL and peer orientation in the language classroom is key to reducing language anxiety.

Aligned with the same perspective, and throughout conducting an experimental study, Gregersen (1999) reported that anxiety might be a debilitating factor in the process of L2 acquisition. Nevertheless, CL proved to be practical when used to teach an FL to reduce the levels of FL classroom anxiety and increase the frequency of classroom participation. In his findings, Gregersen (1999) confirmed a positive correlation between the CL implementation in student-centred classrooms and low levels of FL anxiety. Conversely, learners in the control group and learning in a traditional teacher-fronted classroom exhibited higher anxiety levels and a remarkable withdrawal from classroom participation and interaction (p.131).

1.6.3. Social Outcomes

The efficient implementation of CL results in outstanding social outcomes such as establishing social support, interpersonal relationships and promoting more social skills among individuals in the classroom milieu.

1.6.3.1. Interpersonal Relationships and Social Support

Johnson et al. (1994) stated that since the 1940s, over 106 studies had been carried out to compare the relative impact of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic efforts on social support. Hence, cooperative learning proved its efficacy in providing more rigorous outcomes than competitive and individualistic learning (p.22). Social support is strongly aligned with achievement and productivity promotion, psychological health, and the ability to cope with stress and adversity, as highlighted by Johnson et al. (1994, p.22). Teachers should strive to create that social support through relying more on CL in their teaching practices.

Interpersonal relationships are well strengthened in CL context in that learners would feel more caring about their groupmates and, thereby, be more committed to ensuring each other's success compared to situations in which they work independently or competitively (Johnson et al., 1994, p.22). Another issue highlighted by Agarwal & Nagar (2011) is that CL reinforces the teacher-learners relationship since CL task allocation in classrooms entails the teacher moving around students to observe their interaction. Thus, he/she would be interacting with them in a non-threatening way, and students might benefit from their teacher's support more than they do in individualistic/competitive situations (p.153).

Cooperatively Working trains learners to be less violent, solve problems peacefully, and develop transparency and openness to the other's perspectives. The more learners cooperate to do tasks, the more they learn how to respect others' standpoints. It, as well, connects them in a more sociable and friendlier way. Johnson et al. (1994) further elucidated

that CL boosts learner's involvement and commitment in the learning process. In intensifying their sense of belonging while learning, learners are likely to develop liking and appreciation towards their peers that builds interdependent relationships, as acknowledged by Johnson et al. (1994), these help in minimizing absenteeism and reduces school dropout as it also heightens learners' feeling of responsibility to the school and increases in each student the sense of commitment towards the success of his peers. With a rigorous implementation, CL leads to the augmentation of motivation and persistence to work towards a common set goal, satisfaction, and acceptance of pain and frustration as a part of learning and desire to influence and be influenced by mates and teachers (p.22).

1.6.3.2. Social Skills Development

Social skills development and preparing learners to be potential citizens in society are other upshots attributed to CL. As underlined by Orlich, Harder, Callahan, Trevisan, and Brown (2010), "cooperative learning provides learners with valuable training in skills needed to become influential citizens, to engage in group problem solving, and to attain and keep employment. It has also been shown to improve interpersonal relations and strengthen conflict resolution skills. (p. 270). Implementing CL fittingly at classroom settings often leads to the development of the prerequisite social skills needed to be successful at school, at a job, and within the community: skills such as effective communication, tolerance of divergence in perspectives, decision-making, problem-solving skills, conflict resolution (Orlich et al ., 2010, p.272).

. Figure 3 is a recapitulation of the general outcomes gained from the application of CL in classrooms, as denoted by Johnson & Johnson (1989).

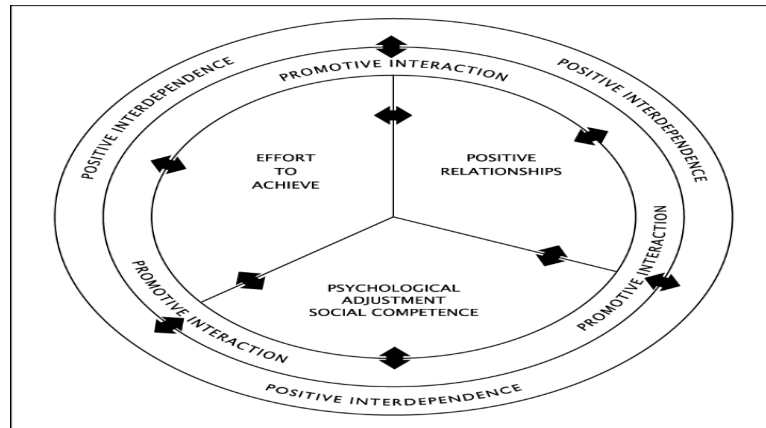


Figure 3. Outcomes of Cooperative Learning .Adapted from Johnson & Johnson, 1989.

1.7. Cooperative Learning Implementation: Classroom Practices

Successfully espousing the CL calls for applying its theoretical principles and considering some issues such as determining which language activities are to be applied and other classroom concerns such as classroom management and roles of teachers and learners.

1.7.1. Cooperative Learning Techniques

Techniques are a set of activities and exercises that teachers implement to realise the already set lesson objectives. Techniques are, then, the concrete embodiment of the adopted method in teaching given subjects. Thus, to fully grasp the tangible implementation of CL in the classroom, the most common and widespread used techniques are portrayed in the upcoming section.

- Teams-Games-Tournament

Team-Games-Tournament (TGT) is a classroom technique in which the teacher assigns four to five students to cooperate within the same group. TGT Devised by David DeVries and Keith Edwards at Johns Hopkins University in the early 1970s (Johnson& Johnson, 2005, p.453). Thus, the task's steps should aim to maximise group heterogeneity of ability level, sex, and race (Slavin, 1980, p.319).

Slavin (1980) elucidated that TGT revolves around two components that are group structure and instructional tournaments. The primary function of the team is to prepare its

members to do well in the tournament. The teacher may opt for an initiation class presentation in which all teams would be expected to receive worksheets cover academic materials. These are similar to the ones that will be included in the prearranged tournaments. Meanwhile, all the members of the groups are supposed to study together and quiz one another to make sure that every member is ready for the tournament (Slavin, 1980, p.319). Teammates need to meet to practise in working sessions. They must demonstrate their learning in the tournaments, which are supposed to be scheduled once a week (generally at the end of the week). When tournaments are held, the representatives selected to stand for each team sit at three tables to compete at simple academic games covering content instructed previously by the teacher and exhibited in the handed worksheets. Each student's score in the tournament tables earns added to an overall team score (Slavin, 1980). Hence, the best team scorer, i.e., the one who wins more tournament points, is proclaimed to win the class, and all the team members are rewarded intergroup competitions and granted certificates of group rewards (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p.453). Put differently, the representatives of the groups are set to compete in a three-person tournament table with other peers belonging to different teams, who are all supposed to be heterogeneous in terms of ability. Thus, the highest scores are added to the winner's original group, and they are announced to be the quiz winners.

Besides being a cooperative strategy, TGT further enhances intergroup competition. On the one hand, it reinforces learners' cooperation, as they attempt to make all the team members learn the material and be ready to take the quizzes in the tournaments. On the other hand, it trains learners to compete with other individuals belonging to different groups. TGT is pivotal as a technique since it incorporates cooperative and competitive educational structures. It makes learners make more efforts to ensure all team members' complete comprehension of the material's content. It also entails striving to get high scores to benefit

their group, though they compete individually. Regarding EFL/ESL classroom, TGT might be one of the most appropriate CL techniques to teach spelling, the language rules, and mechanics of the TL (Shaaban and Ghaith, 2005, p.17)

- Student Teams-Achievements Division

Student Teams-Achievements Division (STAD) was developed by Robert Slavin and his associates at Johns Hopkins University in 1978 (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.460). Slavin (1980) postulated that STAD is perceived to be one of the simplest CL techniques (p.328). It is the most extensively researched and adaptable CL technique that can be implemented to teach different subjects such as mathematics, social studies, science, and English (Slavin, 2013, p. 427). The teacher assigns four-member learning teams heterogeneous in performance level, sex, and ethnicity in applying the STAD. As the next step, the teacher teaches a given lesson to his students, who would work afterwards to ensure that all their team members have mastered the content. Ultimately, all students would take individual quizzes on the material whose results are compared to prior performances. Then team scores are all put together based on the degree to which the same group surpasses past performances. According to the extent to which individuals exceeded past scores, points are awarded; obtained points are summed to form the final team score. Thus, the team that meets specific criteria is awarded rewards, such as certificates (Slavin, 2013, p.428).

Kagan & Kagan (2009) elucidated that: "STAD is made up of five interlocking components: Class presentations, teams, quizzes, individual improvement scoring, and team recognition" (p.460). As previously highlighted, in-classroom presentations are highly recommended to pay attention when the teacher explains the lesson. Most often takes it takes the form of a lecture-discussion to do well in the quiz. The second component, namely, teams, is pivotal in boosting cooperation among learners since they would afford the team's efforts. It can be processed by assigning teammates back and forth quizzes to test each

individual's understanding before the day of the quiz. As for the third component: quizzes, students are supposed to boost their individual accountability-a keystone pillar forming CL. Each team member should assume responsibility to learn the material contents and cannot help or get helped by his teammates when taking the quiz. Individual improvement scoring paves the way for all the groups' members to know and receive weekly improvement scoring about their performances. In so doing, teams receive recognition for the sum of the improvement scores of the team members each week, and the best performing group is then awarded (Kagan& Kagan, 2009, pp.459-460).

So similar are TGT and STAD in their implementation and principle as clarified by Kagan& Kagan (2009). As they quoted, the only discrepancy is that "TGT is identical to STAD except it used academic game tournaments instead of quizzes, and a pumping system instead of individual improvement score" (p.484). Instead of calculating individual scores of assigned quizzes in STAD, academic and instructional tournaments are held in TGT. As a classroom technique, the STAD is effective to develop learners' motivation and interest in learning. It reinforces their sense of belonging to the group; it underpins and establishes respect and a sense of responsibility in the process of learning (Slavin, 2013, p. 428). It enhances learners' self-esteem since they are given room for identifying the degree to which they are progressing while taking individual quizzes. Concerning the application of STAD in EFL/ESL classrooms, it is worthy to state that STAD might be practical in teaching language rules and target language mechanics (Shaaban and Ghaith, 2005, p.18).

- Learning Together

Devised by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson in the late 1960s, the Learning Together (LT) technique is one of the simplest of all cooperative learning techniques used to teach different subject matters (Digby, 2013, p.237). As it focuses on the integrated use of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning, the LT strategy is a mixture of the

here types of CL discussed in chapter one. Johnson & Johnson (2002c) put it into plain words: "The Learning Together and Alone method of cooperative learning focus on the integrated use of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning. LT consists of formal cooperative learning, informal cooperative learning and cooperative base groups" (p.104). As a strategy, it provides the teachers with limitless models for structuring their lessons, as explained by Johnson & Johnson (2002c): " It gives teachers a set of procedural templates that can be used to structure cooperatively any lesson or activity, in any subject area, in any curriculum, with students of any age, in any educational setting"(p.104).

Practically speaking, in using the LT strategy, the teacher starts first explaining the material in the classroom and then divide his students into groups of four or five members. Then, each group is handed a single worksheet that reinforces the content of the introduced material. Afterwards, all team members are required to assist each other and cooperate to fill in the worksheet. Finally, the group members would receive their reward based on their contribution (Digby, 2013, p.238).

Indeed, LT is somewhat different from all the rest of the CL techniques; it attempts to invest the basic CL principles that were plainly explained in chapter one. Ghaith (2003) highlighted that compared to the other models and techniques of CL, LT is less prescriptive and discrete since it provides teachers with more freedom to select whatever structure, steps and procedures to teach their lessons. It is clearly stated when Ghaith (2003) said: "The Learning Together model provides a conceptual framework for teachers to plan and tailor cooperative learning instruction according to circumstances, student needs, and school contexts" (p.453).

Accordingly, it is fundamental for the teacher to set objectives for his lesson, be enthusiastic about establishing, firmly, interdependence and individual accountability among his learners to incite them to achieve a good team product they would ultimately

evaluate. Groups should comprise heterogeneous students of different skills and abilities. However, the teacher should make sure that the teammates interact to complete the submitted worksheet. They should meanwhile develop many social skills that are so central to the Learning Together model. As Johnson & Johnson (2002c, p.102) reviewed in a meta-analysis study that revisited 117 studies conducted with different subject matters and diverse student-age, the latter is deemed successful in developing social skills, achievement, and respect. In connexion to EFL/ESL classroom, Ghaith (2003, p.460) conducted a study to see the relevance of LT technique in an EFL classroom; he concluded that target language is convenient to teach the reading skill. It might also be of great significance to teach content in listening scripts, but it might not be helpful in teaching grammar components and language structures.

- Group Investigation

Group Investigation (GI) appeared on the scene as a CL technique in 1976 by Sharan and Sharan (Sharan and Sharan, 1990). In GI, students are given more freedom. They can take an active part in planning what they will study and the way they would do. This freedom is embodied in allowing learners to be involved in cooperative groups that share a common interest in a given topic (Sharan and Sharan, 1990, p.17). Implementing GI requires the students to form small groups of similar interest; then plan and do their investigations, synthesize and process each group's findings, and present a whole classroom investigation. GI is a typical learner-centred technique; it focuses on the students' role and minimizes the teacher's instruction. A teacher who opts for GI should introduce the topic to be investigated and supply their learners with various resources to facilitate their investigation (Tan, Sharan, and Lee, 2006, p. 10). Students' responsibility is imperative in GI since they are supposed to monitor their learning process, and external rewards are not central; they are rather deemphasised. Intrinsic motivation is the energising factor learners should experience while

assigning a task to do cooperatively via GI (Tan, Sharan & Lee, 2006, p.10). GI is based upon four basic principles that are called the "I's": Investigation, Interaction, and Interpretation, and Intrinsic motivation. These principles are explained by Tan, Sharan & Lee (2006)

- **Investigation:** This typical attribute differentiates this CL technique from the other ones. After being arranged in small groups of three to four members, the teacher incites them to inquire into the selected topic. Conclusively, a community of inquiries would yield in the classroom.
- **Interaction:** being immersed in processes of inquiry necessitates the students to interact constantly to accomplish the investigation. They are urged to discuss, argue, and crucially assist one another to develop their intellectual and social interaction.
- **Interpretation:** learners are required to meet to synthesise their gathered information and data collected from diverse sources. In doing so, they enhance their understanding of the investigation and the course of their group interaction.
- **Intrinsic motivation:** in their pursue of investigations, learners get the expertise gradually to monitor their process of learning, acquire more autonomy in that process, be more active decision-makers over their learning. These facts enhance their intrinsic motivation and energise their willingness to search for the required information. (Tan, Sharan & Lee, 2006, pp.10-11).

Implementing IG in the classroom encompasses six primary stages. First, the teacher presents a multi-faceted problem to the whole class, and the learners are requested to select an interest group. Second, once gathered in a group, teammates start to plan their investigation by setting their procedures and tasks. Third, the group practises the planned and agreed-upon procedures arranged beforehand. In that step, the teacher might intervene to assist, evaluate, and make sure that they are implementing various skills while

investigating. Fourth, teammates work on the organisation of their final report investigation by synthesizing and evaluating. Fifth, the group performs the presentation. Finally, the teacher evaluates the report/presentation. The students also evaluate their peers' performance (Sharan & Sharan, 1990, pp.18-20).

No matter how complicated and sophisticated GI seems to be compared to other techniques in terms of practice, it might be one of the best CL techniques that boost their speaking skills, as revealed in many studies such as the ones conducted by Iswardati (2016); Oferischa and Anwar (2018); Ahsanah (2015). All these studies revealed the efficacy of GI in developing the different components of speaking skills.

- Constructive Controversy

David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson developed the Constructive Controversy (CC) technique in the mid-1970s (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p. 64). Both researchers advocated the tenet that controversy; alternatively known as intellectual conflict, emerging from students' cooperation and interaction is deemed positive. Thus, this intellectual conflict needs to be nurtured and encouraged rather than suppressed and avoided (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p.64).

In the hope of benefiting from those controversies, teachers are required to know how to invest those conflicts to make them work to develop their learner's academic achievement. They need to be well informed about the strategies they may implement to structure controversies efficiently (Agarwal & Nagar, 2011, p.64). Johnson and Johnson (1985a, 238) highlighted that controversy occurs: "when one person's ideas, information, conclusions, theories, or opinions are incompatible with those of another person, and the two seek to reach an agreement." (as cited in Bredehoft, 1991, p. 122). Hence, cooperating results often in the appearance of controversies, and this what might be labelled as 'cooperative controversy'. The latter is defined: "as a learning situation in which two opposing sides are drawn over a

single issue; nevertheless, learners placed on both sides of the issue cooperate to conclude.” (Bredehoft, 1991, p. 122). Thus, it is noteworthy to highlight that the controversies are emerging from classroom cooperation lead, most often, to positive outcomes.

As a technique, CC can be used with a class of any size to teach whatever discipline. The foremost thing to consider is selecting a debatable and relevant topic (Bredehoft, 1991, p. 122). The teacher or instructor can implement CC by forming a four-group member; then dividing each group into two pairs. He should state plainly the issue to be investigated and asks the groups to write a group report or set them to pass a test (given to each member) about the issue. There must be a ‘pro’ and a ‘con’ side of the selected topic in each group. In doing so, the whole class would be composed of multiple and balanced groups expected to embrace a deep understanding of the topic assigned. Each pair within the small group should develop sound arguments about the ‘pro’ position while the other pair is expected to prepare strong arguments about the ‘con’ position. Meanwhile, the teacher should supervise how pairs research the issue and the strategies they follow to build persuasive arguments to enrich their position and prepare for defending it by refuting the arguments contradicting their stance: Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2000, p.30). Immediately after, both the pro and the con sides join their chairs and sit in a circle. Such a position facilitates the process of interaction that takes place among the members of the group. The pro-side pair in the group introduces the arguments they collected to back up their position. Simultaneously the pair in the con group should take notes and record the pro side arguments. In a reversible process, sides in each group switch their position in the second phase of the session. The former ‘pro’ side would become the ‘con’ side and vice versa.

Moreover, each side would work again on preparing sound arguments of the newly taken position. Ultimately, the newly pro side pair presents its arguments. The other pair notes down, and then again, the newly con side pair recites its arguments and the counterpart

records (Bredehoft, 1991, p. 122). After having discussed the issue, the teacher may ask them to synthesise to achieve a final consensus. The teacher may also assign them to deliver a written or an oral report (Yi, 2004, p. 45).

Albeit CC was designed primarily to target L1 learners, as highlighted by Yi (2004), it constantly proved effective for language teachers. (p.44). It helps them enhance their learners' communicativeness in the classroom. It notably boosts their cognitive development and critical thinking skills while processing and working on the data needed. The CC technique can apply to the EFL context as long as the selected material /topic to which learners are exposed compatible with their linguistic and cultural background (Yi, 2004, p.45). Moreover, the significance of the CC technique is accredited to develop their verbal communication, enhances their listening skills, and stimulates them to take notes. It also develops their knowledge and critical thinking, teaches them synthesising skills, and enhances autonomy (Yi, 2004, pp. 47-48).

- Jigsaw I and II

Aronson and his colleagues initially introduced the Jigsaw technique in 1978, and it is implemented widely in classrooms (Fathman and Kessler, 1993, p.129). As highlighted in Jacobs (2006, p.186), group mates are supposed to work cooperatively to share information throughout following the subsequent procedures:

Students begin in their home team. Each home team is given or researches information on one part of an overall topic (Jacobs, 2006, p.186). Students from four expert teams with a small number of classmates (typically four or less) study their part of the topic and prepare to teach it to their home teammates. The teacher sets his learners to work on a material that can be split into sections; for instance, each member is assigned a section upon which to become an 'expert'. Thus each "expert" of a team would meet with the other "experts" teams

who are working on the same assignment or section to discuss the best way to teach their parts to their 'home' teams (Digby, 2013, p. 236).

After mastering the material, each 'expert' returns to his 'home' team to teach them his part of the material, and so does each member in the group whose every individual is expected to be an 'expert' about his part of the material. Then, an ongoing interaction occurs among individuals to teach one another about his part of the material (Digby, 2013, p.236). Finally, students take a quiz or work together on a task that involves all the different parts of the topic (Jacobs, 2006, p.186).

Slavin introduced some modifications regarding the practice of the Jigsaw I technique in 1978. These yielded in what is known today as Jigsaw II (Jacobs, 2006, p.186). As to practice, Jigsaw II is so similar to Jigsaw I described above. In the revisited version (Jigsaw II), all students receive all the information instead of having a set of information related to their part of the material. Thus, the same procedures followed in Jigsaw I are followed in the modified version (Jigsaw II). Each student should become an expert on a given part of the assignment, and he should meet with other groups 'experts' working on the same part to discuss their topics and then returns to their home teams to teach the other member what they have learnt. However, instead of being evaluated solely on the part upon each one worked (as it is the case of Jigsaw I), all students are assigned a test/quiz that covers all parts of the material (topic). Finally, the quiz scores are summed to form the whole team scores. The main discrepancy differentiating the two versions of Jigsaw is that each member in the group receives an individual grade based on his test scores in the original version. In Jigsaw II, each member receives grade scores upon the performed part (Slavin, 1984,p.58). As Mengduo and Xiaoling (2010, p.121) highlighted, the Jigsaw technique is of paramount importance once applied appropriately to increase learners' involvement in the target language classroom. It can successfully reduce learners' reluctance to participate and create

an authentic learner-centred atmosphere in the classroom. Both researchers confirmed that: “jigsaw strategy is, by trial and error, a proper way to promote learners’ participation and enthusiasm as well as a useful technique to focus on the language use to accomplish learning tasks in the EFL classroom.” (Xiaoling , 2010, p.122). So practical is the Jigsaw in teaching literature with its diverse genre and grammar as recommended by Göçer (2010, p.444). It proved efficient in teaching the writing skill to EFL learners and yielded positive outcomes in teaching other language skills such as reading. It was deemed efficient in developing an individual’s communicative and problem-solving skills (Şahin, 2010, p.785).

- Team Assisted Instruction

Slavin, Leavey designed team Assisted Individualization (TAI) and Madden in 1984 (Topping et al., 2017, p.13). In essence, TAI is an individualized mathematic programme in which four -or five students heterogeneous groups work on individualised materials at their own levels and rates (Slavin, Madden and Leavey, 1984, p.814). Students are supposed to contribute to the team by accomplishing their individual performance via activities or sequences conducted individually (Topping et al., 2017, p.13). Putting it simply, the teacher places each member within the group to work individually on a sequence or unit of the whole material. Meanwhile, team members check one another’s faced problems while practising and assist whenever necessary. Ultimately, final unit tests are assigned individually, but the overall scores determine the team score points.

At first glance, TAI seems to be similar to STAD with the slight difference highlighted by Slavin (1995, p.12) because TAI fits more the teaching of mathematics than any other subjects while STAD might be practical teach most subjects at any age level. Moreover, while STAD and TGT use a single pace of instruction for the whole class, TAI incorporates cooperative learning with individualized instruction (Slavin, 1995).

Varied and plenty are the CL techniques developed by Kagan, which are roughly 200 classroom structures. The immense variety of techniques that Kagan suggested were innovative in the sense that, unlike many developed CL techniques, his model revolves around “structures” upon which classroom instruction is based (Davoudi and Mahinpo, 2012, p.1135). Kagan considered that language is acquired better in sequences. He further aligned the Structural approach with CL to ensure better language acquisition. Thus, to Kagan, any target language is better learnt in structures defined as instructional strategies describing learner and teacher interaction with the curriculum and its content. A structure is not forcibly tied to teach a given curriculum; structures can be used repeatedly to teach different curricula (Davoudi & Mahinpo, 2012, p.1135).

Furthermore, another primary attribute that makes Kagan's proposed CL structures divergent from the others is that he emphasized making CL part of any lesson, including structures, instead of planning CL lessons. Accordingly, these structures can be inserted at any point to teach any given lesson to boost learners' engagement and ensure learning for all students (Davoudi & Mahinpo, 2012, p.1135). Kagan CL structures are based upon the PIES principle that is the keystone factor resulting in a better learner-learner interaction (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.111). The P stands for positive interdependence that occurs when the gains of individuals or teams are positively correlated. It refers to individual accountability in which each member in the team is held accountable to perform the assigned task. E stands for equal participation that implies on each individual to be responsible equally with his teammates. S refers to simulation interaction, in which the class time should be well-allotted to ensure maximum interaction between the students (Kagan & Kagan, 2009). Thus, in what follows, a succinct portrayal of the most commonly used Kagan techniques

- Timed Pair Share

Kagan designed Timed Pair Share (TPS) in 1992 (Jacobs, 2006, p.195). The latter is a structured pair interaction in which the teacher pairs his students up, then addresses a question and allots equally each partner a length of time to speak and express his/her idea. In the interim, the other partner listens to the speaker partner while performing orally. Afterwards, both partners exchange roles; the speaker would become the listener and vice versa (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.349). In the TPS technique, cooperation demonstrates partners' dependence on one another to accomplish the task's steps and are held accountable for their partners for sharing and listening (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.349). Hence, since the TPS is interactional in structure, it might be one of the best techniques adopted in EFL classrooms to develop the learner's speaking skills.

- Round Robin

Fundamentally, Kagan proposed the Round Robin structure in 1992 (Jacobs, 2006, p.190) as a speaking technique in which four group members take turns to speak after being asked by the teacher. In taking a turn to speak, each member is supposed to share his/her thoughts and knowledge with their teammates (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.340). Time allocation for every member should be equal in that phase of interaction.

- Numbered Heads Together

Formulated in 1992 by Kagan, Number Heads Together entails the students to work together to ensure that all group members are apt to explain what their entire group has achieved. It can be approached following the subsequent steps:

- Each individual within the group is given a number (e.g., 1, 2, 3, 4)
- Each member works alone to perform the assigned task by the teacher.
- All the students meet, and each shares his/her answer with all teammates, and students put their heads together to try to agree on an answer.

- A number is selected. Students with that number should be able to report and explain their group's work. (Jacobs, 2006, p.189).

- Inside-Outside Circle

In 1992, Kagan developed the Inside-outside Circle technique. Implementing this technique urges the teacher to make students stand in two concentric circles (usually ranging from six to seven students in each circle) around the room with the inside circle facing in and the outside circle facing out, so each student in each circle is facing a partner (Kagan & Kagan, 2009, p.177). Afterwards, the teacher addresses discussion questions so that both partners (one inside and the other outside the circle) discuss the topic, exchange questions and even share experiences. When done, members of one circle rotate one place so that every member would have to interact with another member within the counter circle. Furthermore, the process repeats and goes on as such (Jacobs, 2006, p.186). Such a technique paves the way for EFL/ESL learners to interact verbally with their mates and practise their language in a less rigid way.

1.7.2. Factors Influencing Cooperative Learning Successful Classroom Implementation

So pivotal is the process of forming and structuring groups in the CL classroom. Thus, for a cooperative team to function optimally, teachers should be mindful of the magnitude of forming groups correctly in their classes. In what follows, some issues that help instructors in forming groups are listed succinctly:

1.7.2.1. Group Size

Zibelius (2015) pointed out that group size may vary widely in different CL settings. The researcher highlighted that there is no ideal number of learners that should form CL groups. The plethora of literature available on group formation in CL settings reveals recommendations on the efficacy of specific group sizes (Zibelius, 2015, p.53). Olsen &

Kagan (1992) suggested that the minimum number for CL to be efficient is two members (as cited in Zibelius, 2015, p.53), while the maximum number is four learners in each group (Jacobs, 2006; Coelho, 1992; Olsen & Kagan, 1992) (as cited in Zibelius, 2015, p.53).

Underscoring the minimum number of CL, Coelho (1992) view that small heterogeneous group size is as significant as positive interdependence and individual accountability (as cited in Zibelius, 2015, pp.53-54). Coelho (1992) advocated the requisite of forming small group size and aligned it with the successfulness of the task accomplishment "to provide maximum opportunities for oral interaction" (Coelho, 1992) (as cited in Zibelius, 2015, p.54). Congruent with the same perspective, Sharan & Sharan (1976) (as cited in Zibelius, 2015) stressed that cooperating in small group size paves the way for the learners to enhance their learning styles. Johnson & Johnson (2004, p.27) considered that CL group size should range from two to four. Although both scholars insisted that there is no ideal number for the CL group, they claimed that the smaller the group is, the better it functions. Jacobs (2006) put into plain words the advantages of both small size groups a larger group in the CL classroom. Nevertheless, he stressed that the number should not go beyond four members in opting for larger groups. The latter as a number, from Jacobs' perspective, seems to be adequate as it can further be divided into two pairs (Jacobs, 2006, p.32).

1.7.2.2. Group Formation

Diverse models of assigning learners to CL groups have been so far introduced (Zibelius, 2015, p.56). Jacobs (2006, p. 32) elucidated that there are four main options in composing groups. Firstly, learners may choose their groups. In this way, they are likely to feel comfortable and might have many learning styles in common. Secondly, they might be sampled in groups based on some commonality. Thirdly, groups can be formed randomly, resulting in a degree of heterogeneity. Fourthly, teachers can decide about the composition of CL groups. Jacobs (2006, p.32) and Zibelius (2015, p.56) reported that the latter option

(teacher's decision about group formation) is the most recommended in most of the CL literature.

Jacobs (2006) elucidated that teachers should arrange and place students heterogeneously in terms of features such as their language proficiency to incite them to practise L2 and promote peer-tutoring (p.32). Zibelius (2015) expounded that heterogeneity is mainly preferred as a criterion upon which CL should be composed. Heterogeneity should be prevalent at many levels, such as L2/FL competence: achievement, ethnicity, gender, and many other factors (p.56). Nevertheless, it is worthy to state that the reliance on the criterion of heterogeneity to form CL groups is contentious and controversial in CL literature (Slavin, 1991; Allan, 1991) (as cited in Jacobs, 2006, p.33).

Some researchers argued that when mixing high-achievers with low-achievers in the same groups, low achievers are likely to feel intimidated, while high achievers might be prone to the feeling of boredom (Jacobs, 2006, p.33). Johnson et al. (1994) responded to the addressed question of forming heterogeneous or homogeneous groups by elucidating that homogenous groups, in terms of ability, could be implemented to master specific skills or to achieve given instructional objectives (p.39). The scholars accentuated that heterogeneous groups can engage more in elaborative thinking, discuss the material thoroughly, enhance their understanding, and promote long-term memory retention (Johnson et al., 1994, p.39). Moreover, Jacobs (2006) further asserted that heterogeneous groups proved to be more positively interdependent than homogenous groups as high achievers would strive to ensure that their low achieving peers grasp the material. They may even teach them skills to do the task successfully.

- How long should groups stay together?

The needed duration in which members of the same CL group collaborate is one of the most frequently asked questions by novice teachers who opt for implementing this

method in their classes. Johnson et al. (1994, p.39) stated no formula or answer to this question. Some teachers implement the same CL groups for an entire semester or year, while others opt to keep CL groups performing a given task, unit, or chapter.

Jacobs (2006) denoted that task types, and the selected CL technique determine the duration for a cooperative group to function. For instance, in applying the *Timed-Pair-Share* technique (Kagan & Kagan, 1994) (as cited in Jacobs, 2006, p.35), the group members might cooperate for few months. Jacobs (2006, p.35) postulated that working collaboratively in the long-term group has many advantages as it paves the way for them to build group identity (via group name, motto, handshake) and work on in-depth projects.

Both long-and short-term groups can be simultaneously used as a learner can be a member of two groups at once. To illustrate more, *the Base group*, as a type of CL group discussed in **section 1.2.3.**) is a long-term group that may last for at least a semester or preferably for several years. The Base group does not intend primarily to prepare individuals for a test or assign projects on which they work. It pursues enhancing learners' sense of belonging and motivation (Jacobs, 2006; p.35). Johnson et al. (1994) further asserted that the best advice they may provide to teachers is to: "allow groups to remain stable long enough to become successful. Breaking up groups that are having trouble to effectively function is often counterproductive as the students do not learn the skills they need to resolve problems in collaborating with each other." (Johnson et al., 1994, p.35).

Assigning heterogeneous groups to work cooperatively for at least six weeks seems satisfactory, as revealed in CL literature (Jacobs, 2006, p.35). From the scholar's perspective and many other experts in the field, it is not practical to design CL groups every week. To form heterogeneous groups, teachers take much time to organise and form them. Thus, to keep the same group members cooperating for at least six weeks is likely to save much of teachers' time and effort.

1.7.2.3. Room Arrangement

Arranging the room is of paramount importance to facilitate cooperation among individuals. Johnson & Johnson (2004, p.28) highlighted that students should sit close enough to one another to share the material and maintain eye contact with all the same group members (p.28). Jacobs (2006) listed four reasons that make learners' physical arrangement of the group significant:

- If students are close together, they are likely to communicate easily with one another. It is easier for teachers to perceive whose group members are not functioning well provided they are sitting apart.
- The closer the students sit together, the quiet voices they would use while interacting and the less noisy the classroom would be.
- There should be enough space between all the groups in the classroom so that the teacher can monitor them and have the access lane to all of them.
- Mirror neurons in the brain, as suggested by Jacobs (2006, p.34), are activated once there is face-to-face communication. The proponents of this concept highlight that there is a biological connection between learning and direct communication. Accordingly, teachers should endeavour to make the students in a face-to-face position as much as possible for the eye-to-eye, and the knee-to-knee, as Johnson et al. (1994, p.39) highlighted, is important to enhance positive cooperation.

1.7.3. Teacher's Role in Cooperative Learning Classroom

CL might be implemented to teach any subject area at any given age, as a group instruction leaning towards boosting learning cooperatively (Johnson and Johnson, 2008, p.26). Thus, in attempting to unveil the roles of teachers while implementing CL, Johnson & Johnson (2008) displayed these roles regarding the adopted type of CL (i.e., formal,

informal, or Cooperative base groups). According to both researchers, teacher's roles differ according to the adopted type of CL in the classroom.

In an informal CL, teachers may play the following roles, as explained by Johnson & Johnson (2008, p.26):

- Making pre-instructional decisions: In making pre-instructional decisions, the teacher should :

- (a) decide for both the social and academic skill objectives;

- (b) decide about the group size;

- (c) choose a method for assigning students to groups;

- (d) decide about the roles each group member would play

- (e) arrange the room;

- (f) decides about the materials students should work on to accomplish the assignment.

(Johnson & Johnson, 2008, p.26).

- Explaining the instructional task and cooperative structure: to do so, the teacher should do the followings :

- explain the academic assignment to students ;

- explain the criteria to accomplish the task;

- structure positive interdependence;

- structure individual accountability;

- determine the social skills that the students are supposed to implement;

- emphasize intergroup cooperation to diminish competition and foster goal interdependence

(Johnson & Johnson, 2008, p.29).

Monitoring students' learning and intervening to assist: The teacher should monitor his learners' learning process and assist them whenever necessary to accomplish the task and implement the social skills efficiently. So that to take place, he should:

- (a) constantly observe that individual accountability is established;
- (b) supervise group processing by scrutinizing their promotive interaction and ensuring full engagement in the expected interaction patterns. (Johnson & Johnson, 2008, p.29).

4. Assessing students' learning and helping students process how well their groups functioned: this role implies on the teacher to:

- (a). bring closure to the lesson;
- (b) assess and evaluate the quality and quantity of student achievement(individual/group accountability);
- (c) ensure students process the effectiveness of their cooperation;
- (d) assign students to work on a plan for improvement;
- (e) have his students celebrate their achievements (reward interdependence) (Johnson & Johnson, 2008, p.29)

In assigning informal CL, the teacher should do the following roles:

- tries to keep the students fully engaged intellectually by arranging introductory focused discussion with the students about the topic being discussed and stimulate patterns of students' interaction;
- stimulates his learners to process cognitively the material presented by asking them to summarize, states their standpoint about it, enhances them to make a hypothesis and solve problems. He might as well set them to relate the material to their past knowledge background;
- makes sure that each student is held accountable for his learning by preparing them to the fact that any one of them might be asked to summarize their conclusion about the exposed material;

- passes around to the class to listen to what the students are saying and make sure everybody performs the task. (Johnson & Johnson, 2008, pp.29-31).

In implementing Cooperative Base Groups, the teacher should:

- form heterogeneous groups of three to four students;
- fix sessions in which the groups should meet (at the beginning and the end of each class session/week);
- schedule an agenda for each group to determine routines for tasks performances when the teammates meet;
- make sure that the five elements of CL are implemented efficiently ;
- set the students to process the efficacy of the cooperative base group periodically.

(Johnson & Johnson, 2008, p.31)

Regardless of the adopted type of CL teachers implement in their classes, their role should shift from a direct teaching role to a more enjoyable one. Among the focal roles that a teacher should play in CL classroom is 'an observer'; since he is supposed to constantly observe his learners' interaction patterns and should strive all the time to immerse all the team members in the performance of the assigned task (Jorgensen, 2009, pp.702-703). He is also a 'facilitator' since he facilitates the process of learning for his students. The teacher is also a 'tutor' as he should train many of his students to apply CL principles, and he should make sure that the social and academic learning skills are enhanced. It is focal to highlight that the successful implementation of CL entails on the teachers to change constantly their roles as denoted by Sharan and Sharan (1976, pp.4-5):

An active planning and learning role for the students necessitates a complementary change in the role of the teacher. From being a dispenser and transmitter of knowledge, he (she) becomes a guide and advisor to students. He (She) helps them investigate issues

and clarify and solve problems, but he (she) is not the primary source of information (as cited in Zepeda and Mayers, 2004, p.69).

1.7.4. Learner’s Role in Cooperative Learning Classroom

It is worthy to note that the success of CL is not exclusively allied to the teacher; learners also hold the responsibility to make it efficient in the classroom. Given that, Johnson and Johnson (1990) highlighted that in a CL classroom, students must:

- get to know and trust another;
- communicate accurately and unambiguously;
- accept and support one another;
- resolve conflicts constructively; (as cited in Zepeda& Mayers, 2004, p.70)

Zepeda (2009) stressed that learners assume various active roles in a CL, including leader; timekeeper, runner, recorder; and presenter. He further asserted that teachers should encourage their learners to rotate roles since CL aims to teach the content of any given subject and endeavours to develop learners' social skills (Zepeda, 2009, p.96).

Learner’ roles in the CL are portrayed in the following table:

Table 2

Learner’s Roles in Cooperative Learning Tasks

<i>Role</i>	<i>Task</i>
Leader	Ensures all group members have the opportunity to participate fully; focusses discussions and activities around the primary group task.
Time Keeper	Keeps an eye on the clock, keeping members on the task; give the group reminders at mid-point and ending points of time left to accomplish tasks.
Runner	Ensures the group has materials to accomplish tasks; at peak times, leaves the group to get materials or ask the teacher for assistance or clarification.
Recorder	Records the group’ work- keep track of critical ideas.

Presenter	Presents the group's work to a larger group
------------------	--

Adapted from Zepeda (2009, p.97).

Jolliffe (2007) highlighted that in assigning roles to learners, teachers could altogether:

- Foster positive interdependence: since each student is required to appropriately play his role to ensure success for the whole group.
- Help develop teamwork: in assigning roles, the teacher allocates group skills and functions necessary for performing a given task.
- Shift responsibility from the teacher to the group members. (p.50).

Jolliffe (2007) stressed that role assignment depends on the age of the learners and the task to be undertaken. The researcher also maintained that roles should be taught in the same ways as the other cooperative skills (Jolliffe, 2007, p.51). She further added possible roles that learners might play in the classroom (inserted in Appendix A of her book), such as:

- Recorder: whose function is to keep accurate records and checks everyone's understanding.
- Participant Checker: he functions to help the others getting involved and ensures that each teammate gets a turn.
- Questioner: his principal function is to elicit information from his mates throughout asking for an explanation and asking them to paraphrase.
- Noise controller: his role implies on him/her to make sure that quiet voices are used and that each speaks at a time.
- Material Manager (gofer): is responsible for collecting the needed materials for the task completion, and he should work on keeping things tidy.
- Organiser: he should keep everyone on the task and controls the time of the performance.
- Checker: is in charge of ensuring that everyone has learned or completed the task appropriately and checks all team members' understanding and agreement.

- Praiser: this role requires the person to encourage his peers, praise their individual's contribution, and s/he might celebrate achievements.

(Adapted from Appendix 5 Roles in Groups, Jolliffe, 2007).

1.8. Pitfalls of Implementing Cooperative Learning

If not applied correctly, CL may not bring about the desired outcomes. Slavin (1996, p.30) stressed that inappropriately implementing CL makes it instructional ineffective. The main pitfalls and obstacles that teachers and instructors might face revolve around the following points:

The free-rider problem is a significant challenge that is likely to be faced by teachers when implementing CL. Slavin (1996, p.30) shed light on the fact that, if not constructed fittingly, CL may not result in the claimed overwhelming positive outcomes. The free-riders effect takes place in cases when some group members do most of the work while the rest go along for a ride (Slavin, 1996, p.30). Congruent with the same perspective Cooper (1995, p.164) put forward that the challenge for teachers in incorporating CL in their classes is to reduce the 'hitchhike' problem. Thus, Slavin (1996) demonstrated that the free-rider problem arises when learners are assigned a single task to perform, such as handing a single report, completing a single worksheet, or working on a single project. Hence, in giving such tasks to students, most of the members in the group might be reluctant to take part in the whole group work; this may result in unproductive cooperative group work.

To reduce the free-riders pitfall, instructors should pay attention to the diffusion of responsibility; which is another primary concern that entails good preparation from the part of the teachers to sustain their learners in performing a task cooperatively (Slavin, 1983) (as cited in Slavin, 1996, p.30). In attempting to diminish 'the diffusion of responsibility' pitfall, teachers should hold each student accountable for achieving a part of the whole assignment.

Thus, the more individual accountability is reinforced, the more responsible individuals might be (Slavin, 1996, p.30).

Another issue that may make some teachers reluctant to incorporate CL in their teaching practices is that they think it restricts communication channels in their classroom, as Gillies & Boyle (2010, p.935) elucidated. Nevertheless, this fallacy yields from the teachers' lack of pedagogical training in implementing CL. Likewise, in assigning cooperative tasks to learners, some teachers might be unenthusiastic to apply CL because of their fear of losing control over their students; the latter is a significant threat to many teachers (Cooper, 1995, p.164). The researcher explained that the loss of control is a real drawback to the practice of CL. Cooper (1995, p.164) stated that the loss of control leads to rising noise levels. Likewise, Harmer (2001, p.116) postulated that some teachers and students might dislike the noise produced from students' interaction while working in pairs. In particular, teachers worry about losing control over their classes (Harmer, 2001, p.116). Nevertheless, teachers should be conscious that teaching in a traditional lectured-based classroom context is utterly different from a CL classroom. It is the successful interaction that emerges from learners' cooperation that makes the class noisy and loud.

When interacting in pairs and groups, learners may shift away from the task target and discuss other issues. They might even use their mother tongue instead of practising the target language (Harmer, 2001, p.116). Furthermore, learners, who might feel marginalized and underestimated, are likely to cease interacting and prefer to interact with their teachers. Another constraint that might impede teachers from aptly implementing CL is how to gather their learners into groups. It might be problematic for some teachers to convince students to work with peers who are not keen on it. They would even show no readiness to cooperate to perform the task (Harmer, 2001, p.116-117). Given that, teachers and instructors should be well-informed about the ways they arrange groups in CL classrooms.

Conclusion

The first chapter introduced basic concepts relating to the CL method. It attempted to review theoretical issues about CL as a newly adopted method in the ESL/EFL classroom context. The chapter highlighted the discrepancy of the CL and other concepts that are mostly confounded to it, such as collaborative learning and group work. It accounted for the contribution of different language theories to the development of its theoretical foundation and framework. The first chapter portrayed the five pillars formulating the CL method as it also displayed the outcomes generating in adopting it from different perspectives. The chapter introduced some practical issues that need to be considered to adequately apply it, such as portraying different techniques that can be used in the classroom. Explaining the roles of teachers and learners in a CL method with its three forms was also highlighted. Finally, the chapter concluded by unveiling the possibly experienced pitfalls in a CL classroom.

CHAPTER TWO: The Speaking Skill

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Introduction

Speaking is a medium of communication through which individuals convey messages and transmit thoughts. Given that English is the language of science and communication nowadays, speaking it as a second or a foreign language appears to be inevitable and not an alternative. Mastering the speaking skill in an L2 or an FL is not as simple as a first language. Therefore, its complex nature needs to be carefully taken into account in the ESL/EFL classroom, activities designed to teach it should be well- selected. The second chapter aims at introducing the speaking skill as a concept and as a skill. Furthermore, it exposes some definitions to understand the speaking abilities' nature and elucidates the processes involved in speaking. The second chapter also portrays the historical background of the speaking skill with relevance to the different language theories in SLA. Likewise, the three basic features of the speaking skill, namely, accuracy, fluency, complexity, are explained. Some issues such as speaking activities, assessment are also discussed.

2.1. The Nature of Speaking and Speaking Competence

The speaking skill needs to be carefully investigated to understand its complex nature. This section introduces definitions about the speaking concept.

2.1.1. Definition of Speaking

As a concept, the speaking skill has been defined differently and from diverse perspectives. However, regardless of the existing miscellaneous definitions attributed to such a term, the latter is undoubtedly an essential language skill that facilitates language acquisition and contributes, to a great extent, to second language academic development of learners (Bailey, 2012, p.1). Bailey (2003) viewed that speaking is: "a productive oral/aural skill. It consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning" (p.48).

Likewise, Thornbury (2005) stated that speaking is not a simple process taken for granted.

He further asserted:

speech production takes place in real-time and is therefore essentially linear. Words follow words, and phrases follow phrases. Likewise, at the level of utterance (i.e., the spoken equivalent of sentences), speech is produced by utterance-by utterance, in response to the word-by-word and actions by utterance productions of the person we are talking to (our interlocutor). This contingent nature of speech whereby each sentence is dependent on a preceding one accounts for its spontaneity. (p.2)

Thornbury (2005, p.2) elucidated that speech is a time-limited planned process, and the 'real-time processing' demands of speech production make speaking different from the other language skills. Aligned with the same perspective, Bailey (2003) demonstrated that speaking happens in real-time as the interlocutor with whom the speaker interacts waits for an immediate response. Thereby, he has no time to edit and revise what he wants to say to him (p.48). Congruently, Johnson (1996) quoted: "speaking is complex because speakers are involved in a rapid and dynamic process incurring "a high element of doing various things at the same time" (as cited in Burns, 2017, p. 242).

Burns and Joyce (1997) defined speaking as an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving, and processing information (as cited in Florez, 1999, p.2). Shumin (2002, p.204) underscored that speaking a target language entails the speaker knowing how to use it in the context of structured interpersonal exchange next to the necessity of knowing its grammar and semantic rules as well. The author further explained that speaking a given language requires the speaker to demonstrate the ability to use that language fittingly and appropriately in social interactions.

Speaking is, then, an intricate interactive process entailing an immediate production of output (in the form of words, phrases, and sentences) to convey meaning and achieve varied functions that are mandatory to make communication successful.

2.1.2. Speaking as Knowledge and Skill

Bygate (1987) pointed out that speaking has been undervalued as a skill as it is frequently taken for granted and perceived to be facile because speech is unplanned and temporary. Nevertheless, speaking is unquestionably a skill that should be given much attention as all the other literacy skills and receive equal priority. He further highlighted that speaking is a medium through which much language is learnt. Therefore, it should be at the heart of language teaching. From his standpoint, to successfully teach speaking, teachers should know the discrepancy that lies between speaking as a 'skill' and speaking as 'knowledge' as he straightforwardly stated: "This distinction between knowledge and skill is crucial in the teaching of speaking." (Bygate, 1987, p. 3).

The divergence between language skills and language knowledge demonstrates students 'speaking activities' and 'oral exams'. Teachers would identify their learners' knowledge about the language and their skill in using it. Bygate (1987) pointed out that speaking knowledge is the bulk of information and background learners have about the language system (vocabulary, grammar...etc.). Speaking, as a skill, is the mastery of putting the whole knowledge into practice as producing sentences and adapting them to circumstances, and making decisions on the spot (p.3). In short, knowledge on its own is not enough; it has to be used in action. Congruent with the same standpoint, Daskalovska (2018, p.1) elucidated that what makes learning to speak a target language not an easy task is that the latter encompasses acquiring a vast array of subskills and diverse types of knowledge that pave the way for the learners of that language to communicate adequately. Thus, learners should not be satisfied by mastering the formal aspects of language: grammar, vocabulary,

and syntax. They should learn how to use this knowledge in diverse situations and demonstrate it all along their interaction to start, maintain and end conversations. Daskalovska (2018, p.1) explained that interacting successfully in the TL, learners must be acquainted with the pragmatic and sociocultural knowledge of the target language, not merely possessing a linguistic knowledge background. Thus, speaking as a skill is the investment and the practice of language knowledge.

2.1.3. Processes Involved in Speaking

Goh & Burns (2012) stated that for most language learners, native speakers speak effortlessly. They produce words flawlessly, and they convey their ideas via well-constructed utterances with faultless grammar. Nevertheless, those learners are not knowledgeable about the myriad complex cognitive processes underlying speech production (p.35). Goh & Burns (2012) explained that these processes work interactively, often automatically and harmoniously. Thus, to conceptualize speaking as a process, many applied linguistics have implemented a speech processing cognitive model proposed by Levelt (1989) that thoroughly explains speech production (as cited in Goh & Burns, 2012, p.35). Psycholinguists have proposed several models to account for the processes of speech production, of which is Levelt's one. Albeit the latter was developed to describe an L1 production, it has been used widely to describe the production process in an L2 (Muranoi, 2007, p.53). Levelt's model comprises three interrelated processes governing speech production: a) conceptualization, b) formulation, and c) articulation d) self-monitoring (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.36); (Bygate, 2001, p.16). The three first are interrelated stages, whereas the fourth operates at a different level than the others. Thus each stage is subsequently explained:

2.1.3.1. Conceptualization

As a phase, Conceptualization involves selecting the message content, which is based upon the context of the situation and the specific purpose to be achieved (Uso-Juan, & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p.143). At the preliminary phase, language speakers tend to plan the content of their message. The latter brings into play their background knowledge, including knowledge about the topic, the speech situation, and knowledge of the discourse patterns (Bygate, 2001, p.16). Bygate (1998) highlighted that the conceptualization process occurs: “where messages are selected in the light of contextual factors and goals” (Bygate, 1998, p.23). He further asserted that conceptualization as the main phase of speech production: “includes access of long-term memory, tracking of the discourse, tracking of interlocutor knowledge and expectations, overall pragmatic purpose, and specific pragmatic-conceptual content of utterances) (Bygate, 2009, p.419). Considering it as a speech production component, Muranoi (2007) highlighted that conceptualization: includes conceiving of an intention, selecting the relevant information, ordering this information for expression, keeping track of what was said before, and soon. At this level, the speaker attends to his or her production, monitoring what he or she is saying and how. The product of the segmental activities is a preverbal message. (p.53).

Conceptualization then pertains to the learners' selection of information to convey a message. The speaker frames his intended message via selecting information from his prior knowledge background and formulating the content of the message intended to be delivered along with the selection of the addressed words. Immediately after, the 'monitor' works to check whether the communication takes place and paves the way for the learners to execute self-correction in terms of grammar and pronunciation levels Bygate (2001, p.16). Conceptualization is a process of cognitive planning and prearrangement of the words to be verbally produced; it is thinking about what to say.

2.1.3.2. Formulation

The formulation is the second process of speech production. As elucidated by Bygate (2009), in the formulation phase, “words are selected, sequenced, and inflected, or recognized (p.168). It occurs immediately after the conceptualization process; the formulator finds the words, phrases, and utterances through which the speaker intends to express the meaning. Then he/she sequences the words into appropriate grammatical order (such as inflection, auxiliaries, articles..., etc.) (Bygate, 2001, p.16). Formulation involves the translation and the conversion of the conceptual process into a linguistic form (Harley, 2001, p.375). The course of formulation occurs along with two phases: a syntactic level in which the speaker arranges the words into sentences to convey the meaning. Immediately after, the phonological encoding, in which words turn into sounds, occurs (Harley, 2001, p.375). On their part, Goh& Burns (2012) defined formulation as: “a process by which the ideas that exist in the speaker’s mind during conceptual preparation are mapped onto specific words in the speaker’s mental lexicon and strung together.” (p.37)

According to the researchers, the formulation stage is the most challenging in the language production process in Levelt’s model, as learners are required to decide about the relevant words and the grammatical forms to shape the message they intend to convey (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.38). The formulation process is the exhibition of learners’ mastery of the target language syntax (putting the words into the correct order) and the grammar components (using the appropriate tense and bound morpheme markers, e.g. -ed, -s, -ing). Thus, in mastering the target language 's grammatical and syntactic systems, learners may clearly and coherently express their mental concepts (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.38). The formulation stage requires the students to be knowledgeable about the various registers existing in the language. It also entails using these registers appropriately in producing speech that is socially and contextually relevant and well-framed. For example, when

learners are assigned to tell a story, they are supposed to start their narration by 'Once upon a time, in a land faraway...etc., to set the context for a narrative (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.38).

To sum up, the formulation is then the concretization of the conceptual process that denotes the learner to demonstrate his grammatical and syntactic knowledge of the language; it is simply the process in which the speaker thinks how to say what he wants to say.

2.1.3.3. Articulation

Articulation involves the use of speech organs to produce sounds. At the articulation phase, learners should take control of the whole mechanism of the articulatory system of the TL (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.38). Through articulation, the message is conveyed to the listener in sound waves; it is more than a physiological process. It closely pertains to memory and information processing (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.38). Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2011) elucidated that at the level of that process, mechanisms "convert chunks of internal speech into actual speech and to do so, they must have control over speech apparatus mechanism" (p.246). Levelt (1999) highlighted that the articulatory system is responsible for executing the phonological conceptualized abstract items formulated in the previous process. It is complicated as a process as it entails a procedure of implying a neural system execution to the abstractly formulated concepts as Levelt (1999) termed: "The articulatory system is, of course, not just the muscular machinery that controls lungs, larynx, and vocal tract; it is as much a computational neural system that controls the execution of abstract gestural scores by this highly complex motor system."(p.5). So, in brief, at the articulation phase, the speech plan is converted into the stream of sounds

Goh & Burns (2012) highlighted that those language learners, who are competent speakers, frequently pay attention to the pronunciation of the words and their stress placement. The more competent they are, the more they are expected to recall how some sounds are produced and be conscious about assigning stress to the right syllable in a

keyword when they speak. They might even be mindful about applying intonation patterns as the latter would pave the way for them to convey more socially relevant messages (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.38). Being very conscious about their pronunciation makes L2 pay more attention to their articulation process. In all, articulation is a process in which the speaker says aloud what he wants to convey as a message.

2.1.3.4. Self-monitoring

The three portrayed processes above directly contribute to language production. Nevertheless, self-monitoring works at a higher level; it is a keystone metacognitive process that takes place while speech is produced. Self-monitoring denotes constantly checking or monitoring speech for accuracy and acceptability (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.39).). Self-monitoring paves the way for the speakers to “actively identify and correct mistakes if necessary.” (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p.143). As defined by Oomen and Postma (2001), speech self-monitoring is “the process by which speakers check the correctness and appropriateness of their speech. Speakers can interrupt erroneous or inadequate utterances to self-repair” (p.163). The more language learners are competent, the more they can discern pronunciation and grammar errors (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.39).

Relying on communicative strategies to convey meaningful messages requires language learners' self-monitoring. Thus, and as Goh& Burns (2012) acknowledged, there is a strong correlation between learners' effective self-monitoring and metacognitive knowledge. The more language learners acquire grammatical and pronunciation knowledge, the more they monitor their speech production and vice versa (p.39). Both scholars made it clear that language learners also need to consider pragmatic demands while communicating with their interlocutors and monitor their speech accuracy. Attaining a high communicative competence positively affects learners when evaluating the appropriateness and the

relevance of their output to the interlocutors (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.39). The figure below recapitulates the stages of speech production.

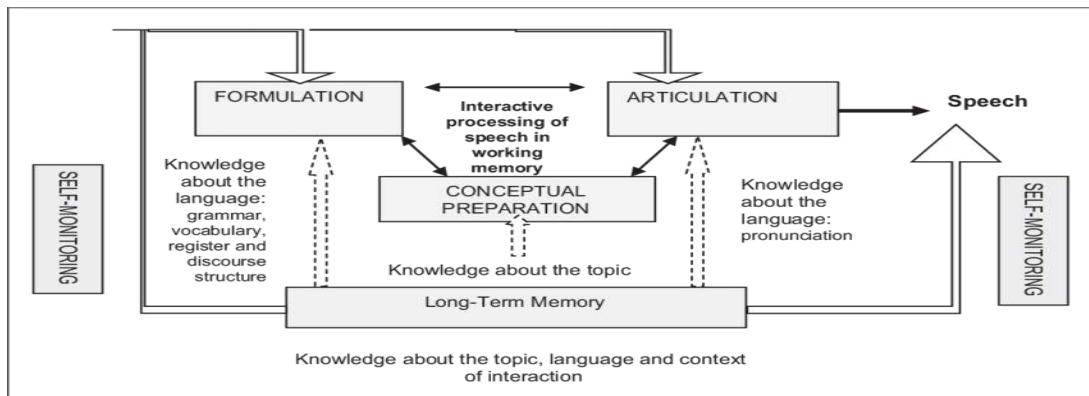


Figure 4. Cognitive demands on learners during speech processing based on levelt's model of speech processing. (Adapted from "Teaching Speaking: a Holistic Approach", by C.C.M Goh & A. Burns, 2012, p.36).

As the figure above displays, producing speech is not a simple process. To speak, individuals need to go through different cognitive stages, all these are interconnected.

2.1.4. Speaking Competence

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) denoted that speaking an L2 is considered one of the most challenging and demanding of the four language skills, namely speaking, writing, listening and reading, because it involves a complex process of constructing meaning (as cited in Martínez-Flor, Usó-Juan, and Soler, 2006, p.139). The nature of speaking that is interactive makes the production process problematic to many EFL/ESL learners. (Martinez-Flor et al., 2006). Goh (2016) asserted that speaking comprises dynamic interactions between mental, articulatory, and social processes that happen concurrently. To transmit a message in an L2, the speaker needs to decide what to say using his linguistic knowledge to form utterances and encode this message in sounds that should be clear enough to be recognised by the listeners (Goh, 2016, p.147).

Burns and Seidlhofer (2002) highlighted that speaking an L1 or L2 context is not taken for granted as it entails the speaker's subtle and detailed knowledge about how, why,

and when to communicate in the target language (as cited in Burns & Seidlhofer, 2010) . Furthermore, both scholars clarified that speaking is not a simple daily life practice. It requires the mastery of complex skills for producing and managing interaction, such as exchanging questions and turns. Hence, speaking is attuned to perform diverse social activities relevant to given contexts (Burns & Seidlhofer, 2010, p.197)

2.1.5. Communicative Competence and Speaking

The notion of speaking competence is interwoven strongly in the concept of communicative competence put forward by Dell Hymes (1979) and expanded by many researchers that came after (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.51). Hymes (1979) stressed that the communicative competence of an individual is demonstrated in his/her ability to use the language effectively in the process of interaction and communication (as cited Shumin, 2002, p.206). Hymes' theory acknowledges two fundamental facets: learners' linguistic knowledge and the actual performance of language in social situations. Hence, the higher the communicative competence the speaker attains, the more accurate grammar utterances he produces. These utterances are contextually appropriate and easy to process for the listener (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.51).

Attempting to expand Hymes's theory in the SLA domain, Canale and Swain (1980) (as cited in Shumin, 2002, p. 206) denoted that communicative competence encompasses four components: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence (as cited in Shumin, 2002, p. 206). Focussing on L2 acquisition scope, Canale and Swain (1980) explained the notion of communicative competence in terms of four constituents (as cited in Shumin, 2002, p. 206). These are subsequently and succinctly explained (Goh & Burns, 2012).

Grammatical competence refers to the speaker's knowledge about grammar, vocabulary, and phonology (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.51). Grammatical competence is: "an

umbrella term that includes increasing expertise in grammar (morphology and syntax), vocabulary and mechanics. As far as speaking is concerned, the term refers to the basic sounds of letters and syllables, pronunciation of words, intonation, and stress.” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992) (as cited in Shumin, 2002, p.207). Thus, L2 learners need to have a sound background about how words are segmented into sounds, and the sentences are stressed. Acquiring that knowledge paves the way for TL learners to convey meaning accurately and leads to fluency development (Shumin, 2002, p.207).

Discourse competence refers to their ability to connect diverse utterances to produce coherent passages (Shumin, 2002, p.51). Brown (2007) stated that discourse analysis is the “ability we have to connect stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances.” (pp. 219 -220). For L2 speakers to communicate effectively, they need to acquire a vast repertoire of structures and discourse markers to perform diverse functions in conversations as cause and effect, emphasis, contrast... etc. In so doing, they might be able to interact via the TL (Shumin, 2002).

Sociolinguistic competence, as elucidated by Goh and Burns (2012, p.51), is the speaker's ability to use an accurate language that fits with the socio-cultural norms and goes hand in hand with the relevant use of discourse genre in specific sociocultural contexts. Put otherwise; sociolinguistic competence demonstrates the speaker's knowledge of the language sociocultural rules and discourse (Brown, 2007, p.220). The sociolinguistic competence ripens more or less with the speakers' acquisition of a repertoire through which s/he can identify and understand the social context in which the language is used. Shumin (2002) further highlighted that having a good background in the language would not exclusively lead an L2 learner to perform well the target language. S/he needs to be familiar with the rules underpinning the performance of diverse speech acts (p.207). As a component of communication competence, it is predominantly crucial to make L2 learners effective

speakers. L2 learners need to encode and decode the discourse to which they are exposed to be good speakers. In so doing, they might perform miscellaneous acts as asking questions and responding even non-verbally depending on the functions of talk (Shumin, 2002, p.207).

Strategic competence relates to “ the verbal and non-verbal actions taken to prevent and address breakdowns in communication.” (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.51). Shumin (2002) acknowledges that strategic competence is the most important of the four communicative competence subcategories. It is of paramount importance for an L2 to develop his strategic competence because the latter demonstrates his/her ability to compensate for his/her little linguistic, discursive, and sociolinguistic knowledge background on the TL rules. Regarding speaking, the strategic competence of learners exhibits in their ability is to know when and how to take the floor to speak while interacting with others. It is also displayed in his/her capacity to keep conversations going and overcome communication breakdown and communication problems (Shumin, 2002, p.208). Brown (2007) further denoted that strategic competence is manifested in the speakers' ability to make repairs, cope with insufficient knowledge, and sustain communication through paraphrasing, circumlocution, repetition ..., etc. (Brown, 2007, p.220). Thus, strategic competence might incorporate communication strategies.

Notwithstanding the various theories underpinning the SLA domain, ESL/EFL learners must be equipped with basic knowledge about the target language to perform adeptly orally. The prerequisite core skills of speaking that need to be mastered are exposed subsequently.

2.1.6. Language and Discourse knowledge

Speaking an L1 comes intuitively, as stated by Thornbury (2005, p.11). Nonetheless, to speak an L2/TL, learners need to acquire some knowledge to demonstrate the ability to produce spoken forms of that language. Thornbury (2005, p.11) pinpointed that the necessary knowledge an L2 learner needs to communicate orally can be either linguistic

(features of a language) or extralinguistic (knowledge that is independent of a language). Goh & Burns (2012) proposed a model of speaking an L2 performance that stresses the significance of attaining a certain level of knowledge to competently speak: a repertoire of embracing knowledge about language and discourse. As for linguistic knowledge, Goh & Burns (2012) determined that linguistic knowledge encompasses four types: grammatical knowledge, phonological knowledge, lexical knowledge, and discourse knowledge (p.64).

2.1.6.1. Grammatical Knowledge

Thornbury (2005) elucidated that spoken grammar is undeniably divergent from the grammar of written texts. Producing oral output in a target language context requires the speaker to communicate verbally in immediate real-time contexts, yet with limited opportunities to plan his/her speech. Thereby, the produced oral output might not be as grammatically complex as the written one. Despite the discrepancies that differentiate the spoken grammar from the written one in the English language, it is fundamentally worthy for ESL/EFL learners to be well-informed about many facets of English grammar. For instance, they need to be knowledgeable about the possibility of inflecting verbs, such as adjusting the tense by adding '- ed' to form the past tense for the regular verbs in English (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.54). They need to be aware of the syntactic structure of constructing English sentences and how words are strung together to form diverse meanings. For instance, to ask a question in English, the speaker needs to invert the subject and the verb positions used in a declarative sentence (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.54). Grammatical knowledge is predominantly crucial as it is supposed to enable TL learners to formulate utterances and achieve self-monitoring. The comprehensive grammar knowledge they acquire, the higher they monitor their speech while processing it. Being grammatically well-informed paves the way for the learners to grasp the intended meaning by parsing the syntactic structure of the sentences into segments. In doing so, they are expected to create a mental representation of

the combined meaning of the words (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.54). At last, EFL/ESL learners need to know the divergence between the spoken and written output. Given that, they would manage to produce more natural language (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.54).

2.1.6.2. Phonological Knowledge

Goh& Burns (2012) elucidated that another type of knowledge learners require is knowledge of the target language's phonology (the sound system). Phonological knowledge is required for three levels of production: word, utterance, and discourse. First and foremost, language learners must understand how the target language sounds are pronounced and avoid some common issues associated with transferring sounds from the language (Kenworthy; 1987, Hewings, 2004) (as cited in Goh& Burns, 2012,p.55). These aspects of knowledge are related to the segmental (or micro) features of word pronunciation. Learners must also be aware of the suprasegmental speech features other than words, such as stress, rhythm, and intonation. More importantly, they should understand how features like prominence (strong emphasis on certain sounds) and tones (chunking sounds to provide meaning) during speaking and listening serve communicative and discourse functions (Goh& Burns, 2012, pp.54-55).

2.1.6.3. Lexical Knowledge

Goh& Burns (2012) explained that the lexical knowledge of learners develops on two levels. The first is the number of words and meanings they are familiar with (their vocabulary size). It is estimated that native English speakers have a vocabulary of 80 000 words when they finish secondary school (Owen, 2011) (as cited in Goh& Burns, 2012, p.55). Nevertheless, it is expected to be lower in the case of L2 learners. Furthermore, a distinction should be made between what learners know as part of their productive vocabulary, which is available for use when speaking or writing, and what they know as the receptive

vocabulary, which is available for recognition in the processes of listening or reading (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.55).

In general, an individual productive vocabulary is smaller than his or her receptive vocabulary. As a result, one of the difficulties that many language learners face is a lack of sufficient words to express their messages precisely. At a higher level, students gain vocabulary knowledge that is supplemented by semantic knowledge of word relationships. Knowledge of lexical sets such as kinship terms and the relationships of words to abstract concepts such as denotative and connotative meanings (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.55). In addition, learners' speech is likely to develop when they become more knowledgeable about formulaic language and idiomatic expressions (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.55).

2.1.6.4. Discourse Knowledge

Spoken output can be structured in various genres to fulfil different communicative functions in different social contexts. As L2/FL learners use the language to communicate in different language contexts, it is imperative to know that the structure of their speech largely depends on the contexts and purposes (functions). Goh& Burns (2012) stated: "They need to know what linguistic resources can be used for organizing and structuring stretches of speech to form coherent spoken texts that are appropriate for the setting and the participants." (p.56). Similarly, Thornbury (2005) stressed that it is essential that the speakers of a target language know the elements and structures of the different genres used to form coherent stretches of discourse (e.g., narrating stories structures and elements). More importantly, they are required to map all their knowledge about the different genres of spoken discourse into the turn-taking interactive talk (i.e., discourse competence) (Thornbury, 2005, p.5).

EFL/ESL learners also need to promote their practical knowledge about speech acts and sociocultural practices. Put differently; it is not sufficient to know how to structure a

speech to fulfil some language functions; learners also need to enhance their sociocultural competence entailing awareness about the norms of communication relevant to English speaking societies (Goh, Burns, 2012, p.56; Thornbury, 2005, p.16).

2.2. Historical Perspectives on Teaching Speaking

Historically, teaching the speaking skill was not acknowledged to gain a worthy position in teaching English as a second/foreign language. As a language skill, speaking was not at the heart of the second language teaching approaches and methods at that juncture. Until the end of the nineteenth century, the spoken form of the language started to secure a valuable status in the language teaching processes (Hughes and Reed, 2017, p.21).

By the nineteenth century, the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) was dominant in the English language as an FL. Richards & Rogers (2001) explained that GTM narrowed the scope of the learning/teaching of a target language through “a study of a detailed analysis of its grammar rules followed by the application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language.”(p.5). The entire focus of the GTM was to scrutinize reading and writing language skills. Speaking and listening were systematically relegated and marginalized. Speaking was perceived as a medium of providing language input, whose use was limited to the memorization and practice of the language rules (Bygate, 2001, p.14). GTM deemed grammar highly important to study the sentence structures of the language and then translate them into and out of the target language. Hence, the teaching of the speaking skill continued to be subordinate in the realm of second language acquisition till the arrival of the ‘Reform Movement’ around the 1880s (Hughes & Reed, 2017, p.21). The latter put prevailing language teaching methods and approaches into question and raised controversies relevant to their practices (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.7). The widespread of the GTM in the teaching of foreign languages lasted from the 1840s to the 1940s. In the mid and late nineteenth century and with the emergence

of the 'Reform Movement', a divergence in teaching foreign language perspective has come into the scene, resulting in new teaching approaches and methods in SL classrooms (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.7). The increasing need for the Europeans to communicate urged the tendency to focus more on 'oral proficiency' rather than grammar correctness.

With the advent of the 'Reform Movement' in the late nineteenth century, speaking started to gain a focal status in the teaching/learning of second/foreign languages. The movement was based upon fundamental principles accentuating the absolute priority of an oral methodology in the language classroom (Howatt, 1984, p.171). The spoken form of the language was no more subordinate and turned into a primacy and a must in the learning /teaching of an SL/FL. Albeit they considerably differed in the procedures advocated for teaching a language, many reformers and linguists, such as Henry Sweet in England, Wilhelm Viëtor in Germany, and Paul Passy in France, at that juncture concurred that language methodology should be oral-based. Phonetics was at the heart of learning /teaching practices (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 10). Although speaking started to gain impetus in language teaching methodology, it made pronunciation the core of teaching it. Put differently; teaching speaking was aligned strongly with pronunciation instruction (Bygate, 2001, p.15).

The 'Reform Movement' led to the emergence of many teaching methods: the 'Direct Method' (alternatively known as the 'natural approach'). The latter attempted to make second language learning similar to first language learning by relying on oral interaction in the target language classroom. Thus, speaking was fundamental as it endeavoured to teach the FL as naturally as possible throughout underscoring the systematic teaching of pronunciation and avoiding grammar and text translations from L1 into target language (Richards & Rogers, 2001, pp.11-12). The significance of teaching the speaking skill in the Direct Method manifested in the reliance on using the target language exclusively in language instruction

and the incentive of the oral communication structured in the form of teacher-learners exchange. Nevertheless, the teaching of the speaking skill was considerably revolving around teaching correct pronunciation (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.12).

The constant evolution that second and foreign languages learning realms have witnessed led to the rise of many innovations in language learning theories, thereby teaching methods. Thornbury (2005) quoted: "There have been at least three language learning that is relevant to the teaching of speaking: behaviourist, cognitivist and socio-cultural theory." (pp.37-38). Likewise, Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) shed light on the innovations that the speaking skill has witnessed in three language learning theories over the past decades. It is worthy to state that while Thornbury (2005) used the terms designated beforehand, Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor (2006) preferred to refer to the environmentalist, innatist, and interactionist as fundamental language theories that have rigorously impacted the teaching of speaking. The behaviourist paradigm demonstrated in its most popularized form, namely the audio-lingual method, viewed: "language learning is essentially the formation of good language habits through repeated reinforcement" (Thornbury, 2005, p.38). As a method, it was designed to teach grammar via modelling, repetition drills, and controlled practice. Yet, it was extended to teach the other language skills, including speaking. Instructing speaking in the classroom within the Audio-lingual method departed from exposing learners to taped dialogues and listening to conversations and then assigning them to repeat and imitate (Thornbury, 2005, p.38). Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor (2006) stated that the audio-lingual method interwoven in the environmentalist philosophy (alternatively referred to as behaviourism paradigm in Thornbury, 2005), it postulated that learning a language comprising speaking embraces a stimulus-response-reinforcement pattern which involved constant practice and the formation of good habits patterns. Uso- Juan & Martinez-Flor (2006) clearly stated:

in this pattern, speakers were exposed first to linguistic input as a type of external stimulus, and their response consisted of imitating and repeating such input. If done correctly, they received positive reinforcement from other language users within their exact environment. The continuous practice of this speech pattern persisted until forming good habits. It resulted in learning how to speak. Consequently, it was assumed that speaking a language involved just repeating, imitating, and memorizing the input to which those speakers were exposed. (p.140)

The audio-lingual method, which is embedded in an environmentalist/behaviourist tendency, was one of the first existing teaching approaches advocating the necessity of teaching oral skills (Bygate, 2001, p.15). Nevertheless, it viewed speaking as a medium for providing 'input' to generate accurate pronunciation and develop automaticity. Audio-lingualism has never accentuated the teaching of speaking as a discourse skill on its own.

Following the advent of the cognitivist theory occurring at the end of the 1960s, the theoretical foundations underpinning the Audio-lingual method were questioned. The cognitivist theory came as a reaction to the behavioural learning theory that postulated the structural description of the language and made the learning process mechanical and exclusively limited to habit formation and governed by the stimulus-response and reinforcement principle (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.65-66). As a prominent opponent to the behaviourism paradigm, Noam Chomsky proposed an alternative perspective of learning languages. His innovative notions revolutionized the teaching of languages, and they resulted in adopting the cognitive theory, alternatively called the innatist approach (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p.141) worldwide. The cognitive theory credited the immense cognitive ability that the human mind possesses- a so similar to computers' ability. The Cognitive learning approach did not consent with the behaviourist tendency to consider language learning, including the speaking skill, environmentally governed. Chomsky

underscored the abstract cognitive processes the human mind makes to generate infinite language structures never exposed to beforehand as termed by Uso- Juan & Martinez-Flor (2006): “ within such an approach, it was claimed that regardless of the environment where speakers were to produce language, they had the internal faculty, or competence in Chomsky’s (1965) terms, to create and understand an infinite amount of discourse.” (p.141). Since then, language learners attempting to learn the speaking skill were no longer perceived as empty vessels supposed to receive input and repeat accordingly. Quite the reverse, speakers were posited to perform series of internal cognitive strategies and processes to produce oral output. Truthfully, this paved the way for giving some autonomy to learners in terms of practising the language. No matter how the drastic revolutions that the Cognitive theory brought to the language teaching /learning domain, the innatist view to language (i.e., Cognitive approach) failed to take into account the other aspects of language use in communication and the diverse functions of languages (Uso- Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p.141). The deficiency of the Cognitive approach lies in the fact of considering speaking as a decontextualized process. Learning to speak from the cognitivists’ standpoint is an abstract mental set of procedures occurring in isolation. Grammar structures and rules are internalized and transformed into further generated and extended structures. Speaking was confined to cognitive processes and was never considered as an intricate skill ripening within a social and contextualized setting, shaping language use and communication (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006.p.142).

During the late 1970s and the 1980s, the field of language learning has witnessed drastic changes with the introduction of the Socio-cultural theory that is profoundly rooted in the interactionist perspective (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006.p.142). The Sociocultural theory came as a reaction to the Cognitive theory that did not consider the influence of the social context to develop learners’ speaking skills. The Sociocultural theory, as worded by

Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor (2006): "emphasized the role of the linguistic environment in interaction with the innate capacity for language development." (p.142). They further added: "The changes under this approach were thus characterized by an increasing recognition of the need to examine the complex cognitive processes involved in producing oral language from a more dynamic and interactive perspective." (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p.142). Thus, the innovations brought to the teaching of speaking under the Sociocultural theory pertain to valuing both learners' cognition and social environment as driving forces leading to developing the speaking skill.

In teaching terms, the sociocultural theory postulated that all learning, being a first or an L2, is mediated through social and cultural activity (Thornbury, 2005, p.35). Furthermore, Thornbury (2005) highlighted that to learn effectively a given language skill, which is the speaking skill, learners need to experience other regulation (more experienced individuals to assist them). This assistance is often embodied in the form of scaffolding, in which both teachers and learners interact to develop the learners' speaking competence and move from other-regulation to self-regulation (p.38). In classroom practices, sociocultural theory implementation pertains to relying more on collaborative learning that considers learning jointly constructed and scaffolded (Thornbury, 2005, p.39).

The advent of the Communicative Approach in English Language Teaching in the 1980s has drastically led to fundamental shifts in the teaching practices of ESL/EFL in classrooms (Richards, 2008, p.2). With its diverse offshoot methods, the Communicative Approach pointed up to the significance of interaction and underscored the teaching of communication over linguistic facts (Hughes, 2011, p. 148). Speaking started to gain a strong impetus in language teaching more than any other preceding era. CLT underscored the magnitude of stimulating learners' engagement in the discursive spoken communicative language (Hughes, 2011, p.148). Hedge (2000, p. 57) stated that CLT prime goal was to

enhance learners' communicative language abilities by focussing more on fluency. According to Brumfit (1984), the latter is achieved by emphasising the language meaning more than the form (as cited in Hedge, 2000, p.58). With all its facets, the Communicative Approach postulated the significance of engaging learners in 'negotiation of meaning' processes. In so doing, EFL/ESL learners may enhance discourse and pragmatic competencies that are sound pillars to foster communicative competence (Brumfit, 1984) (as cited in Hedge, 2000, p.58).

Within the framework of CLT, teaching speaking ceased to be done in a controlled way. It incorporated the teaching of not merely speaking components: as pronunciation, vocabulary, and structure accurately, it stretches instead its aim to implement accuracy- and fluency-based activities. Simultaneously, the language features (vocabulary, pronunciation.) started to be practised more freely in activities to achieve purposeful communication (Hedge, 2000, p.261). From his part, Richards (2008) further asserted that since its emergence, CLT continued to change views of syllabuses and methodology that have continued to shape the approaches and methods of teaching speaking so far. Hence, the Communicative-based syllabuses swapped Grammar-based ones. The first was built around notions, functions, skills, tasks, or other non-grammatical units of the organization (Richards, 2008, p.2). CLT underscored the teaching of fluency and put it at the heart of its teaching practices as termed by Richards (2008):

Fluency became a goal for speaking courses, and this could be developed through the use of information-gap and other tasks that required learners to attempt real communication despite limited proficiency in English. In so doing they would develop communication strategies and engage in negotiation of meaning, both of which were considered essential to the development of oral skills. (p.2)

Congruent with the same perspective, Brown (2001 a, p.268) postulated that CLT prime goal courses were sketched to achieve fluency as an 'initial goal' and accuracy could be achieved by stimulating EFL/ESL learners to practise elements of phonology, grammar, and discourse in their oral output. Furthermore, Burns (2006, p.236) denoted that CLT that relied on the teaching of notional, functional, meaning-centred approach with its derivative novice methods such as Task-based language teaching approach (TBLT) have led progressively to the elaboration of the teaching of speaking and yielded in sound perspectives as far the speaking instruction is concerned. With the introduction of the TBLT in the late 1980's, speaking continued to be central to the teaching practice. It underscored the use of communicative activities aiming at exchanging meaning rather than language forms. TBLT prioritized learners' oral communication through which a target language is learnt. As a method, it strived at stimulating the process of negotiation of meaning throughout assigning communicative tasks to result in authentic language use (Willis, 1996) (as cited in Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor, 2006, p.114). Developing oral communication is the focal foundation upon which TBLT is grounded. Learning a language entails authentic communication; the more the tasks are communicative and urge learners to speak, the more the language is likely to be learnt (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.223).

2.3. Speaking in First Language versus Second Language Context

Speaking an L1 is not precisely the same as an L2. Nevertheless, some similarities are drawn to assimilate the processes involved in producing an L2. Thornbury (2005) elucidated that there are not many differences in speaking L1 and L2 in terms of the stages of mental processes as he clearly stated:

Like L1 speakers, L2 speakers also produce speech through conceptualizing, then formulating, and finally articulating, during which time they are also self-monitoring. At the same time, they will be attending to their interlocutors, adjusting their message accordingly,

and negotiating the management of conversational turns. Therefore, the skills of speaking are essentially the same and should, in theory, be transferable from the speaker's first language into the second. (p.28)

Aligned with the same perspective, Goh & Burns (2012) acknowledged the parallels between an L1 and an L2 acquisition in terms of speaking by underscoring the common attributes of acquisition. The 'environment' is one of the common features that make learning to speak an L1 & an L2 successful (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.16). How children start learning their mother tongue from the surrounding environment, the extent and the nature of their exposure to the environment determine their development in acquiring the language. This concept is embedded profoundly in an interactionist approach perspective in language acquisition that underscores expert speakers' role to trigger an innate mechanism for language acquisition and provide needed input and feedback. Thus, novice speakers of the target language (children) start to be immersed in daily interaction routines with adults and experts of the language. In so doing, novice learners, during their interaction with adults who use many conversational techniques while interacting with them, develop an awareness of using the language fittingly with its diverse forms and functions (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.16). Moreover, adults do not merely provide opportunities for children to use the language they are acquiring; they also provide them with chances to notice problems in their speech to generate accurate, potentially rich, and meaningful language (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.17). Putting it differently, while interacting with novice speakers, adults rely on conversation strategies such as modelling, clarification requests, and confirmation checks that are fundamental to develop novice language acquisition and practice (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.17).

In drawing an analogy between speaking in L1 and L2 contexts, Goh & Burns (2012) reckoned that the conversation strategies the adults implement to facilitate novice language acquisition are so similar to the ones used by expert speakers of L2 and are of the same

significance to enhance L2 acquisition (p.18). Along with their interaction with experts, L2 learners might be encouraged to notice their produced language to produce utterances in a more accurate way (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.16). In attempting to speak a language, whether L1 or L2, novice speakers are urged to practise the language by their caretakers/adults (the case of L1 speakers) or teachers (the case of L2 speakers) in processes of interaction. It is done to sustain their practice of the language and make them acquire its structures, and encourage them to use them accurately.

Despite the similarities between acquiring an L1 and an L2, there are some discrepancies in learning the speaking skill. Thornbury (2005), for instance, asserted that the divergence pertains to the language itself. In attempting to use an L2, the speakers might not be satisfactorily knowledgeable about the language vocabulary and grammar. Thus, they may find themselves unable to produce an L2 accurately and significantly (Thornbury, 2005, p.28). Furthermore, many other variables intervene to make the process of producing L2 utterances more complicated than doing it in an L1 context: as being unable to immediately retrieve and recall the acquired knowledge about the language such as vocabulary while interacting with their interlocutors.

2.4. Issues on Speaking and Second Language Acquisition

Hatch (1987) underscored the role that speaking plays in L2 acquisition, as novice speakers are constantly involved in talks with more competent speakers. Those provide them with 'input' and 'feedback', both of which are crucial engines to enhance second language acquisition (SLA) (as cited in Goh& Burns, 2012, p.18). Thus, as language input, feedback and output are fundamental issues in the study of SLA, they are reviewed succinctly subsequently.

2.4.1. Input

Richards and Schmidt (2010) define the term 'input' as: "language which a learner hears or receives and from which he or she can learn" (p.268). The language the learner is exposed to and what he is supposed to learn is known as 'language input'. As a concept in language acquisition theories, input has been reviewed differently from one perspective to another.

The behaviourist perspective, for instance, regarded input as a strong driving force that leads to language learning through reinforcement (Zhang, 2009, p.91-92); Gass, Behney, and Plonksy (2013, p.339). Conversely, the mentalist paradigm downplayed the role of input to learn L2, as the interest shifted to focus more on the innate mechanism and system of L2 learners to learn languages (Gass et al., 2013, p.339). Thus, minimal exposure to 'input' was required to trigger acquisition (Ellis, 1997) (as cited in Zhang, 2009, p.92). Regarding the Interactionist theories, input was deemed to be focal in language acquisition and was considered equally mandatory as the internal language processing (Zhang, 2009, p.92). Regardless of how 'input' was regarded in the different language theories, Gass (2011) assumed that: "no individual can learn a second language without an input of some sort" (p.1). Thus, the influence of the input in the process of SLA has widely been acknowledged.

2.4.1.1. Input Hypothesis (1981)

During the early 1980s, Stephen Krashen devised his outstanding theory, whose central principles have, hitherto, continued to shape SLA research (Hughes, 2011, p.148). According to Krashen Input Hypothesis: "humans acquire language in only one way—by understanding messages, or by receiving comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1985) (as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.104). Comprehensible input, from Krashen's standpoint, is the linguistic input that comprises language structures. These are a little bit beyond a language learner's current level of linguistic competence. He clarified that learners move from I (the

current level) to $i+1$, the next level, by understanding input comprising $i+1$ (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.104). Putting it differently, Krashen denoted that L2 takes place when learners are exposed to input that is slightly beyond their actual level to interact with their interlocutors and respond accordingly.

Despite the innovations the Input Hypothesis has brought to the SLA studies, it has been criticized by many researchers such as Swain (1981,1991); Harley & Hart (1997); Harley & Swain (1984, etc.) (as cited in Zhang, 2009,p. 92); (Tavakoli, 2013, p. 173). It aligned the successfulness of SLA with comprehensible input. Similarly, it confined the role of the teacher to providing listening and reading materials (Zhang, 2009, p.92). Krashen put the comprehension of the exposed input to language learners at the heart of potential SLA. Accordingly, it valued the receptive skills (listening and reading) and overlooked the productive ones (speaking and writing) (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.104). Concerning the speaking skill, Krashen viewed it as secondary in the process of learning. He gave priority to listening and reading as highlighted by Tavakoli (2013): "According to Krashen, speaking is a result of the acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly but 'emerges' on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input". Thus, Krashen discounted the significance of the speaking skill to develop learner's interaction and language acquisition by matching SLA with the amount of the comprehension of the input received and downplaying the crucial role of interaction and output production.

Language input is definitely pivotal in acquiring a new language, as suggested by Krashen. Nonetheless, research studies have demonstrated the significance of the output to make language learners proficient in the TL (Goh and Burns, 2012, p.16). Given that the Krashen Input Hypothesis diminished the role of output and interaction in language acquisition, Long proposed an alternative hypothesis based on the assumption that input is not the ultimate and foremost factor leading to SLA.

2.4.1.2. Interaction Hypothesis (1981; 1996)

Proceeding from a slightly different perspective than Krashen, Long introduced the Interaction Hypothesis (1983, 1996) (as cited in Walsh, 2011, p.54). In its preliminary version, it was in line with Krashen's hypothesis in stressing comprehensible input in the SLA process, but it emphasized the importance of interaction as its source (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005, p.167). Along with the two versions of the Interaction Hypothesis, Long argued that learning occurs as long as learners negotiate meaning. He regarded negotiation for meaning as central to SLA, and in so doing, the researcher was consistent with CLT principles (Walsh, 2011, p.54). That is, Long put classroom interaction at the heart of SLA as elucidated plainly by Kumaravadivelu (2003):

the hypothesis claims that oral interaction in which communication problems are negotiated between participants promotes L2 comprehension and production, ultimately facilitating language development. The term interaction is used restrictively to refer to a particular type of interaction in which negotiation of meaning is involved. The need for negotiation of meaning arises when participants, in an interactional activity, try to either prevent a potential communication breakdown or to repair an actual communication breakdown that has already occurred. (p.106).

Long's basic assumption upon which he constructed the theory is the distinction between 'modified input' and 'modified interaction'. The former refers to modifying the language, structures, sentences, repetition of nouns and verbs...etc. In contrast, the latter stands for the diverse conversational modification strategies that the learners implement to make themselves understood by their interlocutors (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.106). Nevertheless, the pivotal dynamic that sustains second language learners in their learning is the modified interaction amidst communication breakdown (Walsh, 2011, p.54). Thus, Long suggested that conversational modification strategies are keystone mechanisms needed to

make the meaning comprehensible using modification and ultimately leading to SLA. These strategies are subsequently explained by Hall (2011):

- comprehension checks by the more fluent speaker to make sure the learner understands what has been said (e.g., 'do you understand?', 'are you with me?');
- confirmation checks by the learner aim to establish whether they have understood correctly (e.g., 'so, what you mean is . . .');
- clarification requests by the learner asking the more fluent speaker to modify and further clarify a point they have already made (e.g., 'sorry, I didn't follow, 'Pardon');
- repetition – the more fluent speaker repeats or paraphrases their speech to assist understanding. (Hall, 2011, p.109).

As it was prone to criticism and challenged on several fronts, Long (1996) modified the first version of the Interaction Hypothesis to extend and incorporate unperceived issues within its latest version (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.167-169). In the recent version, Long encompassed other devices that are, from his perspective, prerequisites to promote SLA throughout viewing the four fundamental aspects forming the newly revised version. Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.109-110) highlighted that the latter comprised four focal premises.

- Comprehensible input: is inevitably essential to trigger language learning;
- Negotiation of meaning: resulting from communication breakdown and it is a priority to extend interaction and make the input comprehended;
- Negative feedback: received during interactional processes through interactional modifications such as recasts increases learners' attention to the erroneous grammatical structures they produce;
- Comprehensible output is necessary as well as comprehensible input to prompt SLA.

In brief, Long (1996) denoted that: “negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interaction adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways” (as cited in Walsh, 2011, p.55). Hence, Long’s Interaction Hypothesis concurs with Krashen Input Hypothesis in considering the input as an essential criterion promoting SLA. However, it does exclusively lead to it. Modified interaction and output are as well necessary to learn a target language .

2.4.2. The Output Hypothesis (1985 – 1995-2005)

In contrast to the Input Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis introduced by Swain underscored the significance of language production, especially the spoken output in the process of SLA (Hall, 2011, p.111). In proposing the Output Hypothesis, Swain suggested an alternative way of looking at the role of classroom interaction. Swain highlighted that for SLA to occur, learners must interact to create more opportunities to speak (Walsh, p. 2011, p.58). In her perspective, Swain considers language learners produced output more imperative and fundamental than the input they received (Walsh, 2011, p.111).

Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) stated that Swain considers the following four principle functions of the output.

- Consciousness-raising function: the output triggers learners’ noticing as the oral language production enables them to notice and discern their language problems.
- Testing out L2 language hypotheses: along with producing the language orally, learners receive negative feedback that urges them to rely on modified output. In so doing, they refute and thereby correct the invalid set hypotheses.
- Reflecting consciously about L2 forms: especially when learners are engaged in communicative tasks whose primary content is grammatical; learners start negotiating meaning and grapple with the possibly faced grammar problems.

- Achieving greater fluency: the more learners get control over partially acquired forms of the language, the more likely they achieve fluency. (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.169).

Swain (1985) postulated that language learners must notice the language forms in their produced speech causing problems to the listeners such as grammar and pronunciation. In doing so, they are supposed to modify their output to be more accurate (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.19). She argued that: "Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately." (Swain, 1995) (as cited in Goh & Burns, 2012, p.19). The researcher claimed that as long as negotiation meaning occurs regularly, learners might improve their control over the language forms and meaning. Thus, whenever learners produce inaccurate language whose meaning is imprecise, they should be asked to correct and rephrase their produced output to make it clearer (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.19). They would develop their metalinguistic knowledge about the language because they may be conscious of its phonological, grammatical, and semantic rules. Thereby produce more linguistically and communicatively appropriate language (Tavakoli, 2013, p.257).

Accordingly, the impetus of the hypothesis demonstrates, first, in recognizing the significant role of the output in developing and triggering L2 learners' noticing. The more learners speak, the more they notice the gaps in their knowledge (i.e., not knowing how to say what they want to say) (Nation and Newton, 2009, p.5). Second, the more L2 learners produce output, the more they consider and test their set hypothesis. Put otherwise, based on the feedback they receive from their teachers, they confirm or modify their interlanguage (Hall, 2011, p.111). As producing output drags learners into interactional discursive processes, they would strive to make themselves comprehended as much as possible via meaning negotiation (Nation & Newton, 2009, p.5). Third, output production is of paramount importance. It stimulates learner's reflection (metalinguistic function) by

stimulating them to use the spoken form to solve language problems while interacting and collaborating with others (Nation & Newton, 2009, p.5).

In the latest version of her formulated hypothesis, Swain (2005) maintained that output is so crucial to develop learners' fluency and noticing as it provides them with practice (as cited in Hall, 2011, p.111); (Walsh, 2006, p.26). Furthermore, Swain (1995) (as cited in Hall, 2011, p.111) recognized that output does only enhance learners' fluency; it further boosts their accuracy and grammar competence as they are pushed to speak and forced to pay more attention to the grammar structures. In so doing, they are more or less stimulated to use language that is slightly beyond their current level (Hall, 2011, p.111). Being pushed to produce output, learners move from the 'semantic processing level to the syntactic processing one (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.110). Swain has also adopted a more social view of learning in the recent version of her hypothesis as she underscored the dialogic nature of language learning. The latter takes place amidst communication among teachers-learners and learners-learners (Walsh, 2011, p.59).

Thus, being profoundly rooted in sociocultural perspective in which a shift in meaning from the output as a product to output as a process in SLA (Swain, 2007, p.66), Swain introduced the concept of 'verbalizing/languageing' in which the output is seen as a mediating tool to internalize linguistic features. Languageing stands for producing language for understanding, solving problems, and making meaning. Putting it differently, verbalization, which is socially and jointly constructed when learners are engaged in collaborative dialogues, enables learners to engage in explanations, reflecting, and describing to solve linguistic problems (Swain, 2005) (as cited in Philip, Adams, and Iwashita, 2014, p.23). Nevertheless, in the revised version, it is crystal clear that Swain put speaking at the heart of SLA, as she constantly emphasized the role of output production in all the amended versions of the hypothesis.

In sum, the Output Hypothesis resembles Long's Interaction Hypothesis as they both acknowledge the significance of output production in developing SLA. Nevertheless, it contradicts rather than complementing Krashen's Hypothesis as the Output Hypothesis puts the skill of speaking at the fore of acquiring an L2. In contrast, Krashen's one did not give such priority to the speaking skill in the route of SLA. Moreover, both the Interaction and Output Hypotheses deemed learners' cognitive processes as keystone ones in SLA, and these processes ripen along with social interaction. Contrariwise, Krashen's theory did not explain how input turns into the intake (Hall, 2011, p.112). Nevertheless, three hypotheses have in a way or another shaped the teaching methodologies and practices of the speaking skill in L2/FL classrooms.

2.5. Features of the Speaking Performance

The performance of L2 learners is characterized by specific linguistic features: accuracy, fluency, and complexity. When performing an L2, learners sometimes tend to focus primarily on the accuracy, other times on complexity, and occasionally on fluency, depending on the goal of their performance (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.139). Skehan (1998) (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.139) highlighted the same point in suggesting that language users vary in the extent to which they emphasize fluency, accuracy, or complexity. They do emphasise each depending on the task upon which they are being assigned. It inclines them to focus either on accuracy, fluency, or complexity (as cited in Ellis, 2005, p.15). Hence, the three elements characterising L2 learners' speech are subsequently elucidated:

2.5.1. Accuracy

Skehan (1996) postulated that accuracy refers to 'how well the target language is produced concerning the root system of the target language (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.139). Goh & Burns (2012) defined the term as "speech where the message is

communicated with correct grammar. The notion of accuracy can also be expanded to include correct pronunciation according to target language norms" (p.43). Congruent with the same perspective, Tavakoli (2013) elucidated that accuracy "refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. It refers to the extent to which the language produced conforms to target language norms." (p.136). In brief, accuracy is aligned with the use of grammar structures and pronunciation components that are conforming the target language's system.

Giving precedence to accuracy leads L2 learners to attempt controlling the elements they have internalized and being more cautious as far as the use and production of the target language are concerned (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.139). In attempting to be accurate, L2 learners endeavour to control the existing resources in their cognitive repertoire and avoid making errors as much as possible (Ellis, 2005, p.15). The attempt to be accurate while using an L2/FL is not as easy as it might seem at first. Goh & Burns (2012, p.42) referred to the ways time pressure might affect learners' accuracy when speaking. Moreover, L2 learners may know the grammatical rules. They do not always use correct grammar when they speak because of the limited cognitive capacity for processing meaning and linguistic knowledge at the same time. Put differently, when learners are set to perform tasks that tend to focus primarily on meaning (such as tasks attempting to enhance fluency), it would be intricate to focus on the meaning and simultaneously produce accurate output. Whenever L2 learners face problems with their working memory, they are likely to "sacrifice" accuracy over formulating the message they intend to convey (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.43).

The grammatical repertoire of TL novice learners, which not ripen yet, would not enable them to produce morphological and syntactic utterances (Goh and Burns, 2012, p.43). It is fair then to state that the more learners develop their proficiency in the target language, the more accurate their output is perceived to be. Accordingly, developing learners' speaking

proficiency entails the teacher planning different activity types arranged at different times to promote accuracy, fluency, or complexity (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.45). Focussing on the accuracy, as an objective to achieve in the language classroom, requires instructors and teachers to select form-focused tasks, especially when learners are beginners. It can be cognitively demanding on the target language learners, whose linguistic background is not fully structured and acquired, to process simultaneously meaning and linguistic knowledge.

Thus, to avoid making L2 speakers frustrated and discouraged to speak in the classroom, teachers should determine beforehand the aim behind the task they intend to plan, especially with beginners (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.43). If the focus is on the form, it is unnecessary to expect them to do well both at once (managing to form well-constructed linguistic utterances, i.e., form-focused, and delivering the message coherently, i.e., meaning-focused).

2.5.2. Fluency

The second aspect characterizing learners' language is 'fluency'. As a term, it has been defined by Ellis& Barkhuizen (2005) as: "the production of language in real-time without undue pausing or hesitation. Fluency occurs when learners prioritize meaning over form to get a task done." (p.139). Alternatively, Tavakoli (2013) proposed another operational definition to the term fluency: "fluency might be the rapid, smooth, effortless, accurate, lucid, and efficient translation of thought or communicative intention into language under the temporal constraints of on-line processing." (p.135). In defining the same concept, Gass et al. (2013, p.417) postulated that fluency generally refers to oral performance. It can consist of many subparts as speed, lack of false starts, and lexical retrieval. Goh& Burns (2012) explained that speech fluency embodies when the message is communicated coherently with few pauses and hesitations. It also demonstrates when few occasions of miscomprehension between the speaker and the interlocutor occur (p.43). Thus, fluency is,

in brief, the speech in which the meaning is conveyed coherently and smoothly without any comprehension problems.

Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) elucidated that fluency occurs when learners give primacy to meaning over form while performing a task (p.139).

Thornbury (2005) listed the following items as the basic features of fluency:

- Pauses may be extended but not frequent.
- Pauses are usually filled.
- Pauses occur at meaningful transition points.
- There are long runs of syllables and words between pauses. (p.8)

As for the first feature of fluency mentioned above, Thornbury (2005, p.7) explained that the criterion upon which the listener rates the speakers' fluency is related to the frequency of making pauses rather than the length of the pauses made. Making pauses is, by no room of discussion, necessary even for proficient speakers to draw breath and formulate the utterances to catch up with their conceptualisation. Hence, making frequent pausing is a sign of a struggling speaker who faces problems achieving fluency. Regarding the second feature characterizing fluency, Thornbury (2005, p.8) elucidated that fluent speakers tend to fill their pauses with fillers, which are considered to be compensation devices used to compensate for the demands of speech production. The most common pause fillers are uh and um, some vagueness expressions such as 'sort of' and 'I mean', repeats are also paused fillers in which the speaker maintains repeating the same word at the point where formulation has temporarily been paused.

Regarding the third feature of fluency, Thornbury (2005, p.7) postulated that the more the speaker knows where to place the pauses, the more fluent he is said to be. Drawing appropriate boundaries between pauses make them natural sounding, and the fact of knowing where to make pauses placement is associated with fluency. Fluent speakers know that they

should make pauses at the intersection of clauses or after a group of words that form meaningful units. Quite the reverse, less fluent speakers make irrelevant pauses midway between related words (Thornbury, 2005, p.7). Last but not least, Thornbury (2005, p.7) underscored that fluency is measured, as well, by the length of runs, i.e., the number of syllables separating pauses. The longer the run is, the more fluent the speaker sounds (p.7).

In line with Thornbury's (2005) perspective on fluency, Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) considered speech fluency as a construct that is a multi-componential in which different sub-dimensions can be identified. The first sub-dimension of fluency is silence or breakdown fluency. Tavakoli & Skehan (2005) worded that: "Length and number of unfilled pauses, filled pauses and the total amount of silence are some of the measures researchers have used to assess this aspect of fluency" (p.254). As for the second fluency sub-dimension, it deals with the speed with which language is produced. Hence, the speed measures comprise the rate of speech, articulation rate, amount of speech, time ratio, and mean length of the run. The third sub-dimension of fluency is recognized as repair fluency. The latter entails reformulation, replacement, false starts, and repetition of words or phrases (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005, p.255).

2.5.3. Complexity

Housen and Kuiken (2009) clarified that the concept of complexity in SLA refers to the L2 learners' performance and proficiency. L2 complexity can be interpreted in at least two different ways: cognitive complexity and linguistic complexity. The former does not relate to the production and performance of the language, as Gass et al. (2013) denoted. It is associated with the difficulties faced along with the underlying production processes, such as the extent of the learners' experience with the other exposed languages, working memory capacity..., etc. The latter refers to "the size, elaborateness, richness, and diversity of the learner's linguistic L2 system." (Housen & Kuiken, 2009, p. 5).

Congruent with the same classification, Gass et al. (2013) clarified that linguistic complexity demonstrates L2 learners' use of long utterances, subordination, coordination, and the extent and sophistication of grammatical forms. A learner who produces primarily simple sentences with frequent vocabulary is argued to exhibit less complexity than a learner who uses numerous utterances of various vocabulary items (Gass et al., 2013, p.417). Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) elucidated that complexity refers to the extent to which learners produce elaborated language. Both researchers highlighted that the complexity of learners' language is identified in two perspectives. First, language complexity might be demonstrated in cases where the learners use more challenging and complex language. A language that is at the upper limit of their interlanguage systems is not fully automated. It is considered more complex than the language that has already been internalized (Skehan, 2001) (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.139). Second, language complexity is perceived through learner's preparedness to use a wide range of diverse structures. Complexity exhibits in learners' risk-taking and their will to experiment linguistically (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.139).

Goh & Burns (2012) explicated that language learner may display their language complexity by composing longer and more precise utterances. They put into plain words the concept of complexity in learners' language in stating that:

They use grammatical resources such as subordination and clausal embeddings to increase the preciseness of what they are conveying and to provide additional information. An increase in language complexity within an utterance is an essential milestone in children's speech in first language acquisition, and it is also a measurement of second language development. (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.44).

Language complexity is explained By Goh & Burns (2012) throughout the following four examples:

- The teacher blew the whistle. The children ran as fast as they could.
- The teacher blew the whistle, and the children ran as fast they could.
- As soon as they heard the teacher's whistle, the children ran as fast as they could.
- As soon as they heard the teacher's whistle, the children who were standing at the back ran as fast as possible. (p.44)

The first example, a) comprises two independent clauses that inform about two actions related to each other, but the relationship between the two is not clear. In example b), the same clauses are coordinated by the conjunction 'and, and the nexus between both clauses is, hence, made more explicit. In the third example c), the temporal relationship between the two clauses and action is clearly stated in the adverbial phrase use (as soon as). In example d), more detailed information is conveyed as the relative clause (who were standing at the back) is embedded into the main clause (Goh& Burns, 2012). Accordingly, d) example reveals the complexity of the produced language as it is the one in which the most complicated grammatical structure is produced.

Following the body of empirical studies on accuracy, complexity, and fluency, Bulté and Housen (2012) attempted to draw the fundamental distinction between lexical complexity and grammatical complexity (as cited in Michel, 2017, p. 6). The components of each type are subsequently highlighted by Michel (2017) as follows:

- **Lexical complexity components:**
- **Diversity:** the size of lexis; gauged by means of type-token ratio based measures
- **Sophistication:** depth of lexis; gauged by means of frequency measures, for example, of words beyond the 1000 most common words
- **Density:** information packaging of lexis; gauged by means of, for example, the ratio of lexical words per function words

- **Components of grammatical complexity at different linguistic levels (among others morphology, syntax):**
- **Length:** short vs long units; gauged by, for example, number of words per clause
- **Variation:** a variety of units; gauged by, for example, the number of different morphemes used
- **Interdependence:** relation between units; gauged by, for example, coordinated vs subordinated clauses. (Michel, 2017, pp.6-7)

When measuring complexity, the linguistic complexity is the most researched, as denoted by Michel (2017, p. 6). Both the lexical and grammatical complexity stands for the linguistic complexity that characterizes L2 learners' oral performance. Thus, the lexical complexity is measured by diversity, as highlighted above. Diversity is "the size of the lexicon measured by means of, for example, type-token ratio measures" (Michel, 2017, p.6). It can be measured using an index of lexical variation or richness as implemented by Czwenar (2011), who analysed the density of the lexical complexity by dividing " the total number of different words (types), by the total number of words in a text (tokens)" (p.239). The second aspect is sophistication measured by: "the depth of lexis measured using, for example, frequency of rare or academic words" (Michel, 2017, p. 6). Hence, the more L2 learners use refined words, the complex their output is said to be. Lexical density can be measured by: "the amount of information in a text, typically measured by the ratio of lexical words per function words" (Michel, 2017, p.6). Lexical density is a parameter upon which L2 learners' oral output is measured. The more content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, some adverbs) are inserted in the produced oral sentences compared to functional words; the more information is embedded; thereby, the more lexically complex the language is stated to be.

Grammatical complexity is gauged in identifying the length of sentences produced by L2 learners (Michel, 2017). Congruent with the same perspective, Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) considered the length of utterances measured through examining the number of words in utterances as a sign of grammatical complexity of the learners' generated oral output. Variation is another attribute implemented to gauge grammatical complexity. It stands for the multiplicity of using diverse types of morphemes. Interdependence is another criterion upon which complexity is manifested in learners' language. It can be identified along with the use of subordination and coordination in learners' output. Complexity has sub-dimensions: the syntactic dimension (sentence, clause, phrase); and morphological complexity (inflectional, derivational). Hence, complex language is distinguished from the less complex language in terms of the length of sentences, variation in which more inflexions and derivations are produced, and interdependence, in which more subordinations and coordinations are practised in the spoken language (Michel, 2017, p.7).

2.6. Teaching Speaking Skill Activities

With the advent of the CLT approach, a shift has been made in teaching the speaking skill emphasis was given to fluency over accuracy (Bygate, 2001, p.18). At that juncture, the primary purpose of using speaking tasks was to provide speakers with opportunities to practise their speaking to improve their fluency. Nevertheless, not all speaking tasks are the same. Some tasks may require learners to work on simple activities, whereas others may require them to work on complex tasks as that of the outcome of the tasks. Goh & Burn (2012, p.202).

Authors have differently classified types of speaking tasks. For instance, Goh & Burns (2012, p.202) proposed three basic categories: *communication gap activities*, *discussion tasks* and *monologic tasks*. Brown (2001, a, p.271) introduced six types: *imitative*, *intensive*, *responsive*, *transactional* (dialogue), *interpersonal*, *extensive* (monologue). Similarly,

Harmer (2001, pp. 271-275) listed six types: *acting from a script, communication games, discussion, prepared talks, questionnaires, simulation and role-play*. Bygate (1987, p.76) suggested four basic speaking tasks: information-gap activities, communication games, simulations, and *project-based activities*.

Thus, in what follows, Harmer (2001)' classification of the most adopted speaking skill activities is portrayed.

a. Acting from a script

This type of activities requires the learners to play scenes and act out dialogues in the classroom. Teachers ask their learners to write their scenes for later performance (Harmer, 2001, p.271). To apply these activities fittingly, teachers need to create a supportive atmosphere in the class and give them sufficient time to rehearse their dialogues before performing in front of their classmates. While he acts as a theatre director, the teacher should also draw his learner's attention to stress, intonation and speed. In doing so, the teacher ensures that acting out dialogues is both a learning and a language productivity activity (Harmer, 2001, p.271).

b. Communication games

Frequently based on information-gap, this type of activities is designed to provoke communication between learners. Communication games activities urge learners to talk to other partners to solve a puzzle, draw a picture (making a description), put things into the correct order (describe and arrange), or find similarities and differences between pictures. Teachers may also get inspired by the famous TV and radio games and apply them in the classroom as an intent to enhance their learners' fluency in an amusing way (Harmer, 2001, p. 272). Communication games activities can be invested to promote ESL/EFL learners language abilities to be engaged in conversations and interactive speech.

c. Discussion

Harmer (2001, p.272) acknowledged that discussions might fail because some learners are reluctant and shy to voice their standpoints in front of the whole class due to their lack of confidence in the language they might use to verbalize their ideas or because they have nothing to say. To avoid such problematic situations, the teacher may create a 'buzz group', in which students are given opportunities to practise what to say, think of the language to use, and discuss their ideas in small groups before speaking in public. Doing so reduces the stress level among reticent and shy students.

Alternatively, teachers may also train their learners to be fluent in arranging 'instant comments mini activities', in which students are shown photographs or introduced with topics for discussion - at any lesson stage - and then nominating students to say what the first thing that comes to his/her head (Harmer, 2001, p.272).

The opposite extreme of the 'buzz group' is the formal debate. The latter entails students prepare arguments in favour or against a list of propositions. The debate will begin when those designated as "panel speakers" present well-rehearsed "writing-like" arguments, while others, the audience, will join in as the debate progresses with their perspectives on the subject (Harmer, 2001, p.272).

d. Prepared Talks

Alternatively known as oral presentations, prepared talks is a popular activity in which learners prepare a talk of their own choice. As these talks are prepared, they are not meant for informal, spontaneous conversations; they are somewhat more 'writing-like.' They should, however, speak from notes rather than a script if at all possible. If organised in a good way, prepared talks might be fascinating to the speakers and listeners since they represent a defined and speaking genre (Harmer, 2001, p.274).

e. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are incredibly beneficial as they ensure that both the questioner and the respondent have something to say to each other. Learners can create questionnaires on any topic that interests them. As they do so, the teacher can play the role of assistant, a resource provider in the design process. The questionnaires can then create written work, discussions, or prepared talks (Harmer, 2001, p.274).

f. Simulation and Roleplay

Simulations and role-plays significantly beneficial to learners in language classrooms. They can simulate a real-life situation, such as a business interview, an encounter in the airport.....etc. In playing roles and simulations, learners may act as if they were in that simulated situation, or they play roles whose characters are different from theirs or with thoughts that they do not necessarily share. Simulations and roleplays are efficient to enhance learners' fluency or to train them for some specific situations.

As explained by Ken Jones (1982), for a simulation to be work, it should demonstrate the following features:

1. Reality of function: Students must think of themselves as real participants in the situation rather than as students.
2. A simulated environment: for example, the teacher claims that the classroom is a real check-in area.
3. Structure: students must see how the activity is built and be given the information they need to carry out the simulation effectively. (Harmer, 2001, p.274).

As for role plays, they can be practical, especially if they are open-ended. The students can develop the scripts. The teacher may just different roles for a given imaginary situation and role play it using role cards telling how the character feels and reacts. Alternatively, the student may create scripts for their roles in interviews (Harmer, 2001,p.274).

As Harmer (2001, p.274) demonstrated, there are three significant advantages to using simulations and role-playing. First, they can be entertaining and motivating to students. Second, because students do not take the same responsibilities for what they say, simulations and roleplays allow hesitant and introverted students to be more forthright in their opinions and behaviour than they might be when speaking for themselves. Third, by expanding the classroom world to include the world outside, simulations and role-plays allow students to use a much more comprehensive range of language than some more task-centred activities do.

2.7. Speaking Skill Assessment

Unlike the other language skills, speaking assessment seems to be intricate as a process, given its complex nature, the context, the speakers' background, the testers' expectations and chosen criteria. Thornbury (2012) highlighted the challenges of assessing the speaking skill as follows:

speaking is probably the most challenging skill to assess-even with the aid of recording technology- given its real-time and typically interactive nature. Moreover, testers may have widely divergent views on what constitutes proficiency in speaking (for example, does accuracy count for more than fluency) why to apply the standards of written grammar or a native speaker pronunciation to non-native speaker speech (as has often been the case) hardly seems valid for reasons already mentioned (p.204).

Hence, Thornbury (2012) acknowledged that what makes the speaking skill assessment problematic is its interactive nature, the tester's focus either on accuracy or fluency, making an analogy between a native and an NNSs pronunciation.

Irrespective of how sophisticated is the assessment process, it is crucial for diagnosing learners' needs on an ongoing basis. More importantly, it allows teachers and learners to analyze what progress has been made in learning due to the course. Assessment

is an essential component of a learner-centred speaking program (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.255). Put differently, apart from being a part of a course design, assessing the speaking skill is significantly essential as it reflects the effectiveness of the course on the one hand, and it reveals the progress of learners and unveils their needs on the other. In the words of Thornbury (2005):

it, therefore, makes sense to incorporate oral testing procedures into language courses despite the difficulties. Since the activities designed to test speaking are generally the same as the kinds of activities designed to practise speaking, there needs to be no disruption to classroom practice. The challenge is more in deciding and applying satisfactory assessment criteria (p.125)

Thus, assessing the speaking skill is as essential as designing speaking courses. The teacher can then use the same activities he implements to teach this skill in the classroom for assessing his students speaking performances. Nevertheless, designing speaking tests should be carefully done. Therefore, some key concerns need to be taken by testers when designing tests as suggested by Hughes (2002):

- ✓ how far the test is designed to assess communication ability versus linguistic knowledge
 - ✓ how much the test conditions influence the ability of nature interactions to occur
 - ✓ how much personal or psychological factors influence oral performance during testing
- (as cited in Thornbury, 2012, p.204)

Thornbury (2012, p.204) stressed that designing speaking tests denote deciding what to test either communication abilities or linguistic knowledge because both aims are different. In focussing on the former, the tester should prioritise fluency and consider the extent to which the testees can communicate with the language they possess. Contrariwise, in the former, he should focus on language accuracy over fluency and evaluate how much testees

are accurate in using their language forms. In addition, testers should always consider the conditions in which the test is being held, as the latter affects the quality of the students' interaction and output. Likewise, other aspects are to be borne in mind while testing the speaking skill, namely the testees' psychological aspects, such as language anxiety, self-esteem, and self-confidence, next to their personality traits, such as introvert versus extrovert.

Harmer (2001,p.321) proposed four types of speaking tests as far as the speaking test types are concerned. They are subsequently listed:

a. Placement Tests

As a type of tests, placement tests are necessary as teachers and language testers should initially assess the speaking skill via a placement test. This type of tests mirrors the students' speaking skill abilities before a course is being applied. Thornbury (2005) stressed that a placement test- aimed at testing the speaking skill- should neither be limited to a paper and pencil test such as grammar multiple-choice nor a formal interview. Alternatively, a teacher or a tester can opt for a short informal chat as an initial assessment step. Then, the candidates should choose a topic from a list, a picture from a selection, and talks for a minute or about. Subsequently, as a tester, the interviewer may ask further questions about the topic (Thornbury, 2005, p.114).

b. Diagnostic Tests

While placement tests are principally designed to capture the candidates' speaking skill abilities, diagnostic tests are meant to expose their difficulties, the gaps in their knowledge and skill deficiencies in a course (Harmer, 2001,p.321). Thus, a diagnostic speaking test unveils the difficulties the target language speakers face while speaking to adjust the course objective following these weaknesses. Put differently, based on the

diagnosis test, teacher and course designers can offer remedies to reduce their learners' speaking problems.

c. Progress or Achievement Test

This type of tests is introduced to measure learners' language and skill progress concerning the syllabus they have been following (Harmer, 2001,p.321). These tests are generally introduced by the end of a unit or a semester to reflect progress but not failure. They should demonstrate the course reinforcement and not weaknesses. Regarding a speaking progress or achievement test, it is expected to validate amelioration relating to some aspects of the learners' speaking skill by measuring learning that has taken place. Progress or achievement tests help teachers and course designers to work on areas in which learners did not do well.

d. Proficiency Tests

Proficiency tests are those tests designed to give a general picture of a students' knowledge and ability (rather than measure progress). They are held for students' admission to given foreign universities, get specific jobs, or obtain certificates (Harmer, 2001,p.321). Hence, for an EFL student, this type of tests is predominantly crucial as it reflects their speaking proficiency to authorities for admission in scholarships and enrolment in foreign language programmes.

Considering the criteria of speaking assessment,Thornbury (2005,p.127) proposed two methods for scoring speaking tests: (a) providing a single score based on a tester's overall impression (referred to as *holistic scoring*) (b) or providing separate scores for different aspects of the task (*analytic scoring*).

- The holistic scoring method entails giving an overall mark (out of 20) is deemed advantageous as it is faster and probably more satisfactory for informal testing progress (*formative assessment*). Ideally, more than one scorer should be enlisted, and any

significant difference in scores should be discussed to achieve an agreed-upon score (Thornbury, 2005, p.127).

- Analytic scoring may demand more time, and more importantly, compels testers to consider a set of factors. If these factors are well-selected, set, and arranged, the scale is unquestionably both fairer and more reliable. A shortcoming of handling an analytic scoring to the speaking skill test relates to the possibility of being distracted by all the categories and miss capturing an overall sight of the speaking performance. Therefore, four or five categories are satisfactorily enough for testers to examine (Thornbury, 127).

2.7.1. Assessment Task Types

The most common types of tests adopted to test the speaking skill are listed subsequently:

a. Interviews

An interview between an assessor and a test candidate is a common way of testing speaking (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.266) and quickly set up (Thornbury, 2005, p.125). Interviews may consist of individual interviews, paired interviews, and group interviews, as suggested by Goh & Burns (2012, p.266). The individual interview comprises the teacher and a student, and it entails completing an interaction process. Conducting this type of testing interviews may be problematic for teachers and students alike. The teacher may find it troublesome to keep the students occupied while an interview is being held with a student. Therefore, the teacher should plan other tasks for the rest of the students Goh & Burns, 2012 (p.266); Thornbury (2005), p.125).

On the other hand, students involved in an individual interview may be prone to anxiety. Thereby, they may neither be able to demonstrate their speaking abilities nor engaged comfortably in the conversation. In addition to that, interviewers effects, resulting from the style of the interviewer and the way he addresses questions, may affect the performance of the students. Some steps can be adopted to reduce these effects by having a

casual chat at the beginning of the interview, addressing the same questions to all students, and the availability of a second assessor in the assessment process (Goh&Burns,2012, p.266) (Thornbury, 2005,p. 125).

Paired interviews involve pairs of learners rather than an individual and a teacher. Administering this type of interviews is more advantageous than individual one since it first demonstrates more learners' capacities to handle conversations and perform tasks. Second, it strengthens the relationship between teaching and assessing as it might be a practice of pair work that is most often adopted in the contemporary classroom. Third, paired interviews take less time than do individual ones, and they are more natural as the tester is not the one who run the flow of the conversation (Goh&Burns, 2012, p.267).

Group interviews are also deemed practical in testing the speaking skill as they allow natural conversations to occur, thereby demonstrating the students' language abilities to take turns to speak and negotiate meaning (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.267). Group interviews and paired ones can be conducted within 15 minutes. Students might be about description tasks, narration tasks, instruction tasks, decision-making tasks, explanation and prediction tasks ...etc. (Goh &Burns, 2012, p.267).

b. Live monologue

Students prepare and deliver a brief talk or presentation on a predetermined topic. The evaluator effect is eliminated in this type of test. The test assesses the speakers' ability to hold a casual conversation, which is not always possible in interviews. Other students can serve as an audience in the question and answer session, allowing the speaker's ability to speak interactively and spontaneously to be tested (Thornbury, 2005,p.126).

c. Recorded monologue

A recorded monologue is less stressful than a live performance. They are also more practical in informal testing than a live monologue. This test allows students to record their

discussion on a specific topic. Evaluating a recorded monologue or dialogue can be done after the event, allowing evaluators to create objective and consistent evaluations in triangulating the results of many examiners' scoring for ensuring standardisation (Thornbury, 2005, p.126).

d. Role –Plays and simulations

Because most students are used to doing at least simple role-plays in class, the same formats can be used for testing. The tester or another student can play the other 'role,' but the influence of the interlocutor is challenging to control. Role-playing should not necessitate sophisticated performance skills or a large amount of imagination. The best situations are grounded in everyday reality (Thornbury, 2005,p.126); (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.270). They may entail the use of previously provided data. This type of test is especially valid if it closely matches the learner's needs. The problem with basing the test on written data is that it also becomes a partial test of reading skills (Thornbury, 2005,p.126). Away from this, roleplays can be a versatile way of assessing the spoken communication skill, as acknowledged by Goh& Burns (2012, pp.270-271). They do so as they urge students to take on roles and engage in interactive processes, allowing them to demonstrate to the tester their communication abilities more than monologues and interviews can do.

Simulators are similar to role-plays in that they allow students to act out imaginative communication. Students are given a situation within the context of a specific context, some guidelines on what they should discuss, possibly a stimulus, such as a recording that they should listen to in order to get an idea of the type of interaction required (Goh& Burns, 2012,p. 271).

e. Collaborative tasks and discussions

Collaborative tasks and discussions are similar to roleplaying in that learners are not required to play a role but rather be themselves. Of course, as with role plays, the

performance of one candidate is likely to influence the performance of others. Still, at the very least, the Learners interactive skills can be observed in situations that closely resemble real-life language use (Thornbury, 2005, p.126).

f. Classroom presentation tasks

Students are frequently asked to prepare short classroom presentations, and these tasks can also be used for assessment. They entail preparing a short talk related to the course and the student's level and interest. Question-and-answer sessions are frequently held after presentations, which gives the assessor even more opportunities to evaluate how students respond interactively. One benefit of the classroom presentation is that it eliminates the Assessor effect that is present in interviews. It also allows students to demonstrate their ability to present logically spoken information in an extended turn (Goh & Burns, 2012, pp.271-272).

2.8. The Speaking Skill and Cooperative Learning

Extensive research has been conducted on cooperative learning in the teaching of speaking (Nasri & Biria, 2017). Many studies show that using cooperative learning techniques can result in positive attitudes toward cooperative learning and improved speaking skills (Nasri & Biria, 2017; Pattanpichet, 2011; Sühendan & Bengü, 2014) (as cited in Namaziandost, Neisi, Kheryadi et al. 2019, 2019, p.87). As opposed to traditional learning methods, cooperative learning methods have some advantages due to social interaction between students (Tahmasbi, Hashemifardnia, & Namaziandost, 2019). According to Mackey (2007), classroom social interaction is beneficial to overall language development.

As the speaking skill is important for language learners to develop and improve, it becomes a necessity to enhance the EFL learners' speaking skills. Studies conducted in first and second language learning classrooms have previously confirmed the effects of CL on learners' speaking (Ning, 2011; Ning & Hornby, 2014). The incorporation of CL into L2 and

FL classrooms is thought to facilitate and maximise the optimal development of a learner's ability to communicate because it provides EFL learners with more opportunities for comprehensible input, increases the processes of meaning negotiation and exposure to real-life language use situations, more importantly, it established positive attitude towards the processes of learning and social interaction with peers (McCafferty et al ., 2006). It also contributes to developing a well-structured and supportive learning environment. It is a non-threatening and highly motivating learning environment.

In short, CL is one of the best alternatives teachers of the speaking skill should resort to decrease their learners' demotivation to speak, low self-esteem and poor self-confidence. Moreover, CL paves the way for EFL learners to practise their language as they constantly negotiate meaning in interactive discourses; they may even have their language errors corrected.

Conclusion

The second chapter introduced some definitions that are important to understand the nature of the speaking skill. Within the frame of this chapter, the distinction between speaking as a skill and as knowledge was highlighted, the processes underlying speech production were also elucidated. The integration of the speaking skill instruction within the different language methods was also portrayed as a historical background overview. A connection between speaking and language theories such as the Input and Output Hypotheses were reviewed in this chapter and its three basic features. Moreover, some activities used to teach speaking, and assessment methods were discussed in the second theoretical chapter. Finally, the chapter ended with a discussion about the teaching of the speaking skill within the framework of the CL.

CHAPTER THREE: Research Methodology and Design

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Introduction

This study investigates the effectiveness of the CL method in improving the oral performance of EFL learners. To consider this effect, lessons structured under the CL method principles are applied. Hence, the third chapter describes the research design framing this study. The research design, population and sampling, the followed procedures to carry out the treatment, including data collection and research tools are highlighted in this chapter. It also provides operational definitions to the constructs of the speaking skill to make the reader insightful into the data analysis procedure.

3.1. Methodology and Research Design

This section is devoted to displaying the adopted research methodology along with the implemented research tools. More importantly, it justifies their use to answer the questions directing this research.

3.1.1. Research Methodology

The present study was conducted in a quasi-experiment. It was adopted because the researcher considered it one of the best alternatives to consider the significance of applying the CL method in an EFL classroom context.

As the researcher's aims induced the adoption of a quasi-experiment as a core design framing it, and in an attempt to test the set hypotheses upon which the study is formulated, it was unavoidable to opt for the quasi-experimental design. As highlighted by Seliger and Shohamy (1989), the nature of the research in question calls for the implementation of this research method particularly, as it is concerned with studying the effects of a specified and controlled treatment given to the subjects. Subjects are not formed into groups for the experiment but rather 'natural' groups as they already exist before the research (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.136).

Experimental research design types can range from true experimental to quasi-experimental. The hallmark of the former is the application of randomisation in sampling the subjects. There is no random assignment in the quasi-experimental research design (McKay and Gass, 2005, p.146). In the true experimental research design, the experimenter has complete control over the (who, what, when, where, and how) of the experiment. In the quasi-experimental research design, the researcher does have total control over the assignments of the subjects to conditions (McBurney and White, 2009, p. 245). So alike is the quasi-experimental research design to the true-experimental as they both share many common principles in practice except for controlling the subjects. In the words of Seliger& Shohamy (1989):

The researcher has to decide whether to use pre-existing groups, as they occur in nature or to construct them for the experiment. This difference in natural groups and those formed for an experiment is one feature distinguishing true experiment designs from quasi-experimental designs. (p. 136).

The quasi-experimental design, similar to the true experiment, explores the strength of relationships between two variables and more. The variable in which the researcher expects to influence the other is labelled as the independent variable (Nunan, 1992, p.25). In the case of the present study, it is the CL method. The variable upon which the independent variable is acting is labelled as the dependent variable (Nunan; 1992, p.25). In case of this study, it demonstrates the three components of the speaking skill: accuracy, fluency, and complexity. In facing constraints to process random sampling in educational contexts, most researchers resort to adopting quasi-experiments instead of the true experiments. As demonstrated in the words of Nunan (1992):

It is not always practicable to rearrange students to different groups or classes at will.

There are times when, if we are to experiment at all, it will have to be with intact groups

of subjects, that is, subjects who have been grouped for reasons other than the carrying out of an experiment. (p.27)

In SLA studies, quasi-experimental studies are, by a large extent, used. Hinkel (2011) elucidated that very few second language classroom researchers lean towards true experiments using random sampling. In most educational research situations, it is impossible to randomise the subjects to treatment groups because the administrative staff does not appreciate the re-arrangement of the subjects into groups for research purposes. Therefore, the researchers are left with the choice of applying the quasi-experimental design as the only opportunity offered to them in conducting their studies (Seliger& Shohamy, 1989; Salkind & Rasmussen, 2008; Ary, Jacobs and Sorensen, 2009, Dörnyei, 2007). Nunan (1992, p.40) put into plain words that most often in educational settings, circumstances impede researchers from conducting true experiments as it is impossible to randomise the participants into control and treatment groups, urging them to adopt quasi-or pre-experiment research designs. Congruent with the same perspective, Dörnyei (2007) stated: "In most educational settings random assignment of students by the researcher is rarely possible, and therefore researchers often have to resort to a 'quasi-experimental design'." (p. 117). He further added that "Quasi-experiments are similar to true' experiments in every respect except that they do not use random assignment to create the comparisons from which treatment-caused change is inferred" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 117). Bearing in mind all the advantages that the quasi-experiment offers to researchers in ESL/EFL contexts, it was adopted in the present study.

3.1.2. Research Design

Research design is significant for researchers as it frames their studies, determines their data collection instruments, procedures, and structures the findings' analysis. Research design "refers to the many ways in which research can be conducted to answer the question

being asked" (Marczyk, DeMatteo, and Festinger, 2005, p.22). According to Brown (1988), any conducted sound research must adopt a specific plan. He deemed that a sound research design is the one that answers the following questions:

How will the people be selected to participate in the study?

What tests or materials will be used?

How will these be administered and scored?

How will the results be analysed? (Brown, 1988, p. x)

This study intended to investigate the efficacy of the CL method in enhancing EFL first-year learners' speaking skills. Regarding the addressed research questions and the hope of testing the set hypotheses foregrounding the study, a mixed research approach was implemented as a research design, including data collection and analysis. The mixed research approach, as defined by Dörnyei (2007), is: "some sort of a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single research project." (p.44). The adoption of the mixed research approach in data collection was meant for bringing about the best of both the quantitative and the qualitative paradigms (Dörnyei, 2007, p.45); (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011, p.5).

This approach, as worded by Creswell & Plano-Clark (2011): focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. (p.5)

The combination of the two types of data collection approaches (the quantitative and the qualitative) was, from the researcher's perspective, the best alternative to investigate, on the one hand, the effect of the CL on the enhancement of learners' speaking skill accuracy, fluency, and complexity. On the other hand, it paved the way for her to be more insightful

about the participants' perspectives on implementing the CL method in developing the speaking above skill components.

The researcher incorporated a quantitative approach first using a questionnaire and a quasi-experiment comprising tests (pretest and posttest). Second, a qualitative approach was carried out with the implementation of a focus group interview. The reason behind carrying out a mixed research approach was the researcher's attempt to scrutinise the effects of the CL method as an independent variable on the speaking skill, with its three essential components (accuracy, fluency, and complexity) as the dependent one through a quasi-experiment expected to reveal quantitative data along with the questionnaire. On the other hand, it was unavoidably necessary to triangulate the data with a qualitative data instrument to answer the research questions, namely a focus group interview. The latter could gauge the participants' attitudes towards integrating the CL method in learning the speaking skill and developing its three core components. These data collection techniques and the suitability of their implementation are described in detail in the upcoming sections.

3.2. Population and Sample

The present study took place at the English Language and Literature department at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel-Algeria- during the academic year (2019-2020). The target population was first-year undergraduate -Licence Master Doctorate- LMD students. A sample of sixty-nine students (69) out of three-hundred and eight students (308) participated in responding to the questionnaire. Of three hundred and eight, forty-seven (49) subjects were involved in the quasi-experiment, and twenty-three (23) responded to the Focus Group Interview. Some issues (for example, sharing similar features as gender, educational background...etc.) were taken into account as suggested by Dörnyei (2007) to make sure the researcher targeted the sample

... is very similar to the target population in its most general characteristics (for example, age, gender, ethnicity, educational background, academic capability, social class, or socioeconomic status) as well as all the more specific features that are known to be related to the variables that the study focuses on (for example, L2 learning background or the amount and type of L2 instruction received). (p. 96)

The participants shared the same language background, as they were all native speakers of Arabic, their ages ranged between 17 to 23 years old. They have been studying English for a minimum of seven years (four years in middle school, three years at secondary school). So, Arabic is their first language while French is the second spoken language. They were enrolled in their first year of the EFL University Programme. They were scheduled to study the speaking skill in the OE module classes. Two motives were behind choosing the first-year level as a population. Firstly, all first-year learners were directed to study English as a University speciality; it was their first experience to study the English language, whereby it was the only means of instruction in the classroom. Presumably, most of them shared the same English language level. Secondly, they were expected to develop the four language skills, of which is speaking.

Concerning the sample selected for the quasi-experiment, 49 students out of 308 participated. Of these, 24 belonged to the experimental group (2 male and 22 female students). At the preliminary phase of the study, the overall subjects in the experimental group were 26. Due to their recurrent absences, two male subjects were excluded, which overall of 24 subjects. The control group consisted of 25 subjects, of whom 5 are male and twenty female students.

3.3. Instruments

Considering the extent to which the CL method shapes accuracy, fluency and complexity as primary constituents of the speaking skill abilities, instruments were used in the current research. This section is devoted to the description of these instruments respectively. It, as well, states the rationale for their implementation in the process of collecting data.

3.3.1. Questionnaire for Students

One of the current study's focal research questions and aims was to probe first-year undergraduate English language learners' attitudes towards learning the speaking skill under the CL method in the OE module classes. To elicit the needed information from the participants, a questionnaire was designed and handed to a sample of **69** students out of **308**. The questionnaire was devised to perceive the extent to which 1st year undergraduate learners of English were ready to learn the speaking skill in the OE module classes using the CL method. More importantly, it attempted to query their attitudes of espousing the method's basic principles above while working in groups. Likewise, the questionnaire was set to infer whether the method was applied in the OE module classes.

Questionnaires, as defined by Brown (2001 b), are: "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react, either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers." (p.6). Questionnaires seem to be appropriate tools to collect data relevant to participants' attitudes and beliefs. Mackey and Gass (2016) highlighted that a questionnaire: "is one of the most common methods of collecting data on attitudes and opinions from a large group of participants, as such, it has been used a wide variety of questions in second language research" (p.102). Given this, the researcher opted for a questionnaire, as it seemed to be one of the best elicitation techniques that could be used to disclose the participants' stances on learning the speaking skill under the CL method. Mackey& Gass (2016) further asserted that questionnaires

facilitate for "researchers to gather the information that learners can report about themselves, such as their beliefs, and motivations, about learning or their reactions to learning and classroom instruction and activities- information that is typically not available from production data alone" (p.102). Hence, questionnaires might be crucial for researchers to infer issues that might be missed or not perceived in quantified data. The designed questionnaire for this study is then thoroughly described and analysed in chapter four.

3.3.2. Participants' Profile Technical Card

Eliciting information about the L2 learners' background is considered significant as worded by Dörnyei (2007): "If the study concerns language learners, we need to specify their level of L2 proficiency, L2 learning history, L2 teaching institution (if applicable), and the type of tuition received." (p.283). Stemming information relating to the participants' prior exposure to the English language outside classroom context (e.g. studying in private schools, speaking English language at home...etc.) via a profile technical card could help inform the homogeneity of the two groups in the quasi-experiment. It could be achieved by eliciting information related to age, gender, the field of the prior cycle of education (scientific or literary streams) and the scores obtained in the English language subject in the Baccalaureate Exam.

Designing a profile information card of the participants was, from the researcher's stance, a prerequisite as it could make the reader of the current study more insightful about the basic information s/he needs in case of thinking of replication. Porte (2002) stated: "the kind of information about learners and their characteristics which the interested reader would need to replicate the study is what we might call basic identification data." (p.38). Porte (2002) elucidated that researchers are called for disclosing facts attributed to their subjects to make replication feasible. Therefore, information about the participant's age and gender need to be overtly stated as these proved to be central variables in learning some aspects of an L2 (Porte,

2002, p. 38). As subjects' previous academic (language learning and other) experience and the mastery of other languages (s) than L1 may all impinge on the findings, these facts should then be overtly indicated at the preliminary phase of conducting researches (Porte, 2002, p. 38).

Bearing in mind the significance of identifying the mentioned earlier data, the Learners' Profile Technical Card implemented in the current research comprised ten items. The first six ones aimed at eliciting general information about age, gender, language (s) spoken at home, prior secondary school educational stream, the obtained score in the Baccalaureate exam of the English Subject and the years spent in studying English. While the five last items were sketched to retrieve data relevant to the subject's estimation of their English language overall level, the frequency of practising it, the significance of learning the speaking skill and the context in which they studied the English language (for more details about the technical card, see Appendix B). The findings yielded from these technical cards are explained in section 3.3.2)

3.3.3. Oxford Placement Test

The third instrument used to collect quantitative data in the current study was the Oxford Placement Test 2 (OPT) introduced by Allan (2004). Thornbury (2005) underscored the significance of administering such types of tests as he quoted: "At the very least, a **placement test** should be used for an initial assessment for the candidates' speaking skill." (p.114).

Hence, the rationale behind using the test was to elicit relevant information about the participants involved in the quasi-experiment. The OPT provides a variety of quizzes on different language aspects. Nevertheless, the participants were administered with a test targeting only the grammar component (for more details, see Appendix C). The rationale behind doing this was to perceive their overall level before the treatment took place. Put

otherwise, testing the participants on general grammar could reveal information about the extent to which the participants, in both the control and the experimental group, mastered grammatical components.

Moreover, to guarantee the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of the general English language proficiency level was another motive behind relying on the OPT as a data collection instrument. The latter is supposed to be an appropriate test that helps identify the English proficiency level (Allan, 2004). The test findings are discussed in **Section 3.3.3.** (for more details about the OPT, see Appendix C)

3.3.4. Speaking Tests

As the focal aim of the current study was to inspect the effect of the CL method in enhancing the participants' oral performance in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity, it was inevitably necessary to resort to implementing two speaking tests. Striving to answer the research questions directing the study and attempting to illuminate the impact of such a method on the three components above through quantifiable data exhorted the researcher to implement tests as data collection tools.

Measuring the participants' speaking skill before and after the treatment could be achieved by designing two tests: a pretest and a posttest. Thornbury (2005, p.124) elucidated that measuring the progress and the achievement of a given course of speaking denotes the administration of sound speaking tests meant for assessing the spoken components of the subjects' speech.

3.3.5. Focus Group

The hope of demonstrating the participants' attitudes towards learning the speaking skill under the CL method framework entailed using a qualitative data instrument. Therefore, a Focus Group Interview was selected to elicit information from the subjects involved in the quasi-experiment. By definition, a Focus Group is a specific type of interview

(Ary *et al.*, 2010, p.439); (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 144). Practically speaking, it involves: "a group format whereby an interviewer records the responses of a small group (usually 6-12 members)." (Dörnyei, 2007, p.114). It can bring about a large amount of qualitative data relevant to a given investigation issue. Cohen *et al.* (2007, p.288) affirmed that this type of interviews has recently gained broad interest in educational research.

One of the main questions the current study attempted to respond to was gauging the participants' perceptions towards using CL as an innovative instruction to learn the speaking skill in OE module classes. It was fundamentally important to probe the experimental group subjects' attitudes, particularly about the method above. Hence, the Focus Group interview was used as a data collection instrument as its format and rationale of application seemed to be aligned with the set sixth research question of this study (the one that intends to probe the merits and drawbacks experienced by first-year undergraduate EFL learners while implementing the CL method in OE classes). More importantly, in using it as an essential qualitative instrument, the data could be triangulated with the other quantitative research methods used in the study (the questionnaire, the quasi-experiment and the tests) (Cohen *et al.*, 2007, p.288).

The rationale behind relying on the Focus Group discussions was that they could yield insights that could not have otherwise been demonstrated in a straightforward interview. The nature of the Focus Group discussions that were likely to enthuse the participants to discuss in more natural ways and a less time-consuming plan was another motive behind its adoption in the study. Moreover, Dörnyei (2007) uttered that: "This within-group interaction can yield high-quality data as it can create a synergistic environment that results in a deep and insightful discussion." (p.145). The discussions emerging in the Focus Group while the participants interacted with the moderator and other participants are

worth revealing more explicitly and abundantly their views than individual interviews (Ary *et al.*, 2010, p.381).

Bearing in mind all the pros that the Focus Group discussions offer to researchers, getting the participants to interact spontaneously was implementing in the study. The subjects were expected to be engaged in discussions to express their perspectives towards the method overtly. The Focus Group discussions were also presumed to pave the way for them to say whether it helped them develop their speaking skill components. Furthermore, while managing the discussions, the researcher could disclose some facts, such as the obstacles the participants faced while cooperating with other mates to perform oral tasks.

The formats of Focus Group discussions range from highly structured to semi-structured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007, p.145). The interview guide the moderator makes use of directs the running of the discussion. The Focus Group discussion conducted in the study in hand followed a semi-structured format. As determined by Dörnyei (2007, p.145), the latter is the most common format. It consisted of 8 questions, of which two are closed-ended ones and six open-ended (for more details about the content, see Appendix D). The discussion of each group lasted for approximately (45 minutes). The minimum number of each Focus Group discussion was seven students, and the maximum was 8.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

Investigating the efficacy of CL as a method of instruction implemented to enhance the EFL learners' speaking skill with its three essential components (accuracy, fluency and complexity) urged the researcher to conduct the study within three stages. The following timeline table displays the chronology order through which the data collection procedure of the current research has gone.

Table 3

Data collection Procedures timeline

Stages	Instruments	Participants	Data Collection Procedure & Duration	Data Analysis	Rationale
Stage One	Questionnaire	69 EFL first year Undergraduate LMD students	4 days of administration.	Quantitative	- To perceive the participants' attitudes towards learning speaking cooperatively.
Stage Two	Quasi-Experiment 1. Learner's Profile Technical Card 2. Oxford Placement Test 3. The <i>non-equivalent pretest-posttest group design</i>	49 EFL first year Undergraduate students	9 weeks of treatment to instruct the speaking skill under CL	Quantitative (.....)	- To increase research reliability. -To consider the homogeneity of the participants in both groups. -To perceive the relevance of the treatment on the participants' accuracy, fluency and complexity in the two administered tests (pretest and posttest)
Stage Three	Focus Group Interview	23 EFL first year Undergraduate LMD students	2 hours and a half of discussions	Qualitative	-To triangulate the data and to probe the experimental group participants' attitudes towards the method of instruction

3.4.1. Stage One: Questionnaire Administration

The first stage of data collection started with the administration of the questionnaire. The first draft of the questionnaire has been handed to three teachers holding a PhD degree in English Didactics to consider the wordiness clarity and anticipate any kind of ambiguity from the respondents and evaluate the lucidity of the questions. It was piloted to a sample of

ten first students before administering it for the same purpose mentioned above. The questions that were perceived as vague were all reconsidered by the researcher. The final version of the questionnaire was then randomly administered to **69** out of **308** first year undergraduate students majoring in English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia university-Jijel -Algeria. The questionnaires were administered by three colleagues teaching at the same department. It was administered in the period between *October 13th, 2019*, to *October 16th, 2019*. The students were given 35 to 40 minutes to fill in the questionnaires, and they were all collected (**69**) after four days of distribution.

3.4.2. Stage Two: The Quasi-experiment

Before starting the quasi-experiment, which is the second phase of the data collection, some instruments were used to collect other significant data about the participants. A technical card was administered on October 20th, 2019, to the participants belonging to both the experimental and the control groups (for more details, see **Section 3.3.2.**) As a non-equivalent pretest-posttest quasi-experimental research design was opted for in the current study, it was highly imperative to diagnose the homogeneity of both groups in terms of their level in English. On October 20th, 2019 morning, the experimental group subjects had their OPT designed by Allan (2004); the control group participants were administered the test on the morning of the day. As discussed earlier, the tests targeted the grammar components only. The participants of both groups (control and experimental) were given 55 minutes to finish the placement test. The results of the test are discussed in **Section 3.3.3)**

In the present study and due to administration constraints and institutional conditions, the process of sampling the subjects randomly into treatment and control groups was not possible, as explained previously. Thereby, the quasi-experimental research design was adopted. The two pre-existing (natural) groups consisted of 49 subjects from eleven groups

(308) of first-year undergraduate students of English. The treatment phase was conducted within 9 weeks of instruction. Starting from October 21st, 2019, to March 2nd, 2020 (in exam period and holidays, no courses of treatment were introduced). It is worthy to state that the outbreak of Covid 19 Pandemics, unfortunately, prevented the researcher from teaching two other planned lessons (see Appendix T). A recapitulation of the quasi-experiment stages is outlined in the following table.

Table 4

The Quasi-experiment Stages

Groups	Participants	Pretest	Teaching Instruction	Post-test
Experimental Group	24	October 21 th , 2019	<i>Jigsaw</i> 9 weeks of speaking skill instruction	March 2 nd , 2020
Control Group	25	October 21 th , 2019	Conventional speaking skill instruction	March 2 nd , 2020

As highlighted in the table above, the pretest took place on October 21th, 2019. Both the control and the experimental groups had their pretest on the same day. As far as the control group is concerned, the test was scheduled from 8:30 to 11:30 am in a classroom. The experimental group pretest was planned from 11:30 am to 14:30. The researcher designed the tests, and the content of each test is discussed in the subsequent section.

- The Pretest

It was necessary to design and administer a test before the treatment took place to measure the effects of the CL method on the participants' speaking skill in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity. Bearing in mind the significance of selecting a type of tasks that could enthuse the subjects to speak at utmost, the researcher opted for a *role-play*. As termed by Goh & Burns (2012): "Role plays are often used as activities in communicative

classrooms and, therefore, lend themselves well to assessment situations." (p.270). More importantly, the rationale behind choosing specifically a role-play was that this type of speaking task is versatile as they permit the performers to take on roles rather than talking to an assessor (Goh& Burns, 2012, p.270). Performing roles paves the way for the speakers to demonstrate their language abilities. Furthermore, as the subjects were first-year undergraduate students, they were expected to be less expressive to speak English exclusively in the classroom than other undergraduate students studying in 2nd and 3rd-year levels. Role plays seemed to be then an alternative to decrease their reticence and anxiety to speak.

To ensure the clarity and wordiness of the test instruction, the researcher administered it to two teachers who instructed the OE module to first-year undergraduate students. All the suggestions as to the words, the pictures to insert were all considered by the researcher. A situation that stemmed from their real-life experience was chosen as proposed by Goh& Burns (2012): "The situation selected for the role play should be as familiar to the students as possible and close to their real-life experiences." (p.270). Opting for a real-life task in which the subjects could enlarge their roles and perform them comfortably was substantial. After arranging the subjects of both the control and experimental groups into small groups of three to four, the researcher administered a picture reflecting the situation and the role-play script to all the participants. The role-play exposed a real-life situation that shed light on the effects of social media on the family (for more details, see Appendix E). Each group was given 20 minutes to gather around the same table to develop the script of each role in the play (mother/ father expressing his/ her discontentment towards the control of social media over their family life, daughters/ sons exposing the pros and cons of these social media). The participants were informed that the task was not at all meant for testing or giving scores to decrease their anxiety and inspire them to speak relaxingly

To anticipate any kind of reticence to speak sufficiently in the role-play, especially from introverted students, the researcher prepared a question for every individual. The set question was an open-ended one, in which every individual was expected to be able enough to respond to it. The pretest was then divided into two parts. The first was about the performance of the role-play, while the second part was in the form of an addressed question that denoted the subjects to phrase their stances towards the procedures that should be taken to control the harmful effects of social media on family life. The researcher attempted to make sure that all participants had the same time to speak (approximately 3 minutes of speech production in the two parts of the test). All the oral performances were recorded via the HP vocal recorder application and filmed via Oppo smartphone to be later used for analysis.

Posttest

Designing a posttest that is compatible in terms of form to the pretest was crucially important to avoid any effect of the test-taking, as an extraneous variable, on the results. The Post-test was conducted on March 2nd, 2020, with both groups. The same procedures followed in the administration of the pretest were taken in the posttest administration. The control group had their test in the morning from 8:30 to 11:30 am, where the experimental group passed it on the same day from 11:30 to 14:30. All the performances were recorded for later transcription and analysis. As to the form, the test was similar to the pretest as it was a role-play. It tackled a real-life issue prevailing in the participants' social life. The role-play task was about the 'divorce' issue, in which the participants were supposed to play different roles (a psychologist, wife and husband, and a son or a daughter) to discuss divorce issue.

The subjects in both groups were gathered in a classroom; the same groups formed in the pretest were formed. The impetus behind keeping the same previously formed groups

was to ensure having identical group formation. The test instruction was administered along with a picture demonstrating the role-play situation (see Appendix E) They were given 20 minutes to work on the play's script and choose the role to perform. By the same token and to decrease their anxiety, the participants were informed that the performance was not meant for testing. Similar to the pretest, the posttest comprised another part, in which every participant was addressed a question to say how divorce could affect children and voice their stances about the fact that divorce is always a solution.

3.4.2.1. Tests Reliability and Validity

Assessing the speaking skill proficiency might be more problematic compared to assessing the other language skills as writing. This complexity relates to successfully achieving the test practicality and reliability (Thornbury, 2005, p. 124). In designing both tests used in the current study, the researcher took some criteria into account (reliability, validity). As Goh& Burns (2012) articulated, these are deemed significant characteristics that speaking test designers should establish to achieve a good speaking assessment.

3.4.2.1.1. Reliability

In their words Goh& Burns (2012), reliability is aligned with two concepts: Inter- rater reliability and intra-rater reliability:

Reliability in assessment has to do with consistency, and both *intra-rater* and *inter-rater* reliability need to be achieved. Intra- rater reliability means that the same assessor can rate students' task performances consistently over several days, using the same criteria. Inter-rater reliability means that different assessors can reach an agreement about a student's task performance. (p.262)

Bearing in mind the criterion of reliability, the researcher attempted to be consistent in the assessment process of the tests. To achieve intra-rater reliability, the researcher followed the subsequent three steps:

- All the oral performances of the participants were recorded onto videotapes (Oppo camera phone). To carefully capture the spoken output produced by the participants and which could not have been well perceived in video recordings, an HP computer audio recorder was additionally used for the recordings.
- All the oral performances of the participants were orthographically transcribed. Later, the transcripts were coded through segmenting the corpus into a vital speech unit devised by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000) (for more details about the unit, see **Section 3.5.1**)

The researcher attempted to increase the inter-rater reliability of the test by carrying out the following procedures:

- After having transcribed the whole corpus into the adopted unit of analysis (the one suggested by Foster et al. (2000), the researcher handed all the coded data (100% of the data) to another teacher. She is a lecturer holding a PhD and teaching at the same department (with an overall 15 years of experience in EFL teaching, of which 7 years spent in teaching the writing skill). The teacher was requested to revisit the acute syntactic segmentation of the corpus into the speech unit construct as operationalised in the current research; she was also assigned to detect all inaccuracies in each speech unit. She was solicited to consider grammatical accuracy (she revisited 100% of the data).

Two raters took part in the assessment process about analysing the data on pronunciation accuracy of both administered speaking tests (the pretest and the posttest). Both raters were teachers of the English Phonetic and Phonology subject. The first was a lecturer who had an overall experience of 18 years of teaching EFL and 13 years of instructing Phonetics and Phonology module. She pursued her PhD in pronunciation area of studies, whereas the second teacher was a previous major Master English Language student who conducted research for Master on English pronunciation. She has instructed Phonetics and Phonology

module for 2 years. Both teachers were selected out of their ability to identify an EFL speaker's accurate pronunciation, a near target-like one.

Moreover, both teachers shared the same language background with the participants; thereby, the process of identifying words that deviated from the IPA norms of pronunciation or sounds that were inaccurately articulated was not troublesome to them. Both teachers were handed the recorded and the transcribed texts of all the participants in both the pretest and the posttest to identify the inaccurate pronounced components in the corpus (all sounds abnormally pronounced compared to IPA were counted as deviations) (for more details about IPA, see Appendix Z). They were asked to identify sounds that were mispronounced, words whose stress was misplaced (inappropriate/ weak syllable stress)

3.4.2.1.2. Validity

Validity is undeniably a significant criterion that should be pondered when a researcher designs a test. Dörnyei (2007) put into plain words that: "a test is valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure" (p.50). Likewise, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) stated that what makes an instrument valid is that it purports to measure what should be measured accurately. Establishing validity in tests denotes the considerations of the following facets:

-Content Validity

Content-related validity, as termed by Marczyk *et al.* (2005): "refers to the relevance of the instrument or measurement strategy to the construct being measured." (p. 107). Designing a valid test implies on its designer to make the constructs being scrutinised fully operationalised. Therefore, test developers need first to define the construct they are investigating and then develop the item's content that will accurately capture it (Marczyk *et al.*, 2005, p. 107). Likewise, Porte (2002) put the operationalisation of the constructs being probed at the heart of making a test robustly valid; he stated that: "It involves clearly defining

the construct being considered, selecting a sub-set of this construct for the instrument, and finally operationalising these as items in the instrument" (p.51).

In the hope of establishing content validity in developing the two speaking skills administered in the current study (the pretest and posttest), the primary constructs constituting the speaking skill, namely accuracy, fluency and complexity, were given operational definitions. As this study strives to see the significance of the CL method in enhancing the speaking skill of first-year undergraduate students of English Language at Jijel University, it was predominantly crucial to design two tests and set rating scales to measure the three constructs (accuracy, fluency and complexity). (For more details about the operational definitions of the three constructs, see Section 3.5.1.)

- Face Validity

Face validity is another facet that needs to be borne in mind in the process of designing tests. In the words of Porte (2002): "Face validity will be fundamental in our appraisal of data collection, as it refers to the researcher's (and, in our present context, the reader's) subjective appraisal of what the instrument is measuring." (p. 51). Congruently, Hughes (2003) elucidated "a test is said to have face validity if it measures what is supposed to measure" (p. 33). To illustrate more, in designing a speaking test, the test designer should assess the subskills of the speaking skill as an entity instead of selecting one of these to represent the oral performance of the test-takers as it would be invalid to give a speaking test that sets the participants to read aloud a passage and conclude that the reading aloud stands for the whole speaking performance.

Bearing in mind the significance of face validity, the two tests of speaking opted for the current study were designed to test the speaking skill as an entity encompassing different subskills as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary ...etc. More importantly, along the process of testing, no oral performance component was prioritised over the others. The two designed

speaking tests were set to measure the participants' speaking performance quantitatively. Thereby, in the two speaking tests, subjects were urged to speak for at least 4 minutes. In each test, the participants were set to speak in two instances. In the first, they took turns to perform a role-play, while in the second, each one was given a question to answer promptly.

- Construct Validity

Tavakoli (2012) defined construct validity as: "type of validity which deals with the degree to which the instruments used in a study measure the construct that is being examined" (p.100). Construct validity is the most complex type of validity that needs to be carefully borne in mind by test designers (Kothari, 2004, p.74). Cohen *et al.* (2007) further asserted that: "In this type of validity agreement is sought on the 'operationalised' forms of a construct, clarifying what we mean when we use this construct" (p.138).

For a test to have construct validity, the researcher needs to interpret the obtained scores in a language test to indicate the test-takers language ability, as highlighted by Bachman and Palmer (1996). Construct validity then pertains to the extent to which the interpretation of the tests' scores do meaningfully and appropriately reflect the test taker's language ability. Justifying a construct validity of a test, as clarified by Bachman& Palmer (1996), calls for the test developer's ability to make parallels between the test-takers scores and the area (s) of language ability the test purports to measure. Put otherwise, the more the test designer can prove that the scores reflect the area of the language ability being measured, the higher the test is reckoned to have construct validity (Bachman &Palmer, 1996, p.21).

To be able to interpret the scores of a test duly, Tavokoli (2012) suggested:

The researcher needs to describe the characteristics of the constructs to enable an outsider to identify these characteristics if they came across them. If the researcher fails to provide specific definitions, then we need to read between the lines. (p. 100)

In the current study, the researcher attempted to define the construct of the speaking skill by providing a thorough description of its components, namely accuracy, fluency and complexity (for more details, see **Section 3.5.1.**) The attempt was to make the reader of the current thesis as much informed about what makes the participants' oral performance accurate, fluent and complex. The reader of the thesis can identify how the speaking test scores were interpreted following the three measured constructs. More importantly, and in the hope of achieving construct validity, the researcher stemmed the definition of the constructs being measured (accuracy, fluency and complexity) of the speaking skill from well-established definitions (Foster *et al.*, 2000); Skehan and Foster (1997), Ellis& Barkhuizen (2005). The definitions of the constructs in the current study (accuracy, fluency and complexity) were selected out of their wide adoption in many studies of similar interest, of which are studies conducted by Khaerudin (2014); Koizumi (2005) and Vercellotti (2015).

3.4.3. Stage Three: Focus Group

At the final stage of data collection and after completing the treatment phase, the researcher carried out Focus Group discussions. Only the experimental group comprising 23 participants were interviewed. This instrument aimed to gather qualitative data to answer some questions set for this study. The overall held discussions were three: two discussion comprised 8 participants, while the third one incorporated 7 subjects (one student could not pursue the discussion due to a health problem that urged her to quit the classroom before the discussion started). Each discussion lasted for roughly 50 minutes, which made overall two hours and half of the recording. The discussions were conducted on March 3rd, 2020 (from 9:30 to 12:00) in a classroom. The Focus Group was conducted the day following the posttest as the participants were expected to easily remember the

stages of the CL instruction in the OE module classes, along with their negative experiences and positive ones while learning cooperatively.

Before explaining how the data were analysed, it is necessary to speak about the speaking tests and the issues of validity and reliability.

3.5. Data Analysis Procedures

Considering the research hypotheses upon which the study is grounded and responding to the raised questions, the following procedures were adopted to analyse data. The findings yielded from the pretest and posttest were statistically analysed using SPSS software. Before shedding light on the descriptive statistics of the results, it is necessary to give operational definitions to the three speaking skill measures, namely accuracy, fluency and complexity.

3.5.1. Speaking Skill Analysis Measures

This section is devoted to providing operational definitions of the three constructs. Nevertheless, before this, the unit upon which the participants' speech was segmented should be thoroughly explained for reliability.

Analysis of Speech Unit (AS-U): an Operational Definition

Researchers attempting to probe and quantitatively measure the speaking skill with its three dimensions need first to segment the spoken language into units to adequately calculate frequencies and ratios as Foster et al. (2000) highlighted:

the analysis of spoken language requires a principled way of transcribed data into units to assess features such as accuracy and complexity. If such analyses are comparable across different studies, there must be agreement on the nature of the unit, and it must be possible to apply this unit reliably to different range types of speech data. (p.354)

Given the importance of segmenting speech data as a preliminary step to analyse its dimensions, all the speeches generated from the involved participants in the current study

were audio-recorded and later fully orthographically transcribed (for more details about the transcripts, see Appendix F). Then, each participant's speech was segmented and analysed according to units of analysis. The constructs upon which spoken language was assessed (accuracy, fluency and complexity) are subsequently operationalised. The measurement of each speech dimension can explicitly be identified, which would increase the reliability and validity of the adopted methodology of segmentation and analysis (Foster et al., 2000).

The unit upon which the accuracy of the participants' spoken language in the present study was analysed is the Analysis of Speech Unit (hereafter AS-unit), the one devised by Foster et al. (2000). Compared to many other speech units, AS-Unit is purely syntactic and not intonational and semantic. It is different from both the units mentioned above. The AS-Unit is neither concerned with the analysis of information/meaning chunks (semantic unit of analysis) nor leans towards examining clauses prominence, pitch and contour aspects (intonational unit of analysis). The researcher's intention is far from scrutinising the semantic meaning and functions of the participants' produced oral utterances. The researcher is also not captivated by the analysis of speech tones. The embracing of the AS-Unit proposed by Foster et al. (2000), which is, in essence, a syntactic unit of analysis, seems to be aligned with the aims of the current study. The AS-Unit is claimed to be more practical when dealing with NNSs speech, and it is easier to identify than intonational and semantic ones (Foster et al., 2000, p.366).

The AS-Unit: "allows analysis of speech units which are greater than a single clause since there is evidence from intonation and pause features that speakers may plan multi-clause units" (Foster et al., 2000, p. 365). The AS-Unit is the adopted unit of analysing accuracy construct as the latter helps researchers endeavour to capture learners' proficiency at multi-clause levels and identify their speech complexity more clearly. It is worthy to state that the AS-Unit elaborated by Foster et al. (2000) is an extension of what is known as T-

Unit with the insertion of some characteristics of spoken data, such as the inclusion of sub-clausal units that are typical to speech, but they were not involved in the T-Unit. Hunt introduced the latter, and it was widely used in the analysis of spoken data (Foster et al., 2000). Nevertheless, given its taking into account L2/FL speech complexity with its diverse constituents, AS-Unit has been recently adopted as a standard for measuring oral data (Michel, 2017).

Thus, to make the reader of the present thesis more insightful about how the participants' speech was analysed, it is imperative to operationalise the AS- Unit. The latter, as elucidated by Foster et al. (2000), is "*a single speaker utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause (s) associated with either*" (p.365). Hence, all the participants' produced speech was segmented into units based principally on clauses. A clause boundary in each AS-Unit is marked by upright slash | while the boundary within an AS-Unit is indicated by double colon (::) while hesitations, false starts and functionless repetitions are put inside brackets {...} as suggested by Foster et al. (2000) (to get more details about the segmentation of the participants' speech, see Appendix F) In each *independent clause*, there should minimally be a finite verb. As for the *sub-clausal-Unit*, it may "consist of one or more phrases that can be elaborated to a full clause by means of recovery of ellipted elements from the context of the discourse or situation." (Foster et al., 2000, p.366). The Sub-Clausal Unit may incorporate a minor utterance in the form of 'Irregular Sentences' or 'Nonsentences'. As determined by Foster et al., (2000), a subordinate clause should comprise a finite or non-finite verb plus at least one clause element (Subject, Object, Complement, or adverbial). The subordinate clause may function within an AS-Unit as a: (1) subject (initial or postponed), (2) verb complementation, (3) phrasal-post modifier or complement, (4) adverb (Foster et al., 2000, p. 367)

As speech, especially the one produced by FL learners, is exceedingly characterised by dysfluency features such as *false starts, repetitions and corrections*, they were taken into account in the AS-Unit as suggested by Foster et al. (2000) under specific conditions. To illustrate more, in the case of a false start, which is an utterance begun then either abandoned altogether or reformulated otherwise (Foster et al., (2000), it can be counted as part of the AS-Unit provided it is formulated before the message is abandoned and it has to fit with the criteria of AS-Unit (Foster et al., 2000). As for repetitions that L2/FL speakers mostly use to hold the floor of speech, they are perceived as a non-feature of dysfluency as long as they are executed for rhetorical effect. Self-correction occurs when L2/FL speakers tend to reformulate the erroneous part of their speech during or immediately following the production. Thus, the final version of the self-corrected speech is counted with the previously erroneous parts excluded as elucidated by Foster et al. (2000). As for Topicalization, which is the overt statement of the topic of the AS-Unit without incorporating it grammatically into the unit, Foster et al. (2000) suggest including it in the AS-Unit as long as it is followed by a falling intonation and a pause that lasts for (0.5) seconds. Interruption and scaffolding, a process in which an interlocutor interrupts another one in the process of interaction to complete for the second speaker what he/she wants to convey as a message, should be incorporated with the upcoming AS-Unit.

The following table recapitulates how the previously discussed standard components characterising speech are treated to analyse the participants' accuracy of their spoken language in pretest and posttest texts.

Table 5

Handling dysfluency in the analysis of oral production based on foster et al.

Phenomena	Definition	How to Handle
False start	'an utterance that is begun and then either abandoned altogether or reformulated in some way' (p.368)	Exclude from word count
Repetition	'The speaker repeats previously produced speech (p.368)	Exclude from word count unless repetition if for rhetorical effect
Self-correction	'the speaker identified an error either during or immediately following production and stops and reformulates the speech (p.368).	The final version is only included.
Topicalization	The speaker states the topic of the AS-Unit without incorporating it grammatically into the unit.	Include it in the AS-Unit unless they are followed by a falling intonation and marked pause.
Interruption and Scaffolding	A second speaker either interrupts the first speakers' utterance before he/she completes it or attempts to continue / complete it for the first speaker.	Include in the AS-Unit produced by the first speaker providing this speaker completes his/her utterances or incorporates its scaffolded element into it.

Note Reprinted from "Analysing Learner Language", by Ellis, R,& Barkhuizen, G., 2005,p.148, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

As accuracy is one of the three constructs upon which the analysis of the oral data of the current study is analysed, it is crucially important to give it an operational definition, discuss the unit of its analysis and the criteria upon which it was measured.

3.5.1.1. Accuracy Measures

After segmenting the participants' speech into AS-Units, as explained above, it is inevitably crucial to explain how the accuracy construct of the spoken language generated in this study was measured. Accuracy might be measured using either specific measures such as past-tense morphemes, plurals articles use... etc., as it might be measured in accordance of general ones in which, for instance, the number of error-free clauses is divided by the total number of clauses (Ellis, 2005). Nevertheless, the latter seems to be more efficient in detecting the differences between experimental conditions than specific measures (Ellis, 2005). Aligned with the same perspective, Foster and Wigglesworth (2016) argued that using specific measures, alternatively labelled local measures, may but only help to measure the development of a specific aspect of speech across time which is not the case of the general/global measures that have been so far proved efficient in terms of capturing the overall L2 learners' development. Given that fact, general measures (alternatively known as global measures) of accuracy were used in the present study as they allowed the researcher to assess the participants' oral texts as an entirety.

The global measures of accuracy adopted in the present study are the ones suggested by Skehan & Foster (1996) and which have been widely used to investigate L2 speech (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) with slight modifications and additions the researcher deemed worthy of being embraced in the analysis of the corpus. They are explicitly operationalised subsequently to analyse the accuracy construct identified by the reader of the thesis in hand:

- Two steps were done to calculate the global measures:

Step one:

First, calculating the percentage of error-free clauses (hereafter EFC) that proved to be efficient in gauging accuracy across different levels of language proficiency (the pretest and

posttests in the case of the present study) (Skehan& Foster, 1997). In the present study, an EFC is defined as a clause that comprises no errors relating to grammar, lexis, and pronunciation as suggested by Foster& Skehan (1996): "Error-free clauses: A clause in which there is no error in syntax, morphology, or word order."

➤ To provide a holistic analysis, the researcher attempted to embrace as many syntactic aspects as possible while probing the accuracy component. Thus, an EFC in terms of syntax (grammar), in the present study, is the one that comprises none of the following syntactic erroneous aspects:

1. *Tense and verb forms* (clauses that are of target-like use of verb form, auxiliary and tenses)
2. *Determiners* (clauses that are of target like article, demonstrative, possessive and quantifier use)
3. *Plural formation* (clauses that are of target like plural form use)
4. *Subject-verb agreement* (hereinafter SVA) (clauses that are free from misconjugated verbs with the relevant subject)
5. *Sentence structure* (clauses that are of targets like sentence word order and clauses that are free from misplaced modifiers)
6. *Noun pronoun reference* (clauses that are free from misused noun pronoun reference)
7. *Prepositions* (clauses that are target-like preposition use)
8. *Conjunctions* (clauses that are of target-like conjunctions use)

Figure 5 displays the non-accurate clauses in terms of syntax.

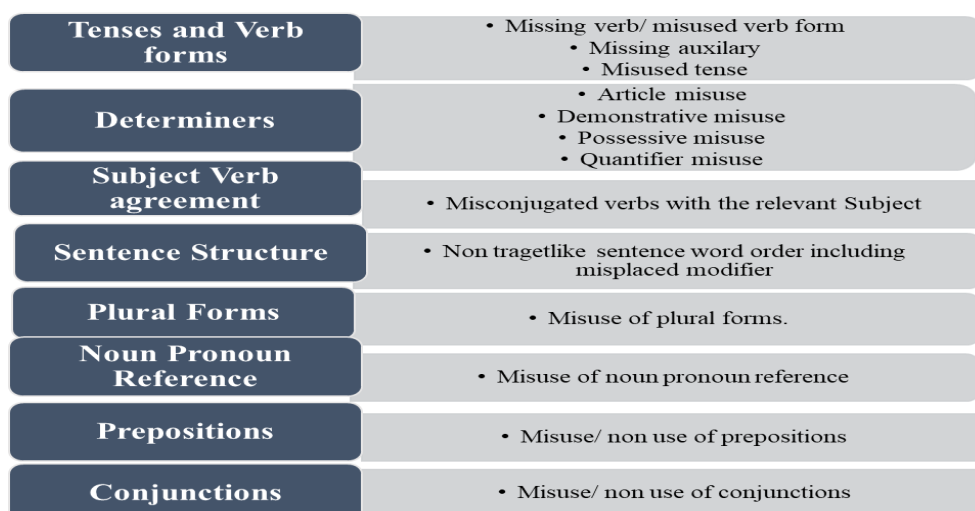


Figure 5. Syntax accuracy measures

To capture the participants' speech lexical accuracy, the researcher considered the following:

- EFC in terms of Lexis is the one in which no error of vocabulary use was identified (including word choice and collocations)

The following figure demonstrates the non-accurate clauses at the lexical level.



Figure 6. Lexical accuracy measures

- EF word in terms of pronunciation is a word that is free from mispronounced phones (consonants and vowels) and free from stress misplacement.

In the following figure, a non-accurate pronounced word at the level of pronunciation is elucidated.



Figure 7. Pronunciation accuracy measures

Step Two:

All EFC produced by each participant were divided by the total number of clauses, and then the result is multiplied by 100. The following figure displays the steps adopted in the present study to calculate the global measures of accuracy

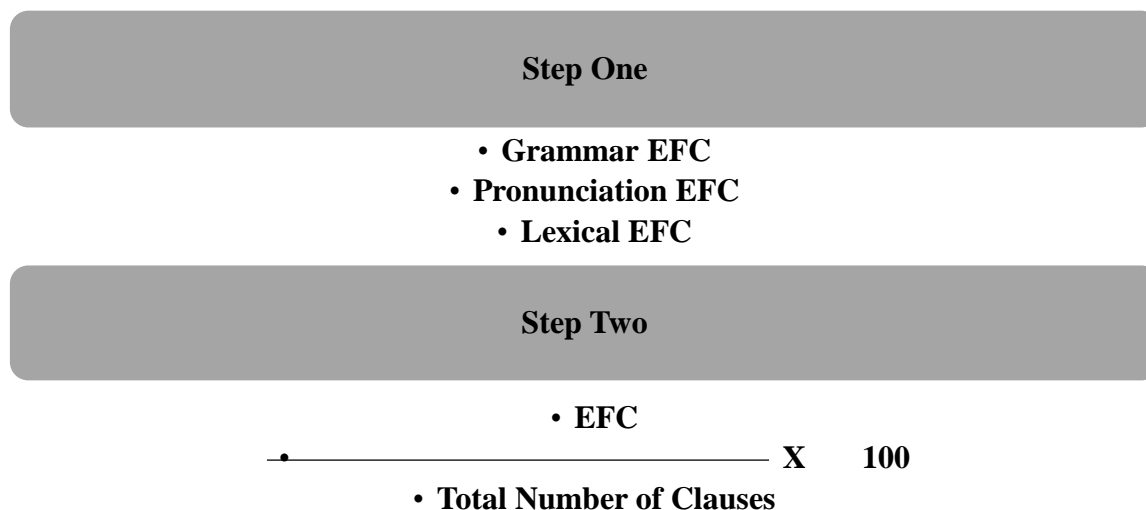


Figure 8. Accuracy global measures

3.5.1.2. Fluency Measures

Principally, fluency measurements might be of twofold kinds: *temporal variables* and *hesitation phenomena* (Wiese, 1984); (Lennon, 1990); (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 156). While the former relates to the speed of speaking/writing, the latter stands for dysfluency. Skehan (1998) argued that both types of variables reflect distinct dimensions of fluency. Nevertheless, they should be analysed concurrently as each demonstrates a two-factor solution: 'breakdown fluency' (about temporal variables) and 'repair fluency' (relating to hesitation phenomena) (as cited in Ellis, Barkhuizen, 2005, p.156). Accordingly, researchers striving for probing L2 learners' extent of fluency need to be mindful of the significance of incorporating both levels in the analysis process.

As for the temporal variables, principle one is *speech/writing rate*, as denoted by Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005). While speech/ writing rate can be applied on both speech and

writing, several *pauses*, *pause length*, and *length of the run* are other temporal variables suggested by other scholars (Ellis, 1990; Robinson, Ting and Unwin, 1995; Wiese, 1984; Skehan & Foster, 1999) (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 1995). As the present research is directed to scrutinise L2 speech and not writing, the term speech rate would be hereinafter used. After conducted a study, Ellis (1990) explicated that speech rate can be measured in terms of the number of syllables produced per seconds or per minutes on task (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.157). As for the calculation of this speech rate temporal variable, Ellis (1990) explained: "the number of pruned syllables (i.e., excluding dysfluencies) is counted and divided by the total number of seconds/ minutes the text (s) took (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.157). Alternatively, Skehan & Foster (1999) proposed measuring fluency in terms of pause length. It can be done by measuring either the total number of pauses being some threshold (eg.1 second) or the mean length of all pauses beyond the threshold (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.157). Pauses length and numbers, as elucidated by Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005): "indicate the extent to which L2 learners need to disengage from the speaking in order to plan their spoken messages." (p.156).

Concerning hesitation phenomena, Skehan & Foster (1997) suggested analysing learners' speech in terms of false starts, repetitions and reformulations (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.157). Being perceived as reflections of speech adjustments and improvements relevant to real-life communication pressure, Skehan & Foster (1997) recommended treating them all together (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). They pointed out that the four phenomena are exceedingly being operated in speech; thereby, they should be jointly tackled in the investigation of speech fluency. Quoted from Foster and Skehan (1996), the four hesitation phenomena are succinctly defined below:

- *Reformulations*: Either phrases or clauses that are repeated with some modification to syntax, morphology, or word order.

- *Replacements*: Lexical items that are immediately substituted for another.
- *False starts*: Utterances that are abandoned before completion may or may not be followed by a reformulation.
- *Repetitions*: words, phrases, or clauses repeated with no modification whatsoever to syntax, morphology, or word order. (p.310)

As highlighted in **Section 3.5.2**, fluency might be measured in terms of temporal variables and hesitation phenomena. In the present study, the two temporal variables used to investigate the participants' fluency are the ones of *speech rate* that Ellis suggests (1990) (as cited in Ellis& Barkhuizen, 2005, p.156) and *pause length*, which is devised by Skehan& Foster (1999). As for the second variable used to analyse fluency (i.e., the hesitation phenomena), the four hesitation phenomena proposed by Skehan& Foster (1999) (as cited in Ellis& Barkhuizen, 2005, p.157) are implemented. Figure 7 and 8 are a recapitulation of the adopted measures used to analyse the participants' speech fluency.

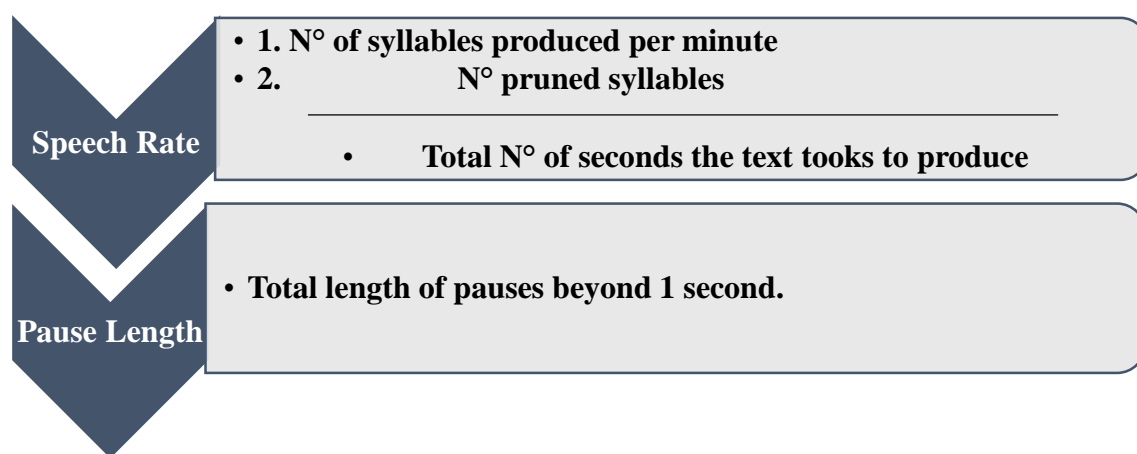


Figure 9. Fluency temporal variable measures

To ensure an accurate measurement of speech rate, the researcher calculated speech time twice using a stopwatch application. The total number of seconds each participant took to produce his/her whole texts was counted using the stopwatch. The time calculation started immediately when the participant took the turn to speak and stopped directly when s/he

finished or when other participants took an overlap. Then, two websites *HTTP://www.Howmanysyllables.com* and *www.textinspector.com* were used to calculate the total number of syllables produced in each participant's transcribed two texts (pretest and posttest texts). All dysfluencies were excluded from the texts. Both websites demonstrated time, identical results as to the number of syllables in each text. Given that, the inter-rater reliability of fluency measures was very high ($r = .99, p < .01$). In the very few cases where the websites' results were inconsistent, the researcher counted the texts' syllable number manually. As for pause length, the *InqScribe* software and a stopwatch application were both used to accurately count the total number of pause length beyond one second in each participant's produced text in both tests (the pretest and the posttest).

As far as the hesitation phenomena of fluency are concerned, the researcher listened three times to oral corpus to identify all the false starts, repetitions, reformulations, and replacements. They were all counted with careful attention so as not to miss any produced dysfluency marker. The following figure demonstrates the 'hesitation phenomena features' adopted in the present study.

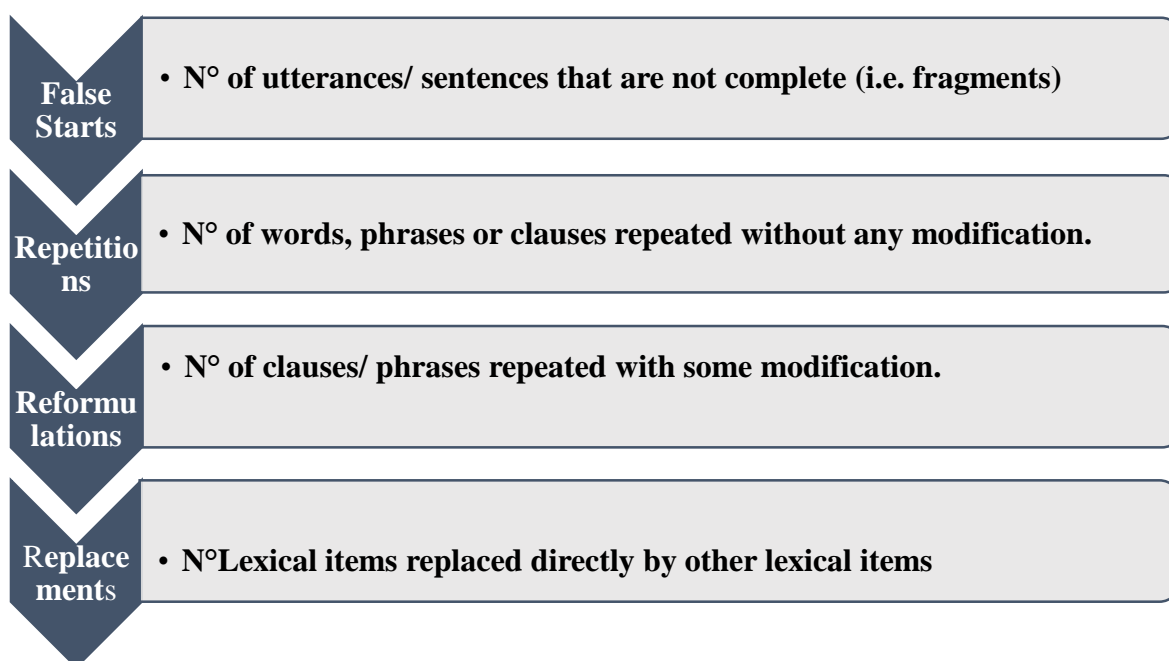


Figure 10. Hesitation phenomena measures

3.5.1.3. Complexity Measures

Complexity might be grouped into six broad categories (interactional, propositional, functional, grammatical and lexical). It is worthy to state that syntactic complexity is the most popular aspect investigated in L2 speech compared to the other categories. The number of subordinated structures is the most common and frequently used in syntactic complexity studies, particularly in L2 research (Ellis&Barkhuizen, 2005, p.154). Given the necessity of incorporating at least two measures in scrutinising L2 speech complexity, both the grammatical and the lexical measures were used to analyse the corpus of the present study.

-Syntactic Complexity

As suggested by Ellis& Barkhuizen (2005), Foster& Skehan (1996) and others, two grammatical complexity measures were used to probe the growth of the participants' syntactic produced speech complexity. The amount of subordination was calculated using Foster & Skehan (1996) formula. It was adopted by many other researchers probing L2 speech corpora such as Robinson (2001b; 2007); (as cited in Shehadeh and Coombe, p.31), Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998); Ortega (2003); Kuiken & Housen (2009) (as cited in Ferrari, 2012, p.282). The second syntactic complexity measure used in the current study is the one suggested by Yuan and Ellis (2003) (as cited in Ellis& Barkhuizen, 2005,p.159). Yuan& Ellis (2003) (as cited in Ellis& Barkhuizen, 2005,p.159) explained that it is about two particular linguistic features. The researcher calculated these two measures manually using the following:

- (a) *The amount of subordination formula (Number of clauses per AS-Unit)*: the total number of separate clauses divided by the total number of AS-Unit. Separate clauses are all dependent/subordinate clauses in the transcript of each text.

(b) *The number of different verb forms used*: the number of different verb forms (past simple/ present/ future ...etc.) in each participant's text was counted.

Figure 11 recapitulates the adopted measures.

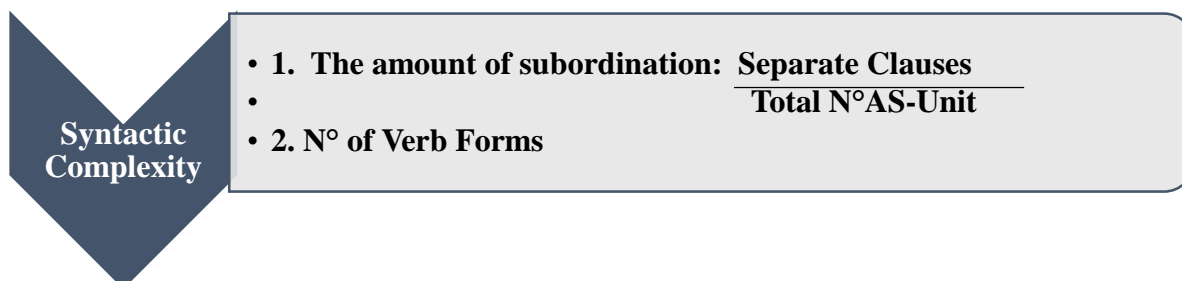


Figure 11. Amount of subordination

- Lexical Complexity

Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005, p.155) elucidated that it is vital to consider the participants' use of vocabulary as they may produce relatively simple grammatical structures but rich in terms of the variety of lexical words used. Thereby, the type-token ratio of each text produced was calculated using two websites that recurrently demonstrated identical results. The first website is <http://textinspector.com>, a web-based language analysis tool developed by Stephan Bax, an applied linguistic Professor. The websites provide detailed and thorough information about some texts' features, such as readability, complexity, and lexical diversity. It is trusted by many universities around the world, such as Kings' College London. The second website used is <http://www.lex tutor.ca> that calculates many lexical complexity aspects such as lexical density and type-token ratio. Given their complete consistency in computing all texts' type-token ratio, both web-based language analysis tools were used in the present study. It is worthy to state that the length of texts significantly influences the type-token ratio, as the shorter the text is, the higher the ratio might be (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.155). Thereby, an alternative measure, namely the *segmental type-token ratio*, was opted for, in which all long texts were segmented into shorter ones (most often into 120 words) to calculate their type-token ratios and then ultimately to calculate their final mean

Mean Segmental Type Token Ratio: The total number of different words used (types) divided by the total number of words in the text (tokens).

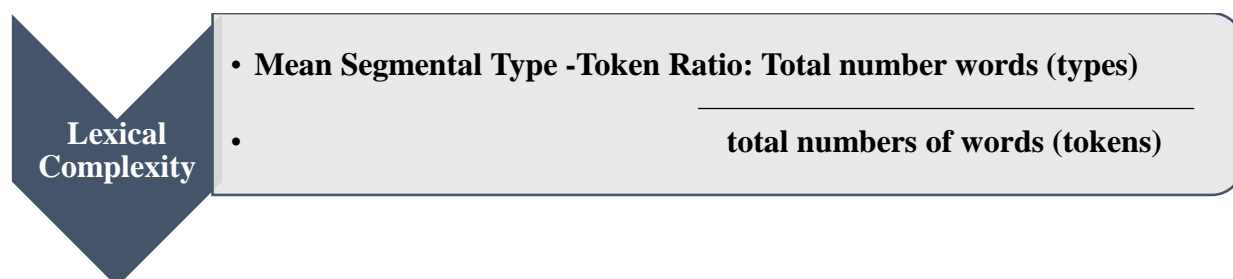


Figure 12. Complexity measures

Conclusion

Chapter three of the present dissertation attempted to provide a detailed explanation of the research design structuring the study. It comprised five main sections; the first explained the adopted research method and design framing the present study. While the second section described the involved sample of the population, the third defined the research instruments implemented to generate the needed data; the fourth highlighted the three stages of the data collection. The final section portrayed the operational definitions of accuracy, fluency and complexity to explain how these were analysed within the scope of this research.

CHAPTER FOUR: Students' Attitudes towards Learning the Speaking Skill through Cooperative Learning

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Introduction

In the previous chapter, the research design of the present study was described, including the description of the data collection methods and tools, namely the questionnaire for first-year learners, the quasi-experiment and the focus group discussions. Hence, this chapter was designed to respond to the first and second questions raised in this research. The chapter represents the pre-experimental stage; it portrays the data gathered from the distributed questionnaire to first-year undergraduate students majoring in English at Jijel University. It partly attempts to probe the Algerian EFL learners' attitudes towards learning the speaking skill under the CL method and to consider how they espouse its principles in their classroom practices. The results generated from the questionnaire are quantified and interpreted in the light of the issues discussed in the theoretical chapters and the addressed research questions.

4.1. Questionnaire Description and Administration

The questionnaire comprises 35 questions in the form of closed items except for two, which are open-ended. The reason behind addressing closed-item questions in which the researcher determines the answers is to get more reliable responses, as confirmed by Mackey & Gass (2016): "closed items questions typically involve a greater uniformity of measurements and therefore greater reliability. They also lead to answers that can be easily quantified and analysed" (p.102).

All the questions addressed stem from the literature review of the dissertation. The questions are structured into five sections: the first one is designed to get background information relating to the learners' estimation of their speaking skill level and their attitudes towards attending the oral speaking classes (Oral expression module). The second section is

devised to investigate the participants' attitudes towards implementing CL and probe their practices in espousing these principles in the classroom. The section also attempts to scrutinise how the participants are inclined to be cooperative with their peers. The third section is inserted to inspect learners' practices of learning the speaking skill in the EFL classroom. It attempts to consider their precedence in learning the given skill, how their teachers evaluate it, and the types of tasks they are assigned to perform orally. The fourth section explores the participants' perceptions of learning the speaking skill under the CL method. The questions inserted in this section are principally designed to elicit information relating to the merits and shortcomings of the method, the roles that should be played by both teachers and learners in the speaking classes while adopting CL principles and the ways it affects speaking components (for further details on the questionnaire, see Appendix Y

Addressing all these questions paves the way for the researcher to be more insightful about the participants' inclination to learn the speaking skill. The responses are likely to generate the needed data to answer the research questions posed in the current study.

4.2. Aims of the Questionnaire

Designed principally to probe the perceptions and attitudes of first-year undergraduate learners of the English language towards learning the speaking skill under the CL method, the questionnaire is then opted for as an elicitation technique in the present research. More importantly, the questionnaire highlights the participant's readiness and inclination to cooperate with other peers to develop their speaking skills. It further strives to reveal the extent to which the principles of the CL method are being espoused and fittingly applied in the participants' classroom practices. The responses generated in the questionnaire are of paramount importance to answer the set questions addressed at the preliminary stage of conducting the present research.

4.3. Analysis of the Questionnaire Findings

The results were quantified and analysed via Predictive Analytics Software Statistics (PASW version 20). The answers were coded and quantified in the form of percentages and frequencies and then sketched in tables. As the fourth section, namely the one meant to probe the participants' perceptions of learning the speaking skill under the CL method, is a crucial part of the questionnaire as the participants' responses generated from this section could reveal the extent of their inclination to cooperate with peers to learn the speaking skill. Therefore, and given its significance in the questionnaire, and to assess the section's internal consistency, i.e., reliability, the Cronbach's coefficient Alpha was calculated since this section was designed in the form of a 6 point Likert scale. The findings demonstrated a good internal consistency as Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was 0.715.

Section One: *Background Information*

Q1. How would you estimate your level in English language speaking skill?

Table 6

Participants' Estimation of their Speaking Skill Level

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Very good	04	5.8
b. Good	32	46.4
c. Average	32	46.4
d. Poor	01	1.4
Total	69	100%

The aim behind addressing this question was to elicit information from the participants about their speaking level estimation. 5.8% of them considered their level as very good, 46.4% deemed it as good. Similarly, 46.4% viewed their speaking skill level as average while only 1.4% reckoned it was poor. The results denote that most of the population

seemed to be satisfied with their level of speaking English. Hence, it is expected that more than half of them are ready to hold conversations and communicate comfortably with the other speakers of the language.

Q2. Do you like attending Oral Expression (OE) classes?

Table 7

Learners' Attitude towards Attending OE classes

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Yes	60	87
b. No	03	4.3
c. I don't know	06	8.7
Total	69	100%

The second question was designed to put into plain words the participants' perceptions of attending OE classes. As demonstrated in the table above, a great majority (87%) of the respondents expressed their willingness to be present in the OE module classes. Only 4.3% did not show a positive attitude towards the statement, while 8.7% opted for the 'I do not know' option. A percentage of 87% exhibiting their inclination to attend OE module classes indicates their interest in learning the speaking skill. Thus, being motivated to speak is one of the most deriving forces that are likely to boost the EFL learners' speaking competence.

Section Two: Cooperative Learning Classroom Practices

Q3. How do you prefer to work on your oral presentations?

Table 8

Learners' Preferences of Working on the Oral Presentations

Options	Frequency	Percentage (%)
a. Individually	24	34.8
b. a partner	31	44.9
c. In a group	14	20.3
Total	69	100%

The first question in section two was set to probe the participants' inclination to perform the oral presentations. As highlighted in table 8, more than half of the participants (65.2%) expressed their disposition to work either with a partner or in a group (44.9%; 20.3%, respectively). However, 34.8% of them voiced their tendency to work individually. The results obtained indicate that most of the sample demonstrated their readiness to cooperate with other peers to perform speaking tasks. Nevertheless, it is quite evident that a considerable number of them (31) admitted that they preferred to work in small groups (pair groups) instead of large ones. It is noteworthy to state that as long as the learners are not enthusiastic and ready to work with other peers on given oral tasks, their cooperation may not be productive as expected to be.

Q4. Do you think that working cooperatively in the classroom is beneficial?

Table 9

Learners' Attitudes towards Cooperating in the Classroom

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Yes	64	92.8
b. No	05	7.2
Total	69	100%

This question was designed to investigate the participants' standpoints on the practicality of cooperating with other peers in the classroom. As displayed in table 4, the

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greatest majority forming 92.8%, deemed cooperation in the classroom beneficial. The findings denote that most of the learners hold positive attitudes towards cooperation. Those students who responded positively to the question were requested to answer the subsequent one.

Q5. If yes, is it because:

Table 10

The Positive Outcomes of the Cooperative Learning Method

Options	Frequency	Percent(%)
a. It develops learners' cognitive (mental/intellectual) abilities(such as reasoning, problem-solving and higher-level thinking)?	28	13.7
b. It allows learners to practise the language and draws their attention to the committed errors?	39	19
c. It enhances learners' comprehension of the material exposed through negotiating the meaning?	15	7.3
d. It promotes learners' retention (remembering) and metacognitive strategies (such as planning/monitoring the process of learning)?	15	7.3
e. It builds social skills that are needed in professional life?	23	11.2
f. It creates positive attitudes towards the process of learning the language	13	6.3
g. It enhances learners' self-esteem.	14	21.9
h. It develops learners' motivation to learn.	28	13.7
i. It decreases learners' anxiety in classroom	30	46.9
Total	205	100%

Proposing a list of items, which are acknowledged to be among the positive outcomes generated from the CL application in the classroom, could facilitate the participants justify their positive stance as to applying the method above in the classroom. As highlighted in the table 10 , 46.9% of the participants- as the highest percentage- considered the method beneficial as it decreased their language anxiety. 21.9% of them acknowledged that CL is helpful as it enhanced their self-esteem, while 19% of the participants reported that it paved the way for them to practise the language and it drew their attention to the committed errors. As for the social skills needed in professional life, such as arguing, listening to others, exchanging criticism...etc., and 11.2% of the participants deemed CL efficient in developing these skills. The method was neither conceived powerful in enhancing their comprehension of the materials nor helpful in promoting retention and metacognitive strategies by most participants except for (7.3%) who believed so. Only 6.3% regarded that the method could create positive attitudes towards the language learning process.

Hence, the findings demonstrate that the overall positive outcomes yielded from the CL application, from the participants' stances, are psychological, social and language ones as well.

Q6. To what extent do you think cooperating with your peers is important in developing your social interaction and strengthening your relationships?

Table 11

Learners' Perceptions of the CL Significance in Developing Social Interaction

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Extremely	20	29
b. Significantly	28	40.6
c. Moderately	18	26.1

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d. not at all	01	1.4
e. No answer	02	2.9
Total	69	100%

The target of the question was to probe the participants' perceptions on the efficacy of CL in promoting social interaction and strengthening relationships. As exhibited in table 11, a considerable number of them (40.6%) believed that the method was significantly important, while 29% of them pondered it extremely crucial as it fostered their social relationships with their peers. 26.1% of the population considered it moderately important. Only 1.4% of them perceived the method, not all significant, and two students (forming 2.9%) did not respond to the question. The results demonstrate that 69.6% are conscious of the worth of the method in promoting social interaction and relationships alike.

Q7. Do you think working in groups/pairs is more beneficial than working individually to develop your language abilities?

Table 12

Learners' Perception of Individual Vs. Group Work Effect on Language Abilities Development

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Yes	46	66.7
b. No	07	07
c. Not sure	16	16
Total	69	100%

Question seven was set to highlight the participants' position on the benefit of group work versus individual one in developing their language abilities. As demonstrated in the table above, 66.7% of them reckoned that working in groups was more beneficial in enhancing their language abilities than working individually. While 16% of the participants

expressed their uncertainty, only 7% did not consider that group work could be more valuable than the individual one to boost their language abilities. Thus, more than half of the respondents seem to be convinced of the CL method merits in increasing their linguistic abilities.

Q8. Please indicate the frequency of your teacher's assignment to perform Group/pair works.

Table 13

Frequency of the Teachers' Assignment of Group/Pair Works

Frequency ↓ Types of Tasks		→	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	No Answer	Total
a. Pair Work	F		10	28	28	01	-	02	69
	%		14.5	40.6	40.6	1.4	-	2.9	100%
b. Group Work	F		03	16	30	18	01	01	69
	%		4.3	23.2	43.5	26.1	1.4	1.4	100%

It was necessary to address this question to inspect how the learners were assigned group/pair works in the classroom context. As table 13 shows, it seems that pair works were often assigned as claimed by 40.6% of participants. Similarly, the same number (40.6%) reported that their teachers sometimes opted for pair works in the classroom. Nevertheless, 14.5% of them opted for the 'always' option, and only one participant (1.4%) chose 'rarely'. Merely 2.9% of them did not provide an answer, and none of them stated that their teachers never assigned pair works. As for group works, 43.5% of the participants, as the highest percentage, reported that their teachers sometimes set them to work in groups. While 26.1% stated they were rarely set to work in groups, 23.2% opted for the 'sometimes option. Surprisingly, 4.3% of them claimed that their teachers always relied on group work assignment. Only one student (forming 1.4%) selected the 'never' option, and the same

percentage preferred not to opt for any suggested options. In studying these results, one can deduce that pair works assigned compared to group works.

Q9. The teacher sets you to work on group/pair work oral presentations in:

Table 14

Context of Performing Group/Pair Work Oral Presentations

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Classroom context	37	53.6
b. Outside classroom context	02	2.9
c. both contexts	27	39.1
d. No answer	03	4.3
Total	69	100%

The target behind addressing this question was to consider the context in which the participants performed their oral tasks. More than half of the population (53.6%) asserted that group/pair works were conducted in the classroom context, while only 2.9% declared they did them outside it. 39.1% of the respondents informed that these tasks were accomplished in both contexts (i.e., in and outside classroom contexts). The rest (4.3%) did not opt for any option. It is noteworthy to state that teachers should set the learners to prepare their oral presentations in and outside classroom contexts in espousing CL principles fittingly. In doing so, learners' social relationships might be better fostered.

Q10. In arranging group/pair work tasks, does your teacher

Table 15

Teachers' Practices in Arranging Group/Pair Work Tasks

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Explain and elucidate to the whole class how the task should be performed	37	53.6
b. Give the learners the freedom to decide about how to perform the task.	02	2.9
c. Discuss the ways of performing the task with each group	27	39.1
Total	69	100%

The tenth question was designed to investigate teacher's practices while arranging pair/group works in the classroom. As revealed in table 15, more than half of the respondents (53.6%) asserted that their teachers determined how the task should be done. 39.1% said that their teachers discussed the ways of performing oral tasks, and only 2.9% admitted that they were given the freedom to decide on the task performance. Thus, and as discussed in the second chapter, teachers should explain the procedures of performing tasks thoroughly to make CL thriving and productive. They should also teach the CL skills to train their learners to use them appropriately while doing tasks.

Q11. Does your teacher train you on how to work cooperatively to perform a task?

Table 16

Teachers' Training to Perform Tasks Cooperatively

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Yes	34	49.3
b. No	33	47.8
c. No answer	02	2.9

Total	69	100%
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This question was addressed to divulge the training teachers do to prepare their learners for working cooperatively on tasks. The findings are similar as 49.3% of the population admitted being instructed to perform tasks cooperatively while 47.8% stated that they did not. In addition, 2.9% of the participants provided no answer. To cooperate aptly, learners need to be well-coached and prepared before performing tasks cooperatively.

Q12. Which one (s) of the following do you adopt as a principle (s) while working in a group to perform an oral presentation?

Table 17

Adopted Principles while Working in Groups to Perform Oral Presentations

Options	Frequency	Percent(%)
a. You feel interdependent to your peers in the group, and each member in the group is responsible for making the whole performance successful (your success is related to their success and vice versa.)	27	28.7
b. You feel responsible for performing only your part of the task.	12	12.8
c. You feel that your part of the task should be the best among the others' parts.	17	18.1
d. You assist your peers to achieve their parts of the task.	20	21.3
e. You discuss/evaluate each time how well each group member functioned while performing his/her part.	18	19.1
Total	94	100%

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The reason behind asking this question was to query the participants' adopted strategies while working on oral presentations in groups. More importantly, it was designed to probe the most embraced CL principles among the learners. Hence, 28.7% of them stated that they felt interdependent with their peers in the group and that the success of the whole group performance is an achievement granted to every individual. While 21.3% of the respondents acknowledged that they assisted their peers to achieve their parts of the task, other 19.1% claimed that they discussed and evaluated each time how well every member in the group functioned while performing his/her part of the task. Moreover, 18.1% revealed that they felt that their part should be the best among the others' parts. Only 12.8% reported that they felt responsible for performing only their part of the task. In examining these findings, it is discernible that a considerable number of the participants leaned towards adopting positive interdependence and cooperating with their peers to present oral tasks. Put differently, (a) and (d) options, which demonstrated higher percentages in table 12, stand for the principle of positive interdependence.

Q13. When starting to work on a group/pair oral presentation, does your teacher distribute roles to the members of the groups?

Table 18

Teachers' Distribution of Roles Among Group Members

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Yes	17	24.6
b. No	49	71
c. Missing	03	4.3
Total	69	100%

Question thirteen was primarily designed to explore teachers' classroom practices of assigning roles to the CL group members. As exhibited in table 18, the majority (71%) of

the participants revealed that their teachers never distributed roles among group members, while 24.6% stated that their teachers never did so. Only 4.3% of the respondents preferred not to opt for an answer. Thus, and as reviewed in the theoretical part of the dissertation, assigning each member a role to undertake is of paramount importance to promote positive interdependence and individual accountability. Put it otherwise, not deciding on the role that each individual had to play in the group may not enhance their sense of belonging to the group and may even augment the risk of creating 'free-riders. Provided this happens, not all the learners will be truly cooperative, and most of them would rely on their peers.

Q14. To what extent do you assume responsibility while preparing an oral presentation cooperatively?

Table 19

The Extent of Assuming Responsibilities in Preparing Oral Presentations Cooperatively

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Extremely	25	36.2
b. Significantly	31	44.9
c. Moderately	7	10.1
d. Not at all	2	2.9
e. No answer	4	5.9
Total	69	100%

The present question was directed to shed light on how the participants assumed the responsibility and prepared cooperatively oral presentations. As demonstrated in table 19, most participants claimed that they considerably assumed responsibility while preparing their oral presentations cooperatively (36.2% opted for the 'extremely' option, while 44.9% selected 'significantly' as an option). While 10.1% of them stated they moderately assumed responsibility in preparing oral tasks, other 2.9% reported that they did not at all do so. However, 5.9% of them did not choose any of the suggested options. It can be inferred that

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the majority of the participants seem to be conscious of how important it is to feel responsible for preparing oral tasks.

Q15. Please respond to the following statements by showing the frequency of using the following principles by always selecting, *often*, *sometimes*, *rarely* and *never*.

Table 20

Frequency of Learners' Adherence to the CL Principles during Tasks' Performance

Principles	Frequency	Always	Often	Someti mes	Rarely	Never	No Answer	Total
a. During the preparation of the task, I constantly encourage my partner (s) by addressing positive feedback.	F	22	18	20	07	01	01	69
	%	31.9	26.1	29	10.1	1.4	1.4	100%
b. During the preparation of the task, I help my partner (s) whenever he/she/they find difficulty in understanding the task.	F	43	20	05	01	-	-	69
	%	62.3	29	7.2	1.4	-	-	100%
c. During the preparation of the task, I help my partner (s) to finish his/her/their part.	F	13	22	20	11	03	-	69
	%	18.8	31.9	29	15.9	4.3	-	100%
d. During the preparation of the task, I challenge my partner(s) 's conclusions and contributions for promoting the whole group performance.	F	04	15	27	13	06	04	69
	%	5.8	21.7	39.1	18.8	8.7	5.8	100%

The target behind setting the participants responses to the statements above was to enquire about the extent to which they adhered to the application of the basic principles of the CL method. As for the first item, which mirrors the application of face to face promotive interaction and positive interdependence principles, 31.9% of respondents underscored that they always and constantly encouraged their partners by addressing positive feedback in the course of their interaction, while 26.1% of them stated that they did often so. 29% admitted that they sometimes encouraged their partners by addressing positive feedback, and only 10.1% did rarely do so. One student (forming 1.4%) opted for the 'never' option, and another one (1.4%) did not provide an answer.

As far as the second item is concerned and which stands for the embrace of face-to-face promotive interaction and positive interdependence, a considerable number of the involved learners in this study (62.3%) reported that they always helped their partner(s) whenever s/he/ they found difficulties in understanding the task. Other 29% stated they often did so, while only 7.2% claimed that they sometimes supported their partners whenever they found problems while preparing the task, and only one participant (1.4%) stated s/he rarely did.

The third item in table 20 relates to the adoption of positive interdependence in preparing tasks. 18.8% of the participants declared that they always helped their partner(s) to finish their part of the task, other 31.9% affirmed they often did so. 29% of the target population asserted that they sometimes helped their partners to accomplish their parts, 15.9% said they rarely did, while only 4.3% admitted they never did.

Concerning the fourth item in table 20, which in essence was set to unveil the practices of face to face promotive interaction and group processing, only 5.8% of them reported they always challenged their partner(s) 's conclusions and contributions for better promotion of the group performance, 21.7% claimed they often did. A considerable number

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(39.1%) confirmed that they sometimes did; 18.7% opted for the 'rarely' option, while 8.7% of them stated they espoused this principle while preparing for task performance. Only 8.7% of the participants confirmed that they never did it, and 5.8% preferred not to respond to the statement.

In brief, it seems that the most principle to which the majority of the participants adhered while cooperating with the others is the third one, as shown in the table. Put differently, the participants' cooperation demonstrated as they helped their partners whenever they found obstacles in fulfilling their parts.

Q16. Along with the preparation for the group oral presentation, you:

Table 21

Learners' Behaviours during the Preparation of Group Oral Presentations

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Listen to your partner(s) to understand his/her/their perspectives	55	48.7
b. Provide constructive criticism.	12	10.6
c. Communicate with your partner(s) to accept differences in standpoints.	42	37.2
d. Do not tolerate others' opposing perspectives.	01	0.9
e. Feel marginalised and isolated as some peers manipulate and get control of the group discussion.	02	1.8
f. Shift away from the target of the assigned task and discuss other irrelevant issues.	01	0.9
Total	113	100%

Aiming to investigate the participants' behaviours in the oral group presentations, the six items in table 21 were set. As the table above exhibits, a considerable number of the participants (48.7%) stated they listened to their partner(s) in an attempt to understand his/her/their perspectives. Communicating with the other peers to accept differences in

standpoints is the second highly implemented behaviour as 37.2% opted for it. Providing constructive criticism did not seem highly assumed, as only 10.6% chose it as an option. Feeling marginalised and isolated because some peers manipulated and got control of the group discussion, not tolerating the other opposing perspectives and shifting away from the target of the assigned task and discussing other irrelevant issues were the least espoused behaviours (1.8%, 0.9% and 0.9% consecutively) by the participants. Thus, the findings generated from table 21 mean that interpersonal and small group skills, as a basic principle of CL, are by and large undertaken by most participants.

Q17. Once you finish the preparation for the oral presentation, do you reflect (think deeply) on the whole process in which the task was performed?

Table 22

Learners' Reflection on the Process of the Oral Task Performance

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Yes	64	92.8
b. No	05	7.2
Total	69	100%

The aim of asking this question was to investigate whether the participants reflected on the whole process of preparing for their oral task presentation and considering the extent to which group processing was implemented. Thus, the greatest majority of them (92.8%) acknowledged they did so, while only 7.2% revealed they did not. Thus, it is of paramount significance to reflect on the way the tasks were performed. Doing so is one of the most important practices CL groups should embrace, as revealed in the literature review of the present thesis.

Q18. If yes, you do it by:

Table 23

Ways of Practising Group Processing

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. evaluating each member's contribution to the work	22	31.9
b. Taking decisions so as to change unproductive contributions	16	23.2
c. Both	27	39.1
d. No answer	04	5.8
Total	69	100%

Question 18, which is a part of the abovementioned one, was principally posed to probe the participants' practices of group processing principle after performing tasks orally. The results revealed that 31.9% of the respondents evaluated each member's contribution to the work assigned to the group, while 23.2% informed that they decided to change the unproductive contributions. 39.1% (the highest percentage) opted for both preceding practices. The rest of them (i.e., 5.8%) did not at all respond to the statements. The findings divulge that a considerable number of the participants were aware of the worth of practising group processing, which is an exceedingly significant prerequisite in CL.

Q19. To what extent do you think meeting to work together before the oral presentation would help to provide opportunities to all the members to reflect on their achieved part before exposing it orally in front of the class?

Table 24

The Significance of Teammates' Meeting to Reflect on the Individuals' Performed Part of the Task

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Extremely	42	60.9
b. Significantly	21	30.4
c. Moderately	04	5.8
d. Not at all	02	2.9
Total	69	100%

The reason behind addressing this question was to investigate the extent to which the participants deemed teammates' meeting significant in terms of revisiting and reflecting on each individual's performed part of the task. As table 24 demonstrates, more than half of the informants (60.9%) considered these meetings extremely significant, and 30.4% opted for the 'significantly' option. Meeting teammates to rethink each individual's contribution in the task performance was conceived as moderately significant by 5.8%, and only 2.9% of them stated they did not think it was significant. Hence, the findings revealed that most participants seemed to be informed about how worthy it is to practise group processing to make their work successful.

Q20. When your OE teacher assigns you a task to perform with other peers, do you?

Table 25

Types of Cooperative Learning Groups

Options	Frequency	Percentage (%)
a. Keep working for many weeks with the same	27	39.1

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groupmates to perform many tasks (more than one session)?		
b. Work with different group mates each time to perform a task within each session?	33	47.8
c. Keep working for the whole academic year or at least a semester with the same groupmates to perform all the tasks?	08	11.6
d.No answer	01	1.4
Total	69	100%

Question 20 was addressed to infer the types of CL groups teachers added in their classes. As administered in the table above, 47.8% of the participants opted for the second statement. The latter stands for *informal CL group* type, in which learners work with different groupmates each time they are set to perform a task within each session. Other 39.1% affirmed that they kept working for many weeks with the same groupmates to perform many tasks (i.e., *formal CL Groups*). A minority (11.6%) opted for the third option (keep working for the whole academic year or at least a semester with the same groupmates to perform all the tasks). The latter option denotes the '*Cooperative Base Group*' type. One participant preferred not to provide an answer. Therefore, what can be concluded from the results yielded is that the informal CL group is mostly adopted in the Algerian EFL classroom contexts while the CL Base Group is not highly implemented.

Q21. Informing cooperative groups, does the teacher give you the freedom to select your partners in the group?

Table 26

Teachers' Practices of Forming Cooperative Learning Groups

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Yes	59	85.5
b. No	10	14.5
Total	69	100%

This question was asked to probe teachers' practice as to the formation of the CL groups. The participants were asked whether their teachers gave them the freedom to choose their groupmates. As revealed in the table, the greatest majority (85.5%) confirmed that their teachers did, while only 14.5% of them opted for the 'no' option. Giving learners the total freedom to select their partners is likely to result in having homogenous groups whose members are of parallel language abilities. Given that, it is crucially important that the teachers form themselves the groups to ensure having heterogeneous groups as the group members might have the opportunities to be mixed with other learners of different language levels.

Q22.How many peers are usually gathered per group?

Table 27

The Number of Learners per Group

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Two	20	29
b. Three	13	18.8
c. Four	29	42
d. Five	06	8.7
e. six and more	01	1.4
Total	69	100%

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To know more about the number of the students who work in groups, the participants were set to choose one option from the provided ones in the table above. A considerable number (42%) informed that they usually worked in four groups, while 29% stated that they worked in pairs. 18.8% of the informants reported that they were set to work in groups of three students, and 4.7% opted for the number 'five' option. Only 1.4% of them stated that s/he worked in groups of six and more students. It is noticeable that groups of four and pair groups are the most adopted ones while large groups are not highly formed.

Q23. While presenting pair/group work, does the teacher play a:

Table 28

Teachers' Role in Pair/Group Work Presentations

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Central role	18	26.1
b. Minor role	50	72.5
c. No answer	01	1.4
Total	69	100%

The previous question was set to explore the participants' standpoints about their teachers' role while performing pair and group works. The greatest majority of the respondents (72.5%) stated that their teachers did play a minor role, while 26.1% of them reckoned that their teachers' role was central in the classroom even with the performance of group and pair works. Only one participant (1.4%) did not provide an answer. In a CL classroom, it is supposed that teachers should play a minor role compared to their learners' one, especially when their students are interacting in groups. Nonetheless, they have to play a central role in forming the groups, offering assistance to them, and making sure that the five principles of the CL method are fittingly applied.

Section Three: *Speaking Practices in the EFL Classroom*

Q24. In your perspective, speaking English as a foreign language is:

Table 29

Learners' Estimation of the Speaking Skill Process

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. An easy process	38	55.1
b. A complicated process	14	20.3
c. not sure	15	21.7
d. No answer	02	2.9
Total	69	100%

This question was set to inspect the participants' perspectives about the complexity of the speaking skill. The results demonstrated that more than half of them (55.1%) regarded the speaking skill as an easy process, while 20.3% of the participants admitted it was a complicated process. However, 21.7% of the respondents expressed their uncertainty and 2.9% were reserved and preferred not to answer. The results of this question positively correlate with the ones yielded in (Q1) as more than half of the participants deemed their speaking skill was very good. Put otherwise, those students who perceived their speaking skill level as good are the ones who considered speaking English an easy process.

The participants were solicited to explain their answers. Thus, thirty of them (43.4%) further elucidated their answers. 36.8% of the participants (out of 55.1%) who deemed the speaking skill as an easy process and elucidated their viewpoints provided a set of answers that can be summarised as follows:

- Being motivated to learn English makes the fact of speaking it an easy process.
- Being exposed a lot to input through listening intensively to the natives speaking in movies and songs makes speaking the language an easy process.

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- Speaking English easily entails much practice. The more EFL learners speak, the less complicated the process of speaking might be.
- As the learners think in English, speaking it might be easy.
- English grammar and vocabulary are easy to be learnt and so is speaking.

As for the eight participants who considered speaking English a complicated process, they provided some arguments that are categorised under the same ideas:

- The non-mastery of pronunciation and vocabulary make speaking English a challenging process.
- Being urged to produce long sentences while speaking is in itself an inhibiting factor.
- Speaking English requires high self-esteem and risk-taking, and much practice.
- Many things should be memorised and learnt before being able to speak the language fluently.

Concerning the explanations provided by the participants who were unsure about the complexity or the easiness of the process of speaking English, five of them voiced their views by stating the following arguments:

- The topic of discussion is the factor that makes speaking an easy/complicated process.
- The amount of vocabulary background about the issue of discussion makes speaking easy or challenging as a process.
- The way the learner perceives the language and the extent of his/her willingness to speak determines the complexity of the speaking process.

Q25. Which of the following do you think most develops EFL learners' speaking skill?

Table 30

Learners' Consideration of the Factors Developing their Speaking Skill

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Listening to native speakers/ competent speakers of the language	18	26.1
b. Practising the language with other speakers of the language (as teachers and peers	06	8.7
c. Both	45	65.2
Total	69	100%

The reason behind addressing this question was to consider the participants' viewpoints on the factors that could best develop their speaking skill. As table 30 exhibits, a great majority of respondents (65.2%) stressed the importance of both suggested factors, i.e., namely listening to natives and speakers that are more competent (receiving input) and practising the language with other speakers such as teachers and peers (output production). Nevertheless, 26.1% regarded listening to natives and more competent speakers (exposure to input) as the best factor that may develop their speaking skill. Only 8.7% put the output production (practising the speaking skill) at the heart of developing the previously mentioned skill. The results, in effect, reflect the participants' knowledge about the significance of both the input and output in the process of learning the speaking skill.

Q26. Would you please rank the following from the most to the least important in terms of focus while speaking by using numbers: (1. Most important 2. Important 3. least important)

Table 31

Aspects most Focussed on while Speaking

Options	Frequency	Percentage (%)	
a. Accuracy (using correct pronunciation/grammar/vocabulary ?	most important	39	56.5
	important	19	27.5
	least important	03	4.3
	No answer	08	11.6
	Total	69	100%
b. Fluency (communicating with no difficulties/pauses and hesitations)?	most important	21	30.4
	important	17	24.6
	least important	21	30.4
	No answer	10	14.5
	Total	69	100%
c. Complexity of the produced speech (in terms of the structure and the varieties of discourse)?	most important	04	5.8
	important	21	30.4
	least important	32	46.4
	No answer	12	17.4
	Total	69	100%

While speaking, the participants were solicited to rank the speaking components from the most to the least important to perceive the participants' primacy. Thus, as exhibited in the table above, most of them stated that accuracy was their major focus, as 56.5% considered it the most important aspect. Fluency was the next major focus as 30.4% of them declared that it was a primacy for them while speaking English. Nevertheless, language complexity seems to be the least regarded aspect while performing orally, as 46.4% believed it was the least important aspect of fluency and accuracy. The results reflect the participants' propensity to produce accurate language in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. Nevertheless, they seem reluctant to make their speech complex by generating varieties of discourse and structures.

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Q27. While evaluating the students' oral presentations, how often does the teacher focus on the following?

Table 32

Frequency of Teachers' Focus on Speaking Components in the Oral Presentation Evaluation

Aspects	Frequency	→	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	No	Total
a- Pronunciation (stress/intonation..)	F		38	14	08	03	02	04	69
	%		55.1	20.3	11.6	4.3	2.9	5.8	100%
b- Grammar Correctness	F		32	17	10	05	-	05	69
	%		46.4	24.6	14.5	7.2	-	7.2	100%
c- Vocabulary	F		28	24	07	03	-	07	69
	%		40.6	34.8	10.1	4.3	-	10.1	100%
d- The flow of speech and spontaneity	F		14	14	26	07	01	07	69
	%		20.3	20.3	37.7	10.1	1.4	10.1	100%
e- The content of speech	F		33	16	13	02	-	05	69
	%		47.8	23.2	18.8	2.9	-	7.2	100%

It was necessary to address such a question to consider the components that teachers focussed on more in evaluating learners' oral performances. As far as pronunciation accuracy is concerned, more than half of the participants (55.1%) revealed that their teachers always focused on it while evaluating their oral presentations, while 20.3% stated they often did. 11.6% of the respondents reported that their teachers sometimes considered pronunciation in assessing their oral tasks. Only 4.3% and 2.9% of them opted for 'rarely' and 'never' options, respectively. 5.8% of the involved population did not pick any of the suggested options.

Regarding the second aspect, namely grammar correctness (accuracy), many participants (46.4%) revealed that their teacher always underscored it whilst evaluating the

performed oral tasks. 24.6% stated that their teachers' grammar accuracy was often borne in mind, while other 14.5% reported that their teachers sometimes did. Only 7.2% opted for the 'rarely' option, equally 7.2% did not select an item, and no one opted for 'never'.

As revealed by many participants (40.6%), the teachers always focused on vocabulary, while 34.8% of them highlighted that it was often a priority in evaluating their oral output production. 10.1% of them opted for the 'sometimes' option, while 4.3% chose 'rarely' as an answer. No learners opted for the 'never' alternative. Meanwhile, 10.1% did not choose any of the suggested options.

The flow of speech and spontaneity seemed to be less targeted, as the findings in table 32 shows. Only 20.3% of the participants reported that their teachers always underscored speech flow and spontaneity into consideration. The same number (20.3%) opted for the 'often' option. 37.7%, as the highest percentage, uttered that their teachers sometimes emphasised speech flow and spontaneity, while only 10.1% opted for 'rarely' as an answer. The same number (10.1%) were passive as they did not pick any of the provided items and one participant (1.4%) opted for the 'never' option.

Finally, yet importantly, while a considerable number (47.8%) of the respondents announced that their teachers always pointed out the content of speech in evaluating the orally performed tasks, other 32.3% of them uttered that their teachers often did. Only 18.8% of the respondents chose the 'sometimes' option and 2.9% selected 'rarely'. 7.2% did not respond to the statement, and no participant stated that his/her teacher never accentuated speech content in the evaluation of oral performed tasks.

28. To what extent do you usually feel anxious while communicating verbally with your peers/teacher?

Table 33

The Extent of Feeling Anxious while Communicating Verbally

Options	Frequency	Percentage(%)
a. Extremely	12	17.4
b. Significantly	25	36.2
c. Moderately	18	26.1
d. Not at all	10	14.5
e. No answer	04	5.8
Total	69	100%

The target behind asking this question was to probe how participants felt anxious all through the speech production. Thus, the findings revealed that a considerable number (36.2%) were significantly prone to language anxiety whenever they interacted verbally with other interlocutors (as teachers and peers). 17.4% of them reported that they extremely endured this inhibiting factor. Other 26.1% of the informants asserted that they experienced language anxiety moderately in the process of verbal interaction with other speakers. Nevertheless, 14.5% declared they never did, and 5.5% did not react to the question. Accordingly, one might deduce that most participants seem prone to language anxiety, albeit the majority had reckoned that their speaking abilities were good. The majority also deemed speaking English an easy process. Thus, the results gathered from questions (Q1. Q24 and Q28) are in some way contradicting.

Q29. If (a/b/c/ options are chosen), which of the following strategy (es) do you make use of to overcome communication breakdown?

Table 34

Learners' Adopted Strategies to Overcome Communication Breakdown

Options	Frequency	Percent (%)
a- Paraphrasing, using synonyms.	24	32
b- Self-monitoring and self-evaluating your speech by noticing your language first and then reconsidering/revising what you said beforehand.	28	37.3
c- Repeating parts of your speech, asking your interlocutor to clarify more, using examples to explain concepts and asking for help with difficult words.	22	29.3
d- Others	01	1.3
Total	75	100%

The participants who asserted their exposure to language anxiety while communicating verbally with others were requested to respond to this question. The latter was inserted to explore the major communicative strategies they embraced to overcome communication breakdown. As table 34 exhibits, self-monitoring and self-evaluation speech by noticing the produced output and then revisiting it seems to be the most espoused strategy as more than 37.3% of them opted for it. Paraphrasing via using synonyms was also highly implemented as a compensation strategy to avoid communication breakdown, as 32% selected it. The third used strategy was the repetition of parts of speech, and asking for further clarification from the other interlocutors was chosen by 29.3% of the respondents. Studying the previously demonstrated findings denotes that many of the involved participants seem to be on the right path of learning the speaking skill as they deliberately re-examined their produced speech instead of expecting the others to do so.

Q30. Which one(s) of the following tasks are you assigned to perform in OE classes?

Table 35

Types of Tasks Assigned in OE Classes

Options	Frequency	Percentage (%)
a. Communication gap activities (in which you complete a task with other partners in the group, such as puzzles, describing things...etc.)	20	22.2
b. Discussion tasks and debates.	43	47.8
c. Role plays.	27	30
Total	69	100%

The aim of addressing question 30 was to investigate the types of tasks OE teachers usually assigned to the participants in the class. As perceived in table 35, most respondents (47.8%) stated that discussion tasks and debates are allocated, while 30% opted for role-plays. Only 22.2% of them affirmed that they were set to perform communication gap activities. Indeed, discussion tasks and debates are among the best alternatives available to the teachers of the speaking skill to promote their learners' fluency and decrease their language anxiety in the classroom. These tasks are also pivotal to enthuse the EFL learners to express their opinions in a less rigid way, as they also promote learners-learners-interaction.

Q31. How often does the teacher rely on the following types of assessment to evaluate the students' oral presentations?

Table 36

Frequencies of Assessment Types of Learners' Presentations

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	No Answer	Total
Frequency→							
Assessment Types↓	F 20	24	12	01	-	12	69

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a. Teacher assessment.	%	29	34.8	17.4	1.4	-	17.4	100%
b. Peer assessment	F	13	16	25	03	03	09	69
	%	18.8	23.2	36.2	4.3	4.3	13	100%
c- Self-assessment	F	18	21	13	05	03	09	69
	%	26.1	30.4	18.8	7.2	4.3	13	100%

Question 31 was set to enquire about the most adopted types of assessment in the OE module classes. As demonstrated in the above table, 24% of the participants claimed that teachers' assessment is often adopted, while 29% stated their teachers always relied on their assessment to evaluate the orally performed tasks. 17.4% of them revealed that the teachers 'rarely' espoused this type of assessment. The same number (17.4%) did not opt for an answer.

In considering the second type of assessment, namely peers' assessment, 36.2% of the participants affirmed that they 'sometimes' exercised peer assessment, while 32.2% of them reckoned that they often did evaluate their peers' performance. Other 18.8% selected the 'Always' option, Only 4.3% of the participants selected the 'rarely' option. Similarly, 4.3% opted for never 'option', and 13% of the involved population did not opt for an option.

As far as the self-assessment is concerned, 30.4% of the informants stated that their teachers often set them to evaluate their own performance, while 26.1% underscored that their teachers always did. However, 18.8% of the respondents reported that self-assessment was sometimes exercised, and only 7.2% stated they were rarely set to evaluate their own contribution. Other 4.3% claimed that they never self-evaluated their oral performances; meanwhile, 13% did not pick any suggested options.

In reconsidering the results discussed above, it seems that teachers' assessment is the most embraced type in the practices of OE teachers compared to the other two types.

Q32. After performing your group/pair work oral presentations does your teacher:

Table 37

Teachers' Practices of Evaluating Group/Pair Work Oral Presentations

Options	Frequency	Percentage (%)
a- Evaluate and give feedback about the presentation of each individual?	18	26.1
b- Evaluate and give feedback about the overall presentation?	30	43.5
c- Evaluate and give feedback about each individual's performance and then evaluate the whole presentation?	14	20.3
d. No answer	07	10.1
Total	69	100%

The above question was set to bring to light the basic practices teachers adopted in evaluating group/pair work oral performances. As demonstrated in table 37, many participants (43.5%) acknowledged that their teachers evaluated and gave feedback about the overall group presentation. Other 26.1% stated that evaluating each individual's presentation was the major practice their teachers espoused in addressing feedback. Evaluating the individuals' performance primarily and then the group's one was selected by 20.3% of the participants while 10.1% of them were inactive, as they did not opt for any of the proposed items. The results revealed by the participants' responses indicate that teachers' practices of feedback are not aligned with the basic tenets of the CL. To be more precise, fostering individual accountability and positive interdependence denotes evaluating each member's contribution and the groups' one instead of focussing on the overall performance.

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Teachers would urge their learners to assume responsibility in fulfilling the task to make the groups' performance a thriving one.

Q33. When performing orally with your peers, do you:

Table 38

Learners' Preferences of Teachers' Evaluation Practices

Options	Frequency	Percent (%)
a. Prefer to get a grade (mark) upon your part in the oral presentation?	38	55.1
b. Prefer to get a grade upon the overall oral presentation (all the group members should get the same mark)?	27	39.1
c. No answer	04	5.8
Total	69	100%

Question 33 attempted to investigate the participants' preferences of their teachers' evaluation practices of the oral performances. As plainly displayed in the table above, more than half of the participants (55.1%) expressed their inclination to be evaluated upon their own part only. Nonetheless, 39.1% of them emphasised the necessity of grading all the teammates equally. Only 5.8% of them did not at responding to the question. Inspecting the results discussed above can denote the participants' individualistic learning orientation that contradicts the CL method's principles. Put differently, when learners feel positively interconnected to their peers in the CLL classroom, they have to be fully-fledged to accept the fact of being evaluated not only upon their contribution to the task but also upon the whole group performance. Unless learners are filled with the feeling of belonging to the group, they could not believe that their success takes place with the entire group's success.

Section Four: *Learning the Speaking Skill under the Cooperative Learning Method in the EFL Classroom.*

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Q34. Would you, please, indicate how much you agree with the following statements by ticking Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), Undecided (U), Strongly Disagree (SD) and no answer (NA).

Table 39

Learners' Attitudes towards the Application of the CL Method Principles in Learning the Speaking Skill

Frequency	SA	A	U	D	SD	NA	Total
1. Despite the fact that peers cooperate to achieve oral performances, each one is accountable /responsible for the whole task fulfilment.	28 40.6%	06 8.7%	01 1.4%	02 40.6%	27 39.1%	05 7.2%	69 100%
2. When set to work on an oral group task, learners should work and think cooperatively rather than competitively or individually.	33 47.8%	08 11.6%	03 4.3%	01 1.4%	17 24.6%	07 10.1%	69 100%
3. Cooperation with peers strengthens social relationships and may result in better oral performance.	18 26.1%	13 18.8%		01 1.4%	-	07 10.1%	69 100%
4. Successful oral presentations are a reward to every peer in the group.	27 39.1%		07 10.1%	09 13%	01 1.4%	08 11.6%	69 100%

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	20.3%					
	43.5%					
13. Negotiating meaning with other peers in the group gives a chance to learners observe how advanced speakers use complex language (complex grammar structures, the use of some genre discourses in different cultural settings).	14	17	05	03	06	69
	21	24.6%	7.2%	4.3%	13%	100%
	20.3%					
	30.4%					
14. Learners should be allowed and trained to self-assess/evaluate their oral performance.	03	07	30	18	10	
	05	10.1%	43.5%	26.1%		69
	4.3%					14.5 %
	7.2%					100%
15. Learners should be allowed and trained to assess/evaluate their peers' oral performance.	01	14	28	07	10	69
	9	20.3%	40.6%	10.1%		14.5%
	1.4%					100%
	13%					
16. The teacher should be the only one who evaluates/assesses learners' oral performances.	08	15	13	08	08	69
	17	21.7%	18.8%	11.6%		11.6%
	11.6%					100%
	24.6%					
17. The speaking classes should be controlled by the learners and the teacher's role should be minimized as much as possible.	11	16	13	03	10	69
	16	23.2%	18.8%	4.3%		14.5%
	15.9%					100%
	23.2%					

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18. Working cooperatively on oral tasks may lead to noisy oral classes.	05	12	11	11	12	69
	18	17.4%	15.9%	15.9%	17.4%	
	7.2%					100%
	26.1%					
19. Working cooperatively on oral tasks may lead to the total reliance on active peers.	10	14	09	04	11	69
	21	20.3%	13%	5.8%	15.9%	
	14.5%					100%
	30.4%					
20. Working cooperatively on oral tasks may create conflicts among peers.	12	13	16	10	09	69
	09	18.8%	23.2%	14.5%		13%
	17.4%					100%
	13%					
21. The teacher should distribute different roles to the groupmates to ensure that every peer effectively works on his/her part of the task.	22	12	05	02	09	69
	19	17.4%	7.2%	2.9%	13%	100%
	31.9%					
	27.5%					
22. Listening to the other peers in the group helps students to develop their speaking performance	4	11	11	9	6	
	28	16%	16%	13%	8.6%	
	5.8%					100%
	40.5%					

This section aimed to bring the participants' attitudes towards applying the CL method in the learning of the speaking skill. This section is significantly important as it could unveil the respondents' stances on adopting the CL method principles in learning the speaking skill in the classroom. Therefore, it was arranged in the form of a Likert Scale to facilitate its internal consistency reliability indices using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient via SPSS software. The reliability index across the fourth section of the questionnaire, as displayed in the table below, is .715, which is considered a good index (more than .70).

Table 40

Reliability Indices of Section Four of the Questionnaire

Cronbach Alpha	Number of Items
,715	22

As demonstrated in Table 39, twenty-two items were set to stimulate the target population to express their standpoints about applying some principles of the method, as mentioned earlier in the OE module classes. The results would reveal the extent of their adherence to espouse these basic principles in the classroom.

The first statement was primarily set to probe the participants' perspectives on individual accountability in performing oral tasks. 79.7% of the participants stated that they agreed that peers should feel accountable and responsible for the whole task fulfilment although they cooperate to achieve oral performances. On the other hand, only one participant, 4.3%, expressed his/her disagreement with the statement mentioned above strongly disagreed with it. While 8.7% of the participants were undecided about their answers, 7.3% chose no answer. Hence, it seems that a considerable number of the participants favour adopting individual accountability while cooperating with other peers to perform oral tasks. The results of this question strongly corroborate with the ones yielded in question fourteen.

Statement two was set to enquire about the learners' readiness to adopt fully and adhere to positive interdependence. As table 39 exhibits, the greatest majority (72.4%) believed that they ought to think cooperatively rather than competitively or individually. Only 5.8% disagreed with the statement that stands for the adoption of the positive interdependence principle. While 11.6% of them were uncertain about the statement, the other 10.1% did not opt for an answer. Thus, the highest percentage demonstrates the extent

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The third statement was set to inquire about the participants' attitudes towards cooperation in developing social relationships and oral performance. As shown in table 39 (item 3), 69.7% of the respondents expressed their agreement, and only 1.4% did not concur. Other 18.8% were undecided about the answer, and 10.1% did not respond to the statement. The results denote that most participants are knowledgeable about the positive outcome of cooperation in strengthening social relationships and their oral performance. It is noteworthy to state that these findings positively corroborate with the ones yielded from question six and in which the participants acknowledged the benefits of the CL in developing social relationships.

To probe the participants' propensity for being positively interdependent, statement four was set. As table 39 highlights, 63.8% agreed that successful oral presentations were rewarded to every peer in the group. 14.5% did not agree with such a principle, 10.1% of the informants expressed their uncertainty about this concern, and 11.6% provided no answer. In analysing the results, a considerable number of the participants are mindful of the necessity of being rewarded upon the whole group performance. Given that, positive reward interdependence appeared to be espoused by many participants while performing orally in groups.

As for the positive outcome granted by the verbal interaction, the greatest majority 78.2% of the respondents, endorsed that it gave them more opportunities to practise the language than individual presentations. While Only 5.8% of the participants disagreed with the concept mentioned above, 7.2% were undecided about the answer, and the other 8.7% preferred not to respond to statement 5 in table 39. These results may suggest that the involved learners in the present study were informed about the significance of being exposed

to input to generate output. It is only by interacting verbally with others that EFL learners are offered chances to practise their speaking skill.

Statements six, seven and eight in the table above were set to consider the effect of cooperation on some affective factors, namely anxiety, motivation and self-esteem. The sixth statement aimed to investigate whether the participants held positive attitudes towards cooperation in decreasing anxiety while speaking in the classroom. 24.7% conceded that cooperating with the others did diminish their speaking anxiety, while 26.1% did not believe so. Nevertheless, 36.2% were undecided about the answer to provide, and 13% chose no option. Given the findings, it appears that cooperation was not perceived to be beneficial in reducing their language anxiety. It is noteworthy to state that these results do, by and large, confirm the ones yielded in question five (item i), in which less than half of the participants deemed CL advantageous in decreasing language anxiety. Regarding motivation (statement 7 in table 39), 60.8% of the respondents agreed that cooperation enhanced their motivation and willingness to speak, while 10.1% did not. 18.8% expressed their uncertainty about the issue, while 10.1% did not respond to the statement. Hence, the results may indicate that cooperatively working is the engine that boosts EFL learners' motivation to take more risks and initiatives to speak in the classroom. As far as the last affective factor is concerned (statement 8 in table 39), more than half of the participants (66.6%) concurred that cooperation developed their self-esteem while speaking; meanwhile, other 7.2% disagreed with the statement. 10.1% of the informants were undecided about their stance, and 15.9% were reluctant to express their viewpoints. A percentage of 66.6% of the participants asserted the efficacy of the CL method in enhancing the motivation to speak, which denotes that they deemed the CL method fruitful in that sense.

To investigate the participants' perceptions of how cooperation could affect their language abilities statements 9, 10, 11 and 12 in table 39 were set. As the table demonstrates

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(item 9), 68.1% of them concurred that cooperating with peers developed their accuracy as they were given chances to notice more and correct their grammar mistakes, while the other 14.4% disagreed with the concept. Only 4.3% of the respondents were undecided about the answer, and 13% did not choose any proposed options. Thus, the results indicate that more than half of the participants recognise the CL method's significance in boosting their grammar accuracy. Moreover, cooperation was considered efficient in enlarging EFL learners' vocabulary repertoire (item 10) by a considerable number (69.6%). Surprisingly, only 4.3% of them did not believe so, 5.8% of them were not sure about their stances, and 10.1% did not look at all voice their perspectives. Thus, the results demonstrate that vocabulary background might be enhanced and the peers' cooperation from the participants' perspectives. Regarding pronunciation accuracy (statement 11), the greatest majority (78.3%) of the participants agreed that cooperation could help them correct their pronunciation mistakes, and only 4.3% of them did not think so. While 5.8% were uncertain about their answers, the other 11.6% were passive as they did not opt for any option. As far as Fluency is concerned (statement 12), more than half of the informants (63.8%) agreed that cooperation could develop it, and only a minority (7.2%) did not believe so. 17.4% expressed their uncertainty about the concern, and 11.6% preferred not to voice their standpoints. The overall findings reveal that most EFL participants in the current study estimate cooperation efficacious in improving language features and abilities as accuracy and Fluency.

As for statement 13, more than half of the respondents (50.7%) asserted that negotiating meaning with other peers gave them the chance to observe how the advanced speakers made complex language (in terms of grammar structures and discourse genre variety). Nevertheless, only 15.8% of them did not believe so. While 24.6% expressed their uncertainty about the concern above, 13% of them did not respond to the statement. It implies that half of the respondents acknowledge the significance of interacting with their peers as

in doing so, they would be involved in the process of meaning negotiation, which is at the heart of SLA.

As self-assessment/evaluation and peer-assessment are basic practices of the CL (group processing element), statement 14 and 15 in table 34 were addressed to elicit information about the extent to which these types of assessment were exercised. As demonstrated in table 34, group processing was valued as a key principle to adopt by only 11.5% of the respondents who believed that learners ought to be trained to exercise self-assessment and peer assessment in evaluating oral tasks. On the other hand, 69.6% did not agree with the significance of being self-trained to evaluate their oral performances. Other 10.1% were uncertain about their attitudes, and the rest (8.7%) did not respond to the statement. Peer-assessment was likewise unvalued by more than half of the informants (50.7%) as 40.6% of them expressed their strong disagreement with the necessity of being trained and allowed to evaluate their peers' oral performances (statement 15 in the table above) while other 10.1% selected 'disagree' option. Some (20.3%) were undecided about their answers, and the other 14.5% preferred not to respond to the statement. The findings yielded from the two statements mentioned above (14 and 15) denote that assessment with its two types, namely: self-assessment and peer-assessment, is not valued by the greatest majority. Hence, the results imply that group processing, in which self and peer assessment should be adopted, is neither espoused in their practices nor perceived as significant from the participants' stances.

In line with the assessment issue, the participants were asked to express their viewpoints about having their oral performances evaluated exclusively by their teachers in statement 16). Thus, 11.6% stated that they strongly agreed with the concern, while 24.6% opted for the 'agree' option. Contrariwise, 18.8% disagreed with teachers' final evaluation of their oral performances, and 11.6% of them strongly disagreed. 21.7% of the participants

were unsure about the answer, and 11.6% were passive as they did not opt for any suggested options. So, these findings seem to disagree with the ones yielded from statements 14 and 15. Put otherwise; there is a contradiction in the responses generated from the three statements (14, 15 and 16) as the participants did not opt for any of the types of evaluation; they did not opt for self and peer evaluation, nor did they favour teachers' evaluation.

As discussed in the literature review, teachers have a role to play in a CL classroom, yet their role should not minimise the learners' one. Therefore, statement 17 was set to probe the participants' perspectives about the role both teachers and learners play in the speaking classes. As displayed in table 39, 15.9% of the informants strongly agreed that the learners should control speaking classes and the teacher should play a minor role compared to the one played by learners. Likewise, 23.2% of them agreed about the necessity of assigning the speaking classes to the learners and minimising the role of the teacher. Similarly, 23.2% of the respondents were undecided about the concern. Some (18.8%) agreed with the suggested statement, and the rest (14.5%) did not respond. It seems that not all of the participants are convinced that speaking classes should be entirely considered as privacy to the EFL learners regardless of the pivotal roles teachers must play.

When asked to voice their perspectives on the possibility of having noisy classes due to the application of the CL method (statement 18), 7.2% stated that they strongly believed so, and 26.1% of them agreed. Nevertheless, 15.9% of the respondents disagreed with the statement, and the other 15.9% strongly did. Moreover, 17.4% did not voice their stances, and the same number (17.4%) were undecided about the answer. The findings demonstrate that the highest percentage do believe that noise is not a problematic matter when putting into practice the CL method.

In line with the drawbacks that might be generated with the application of the CL and which were thoroughly discussed in the literature review of the present thesis, the

participants were solicited whether they thought that working cooperatively on oral tasks may lead some members to be reliant on active peers (statement 19 in table 34). Thus, the highest percentage (30.4%) consented to the statement, and 14.5% strongly believed so. Moreover, 13% of the informants disagreed with this concern, and only 5.8% strongly did. Added to this, a considerable percentage (20.3%) were not sure about their viewpoints, and the other 15.9% were passive, as they did not provide an answer. In scrutinising the results, it is quite plain that a considerable percentage (44.9%) of the participants consider that cooperating with others can lead to the 'free-rider effect' that was discussed in the theoretical part of the dissertation in hand.

Among the major shortcomings of implementing CL is the upsurge of conflicts among peers, as discussed in the theoretical chapters. Thus, as a reaction to the statement (20), 23.2% of the involved population stated that they disagreed that cooperatively working may develop conflicts in the group, and 14.5% of them strongly did. On the other hand, 17.4% strongly concurred with the statement, and 13% opted for 'agree on the option'. Thus, having a percentage of (37.7%) who asserted that cooperation might not lead to conflicts among peers while working on oral tasks demonstrates their openness to socialise with the others that are highly required in CL classrooms. Pondering on the results obtained from statements 18 and 19 discussed above revealed that a considerable percentage did not contemplate that noise and free-rider effects as the main shortcomings of CL implementation.

As for the penultimate statement (21), 31.9% strongly agreed that the teacher ought to distribute roles to the groupmates to ensure that everyone is effectively working on his/her part of the task, and so did 27.5% of the task them as they opted for 'agree' option. On the other hand, only 2.9% strongly disagreed with the aforementioned statement, and the other 7.2% expressed their disagreement. A considerable percentage (17.4%) of the participants

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reported that they were unsure about the answer, and the rest (13%) did not respond to the question. The findings denote that more than half of them (59.4%) valued the necessity of attributing roles to each member to avoid the 'free rider' effect and make sure every student did his/her fair share in the task performance.

Last but not least, in an attempt to investigate what attitudes the participants hold towards the put into practice of interpersonal and small group skill, they were solicited to respond to statement 22 in table 39. As demonstrated in the table, the highest percentage (40.5%) reported that they agreed that listening to their peers helped them develop their speaking performances, and so do 5.8% who strongly agreed with that concept. Nevertheless, 16% opted for the 'disagree' option, and the other 13% expressed their strong disagreement.

The following figure recapitulates the responses generated from section four of the questionnaire and in which the participants' attitudes towards adopting the CL method principles in learning the speaking skill are put into plain words.

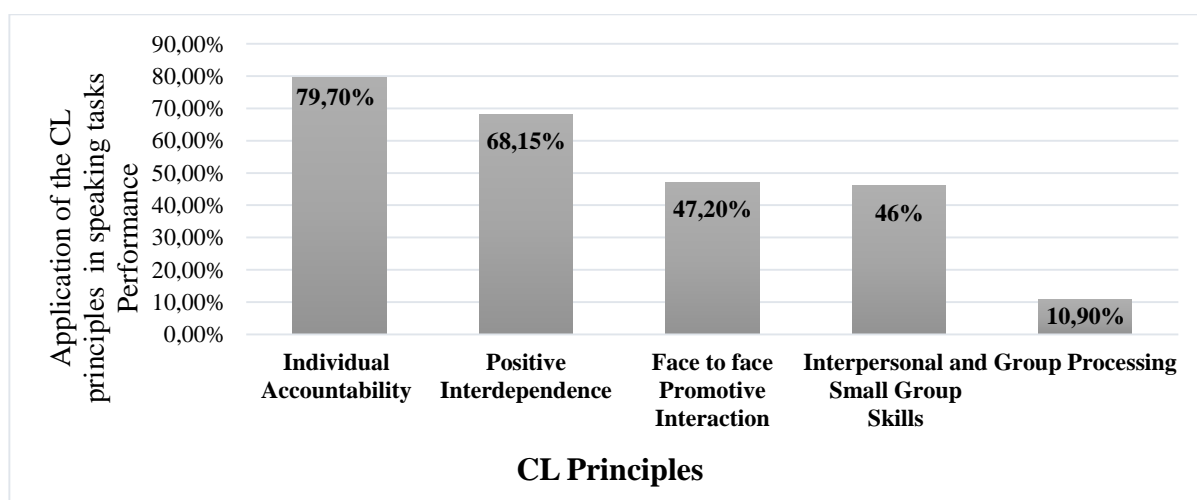


Figure 13 Learners' consideration about the CL principles' implementation in learning the speaking skill

Section Five: *Further Suggestions*

Q35. Please add any suggestions or comments on the learning of the speaking skill under the cooperative language method.

The last section of the questionnaire was set to elicit as much relevant information as possible from the respondents on learning the speaking skill under the CL method. It is worth noting that only 31 participants out of 69 (i.e. 44.9%) provided further suggestions that are listed subsequently. The answers revolving around the same concepts are categorised and summarised subsequently in broad points:

- Cooperative learning should be implemented in speaking classes as it paves the way for the learners to acquire new vocabulary and decreases conflicts among them.
- Learning to speak is not a matter of cooperation; it is rather a personal effort that the learner has to make to enhance his/her speaking abilities.
- Speaking can but only develop in interacting with other peers. Therefore teaching it under the CL method would lead to better results.
- It is a must that every member in the group should get equal opportunities to speak for the CL method to be as thriving as expected
- Regardless of the merits, that can be guaranteed by implementing the method in learning the speaking skill as acquiring many linguistic skills and revisiting the others' mistakes while speaking. Nonetheless, teachers should control the noise that is likely to occur as peers interact in groups.
- Teachers need to adopt strategies to help their learners cooperate effectively and make sure that everyone is contributing effectively
- Teachers' role should be minimised as much as possible while setting learners to cooperate in speaking module classes.

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- Teachers should distribute roles to the group members while assigning oral presentations.
- CL method is a preliminary step to prepare individuals to be more mature to perform orally. Nevertheless, all the members of the group should work seriously.
- Cooperation should not diminish competition among teammates in speaking classes.
- Speaking cannot be ultimately developed and interacting with other peers; listening to the natives also helps learners promote it.
- Cooperating with others in learning the speaking skill is efficient to decrease learners' anxiety and promote their self-esteem.
- CL should be entertaining to make learners enjoy interacting verbally with their peers.
- CL paves the way for learners to practise more their speaking skill as pronunciation.
- Granting bonus marks for more daring learners to speak will stimulate them to take more risks.

The statements provided by the participants reflect their tendency to learn the speaking skill cooperatively. They contended the responsibility that every individual should assume while working in groups, however. Dissecting their answers indicates their positive attitudes towards the practice of the method in the learning process of the speaking skill. The answers also mirror their positive attitudes towards the CL method. Nevertheless, they asserted the teachers' responsibility in controlling some detrimental effects of the learners' cooperation.

4.4. Discussion of the Keystone Findings

The findings yielded from the questionnaire unveiled many issues on applying the CL method in learning the speaking skill. As revealed in the results, most participants seemed to be enthusiastic about developing the skill above. Their willingness to promote it demonstrated in voicing their inclination to attend OE modules classes that are principally sketched to enhance speaking abilities. Moreover, having many participants who expressed

their willingness to cooperate with other peers while performing oral tasks can only denote their readiness to learn within a CL context rather than learning in an individualistic or a competitive context. Put otherwise; this indicates their predisposition to be effectively cooperative.

The penchant for collaborating with others might have been stemmed from the participants' positive attitudes towards the concept of cooperation. The latter, as reckoned by the majority of the respondents, could lead to many positive outcomes. Cooperating with the others in the classroom, as acknowledged in the responses, could decrease some inhibiting psychological factors such as language anxiety, to which many EFL learners were prone while speaking the EFL. Furthermore, cooperation could uphold their self-esteem and promote their motivation to learn. In addition to that, the method was deemed powerful in reinforcing the individuals' psychological facets and social ones. Put otherwise, along the course of cooperating with the others, peers are in a way or another shaping and nurturing their social relationships. Cooperation was seen over and above potent in developing language abilities such as pronunciation accuracy, fluency and language complexity, as disclosed in the findings. Nevertheless, it was not that vigorous in developing metacognitive strategies and retention from the respondents' stances.

Considering the extent to which the participants embraced the basic precepts of CL is one of the central questions the present study attempted to answer. Hence, the findings revealed that not all the five principles underlying the method mentioned above were adequately espoused in learners' classroom practices. Put otherwise, individual accountability and positive interdependence were substantially deemed valuable by almost all the participants, and so were interpersonal and small group skills principle. On the other hand, the respondents demonstrated less commitment to apply group processing after performing oral tasks. Leaned towards being evaluated individually rather than having a

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holistic evaluation of the group performance can only signpost the participants' unconscious inclination to individualistic and competitive learning.

Concerning classroom practices, and as revealed in the participants' responses, the teachers assigned pair and groups work most of the time. Nevertheless, teachers neither allocated roles to individuals within the group nor allowed them to choose their peers. Moreover, as admitted by the participants, teachers preferred to evaluate the oral performance of the whole group instead of evaluating each member individually. Teachers are likely to nurture the 'free-rider effect' as elucidated in the theoretical chapters, which weakens their accountability and positive interdependence. Given that, it seems that assigning first-year learners to work on oral tasks is merely group work and not fully cooperative as roles are not assigned to each member, and no individual evaluation is addressed to them. As such, and as reviewed in the literature review, CL is not competently applied.

Conclusion

The chapter in hand analysed in-depth the findings yielded from the distributed questionnaire. The latter was devised to probe the attitudes of the Algerian EFL first undergraduate learners of Jijel University towards espousing the CL method principles in learning the speaking skill. The results demonstrated that most participants were inclined to espouse the method while learning to promote their verbal communication as they held positive attitudes towards the method principles' adoption. Furthermore, the findings revealed that not all the five precepts upon which the method is founded were fully applied. To be more precise, there was a tendency to embrace individual accountability more than the other principles. On the other hand, group processing was marginalised and not considered by most participants as they showed less tendency to be evaluated upon the whole group's performance and preferred to be evaluated individually. It reflected their individual

COOPERATIVE LEARNING AND EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILL: Students' Attitudes towards Learning the Speaking Skill through CL and competitive orientation while working on oral tasks in groups and denoted that some teachers and learners' classroom practices are not adequately aligned with what makes a group work genuinely cooperative.

CHAPTER FIVE: The Quasi-experimental Study

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Introduction

Conducting a quasi-experiment in the present study was meant to identify the CL method adoption results as a teaching instruction on EFL first year learners' speaking skill. More precisely, the study attempted to probe the efficacy of the aforementioned method as an independent variable on the development of the independent variable that is demonstrated in speech accuracy, speech fluency, and speech complexity. Therefore, the present chapter attempts to discuss the steps of conducting the quasi-experiment. It explains how the research validity, reliability and extraneous variables are considered in the treatment phase. The chapter advances the phases of the lessons adopted to teach the speaking skill with the participants. Finally, the chapter exposes the quasi-experiment's findings, with an overall discussion of the results.

5.1. The Design of the Quasi-Experiment

This section explains the treatment phase, how the speaking lessons were structured with both groups. However, before unveiling the steps of these lessons, issues related to validity and reliability need to be overtly advanced.

- The Quasi-experiment Validity

As the quasi-experimental research design does not provide full control over the variables, the researchers must be mindful of the threats pertaining to internal and external validity and consider these factors in their interpretation (Ary et al., 2009). Aligned with the same perspective, Dörnyei (2007) asserted that albeit the 'non-equivalent groups' is the utmost applied methodology in educational research when randomization is impractical and impossible, researchers have to be vigilant about the variables that may intervene and threaten the validity variable. Given that, the researcher who attempts to adopt a quasi-experimental research design needs to consider the initial group differences. Dörnyei (2007) suggested that the researcher may improve his quasi-experimental design by (a) avoiding

any situation whereby the students self-select themselves such as volunteering to be in the treatment group and (b) minimizing the pre-test differences between the control and the experimental group as much as possible (Dörnyei, 2007, p.178).

Among the various quasi-experimental research designs available in the educational realm, the *pre-test-post-test non-equivalent group* design is the most commonly used (Cohen *et al.*, 2007, p.283; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.142, Campbell and Stanley, 1963, p.47). The pre-test post-test non-equivalent group design, alternatively known as the static group comparison or pre-experimental group design or nonrandomized pre-test post-test design (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989; Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Ary *et al.*, 2010, p.316), is then adopted in the present study. As denoted earlier, the random sampling of the participants was not possible for administrative and institutional considerations. Accordingly, two prior existing groups were chosen from a total number of eleven groups (308). Albeit the pre-test post-test non-equivalent group design is considered advantageous as no re-arrangement or randomization is required, the internal validity of the research might be affected (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989; Griffiee, 2012).

Adopting the non-equivalent (nonrandomized) pre-test post-test is considered worthwhile as it paves the way for researchers to reach reasonable and plausible conclusions regardless of the impossibility of manipulating the variables fully. However, it might be prone to some bias and threats that put its internal validity into question. Ary *et al.* (2009) elucidated that the researcher should bear in mind that the cases in which the experimental group outperforms the control group significantly in the post-test, as the results might not be exclusively the outcome of the treatment the designated experimental group has received but to other bias as initial selection (Ary *et al.*, 2009). Accordingly, the researcher should be aware of any threats that might intervene to invalidate the findings. Griffiee (2004) defined

threats are “any condition which blinds or misleads researchers when they interpret their results” (as cited in Griffiee, 2009, p.75).

As the current research relies on the non-equivalent pre-test post-test group design, it was pivotal to anticipate any kind of threats that might intervene while conducting it. Griffiee (2009) explained that the researcher needs to consider these threats and bias before the research is initiated. In so doing, s/he makes the study sounder as to its internal validity. In research design, a study is stated to be internally valid if the findings are the outcome of variables that have been measured, manipulated, or controlled. The research findings might be internally invalid as long as they are deemed affected by factors other than those thought to have caused them (Dörnyei, 2007, p.52). Internal invalidity may also yield from the use of inadequate procedures and instruments, the occurrence of any unexpected problem during the experiment that can significantly modify the results (Dörnyei, 2007). Mackey& Gass (2005) put into plain words that internal validity portrays the extent to which the differences found for the dependent variable are directly related to the independent variable. They further added: “a researcher must control for (i.e., rule out) all other possible factors that could potentially account for the results” (p.109). Creswell (2012) classified the threats to internal validity into three basic categories: (a) threats related to the participants and their experiences; (b) threats related to the treatment used in the study and (c) threats in relation to the procedures of the study.

Manipulation of the Factors Affecting Internal Validity

Compared to true experimental research design, the quasi-experimental is more prone to internal invalidity, the design of which does not apply random sampling; thereby, internal validity is compromised (Salkind& Rasmussen, 2008, p.377). The quasi-experimental design is more subject to extraneous variables affecting its internal validity research design. An extraneous variable, as defined by Ary et al. (2009), is “a variable that

is not related to the purpose of the study but may affect the dependent variable” (p.268). Thus, to control the extraneous variables that are likely to intervene and that might negatively affect the present study results, the researcher followed the subsequent procedures as anticipatory and precautionary measures to decrease each of the findings.

Control of Extraneous variables Affecting the participants

- History

Campbell and Russo (1999) defined history: “events other than experimental treatments occur during the time between pretest and post-test observations. Such events produce effects that can mistakenly be attributed to differences in treatment. ” (as cited in Griffiee, 2012, p.76). Campbell & Stanley (1963) elucidated that history is a set of “events occurring between the first and second measurements in addition to the experimental variable” (p. 5). This events-if not controlled well- may affect the results of the whole experiment. The events are taking place between the preliminary phase of conducting the experiment and its end stand for the concept of history (Creswell, 2012). Albeit those events are outside the research study, they can alter the participants’ performance, as denoted by Dörnyei (2007). Seliger & Shohamy (1989) explained that time is pivotal and fundamental for the researcher to introduce treatment in an educational setting. Nevertheless, s/he needs to be aware of how the events might intervene while implementing the treatment. Creswell (2012) emphasised that no matter how cautious the researcher is about history threat, it would be impossible to tightly control the environment and fully manipulate all events in educational experiments.

Attempting to investigate the efficacy of the CL method in developing the EFL learners’ speaking skill, more precisely their accuracy, fluency, and language complexity, implies that the experimenter devotes a considerable amount of time (9 weeks) to introduce the treatment. Given that, the internal validity of the current study could have been biased by history threat. Thus, one of the keystone strategies the researcher adopted was to make

both the control and the experimental groups do activities of similar content during the experiment (except for the treatment) as suggested by Creswell (2012, p.304). Both the control and experimental groups were instructed the same type of activities that target similar language functions (see **section 5.1**)

- Maturation

Maturation is one of the major threats that are likely to affect the internal validity of the experimental design. In the words of Griffee (2012), maturation is: “the idea that participants may change over the time of the research, and this maturing affects the results, as opposed to the treatment. The change may be physical (age, fatigue) or psychological (interest or lack of interest)” (p.77). Seliger & Shohamy (1989, p.101) elucidated that as a factor, maturation will be more significant with the younger subjects than with older subjects, and it should be considered as an important variable to control. Dörnyei (2007) explained that maturation is not a threat to validity whenever the study is short. Nevertheless, the researcher should pay attention to whether physical or mental change with age might play a major role in longer-term studies (p.53).

As for the present study, the involved participants are not young as their age ranges from 17 years to 23 years. Table 41 demonstrates that more than half of the subjects in both groups are aged 18 years old (54.16% in the experimental group and 56% in control one). Therefore, the probability of facing such a threat is less implausible to occur. Griffee (2012) stated that one way to control the effect of maturation is to select subjects who share the same cognitive development level and “thus could be assumed to mature at about the same rate.” (p.77). Thereby, the researcher selected the first year EFL undergraduate learners as they have approximately the same age and whose cognitive growth is assumed to be akin.

Table 41

Age Distribution among the Subjects

Age	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
17	1	4.17%	3	12%
18	13	54.16%	14	56%
19	7	29.16%	5	20%
20	2	8.35%	2	8%
21	0	0%	0	0%
22	0	0%	0	0%
23	1	4.16%	1	4%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

The table above demonstrates a great deal of homogeneity as the age of the majority of the subjects in both groups ranged from 17 to 19 years old (more than 87.49% in the experimental group and 88% in the control group).

- Attrition/mortality

Alternatively known as mortality, attrition arises when some subjects do not continue throughout the experiment, as highlighted by Newman (2007, p.214). Mackey & Gass (2005) clarified that some researches in L2 longitudinally intend to measure language development by sampling over time. Researchers need to ensure the continuous and incessant presence of all the participants during all sessions to make their studies as much internally valid as possible. Nevertheless, in classroom research settings, it is inevitable not to have all of the participants attend all sessions regularly. Researchers need to be mindful of the dropout of some participants from the experiment due to their continuous absence on the validity of the data (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp.111-112). Dörnyei (2007, p.53) postulated that the subjects' dropout is a major concern as it reduces the sample size. More importantly,

having differential dropout, not random ones, might be problematic as to the internal validity of the research design. The withdrawal of some participants from the experiment before it is completely done and who is different from the remaining ones will result in having a group whose participants are inconsistent in terms of characteristics.

As anticipation to this threat, Griffiee (2012) postulated that as long as the dropout of participants from a given programme is considered to be high, the researcher needs to keep recording the number of the students who might quit the whole study, including their contact information and interview them as to their motivation. Congruent with the same perspective, Mackey& Gass (2005) further asserted that absentees: "should also be fully reported in the research report" (p.114). Thus, while conducting the current study, the researcher kept recording the number of the students who missed sessions and the study to consider their effects on the pre-test and post-test results. By the end, two participants who belonged to the experimental group were excluded from the experiment due to their recurrent absences during the treatment (more than four missed sessions). Their exclusion from the experiment made the control group superior to the experimental group by only one participant.

- Language Background

Mackay& Gass (2005) emphasised that L2 researchers should pay careful attention to the participants' characteristics before even conducting the treatment as these features might affect the experiment results. So fundamental is the effect of the learners' language background on the treatment findings that might be confounded with the effects of the treatment. In terms of Mackay& Gass (2005): "It would be important that each group of students be relatively homogeneous. Were they not homogeneous, one could not be sure about the source of the results" (p.110). To minimize the results of this extraneous variable that may confound the findings, the researcher collected information from the participants

in both groups. As stated earlier, the profile cards were practical to stem information about their overall language background and consider the groups' homogeneity (see table 52).

First, the years spent studying English could have been an extraneous variable as it could have made their language background dissimilar. Therefore, it was necessary to consider their experience with English language learning. The participants were requested to state the number of years they spent studying the language in their academic carrier. The results are demonstrated in the table below:

Table 42

Years of Studying the English Language

Years	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
7	20	83.34%	20	80%
8	2	8.33%	3	12%
9	2	8.33%	2	8%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

As shown in table 42, a high percentage in both groups (83.34% in the experimental group and 80% in control) declared that they had spent 7 years studying the English language. This result denotes the homogeneity of the subjects. Hence, the potential effect of experience years in studying English in the present quasi-experiment study is reduced.

In addition to that, the extent to which the participants were exposed to English outside classroom context is likely to impinge on their language background, and more particularly, their speaking skill performance. Therefore, it was necessary to elicit information on their exposure to the language. They were solicited to state the extent of their exposure to the foreign language outside the classroom. In so doing, the researcher could confirm the homogeneity of the participants.

Table 43

Participants' Extent of Exposure to English outside Classroom Context

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
All the time	4	16.67%	4	16%
Frequently	7	29.17%	7	28%
Sometimes	9	37.5%	12	48%
Rarely	3	12.5%	2	8%
Never	1	4.16%	0	0%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

It seems that the subjects in both groups were equally exposed to English language outside classroom context before the treatment took place. From the collected answers, a considerable number of the subjects in both groups (37.5% in the experimental group and 48% in the control) revealed that they were sometimes exposed to English outside classrooms. Only 4 participants in each group confirmed that they were all the time doing so. This fact can only but reflect the homogeneity of the subjects.

It was necessary to retrieve information pertaining to the participants' attitudes towards the significance of learning the speaking skill. The researcher considered that the more the participants valued the skill, the more interested they would be to develop it. Therefore, it was crucial to unveil their stances towards it to perceive their tendency to learn it. The yielded data are demonstrated in the two following table:

Table 44

Participants' Consideration of the Significance of Learning to Speak English

Subjects	Important		Somehow important		Not important		I don't know		Total	
	Freq	Perc %	Freq	Per%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	Per%
Experimental Group	22	91.66%	1	4.17%	0	0%	1	4.17%	24	100%
Control Group	23	92%	1	4%	1	4%	0	0%	25	100%

Freq= Frequency

Per= Percentage

The participants in both groups had similar attitudes towards the significance of learning to speak English as 91.66% in the experimental group and 92% in the control opted for the 'important' option. Thus, they were expectedly to strive to enhance their language background as a whole.

Since learning in private schools of foreign languages may make some students good at speaking English as these schools work extensively on developing this skill, it was important to identify the number of the participants who were enrolled in them before the treatment took place.

Groups	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
a. Public Schools	23	95.84%	24	96%
b. Private Schools	1	4.16%	1	4%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

Table 45

Contexts of Studying English

As table 45 exhibits, all the participants of both groups informed that they studied English exclusively in public schools, only one subject in each informed that s/he was enrolled in a private school. This demonstrates the homogeneity of the participants in terms of their language background before the treatment took place.

Speaking English with other family members at home may make some subjects more exposed to the language and thereby have a good language background. Therefore, they were asked to list the languages of communication at home. Ultimately, this would help the researcher ascertain the degree of their homogeneity. The results are displayed in the table below:

Languages	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
a. Arabic	10	41.67%	11	44%
b. French	0	0%	0	0%
c. English	0	0%	0	0%
d. Arabic+ French	10	41.67%	8	32%
e. Arabic+ English	2	8.33%	4	16%
f. English + French	0	0%	0	0%
g. English+ Arabic + French	2	8.33%	2	8%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

Table 46

Languages Spoken at home

Table 46 demonstrates that the Arabic language is the most spoken language at home among the participants (41.67% in the experimental group and 44% in the control). Arabic and French were spoken at home by 41.64% in the experimental group and 32% in the control group. No subject in each group informed that English was exclusively spoken at

home. This can only demonstrate that the participants are not practising English at home, making them largely homogenous.

Identifying the secondary school educational streams in which the involved subjects studied is of paramount importance as these branches are likely to affect their overall language background. For that reason, the participants were solicited to mention their secondary school stream in the hope of discerning their homogeneity. The collected data are shown in the table below:

Table 47

Secondary School Stream Distribution of the Subjects in Groups

Streams	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Foreign Languages	13	54.16 %	15	60%
Language & Philosophy	2	8.34%	2	8%
Scientific	9	37.5%	8	32%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

So homogenous are the subjects in terms of their prior high school educational branches as more than half of them (54.16 in the experimental group and 60% in the control) informed that they studied in the stream of the foreign language. The rest of the subjects belonged to the scientific streams except for 2 from each group who studied in the philosophy stream. Thus, they are expected to have similar language background.

Collecting information about the marks obtained in the Baccalaureate (BAC) official Exam in the English subject might be a good sign of their overall language background. The latter is supposed to test the students upon different language aspects (grammar, reading comprehension, writing and vocabulary). Thus, the subjects were asked to state their English

language BAC exam grades to help the researcher figure out their level before the treatment took place. The following table displays the findings:

Table 48

Participants' Grades of English Language Subject in the BAC Exam

Marks .../20	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
10-12	2	8.34%	3	12%
12.5-14	13	54.16%	14	56%
14.5-16	6	25%	5	20%
16.5-18	2	8.34%	2	8%
18.5-20	1	4.16%	0	0%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

Table 48 shows that most participants (19 in both groups) got from 12.5 to 16 out of 20 as a mark in English subjects. It makes the groups seem to have a similar level before they started to receive the treatment. Only one student in the experimental group obtained a high score (18.5/20), while none did in the control group. In both groups, most students got a score between 12. to 14 (54.16% in the experimental group and 56% in the control). These data may reflect a high level of homogeneity among the participants.

Next to the data retrieved from the information profile cards, the OPT was addressed to confirm the homogeneity of the subjects before the treatment. The results are displayed in the following table:

Table 49

Oxford Placement Test Results

Experimental Group		Control Group	
Participants	Total Score	Participants	Total Score
L1	62	L1	35
L2	26	L2	52
L3	39	L3	42
L4	53	L4	55
L5	49	L5	63
L6	34	L6	43
L7	46	L7	42
L8	47	L8	40
L9	17	L9	31
L10	28	L10	24
L11	61	L11	24
L12	26	L12	26
L13	44	L13	20
L14	44	L14	49
L15	51	L15	34
L16	60	L16	47
L17	51	L17	45
L18	40	L18	36
L19	46	L19	50
L20	52	L20	49
L21	52	L21	48

L22	52	L22	50
L23	59	L23	50
L24	59	L24	30
/	/	L25	45
Total	1046	Total	1030

As Table 49 demonstrates, the scores of the participants' OPT are close, with 16 as a difference in the overall scores (1064 in the experimental group and 1030 in the control). Hence, it seems that both groups do have the same level in English grammar, as their overall scores are not highly different.

-Participants' Inattention and Attitude

Mackey & Gass (2005) postulated that researchers should not take the participants' information provided in data collection for granted as to the internal research validity. Being informed they are part of an experiment is likely to make the participants subject to the Hawthorne effect. The latter concept refers to "the positive impact that may occur because participants know that they are part of an experiment and are, therefore, "different" from others" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 114). Aligned with the same perspective, Griffiee (2012) reckoned that if the participant students: "come to know they are in a special study, they may be impressed by the attention they are receiving, and this attention may cause them to do better, or at least act differently than they normally would. This defeats the purpose of the experiment." (p.77). Griffiee (2012) further asserted that controlling the Hawthorne effect increases research internal and external validity. Furthermore, once the participants know that they are involved in an experiment, they might strive to do their best to make the experimenter as much impressed as possible by providing expected responses. This problem is known as the halo effect (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.114).

Controlling the Hawthorne and the Halo effects is of paramount importance in the present study to validate it internally. Griffiee (2012) suggested that the researcher should unobtrusively conduct his study to make the participants less aware of the experiment. Accordingly, the researcher attempted to conduct the study so that both the participants of either group (the experimental and the control) would not notice it. The researcher did not inform the participants that they made part of the study being conducted to anticipate the Hawthorne and halo effects. The researcher attempted to implement the treatment as much discretely as possible to avoid affecting their behaviours and, thereby, confounding the result. The lessons instructed to both groups revolved around the same themes, albeit the method adopted was different.

- Testing

Testing; alternatively known as the testing effect or practice effect (Ary et al., 2009; Dörnyei, 2007; Griffiee, 2009), is perceived as a major threat to internal validity, "it refers to the effects that taking a test on one occasion may have on subsequent administrations of the same test" (Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger, 2005, p. 185). When the participants are repeatedly measured several times on the same variable, their performance might be affected by many factors such as practice, memory, and participant and researcher's expectancies (Marczyk et al., 2005). Congruent with the same perspective, Dörnyei (2007) asserted: "the participants' performance may improve simply because they are gaining experience in taking the particular test or performing the assessed activity" (p.53). Griffiee (2009) postulated that the participants take an initial test, learning may occur from taking the test, which affects the scores on the same test taken later. Nonetheless, Seliger & Shohamy (1989) added that the participants might become test-wise after taking the test as they become familiar with the test's format. Given that, the researcher can be more confident that the strangeness of the test and instrument is not likely to become an extraneous variable confounding the results.

As a measure to anticipate the effects of the test-taking on the results of this experiment, the researcher used two equivalent tests but not analogous as recommended by Ary et al. (2009, p. 274). Both the pre-test and post-test the researcher designed were not identical in content but similar in form. Furthermore, Ary et al. (2009) added that:

“Pretesting effects are less threatening in designs in which the interval between tests is large.” (p.274). Hence, the time interval between the pre-test and post-test of the study was 9 weeks of treatment. The researcher took into account the time interval, as it is important to make the test practice extraneous variable as much controlled as possible by enlarging the time interval between the pre-test and the post-test

- Selection

Selection can be an extraneous variable threatening the internal validity of the research. Griffiee (2009) put into plain words that the comparison groups (the experimental and the control groups) may be different, to begin with thereby they produce different scores. The score changes may be due to the group differences, not to the treatment. Selection is more likely to occur in quasi-experimental research than the experimental as in the latter; random assignment diminishes the bias of selection extraneous variable (Griffiee, 2009, p. 80; Ary et al., 2009, p.278). It is explained in the words of Ary et al., (2009):

A selection bias is a non-random factor that might influence the selection of subjects into the experimental or the control group. As a result, there is no assurance that the groups are equivalent. If they are not equivalent before the study, we cannot know whether any difference observed later is due to the treatment or the pre-treatment difference. (p.278).

Manipulating the extraneous selection variable is so important to make the results not confound. Thus, the researcher attempted to control its effects by diminishing the variance differentiating both groups utmost (Griffiee, 2009). The researcher matched the variables or

the participants within the groups by matching their personal characteristics to achieve this. To do so, the profile card was handed to elicit necessary information about some aspects such as gender and the language spoken at home (see tables 46& 50). Both group subjects demonstrated a good level of homogeneity as most were females, spoke the same language(s) at home, had the same age...etc.

Moreover, administrating a pre-test is practical as a strategy to compare the scores between the groups (Griffiee, 2009, p.80). Thus, in the hope of ensuring that the participants are homogenous in terms of level, a pre-test was administered to both groups. The descriptive statistics of the pre-test demonstrated that the scores are not different in any significant way, as would be later explained in the section of data analysis. Thus, the researcher could ensure that the selection variable is not likely to confound the findings at the study's preliminary phase.

- Researcher Expectancy

Alternatively known as the 'experimenter effect', the researcher expectancy might be a serious source of threat to the internal research validity. Ary et al. (2009) clarified that this bias: "refers to unintentional effects that the researcher has on the study." (p. 280). Brown (1995) explained that researcher expectancy occurs when they expect certain outcomes and thereby causes them to occur (as cited in Griffiee, 2009, p.80). The researcher might inadvertently cause favourable results to happen as an intent to meet the desired outcomes (Griffiee, 2009).

To control the effects of this extraneous variable, the researcher devised explicit grading criteria upon which other colleagues evaluated the participants' performance in both the pre-and the posttest. Both pretest and posttest data were handed to three teachers in the hope of avoiding subjectivity in treating data. In addition to that, the independent variable measures, which are accuracy and fluency, were explicitly described to make the evaluators

insightful about the way they were expected to assess these components. Two online applications were relied on in the calculation of the complexity variable. Thereby, no subjectivity might occur in data analysis.

- Instrumentation

Instrumentation threat to internal validity is the outcome of a change in the instruments used during the study (Ary et al., 2009). The instrumentation might be an extraneous variable whenever the type of instrument is changed; the difficulty level is not similar, changes of scorers occur, the way of administering both the pre-and post-tests is different and so on. In the words of Campbell & Stanley (1963), instrumentation occurs when “changes in the calibration of a measuring instrument or changes in the observers or scorers used may produce changes in the obtained measurements.” (p.5)

To control instrumentation threat, the researcher avoided any changes to the measuring instrument used in the current study, as suggested by Ary et al. (2009). For instance, in a classroom context, the teacher or the experimenter should be consistent with the type of test s/he gives to the participants. Therefore, both the pre-test and post-test were systematic and comparable in terms of form (role play) and content (addressing a social problem).

- Other Extraneous Variables

Among the other extraneous variables that might endanger the findings is the *time* set for conducting the current research. Seliger & Shohamy (1989) denoted that SLA takes place over time. Thus, when researching in an L2 context, time needs to be fittingly allotted, especially if treatment is conducted in an experimental research design. Seliger & Shohamy (1989) elucidated that: “it should be obvious that there is no hard and fast rule for deciding when enough time has elapsed for collecting a valid sample of data or for a treatment to affect.” (pp. 100-101). As time is so pivotal to exert a given treatment and consider its

significance in performing quasi-experimental studies, the researcher took nine weeks to conduct it. Allotting that period was inevitably necessary to discern the influence of the CL method on speaking skill development. Moreover, the research's nature implied that the researcher devotes enough time to the quasi-experimental study to consider the relationship between the two variables, namely the CL method and the speaking skill variable.

As for the *environmental variables*, the researcher attempted to rely on identical physical environments as Mackay & Gass (2005) supposed. Both the control and the experimental groups were set in the same settings; they both studied in very similar classrooms. The two groups had their classes of speaking skill OE in the morning. Thus, the environment in which the study was conducted with both groups was indistinguishable from avoiding any effect of the contexts on the study's findings. Putting it otherwise, sharing similar classroom settings and having the classes of OE administratively scheduled in the morning for both the control and the experimental groups would not provoke any effect on the quasi-experimental study.

Gender, as an individual variable, might affect many aspects of language learning. Therefore, it was necessary to consider its distribution among the participants to see how similar the two groups before the treatment started. The collected data are shown in the

Gender	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage %
a. Male	2	8.4%	5	20%
b. Female	22	91.6%	20	80%
Total	24	100%	25	100%

table below:

Table 50

Distribution of Gender of the Subjects in Groups

Gender, as exhibited in the table above, seems to be so closely distributed between the two groups as 22 out of 24 subjects were females in the experimental group, and 20 females belonged to the control group.

Table 51

Course Design and Speaking Tasks Selection

Units	Task Type	Themes
1. Medicine Week 1 & 2	Jigsaw/ role play	- Medical Specialities, medicines' names, hospital section names and illnesses' names.
Polygamy Debate Week 3	Jigsaw/ Roleplay	-Expressing opinions.
3. Furniture Week 4	Jigsaw/Roleplay	- Pieces of furniture, selling and buying. - Bargaining
4. Working Woman Week 5	Jigsaw/Roleplay	- Expressing Agreement. - Negative Feelings.
5. Storytelling Week 6	Jigsaw	- Narrating scenes of stories
6. Making Adverts Week 7	Jigsaw	- Advertising
7. Tourism and Travelling Week 8	Jigsaw	- Describing places, hotels, and restaurants.
8. Making Report Week 9	Jigsaw	- Cycles of education/education terms.

-Speaking Course Design

This section elucidates the speaking lessons designed to teach the speaking skill with the two groups. It portrays the lessons' steps and content.

Lesson One: (Medicine field)

(3 hours)

Week 1

Experimental Group

Treatment Procedures

1/ Part One

Introduction

The lesson revolved around medicine vocabulary and focussed on both form and meaning. The technique used in the lesson was the jigsaw, in which two foremost aims were set. The first was accuracy as the participants were asked to check the pronunciation of different vocabulary items (doctors' names, medicines' names, hospital section's names and illnesses' names). Accuracy was also targeted as the students were expected to use the present simple tense appropriately to define, describe the symptoms of some given diseases and explain the use of particular sorts of medicines.

The second lesson aim was fluency as the participants were expected to communicate coherently about illnesses, hospitals, medicines...etc.). The task completion hinged on the participants' ability to communicate when interacting with one another effortlessly. Fluency was given precedence when the teacher set the students to take turns to explain the learnt vocabulary verbally to one another. In so doing, fluency was taken into account as the participants were expected to enable their teammates to understand the terms being defined. Thus, it is worthy of denoting that the task leaned toward achieving both accuracy (through stressing the accurate pronunciation of the newly introduced words and present tense use) and fluency (through setting the participants interacting with one another to deliver their messages pertaining to medicine orally).

The teacher informed the participants that the jigsaw task would be ended by taking a quiz upon their mates 'parts. Thereby, they were urged to interact orally as long as possible

to elicit the needed information from one another. Only in doing so they could get assured to succeed at the quiz.

Stage One: Preparation

The task was divided into two main parts. The objective of the first part was to expose the learners to the different names of doctors, names of medicine, different hospital sections and names of different illnesses. To brainstorm the topic, the teacher addressed some questions related to health problems. Then, she assessed their vocabulary background relevant to medicine and health problems by asking them to cite some names of illnesses they knew in English. Afterwards, she explained that they should jigsaw their parts of the task to accomplish it. To demonstrate the students' effective cooperation in accomplishing the task, the students were reminded that they would receive sets of questions on their peers' part and not theirs solely. In so doing, they were stimulated to work hard in performing their part and were urged to feel responsible for their teammates' learning.

Stage Two: Presentation

After explaining the jigsaw task rules, the teacher set the students to sit into groups (home groups) whose members were randomly and heterogeneously selected. Then, she explained that the task is divided into four main parts, and an individual would perform each. To have the task accomplished, all the parts need to be combined at the final phase. Then, she handed each member materials to accomplish his/her part.

The students who were supposed to work on the vocabulary related to illnesses were provided by health problem crossword puzzle and another worksheet comprising different animated pictures illustrating different types of illnesses. They were expected to solve the puzzle to get a final list of basic illnesses and health problems (see Appendix G). Furthermore, they were asked to describe the symptoms of each disease and check the pronunciation of the given words. The students who were expected to deal with the different

specialities of doctors were supported by a crossword puzzle worksheet and another one containing pictures of different specialized doctors (see Appendix H) They were asked to work on the crossword puzzle to get a list of fourteen names of doctors. They were also supposed to check the pronunciation of each word.

Regarding the third part, the students were given two worksheets on which many medicines were shown (lotions, pills...etc.) (see Appendix I) They were asked to check the pronunciation of each item, define it and describe the cases in which it could be prescribed. The fourth members in each group were given a worksheet comprising many names of sections found at the hospital and were set to check each section's pronunciation and provide a short description and definition of each section (see Appendix J). The teacher finally stressed that each individual is the expert on his/her part, and s/he is required to work seriously and enthusiastically to teach it to his/her teammates in the home group.

Stage Three: Discussion and interaction

Once the home group received the needed materials to establish positive resource interdependence, each part of the task was given a number to facilitate the movement and meet the experts in the classroom. They split away from their home groups and joined the same table to work congruently with the experts of the similar part of the task to negotiate, discuss and assist one another in mastering the material and the newly acquired words. The teacher passed around the tables of the experts (six tables) to remind the students about the need to fully master the vocabulary items' pronunciation and meaning to teach it later to their home teammates. Moreover, the teacher was supervising them while interacting verbally to make sure they were using only English while negotiating meaning and that every student was fully involved in the task. The experts were allotted fifteen minutes to work on the assigned part of the task.

Stage Four: Cooperation

The experts were asked to get back to their home groups. The teacher passed around to attribute roles to each member:

1. a recorder who was assigned the role of noting down brief definitions to the terms given,
2. a checker of understanding who was supposed to address questions constantly to make sure his/her peers grasped the meaning of the words,
3. a corrector who was responsible for checking the pronunciation of the words and confirming that his/her teammates pronounced them accurately,
4. a summarizer who was in charge of reading aloud the definitions and recapitulating the information related to the items.

In designing roles, the teacher was attempting to establish effectively individual accountability and positive interdependence. Then, the students took turns explaining to one another the newly acquired vocabulary words, pronouncing them accurately, and giving brief definitions. The students were allotted twenty minutes to interact and cooperate before the evaluation phase (Jigsaw application).

Stage Five: Evaluation

At the final phase of the task, the teacher prepared a quiz in the form of a set of questions that the students were supposed to answer. Each group individual was set to take the quiz by answering two questions pertaining to one of his/her teammate's part. In so doing, the teacher aspired to evaluate the extent to which the participants were positively interdependent and held accountable for their part. The teacher addressed two questions to each student to check their understanding of the terms and consider the effectiveness of the interaction process while cooperating to perform the task. Surprisingly, all of the teammates succeeded at answering all the questions. To involve them in longer output production processes, she asked each student to define the term and describe it, for example, what is

measles? Can you describe the symptoms? Who might be affected more with it? To apply the jigsaw fittingly, the quiz was designed in such a way as to evaluate the participants' cooperation in the learning of the new terms. Each member in the homegroup was addressed with two questions that were not relevant to his/her part. In so doing, the teacher could discern their cooperation in task fulfilment explicitly.

As reviewed in the literature review, to get the students rigorously involved in the task and to incite them to be positively interdependent and to hold them individually accountable, there is no best alternative technique to implement than the jigsaw. To make them face-to-face interactive, the students were set to work on the words and negotiate the meaning to get ready to teach them to their teammates to be later able to take the quiz. Exposing the participants to new vocabulary items related to the medicine field is an endeavour to set them in situations that bring about meaning negotiation.

The criterion upon which the groups were perceived to be successful in the task completion was the extent to which each participant answered the addressed questions. Moreover, the longer the students interacted together and took turns to explain the definitions, and the more they showed cooperation to achieve success in task performance as a team and not as individuals in the team, the more they were deemed to be successful in performing the speaking task. (All the steps are fully explicated in the lesson plan in Appendix K)

Week 2

2/ Part Two

As the lesson focus was to enhance learners' fluency in terms of using words related to hospitals, medicines, doctors and health problems, the teacher opted for a role play as a speaking activity to practise the newly acquired vocabulary. She highlighted that the students should work with the same teammates to play their roles. Thus, to ensure that all of the

students were collaborating, the teacher assigned precise and determined roles (a doctor, a nurse, a patient and a person accompanying the patient to the hospital)

- The patient is supposed to express the feeling of pain using adequate expressions.
- The accompanying person (friend/sister/brother) is supposed to describe the symptoms of the illness felt by the patient (by getting help with the worksheets handed previously)
- The nurse is supposed to mention some items related to the different sections found at the hospital and give some advice.
- The doctor is supposed to inquire about the symptoms and clarify the illness that the patient suffers from (using the handed worksheets), and s/he is supposed to give a prescription in which s/he cites different names of medicines learnt in the previous stages.

The participants were allotted 20 minutes to work on the script of their roles. The teacher passed around to assign each member in the team a role to perform in completing the task. In so doing, she intended to reinforce positive interdependence and individual accountability at that stage of the lesson. The teacher assigned the following roles to the students: an organizer to one student (to be in charge of controlling time), a participant checker (to make sure all the teammates got fair chances to participate), noise controller (to check the use of quiet voices while the teammates are interacting orally) and a recorder (to keep the script recorded and remind each mate about the vocabulary that should be used).

After being given twenty minutes to work on the roles' script, the groups were called to perform in front of the whole class. Each group performed the play for approximately four to five minutes. Simultaneously, the teacher was taking notes by using an observation checklist (see Appendix L) to identify the extent to which the participants were communicative and fluent in their interaction processes.

Stage Six: Group Processing

For a real and rigorous practice of the CL method practices, group processing needed to be practised at the final phase of the lesson. The teacher evaluated each presentation and asked all the class to decide about the best group performance. Such a step was a prerequisite to announce the winner group from the teacher and students' perspective alike. Then, the winner group celebrated their success by sharing laughter and jokes. Finally, the teacher handed the groups a worksheet revealing the whole group processing (See Appendix M) As such, they were asked to reflect on their cooperation while performing the task. They were asked to discuss the positive behaviours deemed beneficial, constructive and positive to the whole group performance. Furthermore, each group was requested to state the presentation aspects that could have been done better alternatively.

Control Group

The control group's lesson revolved around the same issue, namely medicine. Nevertheless, the instructions and the processes of the lesson were different from the ones adopted in instructing the experimental group.

Procedures

The teacher informed the participants that they are supposed to work on vocabulary related to the medical field. She provided them with the same worksheets given to the experimental group (names of illnesses/names of different medicines/names of places of hospitals/ names of doctors' worksheets). The teacher set them to work on the name of doctors crossword puzzle and health problems/illnesses crossword puzzle) individually. Then, she asked them to choose two health problems and describe the symptoms to their classmates by getting help with the worksheet that displays health problems vocabulary. They were allotted twenty minutes to do the two tasks (solving the crossword puzzles and describing the two illnesses symptoms). Then, the whole class discussed the two crossword

puzzles. Finally, the teacher asked each student to choose a given illness that s/he thought prevailing nowadays and discuss its symptoms and how one can recover from it or decrease the chances of being attained with it. The teacher stressed that the students should make use of the vocabulary presented in the worksheets. In the next session, each student took from two to three minutes to present the chosen disease to his/her classmates.

Lesson Two: (Polygamy Debate)**(1.5 hours)****Week 3**

Spinning around the theme of 'polygamy', the kernel of the whole lesson was to focus on form and meaning alike. Hence, its foremost aim was to develop both the participants' accuracy and fluency when expressing standpoints about a debatable issue such as 'polygamy'. Accuracy was pointed by exposing the participants to the different language functions practised in debates as phrases and terms used to express agreement and disagreement. They were also exposed to the most commonly used expressions to ask for and give advice and concession.

Regarding fluency, the lesson's final objective was to enable the participants to get into a conversation in which the already exposed expressions commonly used in debates are practised. Thus, the task endeavoured to sustain the participants to get involved in the discussion and cater for their need to express their perspective in a more spontaneous and native-like way. Needless to state how imperative and urgent is the need to express agreement and disagreement about issues relevant to contemporary issues for EFL learners. Notwithstanding, the participants, who are at the preliminary phase of learning English as their university speciality, ought to be satisfactorily equipped with the language background craved for fittingly advising, arguing, agreeing and disagreeing to defend one's position. Hence, fluency was targeted as the participants were urged to discuss a TV show in which different perspectives were exposed.

Driven by the impetus of exposing the participants to the diverse language forms used in debates and putting into practice the CL method principles in teaching the speaking skill, the teacher opted for the jigsaw. In so doing, accomplishing the task was only achieved by the contribution of every individual in the CL groups.

Stage One: Preparation

To make sure the participants had a full insight about the topic of the task, the participants were handed the TV Show instruction in which the roles were lucidly elucidated (see Appendix N) Then, the teacher set the participants to work in heterogeneous groups of four students. Heterogeneity was pivotal to ascertain that the learners are constantly interacting and cooperating with all the class students and are of mixed and hybrid abilities and competencies. At the outset, the teacher asked them about the meaning of the word 'polygamy'. After explaining the meaning, she elucidated that the task is a jigsaw in which the roles were fragmented into four ones. Then, the teacher underscored that each individual was assigned a part of the task. However, the whole performance would not be successful unless every teammate succeeded in performing his/her part magnificently. Most of all, she underscored that every member ought to expect sets of questions on one of his/her teammates

Stage Two: Presentation

The teacher then explained the roles that should be played in the performance. She clarified that one of the teammates ought to perform the broadcaster's role, who was required to animate the TV Show and prepare relevant and significant questions for the others in the show. Furthermore, s/he was required to use expressions asking for other's pinion using the worksheet handed by the teacher (see Appendix N) To play the broadcaster's role flawlessly, the performer awaited to ask intriguing questions, which diverged from displayed to referential items. Furthermore, the students assigned to play this role needed to exercise the change of their intonation while addressing the questions from raising to falling intonation.

The second role was supposed to be a 'guest'. The latter was assigned to prepare 'pro' arguments endorsing the concept of polygamy. Playing this role entailed the performer implementing as many expressions of agreement as possible to convince the audience about his/her attitude (see appendix N) The third performer was another guest whose role was to prepare sound and well-built arguments. Thus, the performer of this part was supposed to prepare 'cons' arguments and practise using the phrases used to express disagreement and discord with the other guest. The fourth teammate was set to perform the sociologist's role or a psychologist who was expected to inspect the polygamy issue from different angles. Playing this role denoted the performer to use expressions of agreement, disagreement, giving advice using modals and even concession link words.

Subsequently, the teacher gave the participants the freedom to decide on the group's role. Immediately after, she handed them the materials comprising the requisite phrases and expressions implemented to agree, disagree, concede, ask for and give advice.

Stage Three: Discussion and Interaction

Consecutively, the teacher stated that each student is deemed to be the expert of his/her part and passed around to give each expert a number to facilitate the experts finding the other akin experts. The experts of the same part gathered around the same table to start working on the arguments (pros/cons by the two guests), asking inspiring and appealing questions (by the broadcaster), giving advice (by the psychologist/sociologist). Ten minutes were allotted to all the experts to discuss and interact. In the meantime, the teacher passed around to supervise the students' interaction and superintend the use of English as the only language of communication.

Stage Four: Cooperation

Having discussed and negotiated the arguments, the teacher asked the experts to get back to their home group to initiate the process of cooperation. Then, she passed around to allocate roles to each member in the group:

1. a leader whose principal responsibility was to arrange the performance's events,
2. a noise controller who was supposed to make sure his/her teammates were interacting in quiet voices,
3. a recorder who ought to be in charge of noting down the foremost ideas to expose in front of the class,
4. a praiser whose principal concern was to stimulate his/her teammates to interact more productively.

The participants were informed that they had twenty minutes to get prepared for the TV show performance. The teacher constantly passed around to ascertain that all the teammates were lucidly cooperating and to overcome the 'free riding' threat. In addition, she was offering assistance whenever they needed it. Positive interdependence and individual accountability were fostered when the teacher elucidated that the whole performance' success was determined by the good performance of all the teammates and not a single one. More importantly, boosting their sense of belonging to the same group implied on the teacher to remind them all the time about the quiz each group would receive. In doing so, the teacher could ensure rigorous cooperation among the participants to achieve success.

Stage Five: Evaluation

The same theme of the lesson was dealt with in the control group. To evaluate the extent to which the participants cooperated in accomplishing the task, the teacher set the groups to perform the TV Show. Each group presented their performance in front of the class. In the intervening time, the teacher took notes and called into play the items in the

classroom observation checklist (see Appendix L). Time spent to perform ranged from ten to fifteen minutes. The individuals in each group has spoken satisfactorily and most of them implemented the relevant expressions needed to express opinion, agreement, disagreement and advice. In the presentations, most of the participants demonstrated their determination to introduce the best performance. Plainly perceptible was the teammates' cooperation as they were supporting one another whenever a member forgot what and how to say a word in English. Particularly, they were correcting one another pronunciation mistakes, the misuse of expressions and vocabulary items.

Jigsawing 'polygamy' task intended to enhance and boost the participants' cooperation and sense of belonging. Indeed, each participant was ascribed to hone a part of the task and practise some language functions (agreeing, disagreeing, advising...etc.), s/he had to actively interact with his/her teammates to know more about their part, however. Fragmenting the task into different parts was mandatory for the students to answer the questions of the quiz. To unveil the participants' degree of cooperation, the teacher addressed the following four questions to each member of all the groups and each question is given a score.

1. Can you restate your peer X's pros argument used to defend her /his viewpoint? (5Pts)
2. Would you summarise three cons arguments you peer X.....used to express her/his opinion (5 Pts.)
3. How did the sociologist/psychologist consider polygamy? And what kind of pieces of advice did your teammate X...address to the guests? (5 Pts)
4. State some expressions and phrases used to voice one's point of view, agreement and disagreement.

Stage Six: Group Processing

After the performance of the TV Show task, the teacher asked the participants to vote for the best group performance. Interestingly, most of them pointed out to the same TV Show the teacher deemed most successful and productive in terms of practising the planned language points in the lesson. The winner group was rewarded by being offered bonus points in their continuous evaluation mark (block notes). Then, each group was handed the Group Processing Form worksheet (see Appendix M to reflect on their performance. The teacher asked the participants to think profoundly with the other teammates about the statements inserted in the worksheet and fill it inappropriately. The items were designed to elicit information from the overall group performance. More importantly, they were enthused to state their group's positive behaviours before and after the performance. They were urged to reveal the behaviours and actions their group took, which could have been avoided as these behaviours impeded the presentation.

Control Group

Albeit asymmetrically scheduled and planned, the same theme of discussion, namely 'Polygamy', was exposed to the participants, urging them to speak and voice their standpoints. Put it differently, the same speaking topic lesson was instructed to the experimental and control groups alike. Nonetheless, the followed procedures and the type of tasks were discrepant as in the former; the participants were assigned a Jigsawed TV Show task while in the latter, a classroom discussion/debate was held.

Procedures

The teacher asked the participants about the meaning of the word 'polygamy' to brainstorm the topic. She gave the floor to some of them to provide definitions of the aforementioned term. Congruently with the experimental group, the participants were handed the worksheets comprising the common expressions used to state their opinion about

the issue of discussion overtly. Then, to discern and categorize the overall attitudes, the teacher asked them who was supporting the polygamy concept and who loathed it. The participants raised their hands to make their perspectives explicit to the teacher and their classmates alike. Immediately after, the teacher asked each participant concurring with the above-mentioned concept to explain one by one his/her position and use as many 'pro' arguments as possible to defend it using the expressions provided in the handed worksheets. The participants were set to speak for two to three minutes to explain their position fully and backed up with sound and convincing arguments. It is noteworthy to state that the participants were highly energized and excited to have the room to speak about their attitude to constantly overlapping their classmates. Thereby, learner-learner interaction was highly prevailing. Later than, the participants who objected to polygamy were asked to term their opinion to the class one by one and were asked to defend their perspective by listing arguments and speaking for at least two to three minutes.

In an attempt to drug the participants, more particularly the shy and reticent ones, into longer speech production processes, the teacher frequently relied on referential questions to elicit more information. Thus, the overall time devoted to this classroom debate was 75 minutes.

The plans described in teaching the above two lessons proceeded similarly in the instruction of the other speaking ones. The same procedures followed previously in the lessons were applied in the remaining courses. The treatment instruction weeks are discussed subsequently to grasp and be insightful about the CL method instruction fully.

utensil salesman/saleswoman; bedroom salesman/saleswoman, the husband, the wife). At that stage of the lesson, the experts were requested to check the meaning of the words and their pronunciations to teach them later to their Homegroup teammates. Subsequently, at the cooperation stage, the participants were set to cooperate in the origination of the script and teach the terms found in which part to succeed in the quiz. At the fifth stage of evaluation, the cooperative groups performed the play in front of the whole class, which lasted from 10 to 13 minutes. Likewise, they all were set to respond to the quiz (see Appendix V) and the teacher announced and rewarded the winner group. At the final stage of the lesson (group processing stage), the participants were given ten minutes and handed a group processing form in which they were expected to reflect on each performance.

Control Group

Though revolving around the same speaking topic, buying and selling furniture and kitchen utensils, the lesson was instructed differently to the control group. The participants were asked to prepare a list of vocabulary items pertaining to the lesson. Then, the teacher asked them to work individually or in pairs on their lists, and she asked them to prepare quizzes to test the number of vocabulary items their peers could retain. The learners were given sufficient time to work on the assignment (approximately 30 minutes), and they were allowed to use the internet and dictionaries to get the needed information for the presentation. The teacher invited the participants to come to the podium to present the lists to their peers.

Lesson Four: Working Women

Week 5

Experimental Group

Revolving around the theme of 'Working Women', the fifth week of the treatment was devoted to exposing the participants to the mostly common expressions and phrases used to express one's standpoint to argue in real-life situations and debates. By the same

token, the basic objective of the lesson was to prompt the participants to express their agreement and disagreement about the reality and the status of working women in contemporary societies. The lesson, as well, was designed to teach the participants how to ask for and give advice using modals such as should/ought to and relevant expressions and phrases of expressing agreement and disagreement. Adjectives used predominantly to express annoyance, dissatisfaction and disappointment were also targeted, using the tenses (present simple/past simple and future) to describe family life.

At the preliminary stage of the lesson, i.e., the preparation phase, the task was thoroughly explained and jigsawed. The task was in the form of a role play, in which a couple hold a debate about 'working women' and whose thoughts were said aloud (performed in the form of a monologue). At the presentation stage, the groups were formed, and the experts were designed. Thus, each teammate was an expert on the part of the task and was handed the needed worksheets to work on their part (see Appendices X). At the discussion and interaction stage, the experts came back to their home groups to teach one another the newly learnt expressions and words used in debates and the suggested arguments prepared by the experts. At the cooperation stage, the cooperative groups put their ideas to agree on the script of their role play. They were given sufficient time to discuss how the role play should be performed and prepare a good script. Afterwards, the performances of the groups were evaluated and graded by the teacher in the evaluation stage. She announced the winner group after agreeing with all the participants about the best performance. The latter was selected upon two criteria; the performance of the group members and the investment of all the grammar and vocabulary cues mentioned above. The winner group was then given time to celebrate their victory at the group processing stage. They were asked to fill in the group processing form (see Appendix W)

Control Group

The students were given the same worksheet, comprising the expressions used to express 'agreement and disagreement', given to the experimental group. Then the teacher explained the lesson's objective, which was to be persuasive and convincing while holding debates. She wrote the topic on the board, '*Working women*' set them to work in pairs to discuss one's point of view with his peer in the form of a dialogue or a conversation. They were asked to invest their vocabulary items as much as possible in their conversations. They were given 10 minutes to think of the arguments to present. All pairs performed the dialogues in front of their classmates. The lesson ended in a classroom discussion in which learners voiced their viewpoints overtly and expressed their stances towards their peers' ones.

Lesson Five: Story Telling

Week 6

Experimental Group

The fifth lesson was storytelling, whose focus is on form and meaning alike. The focus on form, i.e., accuracy displayed in targeting the past simple and past continuous tenses. Accuracy was also focussed on as time sequencers, and transitional words/ phrases were pointed. As the lesson's objective, fluency was aimed at the lesson to enable the learners to narrate stories and describe their events thoroughly (for more details about the lesson plan, see Appendix U) To achieve the set objectives and to allow the participants to listen to more than one story (to avoid boredom), two stories displayed in pictures were introduced

The lesson's content instructed to the experimental group was slightly different from the one taught to the control one. As for the experimental group, the participants were set in groups of six students; the number was determined by the number of pictures of the two stories they were supposed to narrate. The theme of the first story revolved around a 'couple's love story that ended in the same way as it started. Thus, six pictures were inserted to illustrate the whole story. At the same time, the second story was about a 'picnic' that a

family arranged and ended funnily and comprised six pictures (for more details about the two stories, see Appendix U)

At the preparation phase, the teacher explained the task plainly and then jigsawed it to the learners. At the subsequent stage, i.e., the presentation one, the groups were formed. The students were divided into groups of six. Each group was assigned to tell the story whose pictures were given (there were two stories). Accordingly, each story was supposed to be narrated twice by two different groups. Having each story told by two groups was done on purpose. Each group would strive to tell the best and most creative version to be the final winner group. Each member in the group was handed a picture that made part of the whole story (a jigsaw) and was the expert in charge of developing the script of the given picture as much as possible. At the discussion and interaction stage, all members holding the same picture (part of the same story) sat for ten minutes around the same table and worked on developing the script of their part. Subsequently, at the discussion and interaction stage, all the experts came back to their home groups to narrate the script of their picture to their teammates and all the story scripts. They took turns explaining the scenes to each other. At the cooperation stage, the cooperative learning groups organized their ideas, and each one of them was given a precise role to play while discussing the storytelling draft. That is, the teacher assigned different roles at the cooperation stage (a *recorder* of the events, an *organizer* of the events and ideas, a *checker* of the words' pronunciation and appropriate tenses' use, a *time manager*, a *questioner* who makes sure every individual retained the events of the whole story, a *praiser*).

After being given about 15 minutes to discuss the whole script of the story, the teacher selected one member from each group to tell his/her version of the story as the assigned quiz at the evaluation stage. The teacher evaluated all the groups' storytelling. Thus, the criteria upon which the stories were evaluated were the extent to which they could

finish developing orally the script within 15 minutes, the correct use of tenses (past simple and past continuous). In addition to this, using time sequencers and transitional words while verbally narrating the story was an important criterion upon which the winner group ought to be selected. More importantly, the most interesting events told in the story was prerequisite to make it the thriving one. Then, after asking the students to choose the best-told versions of the two stories objectively, the teacher announced the winner group whose members were requested to celebrate their victory. At the group processing stage, the participants were handed a group processing form meant to urge them to reflect on the whole group performance.

Control Group

As for the control group, the participants were asked to prepare a story to tell their classmates. The teacher explained that the objective of the lesson was to develop their language abilities in narrating stories. The participants were allowed to select the theme of the stories. However, they were informed to use the past simple and past continuous and, more importantly, to link their stories using sequencers and transitional words. After being given sufficient time to work on the task, each participant was invited to the podium to tell his story in front of the teacher and peers.

Lesson Six: Making an Advert

Week 7

Experimental Group

The attempt to make the participants able to advertise for products was the aim behind designing the lesson. It was designed to expose them to the language of advertisement and persuasion. It intended to reinforce the participants' language background about adverts, to make them able to describe objects using adjectives and, more importantly, to use persuasive language.

At the preparation phase of the lesson, the task comprising two parts was explained to the participants. As for the first part, the teacher elucidated that each group had to prepare an advert for one product. To brainstorm the topic and give the participants an idea about the oral presentation they were expected to perform, the teacher displayed a video about **TV Mobile Ads (Samsung Note 10**, retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=itZKXXmUwNU>). At the presentation stage of the lesson, informal groups of four participants were formed randomly. Three worksheets were selected to facilitate designing the advert, and they were handed to the groups: a (worksheet displaying different products, a worksheet representing a plan for an advertisement and another one displaying product guidelines) (for more details, see Appendix P) The task was jigsawed into four parts, and each member in the group was assigned a part to work on. As for part one, the experts were supposed to agree on the chosen product's target and prepare arguments justifying the reasons behind choosing precisely the selected population. The aim behind this part was to make them aware of the persuasive language features used in advertising and arrange a plan for their advert. In the second part, the experts were expected to provide a thorough description of the product using adjectives and the present simple as targeted language forms, while the experts of the third part were set to work on sound arguments to persuade consumers of buying the advertised item. The experts of the fourth part were supposed to highlight the differences between their product and the other similar ones available in the market. Then, all the experts of the same part gathered to discuss ideas for 15 minutes. At the discussion and interaction stage, the experts went back to their home groups to explain their parts and to take turns to explain the newly acquired words. At the penultimate phase, i.e., the cooperation stage, the groups were asked to think of a slogan for their product. At the evaluation stage, a quiz was addressed to the groups in which the teacher

selected a member randomly from each group to state the slogan, explain it and highlight the differences between the item and others in the market.

In the second part of the lesson, the teacher asked the participants to prepare animations and be involved within the previously formed group to develop the script of the advert they were supposed to present orally in the classroom. The teacher passed around the groups to assign roles to each member (for more details, see Appendix O). After being given 15 minutes, the groups took turns performing the advert orally in front of their peers. At the final stage (the group processing stage), the teacher and all the students voted for the best-performed ad. After being offered gifts by the teacher, the winner group members celebrated their victory and filled in the group processing form (Appendix M)

Control Group

Similar to the lesson's objectives designed for the experimental group, the control group's lesson endeavoured to enhance the participants' language background about advertising and persuading. Therefore, the same three worksheets (Appendix O) were handed to the participants. The teacher explained that the lesson's objective was to advertise a chosen product using as much persuasive language as possible. The teacher asked each participant to describe the ad using adjectives, determine the population to whom it is addressed, compare his/her chosen product and the ones available in the market, and think of a slogan for the advert. After being given 20 minutes to prepare the task, each student was given 3 minutes to present the advertisement orally.

Lesson Seven: Tourism and Travelling

Week 8

Experimental Group

The sixth lesson was about 'Tourism and Travelling'. It targeted both form and meaning. Form (accuracy) was underscored, as the focal aims of the lesson was to reinforce the use of three tenses: the present simple to describe places, the present continuous and future simple to make plans. Modal verbs were also emphasised as the students were requested to give instructions (giving directions) and pieces of advice (for example, asking for and giving advice about the best places to visit). Moreover, the students were also expected to practise some vocabulary items about tourism, air travelling and booking at restaurants and hotels. On the other hand, meaning (fluency) was targeted, as the students were expected to fulfil some language functions fluently, such as advising, giving directions, making plans for trips.

Revolving around *Tourism and travelling*, the lesson was designed to enhance the participants' language background about these two areas. The lesson was fragmented into two parts (see Appendix Q). At the preparation stage of the lesson, the teacher assessed the participants' language background about tourism activities, hotels and restaurants by addressing sets of questions (name some different types of hotels and the different sections/ staff in hotels/ ordering meals at restaurants /booking a room in a hotel...etc.). The teacher wrote some names of tourism activities and asked the participants about their pronunciations and meanings. She explained the task and jigsawed it to the participants. The participants were set into groups heterogeneously (each group comprised three participants). They were handed with three worksheets that they needed to work on in their cooperation stage (the first worksheet comprised vocabulary about air travel, the second one comprised vocabulary

related to hotels and restaurants while the third displayed the names of the different activities done by tourists and places description) (for more details, see Appendices R).

At the presentation stage, the teacher split the task into three basic parts. Each member in the group was held responsible for a given part and was selected to be the expert. As for the first expert, s/he was supposed to study the words related to '*Air Travel*'. In this part of the task, the expert was expected to work on three aspects (departures, the flight and the arrival), and s/he was assigned to study the words relevant to this aspect, check their meanings and transcriptions as an attempt to teach them to his/her teammates later. The second expert was in charge of studying words related to '*Hotels and restaurant*'. The latter was subdivided into three aspects (*hotels/accommodations/booking a room at a hotel and dining at a restaurant*). S/he was supposed to study the meanings and pronunciation of the words relating to booking at hotels and restaurant). The third expert was assigned to study 'tourism activities and the description of places' and the meanings of the words and pronunciations of the newly targeted words.

At the discussion and interaction stage, the teacher asked the experts of the same part from all groups to gather around the same table to negotiate the meaning and the pronunciation of the words. She solicited them to add other words to the list given whenever possible in the hope of enriching their teammates' knowledge about their part of the task. They were given 15 minutes to finish their interaction with the experts of the other groups. At the cooperation stage, which is the second part of the task, all the experts went back to sit with their Home teammates. Each expert exposed the words s/he learnt about his/ her part to his /her peers. They cooperated to learn the words to be able to take the test successfully. Then, the teacher tested each group by addressing some questions to each member about his/her teammates' part as an attempt to consider their accountability. To illustrate more, the teacher chose some definitions of the newly acquired words and asked the members who did

not work on this part of the task to name the words whose definitions were introduced...etc. The teacher asked the participants to work on the script of a role-play in which they were requested to practise, as much as possible, the vocabulary items newly acquired while developing the script. More importantly, they were solicited to implement the language functions explained at the preliminary stage of the lesson. The teacher highlighted that the criteria of success in the performance of the role play depended on the extent to which they practised asking for and giving advice using modals, describing places using the present simple tense and adjectives and making plans using the future simple and present continuous. The participants were given 25 minutes to develop the script before performing orally.

The cooperative groups were called to perform the role play in front of their teacher and classmates in the fifth stage of the lesson (evaluation phase). Each presentation lasted from 10 to 12 minutes. Then, the teacher counted the marks of the previously given quiz and decided with all of the participants about the best performance and announced the winner group. Finally, at the group processing stage of the lesson, the teacher handed all the participants a group processing form to retrieve information about their reflections on their group performance (see Appendix M)

Control Group

The teacher explained the lesson's objectives to the control group participants (practising vocabulary relevant to tourism, booking rooms in hotels and tables in restaurants and making plans using the present simple, the present continuous and the modals to describe and give directions). Then, the teacher handed them the worksheets of hotels and restaurants vocabulary (see Appendix R) elucidated that the task has to be done as a role play in pairs. The participants were set to develop the play script for 20 minutes and then took turns to perform it in front of the whole class.

Lesson Eight: Making a Report about an Educational System

Week 9

Experimental Group

Presenting a report about a country's educational system was the theme dealt with within the ninth week of the treatment. The lesson was designed to enable the participants to make a report about an educational system. One of the lesson's objective was to prompt the participants' language abilities to make a thorough description of the different existing cycles of the educational system of either UK, Finland or South Korea. Being able to compare two different educational systems and suggest and present orally an ideal model of an educational system were also set objectives of the lesson. To achieve these objectives, the participants were supposed to describe, explain, compare and contrast as basic language functions by using adjectives, comparative adverbs, and vocabulary items pertaining to the education realm.

The first part of the task was explained at the preparation stage of the lesson as the teacher brainstormed the topic by addressing some questions to retrieve information from the participants about the best educational systems they knew around the world. The teacher elucidated that the task had to be performed orally in a report about an educational system of one of three countries proposed: the UK, Finland or South Korea. The task was jigsawed into three parts (primary, secondary and higher/further educational cycles) to urge them to be fully engaged in the task and reinforce their accountability. To establish and reinforce positive interdependence, the teacher stressed that each member from the group would be asked to recapitulate one of his/her partners' part. At the presentation stage, groups of three participants were formed heterogeneously, and each member was appointed as an expert of one part. All the group members were handed the worksheets needed to do their parts of the task (for more details, see Appendix S) The experts in charge of the same part gathered

around tables for fifteen minutes to study the information relevant to the educational cycle they were supposed to expose and compare it with the one prevailing in the Algeria educational cycle. Subsequently, at the cooperation stage, the experts went back to their home groups to teach one another the new information they learnt about primary, secondary and higher/further education. They were given fifteen minutes to arrange their ideas and to finish their report. The teacher passed around to assign each member a role (a recorder, who was in charge of writing the information, an assessor who was responsible for making sure that his/ her teammates rehearsed the information and a leader who ought to supervise the preparation of the report (for more details see the lesson plan in Appendix S) The teacher passed around the groups to make sure that all of the members were actively taking turns to explain and discuss their parts. She kept reminding them to use adjectives, adverbs, and vocabulary items relevant to education in the hope of polishing the report. At the evaluation stage, the groups were called for the presentation, in which each member was set to expose one of his/ her peers' part. In doing so, the teacher could ascertain the extent to which the teammates were positively interdependent (that is, each member was able to present the educational cycle on which his/her peers worked on revealed the extent of their positive interdependence). Then, to evaluate them, the teacher gave a quiz, which was in the form of a set of questions.

As preparation and brainstorming for the second part of the task, the teacher addressed some questions about the Algerian educational system: "what do you think of the currently adopted educational system in Algeria? Do you think that it has to be renovated?etc." Then, she asked the participants to join their already formed group in the first part of the task to prepare another oral report about 'an ideal Algerian educational system'. At the presentation stage and likewise the first part, the second part was jigsawed into three sections: (primary/middle school education, secondary education, higher/further education).

Each member had to work on a list of proposals meant for mending and revolutionizing the educational cycles currently existing in Algeria. The participants were reminded that the winner group is the one who managed at making use of modal verbs appropriately and who proposed efficient suggestions. Each group member has designated a part (primary and middle, secondary and higher education). The experts of equal parts met again around the same table, and they were given ten minutes to think of the best set of procedures they thought could renew that cycle of education in Algeria. Afterwards, the experts went back to their home groups to expose to their partners the lists of the suggested amendments. They interacted and cooperated for fifteen minutes to finish the proposal for a model.

Meanwhile, the teacher assigned each member a role to play in the task performance (a recorder of the information, a timekeeper and an organizer). At the evaluation stage, the groups took turns to perform orally, and the best performance was chosen based on implementing the language forms set for the task (using modals, describing through the use of adjectives and recycling the newly acquired vocabulary pertaining to education). Finally, after agreeing with all the participants, the teacher announced the winner group whose members were allotted time to celebrate their victory and all the other participants were requested to fill in the group processing form (See Appendix M)

Control Group

The participants in the control group were informed about the objectives set for the lesson. The teacher formed groups of three students and asked the participants to prepare a report about any given educational system around the world to expose it in front of their classmates. The participants were informed that they had to use adjectives to describe the chosen educational system that ought to be compared with the Algeria one. They were asked to prepare the task at home and perform it during the subsequent session. Then, each group

was given about ten minutes to present the report orally, and each of its members received questions from the teacher and the rest of the students in the classroom about his/her part.

5.2. Analysis of the Quasi-experiment Findings

The data collected from the speaking pretest and posttest are analysed in this section. The data obtained from the speaking pretest and the posttest are analysed in depth. The analysis is framed following the procedures of data analysis discussed in the research design chapter, in which the operational definitions to the three constructs of the speaking skill are articulated.

SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 22.0 was used to generate descriptive and inferential statistics to analyse the data (for more details see Appendix x). Two Nonparametric tests were applied because the variable measures were not normally distributed. Moreover, given that the study had relatively small samples, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test and the Mann-Whitney U test were used as they are assumed to be more appropriate than a paired-sample t-test to find the differences between the two tests. Put differently, since the variables did not show normal distribution ($p < 0,05$), these two non-parametric tests were used in data analysis. While the Mean and Standard deviations (SD herein and after) were used to account for the descriptive statistics to respond to the research questions and hypotheses, the non-parametric two tests (Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon) were run yield inferential statistics.

The Mann Whitney U test: "is a nonparametric test for assessing whether the difference between two unrelated samples can be accounted for by simple error alone." (Hawkins, 2005, p.155). As a non-parametric version and an alternative to the Two paired sample t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to calculate the dependent variables' differences (the Experimental and the Control) on two different occasions (the pre-test and the posttest).

Using this test denotes measuring data of the two samples at the scale ordinal levels (Hawkins; 2005, p.155). The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was performed to compare the pretest and posttest results within each group.

5.2.1. Accuracy Dependent Variable

Accuracy is the first dependent variable to scrutinize in this section. As discussed in **section 3.5.1.1** three types of accuracy are investigated within the frame of this study: syntactic accuracy, pronunciation accuracy and lexical accuracy. The findings of the data analysis are discussed in this section.

5.2.1.1. Syntactic Accuracy

Syntactic accuracy investigated within the frame of this study embraced: *tenses and verb forms, determiners, subject-verb agreement (SVA), sentence structure (SS), plural formation, noun pronoun reference (NPR), prepositions and conjunctions.*

Table 53

Descriptive Statistics for Tenses and Verb Forms EFC

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	88,6208	26,71424
Ex.G Post-t	24	92,8538	23,81267
C.G Pre-t	25	88,5080	46,34269
C.G Post-t	25	88,1620	25,62388

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As the table above exhibits, the mean scores of the Experimental Group (herein and after EX.G) and the Control Group (C.G herein and after) were more or less the same in the pretest (EX.G. M=88, 62; C.G M= 88, 50 the C.G), with a mean score difference = 0.12. The mean score of the EX.G posttest was M= 92.85, whereas the C.G.'s mean score was M=88.16. The Mean score difference between the two groups is 4.69, which is higher than the Mean score difference in the pretest. While the Mean score of the EX.G in the posttest

was higher than the pretest with a difference of 4.23 (M=88.62 in the pretest and M= 95.85 in the posttest), the Mean score of the C.G decreased with a difference of -0.34. (M=88.50 in the pretest and M= 88.16 in the posttest). Hence, the EX.G outperformed the C.G in composing tenses and verb forms EFC.

Table 54

Inferential Statistics for Tenses and Verb Forms

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	19	4	1	24	12,00	12,00	0,006
(C.G Post-t) - (C.G Pre-t)	11	14	0	25	12,41	13,46	0,484

Mann-Whitney U Test				
Groups	Ranges			Sig
	N			
Mean	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	24,88	0,952
Pre-t	C.G	25	25,12	
Post-t	Ex.G	24	30,19	0,013
Post-t	C.G	25	20,02	

Note. N=Subjects number EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, Sig= P-value.

To identify the growth of the participants' speech of each group (the intragroup difference) as to the use of tenses and verb forms EFC after the quasi-experiment, the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test was used. The EX.G did better in producing more tenses, and verb form EFC as the p-value (0.006) is lower than the significance level (usually 0.05). Nevertheless, the two dependent samples of the C.G demonstrated no significant difference as the p-value extended the probability significance level (≤ 0.05) Sig = 0.48).

As table 54 demonstrates, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the differences between the two independent groups (i.e., the intergroup comparison) using tenses and verb forms EFC as the dependent variable is not normally distributed. Hence, no statistically significant difference was identified between the two collections before the treatment started as the p-value (sig=0.95) was higher than the probability significance level (≤ 0.05). Nevertheless, the difference was statistically significant in the posttest as the p-value (0.48) extended the significance level (0.05). These results, which are in favour of the EX.G, more or less denote that the independent variable (CL method) was efficient in adjusting the participants' use of tenses and verb forms in their speech as the latter has statistically developed by the end of the experiment.

Table 55

Descriptive Statistics for Determiners EFC

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	98,3125	2,04500
Ex.G Post-t	24	99,1708	1,54708
C.G Pre-t	25	94,3048	6,97286
C.G Post-t	25	96,7952	4,64610

Note. EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 55 displays that the Mean of both independent groups was somehow different in producing determiners EFC, with a mean difference of (4.01) before the treatment. While in the posttest, the mean difference decreased to 2.38. Both SD of the EX.G and the C.G in the posttest decreased from 2.04 in the pretest to 1.54 in the posttest for the EX.G, and from 6.97 in the pretest to 4.64 in the posttest for the C.G.

Table 56

Inferential Statistics for Determiners EFC

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Mean						
	Rang⁺	Rang⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t) - (Ex.G Pre-t)	11	5	8	24	9,05	7,30	0,103
(C.G Post-t) - (C.G Pre-t)	14	6	5	25	11,11	9,08	0,059
Mann-Whitney Test							
Groups		Ranges				Sig	
		N				Mean	
Pre-t	Ex.G	24		29,21		0,36	
Pre-t	C.G	25		20,96			
Post-t	Ex.G	24		28,77		0,045	
Post-t	C.G	25		21,38			

Note. N=Subjects number EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, Sig= P-value.

According to table 56 the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test shows no intra-group statistical growth of EX.G as to the correct use of determiners in speech compared to the C.G since the p-value of the EX.G (Sig= 0.36) was higher than the probability significance level (0.05). Contrariwise, the C.G scored significantly higher as their p-value was estimated to 0.05, which is equivalent to the significance level (≤ 0.05). Therefore, we can deduce that the C.G statistically improved compared to the EX.G.

The statistical difference of the inter-groups was computed by using the Mann-Whitney U test was used. The test demonstrates that the mean score of the EX.G in the pretest was estimated to 29.21 and it slightly declined to 28.77, with a mean difference of 0.44. In comparison, the C.G in the pretest was 20.96. It slightly increased to 21.38 in the posttest with a mean difference of 0.42. There was no statistically significant difference in

producing EFC of determiners before receiving the treatment between the two groups, as the p-value exceeded the significance value (0.05) (sig=0.36). Nevertheless, there was a statistically significant growth at the end of the quasi-experiment as the significance value was lower than the level (0.045<0.05).

Table 57

Descriptive Statistics for SVA EFC

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	92,1833	6,90162
Ex.G Post-t	24	96,9113	2,45796
C.G Pre-t	25	95,3192	6,46090
C.G Post-t	25	93,1280	7,84079

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 57 above reveals that C.G outperformed the EX.G in the pretest with a mean difference of 3.13. Nevertheless, the EX.G achieved a higher score (M= 96.91) than the C.G (M= 31.12) in the posttest. The EX.G promoted their speaking accuracy in forming SVA error-free clauses by the end of the treatment, with a mean difference of 4.73. Contrariwise, the C.G declined significantly by the end of the remedial phase (the pretest and the posttest mean difference was estimated to M= -2.19).

Table 58

Inferential Statistics for SVA EFC

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t) - (Ex.G Pre-t)	18	5	1	24	13,67	6,00	0,001

(C.G Post-t) - (C.G Pre-t)		10	13	2	25	9,10	14,23	0,153
Mann-Whitney U Test								
Groups		Ranges					Sig	
		N	Mean					
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	21,02			0,053		
	C.G	25	28,82					
Post-t	Ex.G	24	28,15			0,130		
	C.G	25	21,98					

Note. N=Subjcets number EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, Sig= P-value.

The Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test was used to identify the intragroup growth of the Ex. G participants' speech as to forming clauses free of SVA error after the treatment took place. The findings demonstrate that there is a statistically significant growth in the EXG ($p=0.001$; <0.05), which is not the case in the C.G ($p = 0.153$). The positive ranges of the EX.G were calculated to 13.67 (18 out of 24 proved progress in forming SVA EFC, and only 5 did not-negative range was estimated to 6.00). The C.G positive range was calculated to 9.10, with 10 participants out of 25 who did better in this accuracy aspect. The negative range, however, was higher than the EX.G (14.23). These results can only but signify that the treatment proved its efficacy in promoting the EX.G speaking accuracy in forming clauses that are well-constructed as to SVA.

The inferential statistics, generated by the use of Mann Whitney U test demonstrated in table 58 reveal that there was a significant statistically substantial intergroup difference before the treatment implementation as the p-value was equal to the significant difference value ($p \text{ value} = 0.05$). At the posttest phase, however, no statistical difference was identified. The p-value ($p=0.13$) was higher than the significance probability level (0.05).

Table 59

Descriptive Statistics of SS EFC

SS	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	95,6067	4,96066
Ex.G Post-t	24	98,0583	2,74130
C.G Pre-t	25	85,2424	11,62790
C.G Post-t	25	91,2812	5,38798

Note. N=Subjctets number, EX.G =Exprimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As revealed in table 59, the descriptive statistics of the two groups as to forming accurate sentence structure show a remarkable mean score difference before the experiment (10.36) with standard deviations of 4.960 and 11.627 for the EX.G the C.G, respectively. The EX. mean score (95.606) was higher than the C.G (85.242) before the remedial work started. The EX.G mean score - estimated at 98.058 by the end of the experiment- was higher than the one obtained by the C.G (91. 821) with a mean difference of 6. 23.

The identify the statistical difference between the mean scores of the C.G and EX.G, the Wilcoxon and Mann Whitney tests were run.

Table 60

Inferential Statistics for SS EFC

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Rang ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	13	7	4	24	11,69	8,29	0,079
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	15	9	1	25	15,40	7,67	0,021

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Ranges							

Groups		N	Mean	Sig
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	32,92	0,000
	C.G	25	17,40	
Post-t	Ex.G	24	34,46	0,000
	C.G	25	15,92	

Note. N=Subjects number EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, Sig= P-value.

The table above indicates that while there was no intragroup statistical significant growth as to the construction of well-structured sentences for the EX.G ($p= 0.07$), the inferential statistics of the C.G revealed a significant development with a 0.21 p-value (<0.05). Hence, in terms of composing accurate English sentence structures, these findings suggest that the treatment (the use of CL to learn the speaking skill) was not sufficiently efficient in developing the EX.G participants' speech as the C.G progressed better at the end of the experiment.

To further compare the statistical differences between the two groups, the Mann-Whitney U test was run. The yielded findings indicate that both groups, whose p-value is 0.000, scored less than the significance of producing spoken accurate sentence structures. These results suggest that both groups evolved by the end of the experiment.

Table 61

Descriptive Statistics for Plural Form EFC

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	99,1738	1,83173
Ex.G Post-t	24	99,8958	,37704
C.G Pre-t	25	99,1572	1,94993
C.G Post-t	25	99,0760	2,89961

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As demonstrated in the table above, the EX.G and C.G mean scores in the pretest were close (M=99.17 and M=99.15, respectively), with a mean difference of 0.02. It can only but signify that they had almost the same level before the treatment. The mean score difference of both groups in the posttest elevated slightly to 0.08. The mean score difference of the EX.G was estimated to 0.72 after the treatment. It demonstrates a slight growth compared to the C.G, whose mean score difference regressed to -0.08.

Table 62

Inferential Statistics for Plural Form EFC

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N				Mean		
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t) - (Ex.G Pre-t)	5	2	17	24	5,00	1,50	0,063
(C.G Post-t) - (C.G Pre-t)	3	3	19	25	4,00	3,00	0,753

Mann-Whitney U Test					
Groups		Ranges			Sig
		N	Mean		
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	24,92		0,955
	C.G	25	25,08		
Post-t	Ex.G	24	25,58		0,594
	C.G	25	24,44		

Note. N=Subjects number EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, Sig= P-value.

The inferential statistics of the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test, which is used to discern the intragroup growth, show that neither the EX.G, whose statistical significance was superior to the level ($p = 0.06 > 0.05$), nor the C.G, whose statistical significance is higher than 0.05 ($p = 0.7$), made significant growth as to producing plural forms EFC.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to probe the intergroup difference in terms of the appropriate use of plural forms in speech. The table above exhibits that no statistically significant difference was detected at the initial phase of the quasi-experiment, as the p-value was estimated to 0.955 (sig 0.955 > p=0.05). The treatment did not prove any significant growth as the p-value was calculated to 0.594.

Table 63

Descriptive Statistics for NPR EFC

NPR	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	91,8458	11,18916
Ex.G Post-t	24	98,6583	2,17110
C.G Pre-t	25	95,7160	6,45527
C.G Post-t	25	95,9916	6,17521

Note. N=Subjctets number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The mean score obtained by EX.G (91.845) in the pretest was inferior to the C.G (95.991) before the experiment study started with a Standard deviation of 11.18 and 6.455, respectively. While the EX.G mean score elevated at the posttest to 98.658, with a mean difference of 6.81, the C.G mean score relegated to 95.991, making a slight mean difference of 0.28. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test and Mann-Whitney U test were run to identify whether the mean score difference of the two groups was statistically significant as to producing NPR EFC. The findings are displayed in the following table.

Table 64

Inferential Statistics for NPR EFC

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N				Mean		
	Range⁺	Range⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	14	2	8	24	9,36	2,50	0,001
(C.G Post-t) - (C.G Pre-t)	6	8	11	25	8,33	6,88	0,875

Mann-Whitney U Test					
NPR		Ranges			Sig
		N		Mean	
Pre-t	Ex.G	24		22,58	0,217
	C.G	25		27,32	
Post-t	Ex.G	24		26,92	0,319
	C.G	25		23,16	

Note. N=Subjects number EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, Sig= P-value.

The EX.G intragroup growth, as displayed by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, was statistically significant as the difference between the scores of the pretest and the posttest p-value was smaller than the significance level (i.e., $0.001 < 0.005$). Contrariwise, the mean score difference of the C.G did not statistically elevate as the p-value, which is 0.875, exceeded the significance probability level (0.05). Hence, one can confidently state that the treatment was practical in reducing inaccurate clauses of the NPR construction in speech.

The intergroup differences of the scores obtained before and after the treatment, as shown in the table above, shows that both groups were neither different at the pretest nor the post-test as the p-value were 0.217 and 0.319, respectively. The p-values in both tests are higher than the probability significance level (i.e., 0.217 and $0.319 > 0.05$).

Table 65

Descriptive Statistics for Prepositions EFC

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	96,0404	3,86484
Ex.G Post-t	24	97,6262	2,40406
C.G Pre-t	25	95,2652	6,30198
C.G Post-t	25	96,8880	2,45905

Note. N=Subjctets number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The descriptive statistics demonstrated in table 65 show that the mean score obtained by both groups in the pretest was close (EX.G M= 96.040 and C.G M=95.26) with a mean score difference equal to 0.75. And so were the mean scores of the two groups in the posttest, as the mean score difference between them is equivalent to 0.74 (EXG M= 97.62, C.G M= 96.88). The significant statistical difference in both tests was calculated by the Wilcoxon Signed-rank and Mann-Whitney tests. The results are shown in the table below.

Table 66

Inferential Statistics for Prepositions EFC

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	16	5	3	24	10,16	13,70	0,102
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	11	10	4	25	12,05	9,85	0,555

Mann-Whitney U Test				
Groups	Ranges			Sig
	N			
	Mean			
Ex.G	24		24,44	

Pre-t	C.G	25	25,54	0,785
	Ex.G	24	27,19	
Post-t	C.G	25	22,90	0,287

Note. N=Subjects number EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, Sig= P-value.

In using the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test, no significant growth in the intragroup mean scores of the EX.G after receiving the treatment was noted, as demonstrated in table 66. The p-value was higher than the significance level (i.e., $0.102 > 0.05$). Likewise, the C.G did not prove any significant progress as to forming preposition EFC while speaking. Their statistical mean score difference was not significant, as it exceeded the p-value level. Thus, these findings can only signify that the treatment did not prove its significance in adjusting the participants' correct use of prepositions in speech.

Similarly, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed that neither the EX.G nor the C.G showed improvement in the accurate use of prepositions. The intergroup comparison of the performance in both instances (the pretest and posttest) was higher than the significance probability level (pretest $p=0.785 > 0.05$, posttest $p= 0.287 > 0.05$). Accordingly, one can confidently say that the treatment was not that efficient in enhancing the correct use of prepositions while speaking English in the classroom.

Table 67

Descriptive Statistics for Conjunctions EFC

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	100,0000	,00000
Ex.G Post-t	24	99,9417	,28577
C.G Pre-t	25	99,4852	1,13808
C.G Post-t	25	99,1760	1,74554

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The descriptive statistics in the table above show that the mean score difference between the two groups was equivalent to 0.059 before the experiment (EX.G M= 100.000, C.G 99.485). While in the post-test, it was calculated to 0.765 (EX.G M=99.941; C.G M= 99.176). A slight rise of 0.059 was noticed in the mean score of the EX.G pretest compared to the posttest (pretest M=100.000, SD= .000, posttest M= 99.941, SD= 0.285). The C.G mean score in the pretest was estimated to 99.485 (SD=1.138), and in the posttest, it was 99.176 (SD=1.745). To identify the statistical difference between the two groups and each group's performance in both tests, both the Wilcoxon-signed rank and Mann-Whitney U tests, whose results are displayed subsequently, were run.

Table 68

Inferential Statistics for Conjunctions EFC

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N				Mean		
	Range⁺	Range⁻	Exa equo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	0	1	23	24	0,00	1,00	0,317
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	3	6	16	25	6,00	4,50	0,594

Mann-Whitney U Test					
Groups		Ranges			Sig
		N	Mean		
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	27,50		0,022
	C.G	25	22,60		
Post-t	Ex.G	24	27,56		0,043
	C.G	25	22,54		

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As the table above exhibits, the intragroup performance calculated by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was not statistically significant after having received the treatment, as the p-value exceeded the significance level ($0.317 > 0.05$). Likewise, the C.G showed no statistical growth as to the correct use of conjunctions while speaking English; the p-value of the group was above the level ($0.594 > 0.05$). Bearing in mind the yielded findings, we can assuredly disclose that the dependent variable (i.e., the CL method) did not assist the subjects in improving their correct use of conjunctions while producing the English language orally.

The table above demonstrates a statistically significant difference between the subjects in the EX.G and the C.G before the experiment by implementing the Mann-Whitney U test. The p-value $0.022 > 0.05$ discloses a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the pretest (4.90). Thus, this means that the two groups did not have the same level of using conjunctions accurately in a speech before the treatment. Similarly, by the end of the treatment, the significant statistical difference between the mean scores of the two groups persisted on the posttest as the p-value was less than the level (0.043). However, we cannot assume that this difference is owed to the application of the CL method as both groups differed in this language accuracy aspect (the correct use of conjunctions) before the introduction of the new lessons to teach the speaking skill.

5.2.1.2. Pronunciation Accuracy

As discussed earlier, pronunciation accuracy probed in this study refers to the correct pronunciation of segments (phonemes) and the correct stress placement within word level. The pronunciation accuracy referred to in this research is about the segmental level and not to the suprasegmental one.

Table 69

Descriptive Statistics for Pronunciation Accuracy

Group	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	95,6213	2,08136
Ex.G Post-t	24	96,1646	2,27100
C.G Pre-t	25	95,4320	1,87628
C.G Post-t	25	95,6296	3,26357

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As the table above shows, the EX.G and C.G mean score were close (M=95.621, M=95.432, respectively) before the experiment. The mean difference between the two groups was equivalent to 0.189. At the end of the treatment, the EX.G mean score was superior to the C.G by a mean difference of 0.535 (EX.G M= 96.164, C.G M= 95.629). While the mean score of the EX.G slightly increased in the posttest (pretest M=96.164 SD= 2.081, posttest M=95.621, SD= 2.271, making a mean score difference of 0.543), the one of the C.G progressed less (pretest M= 95.432, SD= 1.876, posttest M= 95.629, SD= 3.263, making a mean score difference of 0.197).

Table 70

Inferential Statistics for Pronunciation Accuracy

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Range⁺	Range⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	14	10	0	24	13,25	11,45	0,310
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	15	10	0	25	14,30	11,05	0,162

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Ranges							

Groups		N	Mean	Sig
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	25,79	0,704
	C.G	25	24,24	
Post-t	Ex.G	24	25,52	0,802
	C.G	25	24,50	

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As shown in table 70, no intragroup statistical difference was identified in the EX.G by the end experiment regarding pronunciation accuracy as the p-value was higher than the probability significance level (sig=0.310>0.05). So was the case of the C.G because the p-value was less than the probability significance level (sig=0.162>0.05).

Likewise, the implementation of the Mann-Whitney U test disclosed that none of the groups achieved a better pronunciation at the segmental level (the accurate pronunciation of English phonemes and exercising accurate word stress placement). The p-value of both groups was higher than the level (EXG sig=0.704, C.G sig= 0.802). Hence, these results suggest that implementing the CL method in teaching the speaking skill was not significant to develop the participants' pronunciation accuracy.

5.2.1.3. Lexical Accuracy

As reviewed earlier, lexical accuracy refers to using accurate (target-like) vocabulary items, including collocations.

Table 71

Descriptive Statistics for Lexical Accuracy

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	94,3796	4,17559
Ex.G Post-t	24	96,5800	3,74371
C.G Pre-t	25	91,1400	7,67203
C.G Post-t	25	93,0620	5,74145

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The descriptive statistics displayed in table 71 show that the mean score of the EX.G progressed with a mean difference of 2.201 (pretest M=94.379 and SD =4.175, posttest M=96.580 and SD=3.743). Similarly, the C.G. mean score evolved from 91.140 (SD=7.672) in the pretest to 93.062 in the posttest (SD= 5.741) with a mean score difference equivalent to 1.922. The following table displays the statistically significant difference within the group (intragroup difference) and between them (intergroup difference).

Table 72

Inferential Statistics for Lexical Accuracy

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	15	5	4	24	11,37	7,90	0,014
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	15	9	1	25	12,73	12,11	0,241

Mann-Whitney U Test					
Groups		Ranges			Sig
		N	Mean		
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	27,75		0,186
	C.G	25	22,36		
Post-t	Ex.G	24	30,17		0,013
	C.G	25	20,04		

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test revealed significant statistical growth in lexical accuracy among the EX.G participants at the end of the treatment. The mean score difference

of the EX.G was inferior to the significance level ($\text{sig}=0.014<0.05$). However, no noticeable significant statistical growth was identified as to the target-like use of lexis in speaking performance in the C.G. The mean score difference was superior to the level ($\text{sig}=0.241<0.05$).

The Mann-Whitney U test, whose results are displayed in the table above, demonstrates no statistically significant difference between the two groups at the start of the treatment as the p-value exceeded the level ($\text{sig}=0.186<0.05$). Nevertheless, the EX.G outperformed the C.G in the posttest in terms of using accurate vocabulary items. The statistically significant difference between the two groups was inferior to the significance level ($\text{sig}=0.013>0.05$). Thus, these findings indicate that the independent variable (CL method) efficiently enhanced the participants' lexical accuracy in speech.

5.2.2. Fluency Dependent Variable

The second dependent variable investigated in this research is fluency. The same tests used to probe accuracy variables are implemented to measure the participants' speaking fluency growth. Hence, both descriptive and inferential statistics are used to account for fluency construct. Within the frame of this research, and as elucidated in section 3.5.2.2) two aspects of fluency are investigated: temporal variables standing for speech rate and pause length and hesitation phenomena relating to reformulation, replacement, false start, and repetition. The findings are displayed in this section.

5.2.2.1. Temporal Variables

Two temporal variables were investigated: participants' speech rate and the length of pauses.

- Speech Rate

Table 73

Descriptive Statistics for Speech Rate

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	2,1046	,65585
Ex.G Post-t	24	2,5625	,76741
C.G Pre-t	25	1,9508	,49367
C.G Post-t	25	2,0872	,52685

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The table above demonstrates that the EX.G mean score increased slightly, making a difference of 0.458 at the end of the treatment (pretest M=2.104, posttest M=2.562, and SD= .655 in the pretest and SD=.767 in the posttest). As for the C.G, the mean score of the pretest (M=1.950) augmented to 2.08 in the posttest. The mean score difference equivalent to 0.137. SD of the C.G in the pretest, estimated to .493, slightly increased to 0.526. The mean difference of the performance of the two groups in the pretest was equivalent to 0.154 (EX.G pretest M=2.104, C.G M=1.950), while the posttest mean difference was calculated to 0.475. Hence, to discern the statistically significant difference between the two groups (intergroup difference) and within the groups (intragroup difference) in speech rate development, inferential statistics were run. The results are displayed subsequently.

Table 74

Inferential Statistics for Speech Rate

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	

(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	19	4	1	24	13,42	5,25	0,000
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	14	11	0	25	14,61	10,95	0,258
Mann-Whitney U Test							
Groups		Ranges				Sig	
		N	Mean				
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	26,73		0,407		
	C.G	25	23,34				
Post-t	Ex.G	24	29,67		0,025		
	C.G	25	20,52				

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 74 shows that the significant statistical growth of the EX.G (the intragroup mean score statistical difference) was very high by the end of the treatment as it was inferior to the significance probability ($\text{sig}=0.000 > 0.05$). Conversely, the Wilcoxon test revealed no improvement as to speech rate fluency measure for the C.G since the p-value was above the probability level ($\text{sig} = 0.258 > 0.05$). As shown in the table, 19 subjects out of 24 (range+) in the EX.G enhanced their speech rate in the posttest, while only 4 did not (range-). Inferior to the EX.G, in the C.G, only 14 out of 25 subjects (range+) could improve their speech rate at the end of the experiment while 11 could not (range-). These inferential statistics connote that the treatment was significant in enhancing this aspect of fluency for the EX.G, which is not the case for the non-treatment group (i.e., C.G).

- Pause Length

Table 75

Descriptive Statistics for Pause Length

Pause Length	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	18,2917	15,36931
Ex.G Post-t	24	6,9167	9,74419
C.G Pre-t	25	15,7600	15,82266
C.G Post-t	25	13,0000	10,93161

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The table above demonstrates that the mean score of the C.G was inferior to the one of the EX.G by 2.531 (EX.G M= 18.291, C.G M= 15.760) before the treatment, but the standard deviations of both groups were so close, with a mean score difference equal to 0.46 (EX.G SD =15.369, C.G SD=15.822). The mean score of the EX.G suggests growth in their pause length in the posttest compared to the C.G, with a mean difference equivalent to M=1.187. The EX.G mean score regressed from 18,291 in the pretest to 6.916, making a difference of 4.459 (SD pretest M= 15.369 to SD posttest M=9.744), while the C.G mean score shifted from 15.760 in the pretest to 13.000; a difference that is equal to 2.760 (SD M= 15.822 in the pretest to SD posttest M=10.931).

Table 76

Inferential Statistics for Pause Length

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N		Mean				
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Exaequo	Total	Range	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	4	19	1	24	8,13	12,82	0,001
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	11	13	1	25	11,68	13,19	0,539

Mann-Whitney U Test				
	Groups	Ranges		Sig
		N	Mean	
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	26,42	0,496
	C.G	25	23,64	
Post-t	Ex.G	24	19,54	0,009
	C.G	25	30,24	

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As exhibited in the table above, a highly intragroup significant statistical growth is noticed in the EX.G as the mean score difference was inferior to the significance probability level ($\text{sig}=0.001 < 0.05$). Only 4 subjects out of 24 in the EX.G made longer pause length in the posttest. Meanwhile, the majority (19/24) spent shorter pauses. Contrariwise, the non-treatment group (i.e., C.G) made no significant statistical progress as the p-value was above the average ($\text{sig}=0.539 > 0.05$), only 13 out of 25 (range-) could reduce the length of their pauses. The findings yielded from the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test denote that the treatment brought positive effects in developing this aspect of fluency among the participants of the EX.G.

The Mann-Whitney test showed no intergroup statistical significant difference between the two groups before the treatment, as the p-value was higher than the level ($\text{sig}=0.496 > 0.05$). Nevertheless, the performance of both groups in the posttest was statistically different as to making shorter pauses while speaking ($\text{sig}=0.009 < 0.05$). These findings connote that the CL method assisted the EX.G learners in reducing the duration of the silence made in the speaking process. Thereby, they became more fluent as the shorter the pauses EFL speakers make, the fluent they are deemed.

5.2.2.2. Hesitation Phenomena

Four hesitation phenomena are scrutinised within the frame of the present research: *reformulation, replacement, false start and repetition.*

- Reformulation Hesitation Phenomena

Table 77

Descriptive Statistics for Reformulation Hesitation Phenomenon

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	2,7500	2,47158
Ex.G Post-t	24	2,2500	1,89393
C.G Pre-t	25	2,3600	1,60416
C.G Post-t	25	3,4800	2,58392

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As highlighted in table 77 the mean score of the EX.G pretest was slightly higher than the CG, with a difference that is equivalent to 0.39 (EG. M= 2.750, C.G M= 2.360). So was SD of the EX.G in the pretest (EX.G SD=2.471, C.G. SD= 1.604) as the difference was calculated to 0.867. In the posttest, however, the C.G mean score was higher than the EX.G (C.G.M= 3.480, EX.G M=2.250), with a mean difference equal to 1.23. The C.G SD was higher than the one of EX.G (C.G. SD=2.58, EX.G SD=2.583). To statistically identify the difference between the two groups and among the participants of the same group, the following table is introduced.

Table 78

Inferential Statistics for the Reformulation Hesitation Phenomenon

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test			
Groups	Ranges		Sig
	N	Mean	

	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	6	11	7	24	10,25	8,32	0,474
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	15	9	1	25	13,60	10,67	0,119

Mann-Whitney U Test			
Groups	Ranges		Sig
	N	Mean	
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	0,799
	C.G	25	
Post-t	Ex.G	24	0,075
	C.G	25	

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 78 denotes that neither the EX.G nor the C.G could develop this aspect of fluency. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test shows that both groups' p-values were above the probability significance level (EX.G sig=0.474>0.05, C.G sig=0.119>0.05). Hence, we can overtly state that the CL method did not help the treatment reduce this hesitation phenomenon as a sign of speech fluency.

No intergroup significant statistical difference was discerned before the treatment, as the pretest p-value was higher than the probability significance level (sig= 0.799>0.05). Likewise, as the Mann-Whitney test shows, no statistical growth was perceived by the end of the experiment since the p-value was high (sig=0.0750>0.05). Thus, the findings disconfirm the practicality of the CL method in diminishing the reformulation hesitation phenomenon.

- Replacement Hesitation Phenomena

Table 79

Descriptive Statistics for Replacement Hesitation Phenomenon

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	1,9583	1,89918
Ex.G Post-t	24	1,3750	1,40844
C.G Pre-t	25	2,1200	1,81016
C.G Post-t	25	2,6400	2,01825

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The mean score difference of the EX.G was calculated to -0.588 (pretest M=1.958, posttest M= 1.375), while the one of the C.G was 0.52 (pretest M= 2.120, posttest M= 2.640). The standard deviations were 1.899 and 1.408, respectively. The CG. Pretest and posttest mean scores were M=1.810, M=2.018 respectively, making a difference of 0.52. The standard deviations of the C.G two tests were SD=1.81, SD=2.01, respectively. The mean score difference between the two groups was not high (M=0.162) before the treatment, and even the SD difference was only 0.089 (EX.G SD= 1.899, C.G SD= 1.899). However, at the end of the experiment, the mean score difference between the two groups was higher than the pretest (1.265, EXG posttest M=1.375, C.G posttest M= 2.640). The standard deviations were also higher than the pretest, with a difference of 0.61 (EX.G posttest SD= 1.375, CG posttest SD= 2.018). These findings show that standard deviations of the EX.G pretest and the posttest were close to the mean scores of both tests compared to SDs of C.G. Thus, to identify the statistical difference between the two groups, the Mann Whitney U test and Wilcoxon Signed- Rank tests were run.

Table 80

Inferential Statistics for Replacement Hesitation Phenomenon

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	

(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	6	11	7	24	6,58	10,32	0,076
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	14	9	2	25	11,54	12,72	0,467
Mann-Whitney U Test							
Groups		Ranges				Sig	
		N	Mean				
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	24,21		0,697		
	C.G	25	25,76				
Post-t	Ex.G	24	19,73		0,010		
	C.G	25	30,06				

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The Wilcoxon Signed-rank test reveals that neither the EX.G nor the C.G proved any intragroup statistical significant growth as to replacement hesitation phenomenon. The p-value of both groups were higher than the significance probability level (EX.G sig= 0.076 >0.05, C.G 5253 sig= 0.467 > 0.05). Only 6 subjects out of 24 in the EX.G managed to make fewer replacements by the end of the experiment. While 11 of them augmented their replacements in the posttest, 14 participants in the C.G made more substitutions, and only 9 out of 25 could reduce them in the posttest.

As the Mann-Whitney U test shows, there was no intergroup difference between the EX.G and the C.G before the treatment. The mean scores were 24.21 and 25.76, respectively. The p-value of the pretest was higher than the significance probability level (sig= 0.697 >0.05). Unlike the C.G, the EX.G made statistically significant growth in reducing the replacement hesitation phenomenon by the end of the experiment (sig= 0.010 <0.05). Thus, it is concluded that the treatment was practical in decreasing the replacement phenomenon and thereby developing their fluency in speaking.

- False Start Hesitation Phenomenon

Table 81

Descriptive Statistics for False Start Hesitation Phenomenon

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	3,1250	2,13282
Ex.G Post-t	24	1,3750	1,34528
C.G Pre-t	25	2,2800	1,79165
C.G Post-t	25	2,6800	1,99416

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 81 exhibits that in the pretest, the mean score of the EX.G was 3.125 (SD= 2.132), and it reduced to 1.375 in the posttest (SD= 1.345). The C.G pretest mean score was inferior to the posttest (M=2.680 and M= 2.280, respectively) with a standard deviation of 1.791 in the pretest and 1.994 in the posttest. While the mean score difference between the two groups before the treatment was 0.845, it slightly elevated to 1.31 by the end of the treatment, and so do standard deviations (difference of the pretest SD= 0.341, difference of the posttest SD= 0.649).

Table 82

Inferential Statistics for False Start Hesitation Phenomenon

Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test							
Groups	Ranges				Mean	Sig	
	N						
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total			
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	3	19	2	24	9,83	11,76	0,001
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	9	10	6	25	11,94	8,25	0,604

Mann-Whitney U Test							
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	Groups	Ranges		Sig
		N	Mean	
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	27,83	0,168
	C.G	25	22,28	
Post-t	Ex.G	24	19,83	0,011
	C.G	25	29,96	

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 82 reveals that there was statistically significant growth in the EX.G in diminishing false starts while speaking. 19 subjects out of 25 were able to get rid of these false starts in the posttest, while only 3 of them did not (range +; range-). The p-value of EX.G was inferior to the probability significance level ($sig=0.001<0.05$). Contrariwise, no intragroup statistical difference was noticed in the C.G as the p-value was high ($0.604>0.05$). These findings imply that the treatment group benefited from the CL method and performed better in making fewer false starts at the end of the experiment than the C.G.

As displayed in the table above, the Mann-Whitney test indicates no statistically significant difference between the two groups before the treatment was introduced as the p-value was higher than the level ($sig= 0.168<0.05$). However, a highly statistically significant role was perceived by the end as the p-value was higher than the level ($sig=0.01<0.05$). Therefore, the CL method is deemed valuable in developing this aspect of fluency (i.e., reducing false starts in speech).

- Repetition Hesitation Phenomenon

Table 83

Descriptive Statistics for Repetition Hesitation Phenomenon

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	8,6667	7,73848
Ex.G Post-t	24	4,6250	4,75315

C.G Pre-t	25	9,5200	6,05613
C.G Post-t	25	10,3200	7,06942

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The table above indicates that the mean score difference between the EX.G and the C.G was equivalent to 0.86 in the pretest (EX.G M=8.666, C.G M= 9.520), with SD of 7.738 and 6.056, respectively. However, in the post-test, the C.G (M= 10.320) mean score was higher than the one of the EX.G (M=4.625). The mean score difference of 6.055. The EX.G made better performance as they did fewer repetitions in their speech than the C.G in the posttest. It was reflected in the drop of the mean score in the posttest for the EX.G (pretest M=8.666, posttest M=4.625). Contrariwise, the C.G marked a slight increase in the mean score and SD (pretest M=9.520, posttest M=10.320).

The Wilcoxon-signed Rank and the Mann-Whitney tests were conducted to identify the statistical mean intragroup and intergroup difference as to the repetition phenomenon.

Table 84

Inferential Statistics for Repetition Hesitation Phenomenon.

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range⁺	Range⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	1	18	5	24	2,50	10,42	0,000
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	11	13	1	25	14,77	10,58	0,720

Mann-Whitney U Test				
Groups	Ranges			Sig
	N	Mean		
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	22,69	0,265
	C.G	25	27,22	

Post-t	Ex.G	24	16,48	0,000
	C.G	25	33,18	

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The findings of the Wilcoxon-Signed rank test in the table above demonstrates that there is an intragroup statistical significant growth in the EX.G as to making fewer repetitions while speaking compared to the C.G. The EX.G p-value was under the significant level ($0.000 < 0.05$) while the one of the C.G was superior to it ($0.720 > 0.05$). Therefore, we can assuredly state that the treatment was effective in decreasing the repetition hesitation phenomenon while speaking among the participants of the EX.G.

As for the intergroup statistical difference, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed that before the treatment was applied, the participants of both groups were equal in terms of their speech rate as no statistically significant difference was perceived ($\text{sig}=0.265 > 0.05$). Nevertheless, the EX.G proved its superiority over the C.G in making fewer repetitions while speaking as the p-value was less than the significance level ($\text{sig}=0.000 < 0.05$). Hence, these results denote that the CL lessons applied to teach the speaking skill were significantly valuable in enhancing this fluency index.

5.2.3. Complexity Dependent Variable

Complexity is the third dependent variable investigated in this study. This section is devoted to discussing both the descriptive and inferential statistics yielded in data analysis. As reviewed in **section 3.5.3.2**, two aspects of complexity are probed in this study: syntactic and lexical complexity.

5.2.3.1. Syntactic Complexity

Two features of lexical complexity were analysed: subordination *amount* and the *number of verb forms used*

- Subordination

Table 85

Descriptive Statistics for Subordination

Subordination Amount	N	Mean	Std
Ex.G Pre-t	24	1,4188	,29323
Ex.G Post-t	24	1,1929	,09224
C.G Pre-t	25	1,3956	,20168
C.G Post-t	25	1,2796	,13755

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The mean score of the EX.G was slightly higher than the C.G in the pretest (M=1.418, M=1.395 respectively), with a mean difference equal to 0.023. Standard deviations were also close in the pretest (EX.G SD= .293, C.G. SD=.201). In the posttest, the mean score of the EX.G was 1.192, while the one of the C.G was equal to 1.375. The descriptive statistics displayed in the table above demonstrates that the SD of the EX.G dropped to 0.922, making a difference of 0.629. While the C.G SD decreased from .201 in the pretest to .137 in the posttest, making a difference of 0.064. Thus, to identify the statistically significant difference between the two groups, the following table is inserted.

Table 86

Inferential Statistics for the Subordination Amount

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pret)	4	18	2	24	5,75	12,78	0,001
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	9	16	0	25	9,28	15,09	0,034

Mann-Whitney U Test	
Ranges	

Groups		N	Mean	Sig
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	24,38	0,764
	C.G	25	25,60	
Post-t	Ex.G	24	20,29	0,024
	C.G	25	29,52	

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As the table above shows, the Wilcoxon Signed –rank Test proved a highly intragroup statistical significant growth as to the subordination amount in the speech of the EX.G participants as the p-value was inferior to the significance level ($\text{sig}=0.001 < 0.05$). Likewise, the C.G participants' oral performances comprised more subordinations at the second instance of their evaluation (i.e., posttest) as the p-value was smaller than the level ($\text{sig}=0.034 > 0.05$). Hence, the participants in both groups improved the use of subordination amount as a feature of speaking complexity.

The Mann-Whitney U test was run to identify the intergroup difference. As table shows, no statistically significant difference was counted in the pretest as the p-value was over the probability significance level ($\text{sig}=0.764 > 0.05$). Nevertheless, there was a statistically significant difference in the posttest between the experimental and control groups favouring the experimental group ($\text{sig}= 0.024 < 0.05$). Hence, what can be inferred from these findings is that albeit both groups could develop their speaking complexity in terms of using more subordinations, the EX.G's growth was higher than the C.G.

- Number of Verb Forms

Table 87

Descriptive Statistics for the Number of the Verb Forms

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	3,3750	1,01350
Ex.G Post-t	24	5,0417	1,16018
C.G Pre-t	25	3,6400	1,55134
C.G Post-t	25	3,7200	1,06145

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 87 displays the descriptive statistics for the number of verb forms used by the participants of the two groups. The mean score of the C.G was superior to the EX.G in the pretest with a difference equal to 0.265 (EX.G M=3.375, C.G M=3.640 with SD=1.013, SD=1.551, respectively). In the posttest, however, the EX.G mean score was higher than the one of the C.G, with a difference equal to 1.321 (EX.G M= 5.041, C.G M= 1.061). The mean score of the EX.G in the pretest elevated from 3.375 to 5.041 with a slight increase of SD (pretest SD= 1.013, posttest SD= 1.160). On the other hand, the mean score of the C.G in the posttest slightly increased from 3.640 to 3.720, with a drop of SD (pretest SD= 1.551, posttest SD= 1.061). The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to investigate the intragroup statistical difference of both groups, and the Mann-Whitney U test was run to identify the intergroup significance difference as to the implementation of various types of verb forms. The findings are displayed in the table below.

Table 88

Inferential Statistics for the Number of the Verb Forms

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	19	0	5	24	10,00	0,00	0,000
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	11	9	5	25	10,59	10,39	0,651

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
		N	Mean				
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	24,38				0,757
	C.G	25	25,60				
Post-t	Ex.G	24	32,46				0,000
	C.G	25	17,84				

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As shown in table 88, highly statistically significant growth was identified in the performance of the EX.G as to utilizing more verb tenses while performing orally by the end of the treatment. 19 participants out of 24 in the EX.G could vary the verb forms and tenses in the posttest more than the pretest. Astonishingly, no subject made fewer tenses in the second instance of evaluation (i.e., posttest). The p-value of the EX.G performance was inferior to the probability significance level (sig= 0.000<0.05). On the other hand, no intragroup statistically evidenced significant growth was demonstrated among the participants of the C.G as the p-value was higher than the level (sig= 0.651>0.05).

Furthermore, the implementation of the Wilcoxon test exhibited that only 11 out of 25 participants in the non-treatment group could use more tenses and verb forms. Moreover, 9 of them used less in the posttest. Hence, in analysing these findings, one can confidently state that the treatment was practical in making the EX.G participants' speech more complex regarding the variety of tenses and verb forms used. As far as the intergroup comparison is concerned, the Mann-Whitney U test findings are demonstrated in table confirm that no statistically significant difference was recorded before the treatment as the p-value was higher than the level ($\text{sig} = 0.757 > 0.05$). Nonetheless, a statistically significant difference was noted at the end of the experiment as the p-value was $0.000 < 0.05$. Given all these results, we can assert that the treatment was significant in developing this aspect of language complexity in the speaking skill of the participants in the treatment group.

5.2.3.2. Lexical Complexity

Lexical complexity analysis embraced the analysis of the mean segmental type-token ratio. The findings are displayed subsequently.

- Mean Segmental Type -Token Ratio

Table 89

Descriptive Statistics for Mean Segmental Type -Token Ratio

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	,5183	,06260
Ex.G Post-t	24	,5379	,06527
C.G Pre-t	25	,5292	,08356
C.G Post-t	25	,5084	,07798

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 89 above shows that the mean scores of the EX.G and the C.G were so close before the treatment, they were .518 and .529, respectively, with SD for the EX.G equal to .0626 and 0.835 for the C.G. Similarly, the EXG mean score was .537 with an SD= 0.652,

while the mean score of the C.G was .508 with an increase in the SD equal to 0.779 compared to the pretest. The mean score of the EX.G elevated from .518 in the pretest to .537 in the posttest with a slight increase in SD (SD=.0626 in the pretest and .652 in the posttest). Contrariwise, the mean score of the C.G declined from .0529 in the pretest to .0508 in the posttest, and so does SD (SD= .0835 in the pretest and 0.779 in the posttest).

Table 90

Inferential Statistics for Mean Segmental Type -Token Ratio

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N						
	Range⁺	Range⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	12	9	3	24	11,92	9,78	0,338
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	8	13	4	25	8,19	12,73	0,081

Mann-Whitney U Test					
Groups	Ex.G	Ranges			Sig
		N	Mean		
Pre-t	Ex.G	24	24,35		0,756
	C.G	25	25,62		
Post-t	Ex.G	24	28,54		0,089
	C.G	25	21,60		

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 90 denotes that neither the EX.G nor the C.G proved any intragroup statistically significant improvement in producing more complex speech lexically speaking since the p-value of each group was above the probability significance level (EX.G sig=0.338>0.05, C.G sig= 0.081>0.05). Hence, as shown by the Wilcoxon test, the treatment does not seem to be practical in enhancing the lexical complexity of the participants.

The Mann-Whitney U tests were run to probe whether there was any significant difference between the two groups. Thus, as revealed in the table above, no statistically significant difference was recorded before the experiment as the p-value was higher than the level ($0.756 > 0.05$). Although the mean scores of the posttest in the EX.G were higher than the one of the C.G (28.54, 21.60, respectively), the growth was not statistically significant as the p-value exceeded the probability significance level ($\text{sig} = 0.089 > 0.05$). Hence, the two tests above confirm that the CL method did not make the participants' speech of the EX.G lexically complex.

Table 91

General Descriptive Statistics for the Accuracy Components

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	95,1784	1,61576
Ex.G Post-t	24	97,5861	1,38056
C.G Pre-t	25	93,9570	2,42427
C.G Post-t	25	94,9190	2,52963

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 91 demonstrates that the mean score of EX.G was 95.178, with a standard deviation of 1.615 before the treatment, while their mean score and SD were 97.586 and 1.380, respectively, by the end of the experiment. Hence, the post-test mean score was superior to the pretest with a difference equal to 2.408. As for the C.G, a mean score difference equal to 0.962 was identified (Pretest $M=93.957$ with an $SD=2.424$, Posttest $M=94.919$, with $SD= 2.529$). The descriptive statistics displayed in the table above shows that the mean score difference between the two groups in the posttest ($M=2.667$) was higher than the pretest ($M=0.259$) in favour of the EX.G

Table 92

The Overall Inferential Statistics for the Accuracy Components

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	21	3	0	24	13,81	3,33	0,000
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	18	7	0	25	12,72	13,71	0,074

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
Pre-t	Ex.G	24		28,17		0,129	
	C.G	25		21,96			
Post-t	Ex.G	24		34,00		0,000	
	C.G	25		16,36			

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

Table 92 exhibits a high statistically significant growth in the overall EX.G performance of the accuracy component by the end of the treatment, as proved by the Wilcoxon-Rank test. 21 participants in the EX.G made progress in producing accurate spoken output, while only 3 did not. The EX.G mean score positive range was 13.81, while the negative mean score range was computed to 3.33. The p-value of the EX.G overall performance of the accuracy component was smaller than the significance level (sig=0.000<0.05). Conclusively, these findings prove a considerable intragroup statistical evolution in the EX.G in producing accurate speech while performing orally.

On the other hand, no intragroup statistically significant growth was identified in the C.G as the p-value was superior to the significance level (sig=0.074>0.05). 18 out of 25

participants in the C.G. could develop accuracy components, while 7 could not. Their positive mean range was less than the EX.G (C.G M=12.72, EX.G. M=12.72, with a mean difference of 1.09). However, the C.G negative mean range score was superior to the EX.G (13.71 and 3.33, respectively).

Concerning the intergroup comparison, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed no statistically significant difference between the two groups before the treatment as the p-value was superior to the significance level (sig= 0.129>0.05). The mean score of the EX.G in the pretest was superior to the C.G, with a difference of 6.21 (EX.G pretest M= 28.17, C.G M= 21.96). Contrariwise, a highly statistically significant difference was perceived between the two groups at the end of the experiment as the p-value was inferior to the significance level (sig= 0.000<0.05). These findings reflect the strength of the independent variable (i.e. the CL method) in enhancing the speaking accuracy of EFL learners.

Table 93

General Descriptive Statistics for the Fluency Components

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	6,1494	2,88569
Ex.G Post-t	24	3,1840	2,00809
C.G Pre-t	25	5,6651	2,77472
C.G Post-t	25	5,7012	2,77394

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The general descriptive statistics displayed in table 93 demonstrate that both the mean score and standard deviation of the EX.G declined at the end of the experiment (Pretest M=6.149, SD=2.885; posttest M=3.184, SD= 2.008). However, the mean score of the C.G slightly augmented (pretest M=5.665, posttest M=5.701), while no difference was noticed in standard deviation in both tests (pretest SD=2.774; post-test SD= 2.773). The mean score

of the EX.G in the pretest was superior to the C.G in the pretest (M= 6.149; M=5.665, respectively and SD=2.885; SD=2.774, respectively). Contrariwise, the EX.G mean score was inferior to the C.G with a difference of 2.517 (posttest EX.G M=3.184, SD=2.008; C.G M=5.701, SD=2.773).

Table 94

The Overall Inferential Statistics for the Fluency Components

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range⁺	Range⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	3	21	0	24	6,00	13,43	0,000
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	12	13	0	25	13,50	12,54	0,989

Mann-Whitney U Test								
Groups	Ranges						Sig	
	N			Mean				
Pre-t	Ex.G	24			26,04			0,617
	C.G	25			24,00			
Post-t	Ex.G	24			34,00			0,000
	C.G	25			16,36			

The table above shows the statistical results of the overall performance in the fluency component. The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test was run to identify the intragroup growth. Hence, as displayed in the table above, the EX.G seems to achieve a significant statistical increase in fluency components as the p-value was equal to 0.000 (<0.05). However, it was not the case for the C.G, as the p-value of its overall fluency performance exceeded the significance level (sig=0.989>0.05).

The Mann-Whitney U test proved no statistically significant difference between the two groups before the treatment as the p-value was superior to 0.617 (>0.05) with a mean score of 26.04 for the EX.G and 24.00 for the C.G. Nevertheless, a high statistically significant difference was noticed after the treatment as the p-value was equal to 0.000 (<0.05). The mean score difference was high in the posttest ($M=17.64$) compared to the pretest ($M=2.04$). These findings reveal treatment efficacy in bringing about growth in the fluency aspect among the participants of the EX.G.

Table 95

The Overall Descriptive Statistics for the Complexity Components

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	10,1926	6,81136
Ex.G Post-t	24	19,8390	11,62582
C.G Pre-t	25	9,9612	6,25495
C.G Post-t	25	12,8770	6,55234

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

As highlighted in the table 95 above, an increase- calculated to 9.647- in the posttest EX.G mean score was noted compared to the pretest (pretest $M=10.192$ and $SD=6.811$, posttest $M=19.839$, $SD= 11.625$). Similarly, the C.G pretest mean score increased from 9.961 to 12.877 in the posttest and (pretest $SD=6.254$; posttest $SD= 6.552$). The mean scores and SD of both groups in the pretest were close (EX.G $M= 10.192$, $SD= 6.811$; C.G $M= 9.96$, $SD= 6.254$). Nevertheless, it was not the case for the posttest mean scores and SD as the EX.G one was considerably higher ($M=19.839$) than the C.G ($M= 12.877$).

Table 96

*The Overall Inferential Statistics for the Complexity Components***Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test**

Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	23	1	0	24	13,00	1,00	0,000
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	20	5	0	25	13,30	11,80	0,005

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range ⁺	Range ⁻	
Pre-t	Ex.G			24	25,13		0,952
	C.G			25	24,88		
Post-t	Ex.G			24	34,00		0,009
	C.G			25	16,36		

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The table above demonstrates a statistically significant intragroup improvement in the EXG by the end of the treatment, as the p-value was considerably smaller than the significance level (sig= 0.000<0.05). The Wilcoxon test also shows that only 1 out of 24 participants did less in producing complex language components in the posttest, while all the others (23) ameliorated their overall speaking complexity. The mean score of the positive range was 13.0, while the negative range mean score was only 1.00. As for the C.G, the Wilcoxon test proved a statistically significant increase as the p-value was inferior (sig= 0.005<0.05). Although five participants in the C.G regressed in producing less complex speech and 20 ones progressed, the mean score negative range was close to the positive range mean (13.30; 11.80, respectively).

The Mann-Whitney U test was run to estimate the intergroup statistical difference. Hence, the results displayed in the table above proved no statistical difference between the two groups before the treatment as the p-value was superior to the level (sig=0.952>0.05).

Even the mean scores of both groups were close (EX.G M= 25.13; C.G M= 24.88). It means that both groups were equal regarding the level of complex speech production. Nonetheless, a statistically significant variance was perceived at the end of the treatment since the p-value was smaller than the significance level (sig= 0.009<0.05), and the mean score of the EX.G was highly superior to the C.G (M=34.00; M=16.36, respectively). These statistics can only but suggest the efficiency of the treatment in enhancing the participants' speech complexity.

Table 97

The Descriptive Statistics for the Overall Participants' Speaking Performance

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Ex.G Pre-t	24	37,1735	2,71550
Ex.G Post-t	24	40,2030	4,14916
C.G Pre-t	25	36,5278	2,69852
C.G Post-t	25	37,8324	2,94091

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The table above recapitulates the descriptive statistics obtained by the SPSS for the overall participants' performance in the two speaking tests. So close were the mean scores and standard deviations of the two groups before the treatment (EX.G M=37.173, SD= 2.715; C.G= 36.527, SD=2.698). However, there was a difference of 2.371 between the mean scores of the two groups in the posttest (EX.G M=40.203, SD=2.69; C.G= 37.832, SD= 2.940). While the mean score difference between the EX.G pretest and posttest was calculated to 3.03 (pretest M= 37.173, posttest M=40.203), the one of the C.G was estimated to 1.305 (pretest M=36.527; posttest M=37.832).

Table 98

The Inferential Statistics for the Overall Participants' Speaking Performance

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
	Range⁺	Range⁻	Ex aequo	Total	Range⁺	Range⁻	
(Ex.G Post-t)-(Ex.G Pre-t)	21	3	0	24	13,52	5,33	0,000
(C.G Post-t)-(C.G Pre-t)	19	6	0	25	14,00	9,83	0,005

Mann-Whitney Test							
Groups	Ranges						Sig
	N			Mean			
			N			Mean	
Pre-t	Ex.G			24			0,412
	C.G			25			
Post-t	Ex.G			24			0,038
	C.G			25			

Note. N=Subjects number, EX.G =Experimental Group, C.G= Control Group, Pre-t= pretest, Post-t= posttest, SD= Standard Deviation.

The inferential statistics displayed above show a high statistical intragroup growth in the EX.G since the p-value was estimated to 0.000 (<0.05). The Wilcoxon test demonstrated that while 21 out of 24 participants improved their overall speaking skill with its three components (accuracy, fluency and complexity), only three did not. The general positive ranges of the EX.G was calculated to 13.52, while the negative ranges were only 5.33. Of 25 participants in the C.G, 19 could improve their overall speaking performance as the positive ranges of the group was equal to 14.00. It is worth mentioning that 6 of them regressed as the negative ranges of the group were high 9.83 compared to the ones of the EX.G. However, there was also an intragroup statistical increase in the overall speaking

performance concerning the C.G as the p-value was inferior to the probability significance level ($\text{sig}=0.005<0.05$).

The Mann Whitney test revealed that there two groups were homogenous in their overall speaking skill with its three core components as there was no statistically significant difference before the treatment. The p-value of the pretest was considerably higher than the probability significance level ($\text{sig}=0.412>0.05$). Nevertheless, after receiving the treatment, an intergroup statistically significant difference was perceived as the p-value was smaller than the level ($\text{sig}=0.038<0.05$). After examining all these inferential statistics, one can confidently ensure that the CL- as an independent variable- was efficient in promoting the EX.G participants speaking performance.

5.3. Synthesis of the Quasi-experiment Findings

The results of the quasi-experimentation revealed that the implementation of the CL method in teaching the speaking skill in OE classes was significant in enhancing the overall first-year EFL learners' accuracy. The treatment applied could assist the EX.G participants in promoting their overall speaking accuracy, while the conventional method applied on the C.G could not. Both tests relied on to statistically analyse the data proved the method's efficacy in developing their speaking accuracy.

The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test revealed a statistically significant growth among the EX.G participants' overall speaking accuracy ($\text{sig}=0.000$, see table 92). Twenty-one out of twenty-four participants could ameliorate the speaking accuracy aspect. Contrariwise, the same test showed no statistically significant progress in their speaking accuracy among the individuals of the C.G participants ($\text{sig}=0.074$, see table 92). Moreover, the Mann-Whitney U test divulged the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of their speaking accuracy before the treatment was applied as no significant statistical difference was recorded in the pretest results ($\text{sig}=0.129$, see table 92) Nevertheless, a high statistically significant difference in

the speaking accuracy performance demonstrated in the posttest ($\text{sig}=0.000$), which means that teaching the speaking skill via CL methods principles paved the way for the participants to promote their accuracy while performing orally successively.

Speaking accuracy-as probed in this study- embraced three levels of analysis: syntactic pronunciation and lexical. The first level, namely syntactic accuracy, comprised eight aspects, of which three (tenses and verb forms, SVA, NPR) were enhanced among the EX.G participants while only one aspect (determiners accurate use aspect) was exclusively developed in the C.G. The findings generated by the inferential statistics are subsequently recapitulated:

- **Tenses and verb forms:** both groups had the same levels in forming tenses and verb forms while speaking. At the end of the treatment, the EX.G outperformed the C.G, and it proved a statistically significant growth while the C.G did not satisfactorily do. So, the CL method proved its efficacy in reducing the participants inaccurate tenses and verb formation while speaking.
- **Determiners:** The C.G outperformed the EX.G in producing determiners accurate clauses. The latter group could not prove any development in this speaking accuracy while performing orally. Thus, we can confidently state that the CL method was not that efficient to assist the participant in using accurately English determiners, including articles, demonstratives and quantifiers.
- **SVA:** No difference was noted in the pretest between the two groups (they had the same level before the treatment) to produce SVA EFC. In the posttest, the EX.G participants proved development in composing SVA EFC, while the C.G ones did not. Hence, the method is stated to be influential in helping the participants to compose SVA accurate clauses.

- **SS:** No progress was noticed among the participants of the EX.G as to forming accurate sentence structures in the posttest. Contrariwise, the C.G statistically enhanced their ability to produce EFC in forming sentence structures while speaking.
- **Plural Formation:** None of the groups proved any significant growth in forming plural forms accurate clauses. Thus, the treatment could not be claimed to enhance this speaking accuracy aspect.
- **NPR:** Albeit the EX.G participants proved an intragroup statistical growth in producing NPR accurate clauses than the C.G by the end of the treatment, there was no intergroup difference between the two groups as shown statistically. Thus, the CL method could not be deemed effective in developing NPR proper clauses.
- ✓ **Prepositions:** None of the groups showed statistically significant development in the formation of preposition EFC. Conclusively, the treatment could not help at any level the EX.G participants to adjust the accurate use of prepositions while performing orally.
- ✓ **Conjunctions:** Both groups did not prove any intragroup statistical progress in using conjunctions accurately while performing orally. Thus, we can assuredly state that the CL method did not contribute to making the EX.G participants form accurate clauses in using conjunctions properly.

The second level of speaking accuracy probed in this study is pronunciation accuracy. The statistical findings of the quasi-experiment revealed that the treatment was not efficacious in enhancing the participants' pronunciation accuracy as no statistically significant growth was identified in the EX.G. Thus, neither the EX.G nor the C.G succeeded at achieving a more accurate speech in the posttest.

The statistical findings yielded from the investigation of the third level of the speaking skill accuracy, namely the lexical accuracy, revealed a significant development among the treatment group (EX.G). However, it was not the case for the C.G, who did not prove any progress at producing target-like lexical items while speaking.

Concerning speaking fluency, the overall statistical results showed a highly significant improvement among the treatment group, but the non-treatment one. By and large, the participants of the EX.G progressed considerably in producing more fluent speech after having received the treatment, as confirmed by the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test. Put otherwise; the treatment was rigorous in ensuring an intragroup growth in the EX.G. However, the non-treatment group did not demonstrate any amelioration in speaking fluency, as shown by the same test. The application of the Mann Whitney U test disclosed the homogeneity of the groups in speaking fluency before the treatment, as no statistically significant difference was recorded in the pretest. Nonetheless, the same test divulged a high statistical difference between the two groups, which can only prove the effectiveness of the CL method in promoting the treatment group' speech fluency.

The researcher investigated two aspects of fluency: temporal variables embracing speech rate and pause length and hesitation phenomena, standing for four feature: reformulation, replacement, false start and repetition. The findings of each aspect (temporal variable and hesitation phenomena) are summarized as follows respectively:

- ✓ **Speech rate:** In the posttest, no statistical difference was identified between the two groups; they both had the same level in speech rate. However, the EX.G outperformed the C.G in the posttest. A highly significant development in this fluency index was recorded among the EX.G participants but not the C.G. So, the CL method is acknowledged to enhance the speech rate of the participants in the treatment group.

- ✓ **Pause Length:** A highly significant evolution in producing fewer long pauses in the post-test than the pretest among the treatment group, which was not the case for the non-treatment group. No statistical difference between the two groups was identified before the quasi-experiment, which signifies their homogeneity in pause length. Given that, we can confidently state that the CL method was efficacious in rendering pause length fewer and shorter.
- ✓ **Reformulation hesitation phenomenon:** Neither the EX.G nor the C.G made progress in making fewer hesitations while speaking. The treatment was efficient in decreasing the reformulation phenomenon.
- ✓ **Replacement hesitation phenomenon:** As far as the intragroup growth is concerned, both groups did not show any statistically significant growth in reducing the replacement phenomenon. Nevertheless, the intergroup comparison demonstrated a better performance in the EX.G than the C.G. Though they were not different in using replacement in their speech, the EX.G showed a better performance in the posttest. Thus, we can confirm that the CL method proved its efficiency in making the treatment group perform fewer replacements while performing orally.
- ✓ **False start hesitation phenomenon:** The two groups showed no significant statistical difference in false start level, i.e., they had almost the same level. Nevertheless, the EX.G proved a high statistically significant growth in producing fewer false starts after the treatment. Contrariwise, the C.G did not make any evolution as to false start reduction.
- ✓ **Repetition:** Before the treatment, both groups showed no statistically significant variance in repetition as a hesitation phenomenon. It means that they had almost the same level in respect to this fluency index. Nonetheless, the EX.G progressed significantly at the end of the treatment as they made fewer repetitions than the pretest. It was not the case of the

C.G, who could not ameliorate this aspect. Conclusively, we can infer that the CL method assisted the participants in reducing the repetition phenomenon.

As far as the speaking complexity is concerned, the overall inferential statistics divulged that both groups demonstrated a statistically significant improvement. Both tests implemented showed intragroup and intergroup progress to producing more complex speech in the posttest. Both groups had the same speaking skill complexity level before the remedial work was applied. Hence, to capture the participants' speech complexity, two features were scrutinised: (a) the syntactic complexity comprising the study of the subordination amount and the number of verb forms used in speech. (b) Lexical complexity involving the investigation of the mean segmental type-token ratio. The findings generated by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests are recapitulated subsequently:

- ✓ **The amount of Subordination:** Both groups marked a statistically significant growth in producing more subordination while speaking in the posttest than the pretest. Although both groups did not show any statistical difference in the production of the subordination amount before the treatment, they both succeeded at elevating this linguistic complexity index while speaking. Thus, we can not state that the method was exclusively responsible for developing subordination as the non-treatment group has successively developed it.
- ✓ **The number of verb forms used:** The EX.G successfully enhance their ability in using more tenses and verb forms while speaking as their statistical growth was intensely high. Contrariwise, The C.G did not prove any amelioration in the posttest, as shown by both tests. Even though all participants of both groups exhibited a comparable level as to the limited number of the tenses used while speaking, the EX.G could employ more tenses in the posttest than the C.G. This fact suggests that the CL method was influential in enhancing this syntactic complexity indicator.

- ✓ **Mean segmental type-token ratio:** Statistically speaking, no significant difference was perceived in the oral performance of the two groups. The two groups were not able to enhance their speech type-token ratios. Therefore, we can explicitly state that the CL method was not efficacious in promoting this lexical complexity feature.

Conclusion

This chapter explained the quasi-experiment adopted in the present study. It portrayed the design of the quasi-experiment by elucidating the steps followed to conduct it. The chapter discussed validity and reliability issues, the design of the speaking course and analysed quantitatively and in-depth the data obtained from the two tests (pretest and posttest) in line with the three constructs framing the speaking skill and using SPSS software. In the light of scores' interpretation, an overall analysis of the data was discussed by the end of this chapter. The analysis revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group. The Statistical findings proved the efficacy of the treatment in enhancing the experimental group overall speaking skill more than the control.

CHAPTER SIX: Students' Perceptions of the Merits and Shortcomings of the Cooperative Learning

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Introduction

The focus group interview was opted for as a qualitative data collection instrument to answer the last addressed question in the present research. Chapter six is set for describing the process of the focus group discussion. It also attempts to describe the contexts in which the interviews were held. Hence, this chapter analyses qualitatively the data generated in the discussions to answer the question that aimed at gauging the merits and shortcomings of applying the CL method in instructing the speaking skill during the treatment.

6.1. Focus Group Discussion Procedures

Three interviews were conducted by the end of the study. All the participants in the experimental groups were gathered into groups. Two Focus Group discussions comprising 8 participants and a third one involving seven were conducted. The aim of including more than six participants in the discussion was to generate rich discussions.

Three focus group discussions were held, only the experimental group's subjects were concerned with the interview. To organise the participants' ideas and organise the information provided, the discussion was guided by eight questions. These were directed to elicit as much necessary information as possible and prevent irrelevant data that could have led to out of context discussions. As stated in **section 3.3.5**, the focus groups discussion conducted in the study was of a semi-structured format merging between open-ended (6) questions and closed-items ones (2) (for more details, see Appendix D) All questions were carefully structured and selected to answer question six in the general introduction.

At the first phase of data collection via focus group, the researcher opened the discussion by welcoming the participants and thanking them for accepting taking part in the interview. She explained that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions. They were reminded that everybody was welcomed to express his/her thoughts freely to get a wide range of opinions. Likewise, they were informed that their answers were to be treated

confidentially. Finally, they were asked for permission to have their responses recorded not to miss any datum. They were as well guaranteed that their answers would be reported anonymously

The researcher, who is the moderator of the discussion, knew how important it was to make the interviewees feel comfortable while engaging in the discussion, in the sense that the more they felt at ease, the more productive they were expected to be. Therefore, it was crucial to establish a stress-free atmosphere at the preliminary stage of the discussion. Being sympathetic with the subjects and listening attentively and sensitively to them was highly recommended to make the discussions successful. The researcher's target was to stimulate them to participate at the utmost. In the second phase, all the discussions were conducted in a classroom arranged in U – shape to make the participants feel more relaxed. Audio recording and note-taking were both used while conducting the focus group interviews.

Once the discussions were conducted on March 3rd 2020, they were transcribed orthographically to have written scripts as the third phase of data collection (for more details, see Appendix D) To avoid redundancy and the repetition of the same answers, the three held conversations are jointly analysed instead of analysing each independently. Thus, the responses obtained from each question in the three discussions are respectively portrayed in details.

6.2. Analysis of the Results

The following section is devoted to analysing in depth the data gathered from the three held discussions.

Question One: Did you enjoy the fact of working in groups when you were given oral tasks in the classroom? Can you say why?

To make the students respond objectively to the above-addressed question, the moderator (the researcher in the present study) reminded them that there is no wrong or right

answer. She further stressed that the more honest in their answers and straightforwardly expressed their thoughts, the more they would help in producing reliable data.

Investigating the participants' attitudes towards the performance of the speaking tasks in groups was the aim behind asking the first question. It was essential to unveil their standpoints on working in groups to perform tasks meant for developing their oral performances. Justifying their stances was likewise necessary to identify the factors that made them appreciate or reluctant to cooperate with others in performing oral tasks. The question was also formulated to consider whether the participants found it enjoyable to work cooperatively with their mates or not. As elucidated in the literature review of the current research, CL may positively affect learners' psychological aspect as it makes them more enthusiastic and committed in their learning processes. Thereby, it was necessary to diagnose their perspectives on the issue. Furthermore, it was necessary to ask such a question as while discussing it with the participants, many issues the researcher was not unable to discern during the treatment could be revealed by the subjects.

As for the responses gathered and after being solicited to justify their stances, most interviewees showed positive attitudes towards being gathered in groups to work cooperatively on their oral tasks. While some students reported that they found it funny to work with other mates to perform tasks in OE module classes, others revealed that they had the opportunity to know themselves better. The majority of the subjects affirmed that they found it enjoyable and exciting as it made them share moments of joy with their peers while learning. Interestingly, some students admitted that being gathered in cooperative groups paved the way for them to be more sociable and ready to share their ideas. Learning how to respect others, tolerate differences, and accept opposing ideas were also reckoned as significant facts that made some students appreciate working in groups. Subsequently are some answers provided by the participants in the three conversations:

- "Yes, I did enjoyed group work. It was something new, something that help me to discover my capacities to speak and discover my friends. It give me the chance to know better my friends and make good relation with them and eh to learn many things about English."

- "Of course, yes. It is interesting to do efforts together to be the best group. It was kind of fun to work in groups. As my classmate said, we know now better each other because we worked a lot together. For me, it was a situation that I liked because I worked with no stress and fear with them."

- "It was so lovely to work in groups. It makes me so excited to know the ideas of my friends, to compete with the other groups. It's really enjoyable. I would never forget those moments we worked together. It was a pleasure to work in groups; we all had very good moments; we worked with less stress, as my friend said."

- "Of course, yes. Because I start to know more myself, I started to trust myself more, to make good relations with my friends. In the past, I was not very sociable, eh, but now I think I am."

"I was always happy when I have oral expression and when you give us group works. It was a pleasure, a great pleasure. I'm really so happy to experience this. Sometimes we don't agree, but we learn how to respect each other."

- "Yes, I liked it, and I enjoy it too much. Because I am not very sociable in nature."

- "group work helped me a lot. It was a pleasure to talk in English, share many ideas with my friends, do our best to present good presentations. I guess it was useful to all the students here."

- "To me, it was so enjoyable. I found it exciting to be involved in groups because I'm an introvert person. So, this helped me a lot to speak hhh. I always wait for Oral expression class because I work in groups. This makes oral expression module session different from the others."

- "I think yes, sometimes it was good to work with our classmates, we all worked in an enjoyable way; we learnt many things from each other and developed more myself."

- "I think it's very helpful because, through the method you speak, you say what you think. It was helpful and exciting at the same time."

Although most participants (17 out of 23) valued CL groups in doing oral tasks, others (6 out of 23) did not hold that positive attitude. The six participants, who did not fully appreciate cooperating with others, revealed that working with some mates who intended to impose their ideas was the driving force that made them dissatisfied with working in groups to do oral tasks. They elucidated that some peers were selfish because they ignored their viewpoints and did not respect theirs. Another participant highlighted that shy and reticent student might find it challenging to interact not only in front of their teacher but also in front of their peers. All these issues led the six participants to feel angry, stressed, and unwilling to cooperate with those authoritative students, as expressed in the following statements:

- "Sometimes yes, sometimes no, it depends on the members of the group. Some members are selfish and impose themselves more than others, impose their ideas on others and don't respect their classmate's ideas and points of view. This things made me not enjoy working in groups. However, when the members don't try to impose their ideas, I like it."

- "some members are selfish, and this makes me not like working with them. Their ideas should always be accepted. ehh this makes me ehh angry sometimes and dislike to work with them."

- "some members in the group ignore our opinion, and they just insist on put their opinions. This made me very angry and stressed. It was not justice to impose their beliefs on us. That is why I didn't like to work with some members."

- "as my friends say sometimes it is difficult to work with some selfish members. But in general I liked to work in groups. It give me the energy to do better to speak better."

- "Sometimes I couldn't accept that a member like me force me to do what she want. But when working with persons that respect the other's opinions, I like a lot working in groups. It created a good place to study and to learn."

- " it's good for example there are some persons who when they work in groups. They are encouraging they can do better. ehh but the others they are shy from their comrades and they will not do that better in front of their comrades."

1. Question Two: Do you think that working individually on oral tasks is better than doing it in groups? Why?

The second question is a follow up to the first one as it attempted to diagnose their inclination towards working in groups or individually working when assigned to do oral tasks. The answers yielded from this question could pave the way for the researcher to infer the positive and the adverse outcomes of cooperative learning groups. The answers could also demonstrate the extent to which the adopted method affected their willingness to learn the speaking skill cooperatively or individually. Deeply discerning their stances urged the researcher to ask for justifications as the first part of the question is a closed item resulting in concise responses.

The majority of the interviewees concurred that the task determined the way of doing the speaking task. They all believed that as long as the task was meant for demonstrating the student's language abilities, individual performance of speaking tasks would be then the best alternative. Nevertheless, if the task is set to improve their speaking skill and enlarge their knowledge about given topics, working in groups would be more advantageous. They affirmed that tasks that denoted expressing one's thoughts and feelings were better performed individually. Some of their answers are listed subsequently:

- " it depends on the topic of the task. Sometimes we want to express our abilities in something, so we need the individual work to show our abilities to the teacher. But

sometimes we need to work in groups to develop our speech together. I think it depends on the task to see the best individually or group works.”

- “sometimes we need to develop our point of view so individual work is better. But sometimes we need to work in groups to develop our skills to talk.”

- “as my classmates say it depends on the task. When the student need to express his thoughts it is better to do individual works but if the task is not about express thoughts it is better to do group work.”

Furthermore, others justified their penchant to work in groups instead of individually working as they were offered many opportunities to practise their English, they were provided with more input as they listened a lot to their peers. Working on speaking tasks in groups could result in a more enjoyable, exciting and less stressful learning environment. The most striking fact reiterating in the participants' responses was that working in groups empowered them to overcome their shyness and be more confident and secure to speak. Many of them reported that due to CL groups, they were more energised to take the floor to speak and learn some language aspects as vocabulary. The followings are statements voiced by some interviewees who deemed CL groups more practical compared to individual work when doing speaking tasks:

- “It helps to discover different ideas from the individuals so in that case working in groups is better than individually.”

- “I think in group work we can talk more together, we can practise more our English, we can have the chance to listen more and when we listen more we learn more and we may speak more than we do in individually.”

- “I think that to work in groups is better because when I work with my friends I speak more, I do more effort to be good, it is more exciting to me to talk to them.”

- "Cooperative is more interesting; when we cooperate with others, we correct our mistakes. We can speak more we can practise the language more. I think that working in groups is more exciting and enjoyable than individually. I become more confident when I work in groups."

- "I like in-group, ehh we discuss with each other, help each other, take confidence. I think that I became more able to speak since I started to speak with my friends in the group. I have more confidence to speak now."

- "In groups is better, exchanging ideas, correct the mistakes, to helps us get more ideas in some issues. Why because it gives me the chance to be less shy and more productive while speaking but when I do individual work I feel stressed and unable to speak."

- " yes, group work is awesome; it's better than working alone. I appreciate to work with groups because it makes me more excited and interesting. It develops my intellectual skills and give me the chance to know my friends."

- "we exchange ideas and opinions more when we worked in groups. We could also know things that we didn't know them before. Work in groups is also exciting, it created fun and joy we shared many good things together I think more than I do when I work alone."

- "In groups because as my friend say it is very difficult to me to speak alone but in groups I express myself better, I find the pleasure to do better."

- "Working in group is better because it shows us how others think and we can develop our level in speaking. As far as I am concern, working in groups is the best thing. I learnt so many things from my group mates."

- "In group it's better because I'm shy, so it help me lot to speak with my friends to overcome my shyness."

- "we do the best with each other. We take turn to explain our ideas, we can know more about English from our friends. I like to work in groups not individual."

- I totally agree with my friends working in groups is better. In the past, I was not at all capable of talking alone but now I can speak, I can share my idea, I feel safe to be with the group than to present my tasks alone.”

On the other hand, CL was prone to criticism by four participants (4/23) as they admitted their reluctance to espouse CL while learning the speaking skill. Being immersed in groups made them prone to stress, anger, and discomfort. Some of their peers tended to monopolise the course of their peers' interaction. Thereby, they were not offered adequate opportunities to speak. Three students affirmed that the fact of not having the words to say, being shy in the teacher's presence who supervised group work were crucial factors that made them disposed to work individually and not in groups. The aforementioned answers are summarized below:

-“ Sometimes you feel stress and you like an individual one but when you need to concentrate a lot in a task and she didn't give you any chance to talk and you get mad in this case you will chose the individual one.”

- “I prefer to work individually because I sometimes don't can't say what I think in the group. I don't have the words to say my idea. So this make me feel shy and not at ease with them so I prefer to work alone.”

- “ I appreciate working in a group but not in front of the teacher. I prefer working in groups but not in front of the teacher.”

Unpredictably, a participant maintained that as she had a controlling character who attempted to dominate her classmates while working on oral tasks, it was tough on her to cope with the situation. She could not tolerate her mates' rejection of her ideas and this ended in making her feel unwilling to cooperate with them:

- "so for me I prefer to work alone because I think I am a controlling person. I like to be the leader in the teamwork. I like to make my opinion very clear but sometimes they don't listen to me so I feel stressed enough to dislike working with them."

Question Three: What did you benefit from cooperating with your peers in performing oral tasks?

The third question is very important as it answers one of the present research questions. As the interviewees were instructed the speaking skill under the scope of the CL method, it was significant to probe the positive aspects ensued by the aforementioned method from the participants' perspectives. As plainly discussed in the theoretical chapters, the application of the method could yield many positive outcomes, of which self-esteem upsurge, anxiety decline...etc. Hence, this question aimed to inspect whether cooperation facilitated, in any way, performing oral tasks.

Boosting self-confidence was the overall positive outcome as termed by the majority of the participants. CL method, as acknowledged by many interviewees, was credited for fostering their self-esteem. While cooperating with their peers to do oral tasks, many participants disclosed that they learnt how to be more self-confident to speak and fearlessly express their thoughts. It was in the midst of the cooperation process that many of them could enhance their self-esteem, be more daring to speak, be more risk-taking to interact with their teammates verbally, as worded in the following statements:

- "when we work in groups we learn we have the ability to be less afraid of speaking, we learn to be more confident and express our ideas comfortably."

- "confidence confidence confidence. I learn how to be confident."

- "also confidence I learned confidence I learned how to be confidence and speak without fear."

- "I learned also ehhh to speak freely. I can speak freely with my classmates."

- "also confidence I learned confidence I learned how to be confidence and speak without fear."

- "I benefited self-confidence. In the past, I was not able to even speak a word in front of my classmates and teachers but now no. I benefited from them to speak better."

Cooperating with peers to perform speaking tasks abated the participants' fear of speaking in front of the others as some of them confirmed that speaking English was in the past a source of stress and anxiety to them. Taking the risk to verbally interact with peers in the group and taking turns to explain one's part to the others made the speaking process less problematic than some participants formerly reported it. The method was by large successful at freeing them and empowered them to speak English with others.

Learning how to respect others' opinions, albeit these are different to theirs, was also a preponderant response in the participants' utterances. As reviewed in the literature of the present study, learning cooperatively is likely to lead to the emergence of conflicts among learners. Nonetheless, as long as the CL principles are fittingly applied, these conflicts must be resolved constructively. In the focus group discussion, most participants advocated that cooperating with peers made them more tolerant of others' differences and opposing opinions. The following statements are some of the collected answers, in which the participants acknowledged the significance of the method in making them more tolerant:

- " I discovered that I'm a controlling person and I discovered that there are some people who have the leadership spirit and I also discovered that my opinion doesn't always have to be right."

- "I learned how to respect other's points of view."

- " I know how to respect other opinions."

- "I benefit to be more patient to respect the others' ideas. I know now how to accept my friends' different ideas."

- "I could know more about my classmates' character I know how they think and I know how to deal with those situation in which we don't agree on something."
- "I learned to change opinion."
- "I learned how to be self-confident more, to accept my friends' ideas even if I am not okay with their them."

Acquiring new information, learning how to manage time appropriately, correcting one's mistakes, reinforcing and establishing good relations with others, experiencing fun and excitement while cooperating with peers were stated as privileges offered in the process of learning the speaking skill within the framework of the CL method. Moreover, cooperating with other peers to perform oral tasks empowered some students to speak effortlessly and to express and share their feelings overtly. Cooperating with others made them, as well, more willing to challenge the other groups with whom they competed to be the winners. Striving to be friendlier with their partners and being able to share good experiences were also mentioned as advantages of CL. All these thoughts are clearly expressed in the subsequent statements:

- "I think it's very helpful, because through the method you speak you say what you think. It was helpful and exciting at the same time."
- "When I worked with the group of Youssra and Lina, they give me the ability to talk, and they make the ideas and they make they make things good and simple especially Youssra she give me ehh I see life can be better."
- "I have to express my ideas briefly and how to support and get the support from my mates."
- "I learned how to manage time, I improved myself and got rid of being shy and stressed."
- "I learned how we can develop a small idea from nothing to the best with the support of each member of the group and how to respect the others' point of view."

- Working together is a great method it help me to share my feeling with others and gain also at the same time the other information and what to do and work together and saving time as my friend said, we learnt how to manage our time and how to collect information you know!".

- "For me I learned how to listen to each other I would listen to Nadjet's ideas or Zineb's ideas. Also I learned how to manage my time this is the most important point that I gained from teamwork. Generally, I love teamwork because it make you share everything with others; we love each other we work with love."

- " I learned how to manage my time, how to work in a group, and I learned a lot of vocabulary."

- " I think that the most thing I benefit from was building my self-esteem. Now I can trust myself more, I can talk more without fear. I have now friends not just classmates. I can be friendlier with the others. I can accept their ideas more. I benefit from their English. I corrected some mistakes of language."

- As my friends said I learn to speak without fear I can now talk and not afraid of doing mistakes while speaking. I can be more friendly with my peers. I benefited from them by know more about their personalities and their language ehhe especially good speakers hhhhh. I feel more comfortable now. I feel I can face anyone and speak English but I was not like this in the past. I know now how to cope with our problems to do the best performance. I benefited because we were doing our tasks in a very joyful situation and we have fun."

- " I benefited self-confidence. In the past I was not able to even speak a word in front of my classmates and teachers but now no. I benefited from them to speak better, I benefited to make challenge to be the best group performer. "

- " I benefited excitement, fun and lots lots of good words that I could learn from them."

- "honestly, the most thing I learned was to be more self-confidence and participate more. I learn to practise my language more and do my best to win the best performance. I learn to know more my classmates."
- "I benefited from many things while cooperating with my classmates. First, I trust myself more, I do my oral presentations with less stress and with more excitement."
- "I learned to be challenging and do my best to make the group the best winner."
- "when we work in groups we learn we have the ability to be less afraid of speaking, we learn to be more confident and express our ideas comfortably. ehhh I learnt many words from my friends, many expressions. I have good relations with my friends, I know more about them."
- "We learned how to work together, have relationships and friends. Now we can know more each other because we worked a lot together also confidence."
- "know more ideas, make new friend, and learn more and correct mistakes. Work together is good because it can give you new friends and make your knowledge bigger and enrich your language."
- "ehh I learned also ehh to speak freely. I can speak freely with my classmates."
- "I learn to talk without paper I mean spontaneously I ehh I learn to be more friendly with my classmates and I learned many things about English while I worked with my classmates in groups."
- "I finally learned how to be less shy and speak more with the others and I learned many information."

Question Four: Can you explain the things you did not really appreciate along the process of working on speaking tasks in groups?

The fourth question was set to disclose the drawbacks of the method applied from the participants' perceptions. As discussed in the literature review, learning under the scope

of the CL method may lead some constraints, which may not bring the sought upshots. Therefore, it was necessary to ask such question to identify the obstacles that the participants came across when preparing for and performing speaking tasks in the OE module classes. Analysing the participants' answers revealed four core adverse outcomes to which the participants were prone during their cooperation to perform speaking tasks: some peers' monopolisation of the interactional processes, time insufficiency to finish the assigned tasks, exposure to mockery and free-rider effect. Subsequently are the statements displaying all these negative aspects:

Being under the control of some peers was surprisingly the most uttered negative aspect of cooperating to do speaking tasks. Having less power to voice their ideas in front of those domineering peers was the foremost issue exasperating most participants. They expressed their dissatisfaction, anger and even sadness to experience impotence in the presence of some authoritarian teammates, who knowingly attempted to exert their power and to impose their ideas. In so doing, they made their peers reluctant, unwilling and even despising group work. The situation also led to the emergence of some negative inner feelings inside those less powerful peers towards the others, such as hatred, feeling inferior and secondary in the group.

- "The things I hate or I dislike it there is that ehh when some students talk a lot, they control all the performance and the others they can't express their feelings. Sometimes I wanted to express my ideas but some of mates in the group did not give me the chance to say it so this made me feel nervous, upset and sometimes angry."

- "Sometimes one of the students in the group talk too much and didn't give a chance to others. So this made us angry cause it's somehow selfish, they don't give us the chance to speak. This is unfair somebody speak a lot and another student do not speak at all. So this is the only thing that makes me disappointed when I work in groups with my colleagues."

-“ The same thing as my classmates said. Sometimes they don't give you the chance to express your feelings, they control the discussion so this is unfair because normally every one should have the chance to speak like all his colleagues in the group.”

-“ When you gave us role plays to perform sometimes you don't have the chance to choose the role of the performance because sometimes we chose the same role and I have to obey because I don't want to be in conflict with anyone.”

- “ I dislike my classmates I dislike my classmates when they all like an idea and when they don't even listen to you ehh and they are selfish they didn't give you a chance to talk or improve yourself, maybe your idea is better than theirs they even care. Maybe my idea is the appropriate but it is different and they tell you that their idea is the best. So I hate their selfishness, they impose their ideas on me even if I'm not convinced." The student later added: “They just improve themselves in order just to be the best students in the class and have high scores.”

- “I dislike when the others ignore my ideas I dislike when one member tries to impose his ideas and never changes. It makes me feel so angry and sad. Normally we should all learn from each other and no one should say I am the best because we are all like each other and no one is the best. So this point make hate cooperative works.”

- “As my friend Djahiha said, I hate when the other members in the group doesn't respect my ideas and ignore me. This issue make me feel as my friend said very very angry.

- “ Forcing us to answer answers that we don't agree with it. I don't really like to say something that I 'm not convinced to say. This is the most thing I hated in group work.”

- “I have to be sincere about something. Sometimes the teacher cares about just the person who talks and forgets about the person who do not talk and you hate both the teacher and the mate who was talking and didn't give me a chance to talk. The teacher should tell the person who talks a lot tell him to respect his friend and to let him talk and to support his personal

view. I want to say that some of my peers in the group intend to speak more than us and the teacher did nothing to stop him this made me dislike working in groups.”

-“ I dislike when one member tries to impose his perspective and never changes. He or she tries to be the leader always and give rules to the other members. It was then that I hated cooperative learning groups.”

-“ I think that I didn't like as my friends ehhe said I hate when some members give the rule and say we should do this and that and they don't even ask you what do you think or do you agree this is the most thing I hated when I work in group.”

Having less time to prepare, finish and polish their oral tasks was another focal aspect that made the participant disapprove working in groups. Some interviewees confirmed that the allotted time was not sufficient for them to be ready for the oral presentation. Two other participants voiced their reluctance to perform in front of the teacher and the other groups. They acknowledged being introvert by nature, which affected their enthusiasm to cooperate with others in the OE module classes. The following statements are illustrations of the aforementioned negative issues to which the participants were disposed of:

- “sometimes some performances are not fair because some groups have enough time and others don't. I mean the thing that made me not at ease is that some groups had more time to train before the performance while most of the time my group didn't have enough time to be ready for the performance.”

- “another small thing, they are some students who don't work. They just come to the class and see on you and say yes do whatever you want cause I do not have time to work.”

- “lack of time lack of time was a problem because we could not finish and prepare well for the presentation.”

- “not enough time to think so during the presentation I was or my group was not ready most of the time for the performance.”

-“ I didn't like to perform in front of my teacher and I didn't like also to have limited time to prepare for the presentation. I also disliked to work with some students because I prefer to work with only my friends in the group and with anyone.”

-“ I hated to perform in front of the others. I hated that we all competed to be the winners and my group never wins. I 'm in nature a shy person so that's why I have performing in front of the class and the teacher.”

The third divulged experienced negative issue related to some participants' exposure to teasing. Three interviewees expressed their discontent in working in cooperative groups as some of their teammates mocked at them whenever they made grammatical or pronunciation mistakes. Below are the quoted words in which the three participants expressed the factor that led them to be less passionate and uncomfortable to cooperate further:

-“ I hate when they start Laugh at you when you make mistakes and they impose their opinions. They say, oh you don't this so they just laugh at you when you don't have the answer. Believe me I felt so bad when they laughed at me.”

- “I hate when they laugh when I make mistakes. I hate to work with members who laugh at me when I make a mistake of grammar or pronunciation. I find it difficult to be at ease with them again.”

-“ the same answer. Laughing at me sometimes they laugh at me when I make mistakes, and this hurt me a lot.”

Some peers' reliance on the other members to do their share of the task made two interviewees in the discussion expressed their disappointment with group work (free-rider effect). Thus, a participant further asserted that this made the oral presentation incomplete: “sometimes it becomes difficult when a member doesn't cooperate and works alone. It made group work sound incomplete. This is the most thing I didn't like.” The other participant

showed her annoyance with the fact of working hard to make the performance successful while free riders did not: "Another small thing, they are some students who don't work. They just come to the class and see on you and say yes do whatever you want cause I do not have time to work."

Surprisingly, only one participant among twenty-three asserted the fact of having nothing to complain about. Having invested all her energy in the performance and preparing the task, the participant maintained that she did not feel that the CL group has affected her appreciation of the CL group. It was highlighted as she said: "I didn't dislike anything because I put all my energy in the performances, so I didn't focus on the other things while working in group so I didn't feel that something was missed."

Question Five: Which stage (s) did you like most while cooperating with your peers in working on your tasks (preparation/ Expert exchange/ getting back to the home groups (discussion) / performing/ taking the test/ celebrating success)? Could you explain why?

Question five was designed to diagnose the stage the participants appreciated most along their cooperation process. The question also denoted further clarification to consider the reason behind precisely preferring this stage. Many data could be revealed about the phase that enthused them most to accomplish the oral task in addressing this question.

Most of the participants opted for the 'discussion' stage. They revealed that this stage was the most appealing as all teammates did contribute effectively to polishing the task before it was performed. They further added that in this stage, everybody felt him/herself a vital member in the group as s/he brought worthy information to the group. Some students asserted that in the discussion phase, they learnt new vocabulary items. Others admitted that they had some of their grammar and pronunciation mistakes corrected while interacting verbally with their peers. Some stated that they had ample chances to speak as they were

expected to explain the information about their part. All these issues are exhibited in the following statements:

- "I really like the discussion part with the members of the group. When all the students discuss together what they learn with the other experts. I liked it because everyone has the opportunity to say what he learned from the other groups. It was really fun it was a special part in the task."

- "I liked when I go back to my own group and exchange with them the information I brought from the other friends hhhh it was nice to do that. They were very nice moments. I even learnt many words from my teammates. I was able to correct my pronunciation mistakes while working with my friends."

- "To be honest, hhhhh I liked all the stages. In every stage, as Amina has just said has good things. But the stage I enjoyed most was the discussion stage because it was then that everyone had the opportunity to say whatever he wants. It was that stage in which you feel that you are contributing effectively in the group because your friends rely on you to bring them the necessary information related to your part and which makes the whole work good and complete."

- "When we join the ideas together. I mean when everyone gives what he brings from other groups. It was interesting because everybody feels that he is important in this stage. Everybody speaks everybody talks and the others just listen."

- "The same idea as Yousra I liked when we share ideas together. For me, I learnt many things when we discuss, I learn new words, correct my mistakes, make my knowledge bigger hhhh that's all."

- "I like when I come back to my group to give them information, it gives me confidence. I felt that I was important hhhhh because they listen to me and I practise my English."

- "The same thing when I came back to my group and take them the information as my friend Iness said I feel myself important in this stage."
- "when we exchange ideas and come back to the group. I mean in the discussion stage because in this stage we can work hard to gain at the end."
- "going back to my group it was the most stage I like because the work will be complete only when we go back to our group and start the preparation for the presentation."
- "Personally, I liked the presentation stage because it is the real stage that demonstrate the group hard work. In this stage, we talk, we do our best to be the winners we struggle hhhh to be the winners."
- "I totally agree with my friend Dia, I like the presentation stage because in this stage we all do the best to win."
- "same. I like the presentation because it's the most interesting part. To put all the ideas as Nada said together and see the results in the presentation hhhhh."

According to the participants' answers, the expert phase was the next advocated stage. The four students who expressed their inclination to this stage articulated that they found it interesting and funny to work with other students on the same part of the task. They underscored that they found it significant to exchange information to maximise their home group's chances to win the challenge. One student stated that working with other students than their teammates was the aspect that made her appreciate the expert part. Feeling responsible for one's part while interacting with the experts of the same part made the participants excited. Subsequently are the statements in which they revealed their preference to the expert stage.

- "I liked the expert stage when I do my best to bring information and discuss with others to make my group the winner at the end."

-“ Experts’ part, I like it because you give ideas and you receive ideas. We learnt so many things from each other. And we had the chance to work with different students that’s why I liked it so much more than the other parts.”

- “I like the experts’ part when we exchange information and it was interesting.....”

-“the expert part because they brought with them ideas and enrich our performances. When I went to discuss with the students of the other groups, ehhh I was doing my best to learn from them to make my group the winner.”

Three interviewees affirmed their preference of the presentation/performance stage. They justified their answers by elucidating that the presentation was the reason making them striving for victory. They stated that it was interesting to gather their patchworks and strive to make the whole performance the most successful in the class. Moreover, as clarified by a student, the presentation stage was the occasion to reflect each one’s speaking skills. Two students added that it was performing that they had fun, and they shared pleasant moments as a group. These concepts are subsequently demonstrated:

- “I liked the performance. When we are presenting the work together and we do all our best to be the winners at the end. As Ikram said it was really funny and we share nice moments together.”

-“ the presentation I like the presentation because the other students in the group can see what my group did. I like it also because we it was funny to see the presentation of my classmates.”

- “I love the performance part because the ideas are mixed .so, it give a good image about us about the group. The performance part also give the chance to everybody to show his ability to speak, to convince and everybody do his best to make his group the winner group at the end.”

Celebrating victory and receiving gifts was opted for as the most appreciated stage by three participants who agreed on the fact that this phase of speaking tasks' performance was the funniest one because the whole class was waiting for the announcement of the winner group. One participant confirmed: " I liked the celebration part hhhhhh receiving gifts ehhe it was exciting to know the winner group. Everybody was waiting to know who is the winner". Likewise, another interviewee stated that receiving gifts motivated the other groups " I like celebrating the victory especially when you give us gifts to encourage other groups to work hard. Hhhhh it was so funny and exciting when we waited for the teacher to say who is the winner group hhhhhh." Two other participants, as demonstrated in the following two quotations, could not decide about the stage they liked most, declaring that they appreciated more than one stage:

- " For me I liked all the parts hhhh cause every part has good things."

- "performing in the class and taking the quiz and celebrating the victory I liked all these three stages because they are funny and we learn many things in the performance in the quiz and we feel happy to be the winner at the end.

Question Six: What language aspect (s) do you think you have developed better while working on oral tasks with your peers in the group? Could you explain how?

- **Vocabulary**
- **Pronunciation accuracy**
- **Grammar accuracy**

This question was probed to know the most language aspect the participants think could develop most in the performance of the speaking tasks cooperatively. As discussed in the theoretical chapters, being fully engaged and espousing the CL method tenets fittingly yields expectedly positive language outcomes and academic achievements as it paves the way for learners to practise their language satisfactorily. Thereby, it was of paramount

importance to consider how the method was expedient in developing some language components as vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation accuracy.

The analysis of the answers gathered in the focus group discussions unveiled that five students out of twenty-three confirmed that vocabulary and pronunciation were the two most aspects they were able to develop along the process of CL group interaction. They all agreed that the latter was expedient to ameliorate these two language components. Being engrossed in performing the oral tasks enabled them to extensively listen to their classmates and learn many new vocabulary items from good speakers. Likewise, they admitted that they had ample opportunities to have the mispronounced words in their speech corrected by their teammates to make their performances the best ones. The five statements in which these issues were revealed are subsequently listed:

-“ pronunciation and vocabulary. As my friend has just said, it helped a lot to work with friends in the group because I learned many new words that I didn't use to know before and pronunciation also now I feel that my pronunciation is better than before.”

-“ vocabulary and pronunciation these are the most aspects I develop in my group. As my colleagues said I learn many new words and expressions I didn't know them before from my teammates emmm I had also the chance to listen to them so I paid attention to many words many sounds that I used to pronounce them wrong.”

-“ pronunciation, vocabulary, and a little bit of grammar. I feel that my speech developed better I corrected many words I pronounced wrong and I start to pay attention to the use of verbs and conjugation hhhh and I learn many expressions especially from the students who have good speaking.”

-“ I think vocabulary and pronunciation are the most thing that I have developed most. Because now I feel that I have less problems to find the words to say I feel that I learnt many new words, I feel that when I speak with my classmates I make less pronunciation mistakes.”

-“ vocabulary and pronunciation because as Imene said I had many problems of pronunciation when I came to study English at the university but now thanks god I'm working on these mistakes to correct them. Vocabulary hhhh was a nightmare to me in the past because when I speak with the other persons I didn't find the words to say. So it was a problem to me now I can speak with no fear because I hhhhh learnt some new words, some new expressions thanks to the method and group work.”

Six students out of twenty - three reported that vocabulary was the most aspect they believed they were able to promote along the cooperation process. They agreed that their interaction with peers was constructive as it extended their vocabulary background. They added that the CL group offered them chances to learn new words while listening to their teammates. The participants' statements listed below demonstrate the efficacy of the method in developing vocabulary component:

- “vocabulary. This is the aspect I develop because I didn't have many words before when I came to study English here but when I started to work in groups I started to listen to them and knew many words from them.”

-“ I think vocabulary that the most thing I believe I developed thanks to group work.”

- “ the same here vocabulary because I have a larger list of words hhhh compared to what I had in the past before studying oral expression.”

- “ vocabulary is the most aspect which developed because I emmm I learn many new words and phrases, idioms when we were working together and my friends made le know the words that I didn't heard about them before.”

- “vocabulary I think this is the most thing I ameliorate with my friends. Because I talk they talk and we all know and pick up words , idioms, expressions from each other.”

-“ vocabulary is the most thing I develop hhhh بالرغم I still have problems with vocabulary till now but I feel that it is better.”

Four participants asserted that their cooperation with other peers to do oral tasks was significant as it assisted them to enhance the three language components, namely vocabulary, grammar accuracy and pronunciation accuracy. They affirmed that they could develop their speaking skill entirely along the course of interaction with their peers. They admitted that they found it intricate before the treatment to express their feelings using English as they did not possess the words to convey their ideas. They faced problems of pronouncing words accurately and could not compose grammatically correct sentences.

-“ All my speaking skill developed. If I compare myself before when it was the beginning of the year and maybe you have noticed it miss? I was unable to speak because I used to have many problems with pronunciation and I didn't have the words to say and express my feelings but now I was working a lot on my level when I was interacting with my friends in the group so I think all my speaking is better now.”

-“ all of them hhhh I really feel that my speaking developed my pronunciation, my vocabulary because I have more words to express my ideas I better my pronunciation because I listen a lot to my friends while working with them hhhh as Chaima said especially from good students.”

- “ I think the three aspects are thanks god are developed I find it easier now to speak because I have the words that I need to speak , I think I have remarked that I corrected many pronunciation mistakes when I was working with my friends in the group. And especially grammar hhh I had many problems when I speak problems of composing correct sentences and use correct verb form, now I think I have less problems with this issue.”

-“ The three aspects because when I came to the university and before studying with you my English was poor and I used to be so shy to speak but the method of groups work was so beneficial because as my friends told me that my English is better than it was at the beginning of the year hhhhhh.”

As for pronunciation, two participants attributed their pronunciation development to the method through which they performed speaking tasks. Both of them reported that when working cooperatively, they listened a lot to their peers and thereby they were able to have their mispronounced words corrected. Likewise, two other participants acknowledged the significance of the method in enhancing their grammar accuracy. They further added that their peers did not save any efforts to correct their grammar mistakes, especially the accurate use of tenses in the hope of making their performance the best.

-“: pronunciation I neither had problems with vocabulary, nor grammar. But I used to have serious problems I think with pronunciation hhhhhh now al hamdoulilah I feel I do pronounce some words more correctly because some of my teammates corrected them for me and I listened to them when speaking so many of those mistakes are corrected.”

-“pronunciation. I think I develop more pronunciation because I listen a lot to my classmates so it help me in correcting some mistakes of pronunciation.”

-“ grammar is the most thing I managed to develop it was very practical to me to interact with my mates in the group especially good students because we are doing our best to be the best performers so we worked a lot on the correct used tenses of verbs.”

-“ hhhh Just the opposite of my colleague I had problems with grammar but many of these problems have disappeared thanks to group work it was so beneficial because my friends helped a lot hhhhh and they did just to be the best performers in the class to make less grammar mistakes and I helped them with pronunciation hhhhhh.”

One participant accredited her grammar accuracy and vocabulary enhancement to the fact of working cooperatively. She confirmed that along the process of interacting with her teammates, she had her grammar mistakes (misuse of tenses) corrected and her vocabulary background extended:

- "Grammar and vocabulary, most grammar hhhhh I didn't I found really a difficulty to know how to conjugate the verbs I mean which tense it should be in but now before I speak I know in which tense the verbs should be used hhhhh. Because we listen a lot to each other, my friends correct from me the grammar mistakes just to be the best group performer and the winners. And vocabulary because when we worked together I learn many new words as my friends said, I learnt new expressions hhhhh."

As articulated below, one participant maintained that her pronunciation and vocabulary were the most ripened language component after having worked cooperatively on speaking tasks:

- "The both of pronunciation and vocabulary hhhhhh when I speak with my friends now I have less problems to communicate than the past because I have the words to say and I pronounce better because we listen a lot to each other we correct pronunciation to each other and this was good to make our pronunciation better."

Only one participant asserted that pronunciation and grammar were the most language components she could improve:

- "pronunciation and grammar. I think this two are more developed hhhhh in the past I make many grammar mistakes but now I pay more attention to verbs and conjugation before I speak this is due to my conversations with my them. Hhhhh in the past I didn't know how to pronounce many words in English because my English is weak so it helped me to listen to my friends who have good pronunciation hhh especially Nada."

Question Seven: Which aspect (s) do you think you have developed while working with your peers in groups on speaking tasks? Could you say why?

- **Psychological aspect:** as self-esteem, motivation and anxiety lowering.
- **Social aspect:** making better relationship with your peers, social skills...etc.

Gauging the most aspect the participants were able to enhance along the CL group interaction was the target behind addressing the penultimate question. Putting light on the

outcomes yielded from the course of cooperation to do oral tasks was the reason for addressing the seventh question. As reviewed in the literature of the present study, relevantly espousing the CL method principles is likely to result in many positive social cognitive and academic outcomes. Thereby, it was crucial to consider the dimension developed most from the interviewees' standpoints. To get more information, the participants were solicited to explain their responses.

Analysing the responses gathered disclosed that the psychological dimension was the most opted for. More than half of the interviewees (15 out of twenty-three) reckoned that cooperating with other teammates in performing oral tasks served them significantly to overcome anxiety. Likewise, it strengthened their self-esteem and self-confidence to speak English in front of their peers and teacher. Feeling more comfortable, less stressed and more motivated after having cooperated with peers to do speaking tasks were the common arguments suggested by the participants as denoted in the statements below:

- "I think the psychological aspect more hhh because I was already a social person. I didn't have problems with social relationships because all my classmates are my friends hhhh but I was shy but not anymore as my friend said my self-esteem is better; I'm more motivated and I'm less anxiety."

- "psychological aspect I developed most because now I feel more comfortable when I speak in English in the classroom. I used to be so stressed to speak in the presentations but now I present more at ease, I'm not afraid I say whatever I want without be stressed."

- "psychological aspect. I'm more motivated to study and to develop my speaking skill I am less stressed to speak and I am more confident."

- "psychological as my friend said I'm motivated more I'm excited to learn and develop my speaking skill this is thanks to the our group work."

-“psychologically I do feel more comfortable, more at ease, more able to speak without thinking of the others' reaction.”

-“ I was shy to speak English but now no, my psychological aspect is more stable emm but I did not have a problem with my classmates.”

-“ psychological aspect. Hhh I can easily make friends but it was difficult to be self-confident. But group work was good to me because I learnt how to trust my capacities and make use of them to speak and do my tasks in front of the others.”

-“ psychological aspect I'm stronger I can speak without fear, but I never have a problem to befriend with other people.”

-“ ehhh I don't have problems to make relationships with anyone but previously I had problems of facing the others while speaking English because hhhh I make many mistakes so I was afraid that they are going to laugh at me but now I am comfortable hhhh.”

-“ psychological because I am stronger I can speak in more confidence I don't feel anxious to speak with my teacher and my friends hhh but I don't have problems to make social relations. All my classmates are my friends hhh.”

-“ psychological aspect because I am more confident and I feel I can talk with any one in English hhh but it was not possible before that.”

-“ psychological aspect hhhh I am a sociable person by nature but I had a problem to speak English with my friends with my teachers hhhhh but when I work with my friends in the group they help me a lot to be more واثق confident.”

-“psychological aspect I don't have a problem to be a friend with my classmates. But I had a problem to have self-confidence and to be sure and not afraid when I speak English in the classroom.”

-“ hhhhh the same perspective I developed the psychological aspect hhhh I never have a problem with my classmates. So I don't think to work in the group developed my social hhhh.”

-“psychological one. I can now trust myself more while speaking.”

Surprisingly, and as unveiled in the above quotes, most of the participants revealed that they never had problems in establishing good relationships with others. They maintained that making friendship with their classmates was not a problematic issue to them as they were sociable individuals. However, seven participants out of twenty-three alleged that CL group method was the driving force that developed both their social relationships and psychological aspects:

-“ both of them. I'm motivated more. I'm motivated to work and work to be the best one because when we work together we encourage each other in the group to be the best performers. Emm and this help me all the time to be motivated. I also built a good relation with my teammates hhhh.”

-“ social aspect and self-esteem. I developed my relationships with my classmates and I developed my self-confidence thanks to group work.”

-“ it developed both aspects. When I worked with my friends I learnt how to be their friend, how to respect their point of view even if they are different of mine emm I also feel that I have more self-esteem and self-confidence to speak English in front of hhh my teacher and friends.”

-“ Both of them I develop both of them the psychological aspect and the social one. Because I was so shy and I was not able to express myself like now. Now I can talk I can speak freely with my friends because I feel more confident and my relationship with my classmates developed because each time I worked with new friends in the group so this made our relation like friends.”

-“ both of them I developed both aspects. I developed my social relationships and my psychological aspect also, because I gained more friends hhh I knew them closer.”

-“ both features developed. Now I can speak, I can present my presentation without fear .I also learnt how to make relations with my classmates I accept the different ideas I discuss without problems.”

-“ The same Mrs working in a group was an opportunity because it helped me to strengthen my relations with the students in the classroom because I worked almost with everybody.....it made me more tolerant with the different ideas. So I think it developed my social skills. On the other hand, I think group work learnt me to trust myself more than before.”

Only one participant admitted that cooperating with peers neither developed her social skills and relations, nor enhanced her psychological traits, except for slightly lowering her anxiety while speaking English in the classroom: “ none of them to be frank I didn't develop any of the aspects except for maybe lowering anxiety. I feel that I'm less anxious when I speak in the class.”

Question Eight: What do you think of the method you have been instructed the speaking skill (OE module)? Would you say why?

Eliciting information pertaining to the participant's attitudes towards the implementation of CL as a method of learning / instructing the speaking skill was the aim behind asking the first question. The researcher's target was to encourage them to voice their viewpoints towards applying such a method in the OE module classes. Furthermore, answering the second part of the question implied justifying their answers. In what follows, a recapitulation of the major answers collected from question one is outlined.

The majority of the three focus group discussions agreed that the CL method was compelling and exciting. Some others reported that it made their learning process easy and

funny. They all reckoned that the method was helpful as it made speaking English with others less intricate than expected.

When asked for justifications, they validated the significance of instruction in enhancing their self-confidence, developing their speaking skill, making them more daring and courageous to speak. Others confirmed that the method was practical as it made them more productive, and it boosted their willingness to discover and learn many things about others' culture. Some attributed the reason for their increased self-esteem while speaking English to the method of instruction. Students admitted that the latter could pave the way for them to express themselves freely, comfortably and courageously. In the same vein, they stated that they could voice their options fearlessly while cooperating with their classmates. Moreover, many students maintained that the method was the driving force that made them overcome shyness and be more emotionally expressive. The following statements are samples of the answers given to the first question.

- "it is good because for me I developed and became courageous I'm not afraid to talk I just learn how to talk."

- " I think that we are a small family here we discuss all things for me I can express my emotion more I can express myself more I can talk with anyone with English now before I had problems in grammar a lot of problems in grammar and vocabulary but now my speaking skills are better."

- " Actually this is a great method for me because before I felt shy and I felt stress and not comfortable and don't feel confident at all. But because of this method, I feel more comfortable because I can share my ideas and my thoughts and my emotions with this small family as my friend. So, I think that this is the best method that I have ever seen in my life."

- " I think the method is good because we can share our thoughts our feeling together I was shy before in oral expression but now I feel so comfortable because of this method."

- "I have to say about this method this method helps very much our team work because I was a person who can't involve in a team and a group and now I can talk with my mates and share ideas and work together on presentations so I guess this method helps me a lot."

- "The method is helpful it gave me the chance to develop my skill cause I was so shy in first. It gave me the chance to share my ideas and discuss it with friends to develop my skill and to learn more. So, it's so helpful and it gave me the power to be better and to explain my feeling and my emotions and my ideas also with my friends."

- "I think that it's a good method because it developed my speaking skill, it made us more productive we learned more about many subjects, have ideas and made us more culture about some things."

- "So I think this method is good because the result is clear. I love a lot of work; I love when we are doing performances. So I was before shy not know how to explain our feeling our idea and thoughts."

- "So this year of university was my first year or time to speak this much in class, and honestly I was introvert previously. But since I talked in oral session, I expressed my feelings more expressed myself more and became more empowered to give my opinions and actually. I think I might to consider the chance of turning to an actress. Actually, the method was very helpful to help me as it is interesting."

6.3. Overall Discussion

Conducting the focus group discussion is of paramount importance as it is one the best instrument that can be implemented to triangulating the data. More importantly, one of the focal aims of the present study was to disclose the participants' perspectives on the application of the CL method to develop speaking skill. Thereby, qualitative data were required, and the focus group discussion was opted for as it seemed relevant to elicit information directly from the experimental group participants after receiving the treatment.

Regarding the participants' appreciation and readiness for learning the speaking skill under the scope of the CL method, the discussions revealed that the majority showed positive attitudes towards the method mentioned above. They voiced their predisposition to be involved in groups and espouse CL tenets since it was entertaining and exciting. They all enunciated that it offered them ample opportunities to share unforgettable moments and experiences. Likewise, cooperating with their mates along the process of preparing for oral presentations was expedient. It made many of them more sociable, eager for exchanging ideas, and respecting others whose standpoints are opposing theirs, and above all, trained for being more tolerant. Alternatively, a minority expressed their reluctance and passivity to cooperate with others in performing speaking tasks due to authoritative peers' presence. They articulated their explicit disfavour of being under the control of other peers while preparing for oral task presentations.

As for their preferences to be assigned individual or group work speaking tasks, the majority concurred that it depended on the tasks' objective. They elucidated that as long as the latter was planned to exhibit their language abilities, there are no better tasks than individual ones. Conversely, if the task aimed at improving their speaking skill, enhancing their social skills, reinforcing their self-esteem and above all, empowering them to overcome shyness, the CL groups seemed to be then the most appropriate. Nevertheless, a minority (4 out of 23) confessed that working cooperatively with others on speaking tasks was occasionally a source of stress due to some peers' control over the group.

Boosting one 'self-esteem, taking more risks, tolerating other's differences, respecting others, acquiring new and worthy information about diverse domains not solely to the English language, establishing good relations with classmates and sharing good experiences with them were all reckoned benefits gained from CL method. Contrariwise, monopolising task performance and verbal communication from some peers, having less

allotted time to finish preparing the performance, being faced with free-rider and being prone to mockery whenever errors were committed were the most stated drawbacks the participants experienced while cooperatively working on oral presentations.

Concerning the CL method's lesson stages, the findings revealed that the 'Discussion stage' was the most appreciated. The majority of the interviewees confirmed that they could overtly express their ideas and exchange information during the discussion stage. In that stage, many of them experienced the feeling of being an essential member in the group as they were urged to explain their parts of the task. Every student was expected to elucidate the information collected while working with the other experts in that juncture. They were offered more opportunities to speak, to make themselves heard by others. Moreover, the expert stage was also a source of amusement to some other participants as it paved the way for them to collect information from the other expert of the same part of the task. It boosted their energy to be valuable as to make their home group the winner.

Furthermore, vocabulary was the most reinforced language aspect during the cooperation process, as acknowledged by the participants who explained that they were exposed to oral input and had the chance to acquire new words from their peers. In so doing, they were able to enlarge their vocabulary background. Nevertheless, the participants also asserted that the other language aspects, as pronunciation accuracy and grammar accuracy, were also enhanced as they constantly had their errors corrected by more advanced speakers in the group.

When solicited to state the dimension they were able to develop most along interacting with their peers, most participants disclosed that the psychological aspect was better ripened. Succeeding in augmenting their self-esteem, being more motivated to cooperate with their peers to perform oral tasks, being less prone to stress and anxiety are the stated positive psychological outcomes achieved. Most of them maintained that the

instruction method did not affect the social dimension of their personalities, as they had no problems establishing new social relations.

Ultimately, all the participants voiced their positive attitudes towards applying the CL method in learning the speaking skill. Of twenty-three, no participant showed reserve towards cooperating with other mates to do oral tasks. They concurred that the method was beneficial since they could develop some language aspects, social relationships, and psychological traits. They attributed their engagement in the learning of the speaking process to the method. They further added that the latter made their oral skills fully-fledged. It rendered them more expressive, more daring and more risk-taking to interact in the classroom verbally.

Conclusion

Chapter six discussed the findings yielded in the focus group discussion. The procedures of conducting it were thoroughly explained within the frame of this chapter. The responses collected from the eight addressed question in the focus group were analysed in depth. A connection between the issues discussed in the theoretical part was evoked in the analysis of the responses. The findings revealed that the majority of the participants highly appreciated the CL method. They deemed it powerful in decreasing their language anxiety, enhancing their motivation and self-confidence. It also was regarded as successful in developing some of their speaking aspects such as vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. Nevertheless, being prone to the over control of some authoritative peers and mockery made them dislike the performance of the oral tasks in cooperative groups.

CHAPTER SEVEN: Conclusions, Limitations, and Pedagogical Recommendations

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Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the findings yielded from the research instruments used in the three phases of the present study. The present chapter attempts to discuss these findings in relation to the questions raised at the preliminary stage of the research. The focal aim of this chapter is to respond explicitly to each addressed question and consider the hypotheses under which the study was grounded. Thus, the chapter puts forward the main conclusions of the research work. In the light of these findings, the chapter endeavours to propose some pedagogical recommendations to EFL learners and teachers. Finally, the chapter introduces the limitations faced while conducting the research and suggestions for future investigations that may inspire researchers interested in implementing the CL method principles to instruct the speaking skill. In this chapter, two sections are inserted; the first sketches the general discussion following the research questions and the hypotheses. The second section portrays the limitations, the suggested pedagogical recommendations, and propositions for further future research.

7.1. Synthesis of the Results of the three Research Phases

This section is designed to answer the research questions and consider the relevance of the hypotheses accordingly. The questions are discussed in chronological order, i.e., in line with the three phases of the research.

Research Question One: What attitudes do first-year LMD undergraduate Algerian EFL learners at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia university hold towards the CL method implementation in learning the speaking skill?

The first research question investigates the Algerian EFL first-year undergraduate students' attitudes towards espousing the CL method principles in learning the speaking skill. Thus, the impetus behind addressing a questionnaire to first-year EFL learners was to answer this question. The questionnaire attempted to elicit information relating to their

readiness to cooperate with their peers to promote their speaking performance in the OE module classes. Hence, the findings showed the participants' positive attitudes towards learning the speaking skill under the CL method principles.

Research Question Two: Do first-year undergraduate Algerian EFL learners fittingly practise the CL method principles to learn the speaking skill?

The questionnaire was devised to infer whether the participants in the classroom apply the CL principles. The analysis revealed that the method's principles were not fully and fittingly applied. Group processing- a fundamental principle of the method- was neither applied nor appreciated to be applied among the participants. Hence, this fact reflects the non-rigorous implementation of the method to learn the speaking skill, as the successful application of the CL method entails the embrace of its five fundamental pillars altogether; otherwise, its application will not be fully-fledged.

Research Question Three: To what extent is the CL method effective in promoting the EFL learners' speaking skill accuracy?

Probing the effectiveness of the CL method in developing the first-year undergraduate EFL learners' speaking skill urged the researcher to conduct a quasi-experiment. The findings revealed a significant improvement in the three speaking features, namely accuracy, fluency, and complexity among the treatment group compared to the non-treatment group. Accuracy was investigated at three levels: syntactic, pronunciation, and lexical. The EX.G participants progressed in four aspects of syntactic accuracy: the tenses and verb forms, SVA, plural formation, and NPR. However, they did not show any development on the accurate use of determiners, SS, prepositions, and conjunctions.

Regarding the C.G, the participants could enhance three out of eight aspects of syntactic accuracy: SS, determiners and NPR. The CL method did not show any positive influence on enhancing the EX.G pronunciation accuracy. Nor the C.G marked improvement

in their pronunciation accuracy at the end of the experiment. Considering lexical accuracy, the EX.G could significantly develop it than the C.G participants who did not demonstrate any significant progress. The third research question worked for confirming or rejecting the first hypothesis of the present study.

✓ **Hypothesis One:** Cooperative learning would develop first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language speaking accuracy.

The SPSS statistics revealed a significant intragroup improvement in the EX.G participants' overall speaking accuracy, but it was not the case for the C.G participants. Likewise, the EX.G outperformed the C.G significantly by the end of the experiment, although no statistical difference was identified before the treatment. Hence, this proves the positive influence of the CL method in enhancing EFL learners speaking accuracy. Accordingly, the null hypothesis, which states that the CL method would not enhance the EFL learners' speaking accuracy, was rejected.

Research Question Four: To what extent is the CL method effective in promoting EFL learners' speaking skill fluency?

Studying the participants' speaking fluency in the present research was done by scrutinising two broad aspects: (a) temporal variables: speech rate and pause length, and (b) hesitation phenomenon involving four indices: reformulation, replacement, false start, and repetition. The pretest findings disclosed that the two groups were homogenous in their overall speech fluency. Nevertheless, the treatment group proved statistically significant intragroup and intergroup progress in their speech rate and pause length. Put otherwise, the CL method technique evidenced its potency in making the EX.G participants produce more syllables within a given time than the pretest. Likewise, the method was deemed powerful in reducing the number and length of the pauses they made while speaking. The C.G, however, did not exhibit any amelioration at the temporal variable level. The participants

of the non-treatment group neither increased their speech rate nor reduced their pause length, as shown by SPSS findings.

Regarding the second level of speaking fluency analysis, namely the hesitation phenomena, the EX.G participants could enhance three out of four phenomena. The posttest results showed their intragroup and intergroup improvement in producing fewer false starts, making fewer repetitions. They outperformed the C.G in performing fewer replacements. Nonetheless, the treatment was not that influential in reducing reformulations in their speech. They demonstrated no progress as to reducing hesitation phenomena. They did not minimize the number of reformulations, replacements, false starts and repetitions. Hence, the findings generated from the fourth research question worked for considering the second hypothesis.

Hypothesis Two: If the CL method is applied, first-year undergraduate Algerian EFL learners' speaking fluency would develop.

The inferential statistics obtained from the SPSS indicated that, by and large, the treatment enhanced the EX.G participants' speaking fluency, while no fluency aspect was advanced in the C.G participants' speech. Hence, we can assuredly confirm the high practicality of the CL method in developing the EFL learners' speaking fluency. The null hypothesis stating that speaking fluency is not promoted by the CL method was then rejected.

Research Question Four: To what extent is the CL method effective in promoting EFL learner's speaking skill complexity?

Speaking Complexity was investigated by analysing the syntactic complexity and the lexical complexity. As far as the syntactic complexity is concerned, two categories were probed: the amount of subordination and the number of verb forms used. The statistical findings yielded from the two tests applied confirmed the prominence of the CL method in enhancing the EX.G participants' syntactic complexity as they scored higher in the posttest in making more subordinations and producing more different verb forms than in the pretest

. Contrariwise, only the subordination amount syntactic complexity index was elevated in the posttest of the C.G. Yet, it was not the case for the number of the verbs generated in their posttest performance. Thus, we can assuredly state that the CL method was practical in promoting syntactic complexity in the treatment group's oral performance.

Lexical complexity, investigated by calculating the mean segmental type-token ratio, was improved by neither the EX.G nor the C.G. None of the groups proved growth as to producing more lexically complex speech. Given that, the CL method cannot be deemed potential in enhancing this aspect of speaking complexity.

All in all, and as evidenced statistically, both groups marked evolution as to speech complexity. Therefore, we cannot attribute this evolution solely to the CL method as the C.G also advanced.

Hypothesis Three: The CL method develops EFL learners' speaking complexity.

In considering the statistical findings standing for the overall complexity speaking intragroup performance of both groups in the present study, it was shown that compared to the C.G; the EX.G improved better as in the former group 20 participants improved their overall speaking complexity while 23 participants in the latter scored higher in the posttest than the pretest. The test used to investigate the intergroup difference exhibited that both groups were homogenous in their speech complexity.

The overall statistics standing for the recapitulation of the participants' speech complexity confirmed both group's progress. Therefore, we cannot presume that the CL method exclusively enhanced speaking complexity as the CG proved development. Although the third hypothesis was confirmed and the null hypothesis, claiming the non-efficacy of the treatment in elevating speech complexity, was refuted, we cannot solely impute the progress made in speaking complexity among the EX.G participants to the CL method.

Research Question Five: Is the CL method effective in developing EFL learners' overall speaking skill?

Interestingly, the inferential statistics recapitulating the inclusive speaking performance-with its three core features- revealed an intragroup growth in both groups in the posttest. Put otherwise, though; the EX.G highly developed their speaking skill as the p-value was equal to 0.000 (as shown in table 98) the C.G did so as the p-value was (0.005). At the preliminary phase of the study, as confirmed in the pretest analysis, all participants had common speaking skills, and both groups managed to enhance them by the end of the treatment. However, EX.G improved higher than the C.G.

✓ ***Hypothesis Four: If the cooperative learning method was efficiently applied, first-year Algerian undergraduate learners of English as foreign language overall speaking skill would enhance.***

The overall statistical results lead us to conclude that the CL method enhanced the overall speaking skill of first-year EFL learners. The null hypothesis claiming that the method is not efficient in developing the overall speaking skill was refuted.

Research Question Six: What are the merits and drawbacks experienced by first-year undergraduate EFL learners while implementing the CL method in OE classes?

Answering the above-asked question implied triangulating the data via focus group discussions to inquire about the EX.G participants' standpoints regarding the CL method application to learn the speaking skill in the OE module classes. The results obtained disclosed the participants' estimation of the method, its principles, its different lesson phases, and classroom practices. Embracing diverse social and linguistic advantages, the CL method, as enunciated by most participants, was deemed powerful. Most participants voiced their agreement that the method helped them, by and large, to heighten their sociability in the

classroom. It made them more tolerant in situations where conflicts arose and established respect among peers. It intensified their eagerness and predisposition to learn many aspects of speaking from their colleagues. Other social merits were accredited to the method, such as boosting self-esteem, provoking more risk-taking, strengthening friendship relationships, and creating a relaxing context to learn the foreign language.

As far as the merits acknowledged to be enhanced by the method are concerned, the participants informed that some language aspects such as vocabulary, pronunciation accuracy, and grammar accuracy were the most important aspects they could develop while cooperating with others. Likewise, other psychological aspects, such as self-esteem enhancement, motivation increase, anxiety lowering were acknowledged to be enhanced. However, the participants listed some drawbacks resulting during their cooperation in performing oral tasks, of which is some peers' over control of discussions. Put differently; many participants revealed that authoritative peers tended to monopolise the task performance, and this made them stressed and reluctant to cooperate further.

The discussion stage and Expert stage were the most lesson phases the participants enjoyed while performing orally. These two stages made them feel responsible for the successful accomplishment of the task. More importantly, the participants revealed that they could exchange information in the discussion and expert stages and benefit more from their peers in the class.

Considering the responses collected in the focus group and that could answer the sixth question, we explicitly state that the CL method; from the treatment group participants' perspective has linguistic, social, and psychological merits, as discussed in the literature review of this thesis. The over control of some partners in the oral task performance was a major disadvantage revealed the answers.

7.2. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Though successful, the CL method was deemed to enhance the participants' speaking skills with its three core features; some limitations need to be noted. First, unfortunately, the outbreak of Covid 19 pandemics prevented the researcher from teaching two other speaking lessons (they are inserted in Appendix T). The first lesson was designed to teach some common English idioms and proverbs used to describe feelings, ask for and give advice, while the second revolved around cooking recipes in which students were supposed to learn some vocabulary items related to cooking, fruits and vegetables and other language forms used to give instructions. Teaching these two lessons to treatment could have added more information relating to the participants' speaking performance.

Another limitation relates to the duration devoted to the quasi-experiment. In the context of this study, the timeframe devoted to conducting the treatment was one semester. Hence, the study could have yielded better results if it had been longitudinal. Teaching the speaking skill for a more extended period could have given more insights into the CL method effect on developing some speaking aspects, especially pronunciation accuracy and speaking lexical complexity. These two aspects could have been better progressed if more lessons had been introduced and more time had been allotted.

Bearing in mind that the study was quasi-experimental and random sampling of the population was impossible, and despite the measures adopted before conducting the study, other extraneous variables could have confounded the results. Therefore, a true experimental design could have been more robust in demonstrating the efficiency of the method. Moreover, the sample of the population is another limitation that needs to be mentioned. Involving 49 participants in the context of this study was not sufficient as generalizing the findings needs a larger sample.

Unfortunately, no pilot study was considered in the context of this research. Applying a pilot study could have paved the way for the researcher to implement the different stages to teach the speaking skill within the framework of the CL method in a less time-consuming and problematic way than the way done in the quasi-experiment.

Recording and orthographically transcribing approximately 170 minutes of speech in the pretest and 215 minutes, in the posttest making an overall of 385 minutes (more than 6 hours of speech transcription) was a considerable obstacle encountered in the study as no software, or data-based tool was available to do the transcripts. Transcribing speaking tests' performances were then manually conducted. Honestly, as a process, it was time-consuming, exhausting and very challenging to the researcher.

As far as the speaking tests are concerned, it was demanding to urge all the participants to speak similarly (approximately 5 to 6 minutes each) to test them fairly. Being in the form of a role-play was the reason that made the speaking test somehow intricate, as overlaps in turn-taking occurred occasionally. Hence, it was sometimes difficult to catch uttered words and phrases while overlaps happened. This fact complicated more the process of transcription.

In the light of the findings research, the following suggestions can be proposed for further investigations :

- ✓ Longitudinal studies to examine the effect of the CL method on speaking accuracy, fluency and complexity may provide more insightful and trustworthy findings than short experiments may do.
- ✓ Further experimental studies need to be conducted to probe the effects of the CL method on developing EFL learners' pronunciation accuracy. The present research could not confirm the worthiness of the treatment in enhancing learners' pronunciation accuracy.

- ✓ Experimental research should be conducted to examine the influence of the CL in enhancing EFL learners' speech complexity, as the present research did not reveal any significant results regarding this issue.
- ✓ Conducting studies to consider the impact of the CL method in EFL learners' psychological aspects such as foreign language anxiety, self-esteem, motivation and self-confidence is highly needed.
- ✓ Qualitative studies should be conducted to consider teachers' classroom practices in applying the CL method. These may incorporate classroom observation protocols and checklists, interviews with teachers and practitioners in the field.
- ✓ Narrowing the scope of research to examine the merit of the CL method in enhancing the syntactic accuracy in learners' speech might offer more insights. This research types may tackle investigations about determiners accurate use, forming accurate sentence structures, accurate use of prepositions, collocations, and conjunctions. To do so, researchers may introduce lessons exclusively designed to teach these grammar components.
- ✓ It is worth investigating the significance of learning the speaking skill via CL groups in increasing EFL learners' vocabulary background can suggest similar results.
- ✓ Following the same research procedures with a different speaking test such as monologues and interviews than a role-play may disclose different results.
- ✓ Pieces of research in which different techniques of the CL method than the jigsaw would be used can be of great relevance to ensure their significance in promoting the speaking skill.
- ✓ Correlational studies probing the influence of the CL method on the EFL learners speaking performance and other language skills such as writing and listening are needed

- ✓ Applying similar research with a different population, for instance, secondary and middle school levels, can give more insight about the issue.
- ✓ Investigating the relevance of the CL method on increasing risk-taking and turn-taking system among introverted students is worthy.

7.3. Pedagogical Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, some pedagogical recommendations might be proposed:

1. Reconsidering the teaching methodology and content of the OE module: the whole content and methodologies adopted in instructing the speaking skill need to be revisited to comprise more CL learning groups, as these have proved their success in teaching many subjects (Johnson et al., 1994).
2. Authorities should arrange intensively pedagogical workshops to form teachers in applying the CL method's five pillars at all levels of education.
3. Teachers of the first-year OE module should give more importance to speaking accuracy by planning lessons focussing more on language forms. In doing so, they, by and large, may reduce fossilisation and decrease their learners' speaking problems.
4. Strengthening learners' motivation to learn in CL groups necessitates assigning challenging tasks and rewarding winning groups to arouse constructive competition among all the students in the class.
5. Teachers should ascertain that all the students contribute to the task performance by establishing rightfully positive interdependence to avoid the free-rider effect.

Conclusion

The seventh chapter came to summarize all the research findings generated by the quantitative and qualitative research tools. The overall findings were discussed in line with

the six addressed questions at the study's preliminary phase. The chapter attempted to answer each question in-depth to make the reader of the thesis insightful about the findings yielded from applying the CL method in teaching the speaking skill in this study. The hypotheses and the null hypotheses were also referred to in the frame of the chapter. The limitations encountered in conducting the study and some pedagogical recommendations were advanced in the present chapter.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The most coveted aim that English as a foreign language teachers aspire to achieve while teaching the speaking skill is to enhance their learners speaking performance. An intent that calls for tremendous efforts from both parties. A felicitous teaching method of the speaking skill is the one that successfully stipulates adopting a teaching method that fosters more peer interaction, the intensive practice of the language, the performance of all-embracing language tasks meant for developing both meaning (fluency) and form (accuracy). A successful teaching method of the speaking skill manages to keep the learners engaged in classroom interaction and makes its learning an ongoing pleasant process. In brief, an effective speaking teaching method denotes implementing techniques that might be supportive to decreasing language anxiety, boosting motivation to speak, giving more responsibility to the learners towards their learning process.

The present study was set first to probe the English as a foreign language first-year undergraduate LMD Algerian students' attitudes towards implementing the cooperative learning method in learning the speaking skill. Likewise, it aimed to scrutinise their readiness to espouse the cooperative learning method tenets in their oral expression classroom practices and to consider the extent to which these principles are properly adopted in learning speaking. Second, the study attempted to inspect the method's efficacy in enhancing the participant's speaking skill to produce accurate, fluent and complex speech. Third, the research objective was ultimately directed to disclose the merits and drawbacks of the method in oral expression classes.

Gathering the data to answer the research questions and considering the formulated hypotheses denoted using a mixed research method in which quantitative and qualitative data collection tools were used. It was conducted through three main phases. The first was the pre-experimental stage, which was conducted via a questionnaire. The latter, a quantitative research instrument, was addressed to 69 first-year undergraduate students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia university to identify their overall stances on using the CL method and assess the application of its principles in the OE classes. The second phase, namely, the experimental study used to generate quantitative data, was followed via a non-equivalent (nonrandomised) pretest-posttest design to consider the impact of the method on developing the three speaking features (accuracy, fluency and complexity). The treatment whose lessons were structured around the jigsaw tasks was applied for nine weeks with 49 participants in the same context. The post-experimental phase that necessitated using a qualitative instrument was carried through focus group interviews conducted with twenty-three participants to identify the merits and the shortcomings of the method. Triangulating the data in this study was deemed substantially important to respond to the research questions and the formulated hypotheses.

The findings generated by the questionnaire voiced the participants' inclination to cooperate with their peers in learning the speaking skill as they asserted its soundness in reinforcing not only the language aspects such as vocabulary and pronunciation but also the psychological and social facets, including developing self-confidence, lowering language anxiety and strengthening relations. Considering the adoption of the CL method tenets in OE, the findings revealed that not all the five principles were adequately applied as group processing was not appreciated by most participants, which reflected their competitive and individualistic propensity. As far as classroom practices are concerned, the questionnaire results unveiled that roles were not assigned in groups. As a result, the free-rider effect

emerged on the scene. Moreover, individual accountability and positive interdependence were not adequately fostered by OE teachers.

The quasi-experiment findings generated by Wilcoxon-signed rank and Mann Whitney U using SPSS in the pretest and posttest revealed a high significant intergroup and intragroup growth in the speaking accuracy among the experimental group but not the control group. The same tests proved a significantly important development of the experimental group in producing more fluent speech after the treatment compared to the control group who did not show any amelioration. As calculated by the two statistical tests, speech complexity was the only speaking feature developed in the control group as their p-value was calculated to 0.005 ($\text{sig} = 0.005 < 0.05$). So did the experimental group, who proved a high growth in generating more complex speech by the end of the treatment.

The focus group discussions revealed the participants' positive attitudes towards learning the speaking skill under the scope of the CL as it provided them with more chances to practise the language and develop some language components, which are vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Being more empowered to overcome their shyness and language anxiety, feeling more self-confident, being more tolerant and sociable in the learning process were major psychological and social merits accredited to the CL method. Nevertheless, being prone to some students' mockery and the over control of some peers in group works were the major drawbacks enunciated by the participants.

In the light of the results, the four hypotheses directing this study were confirmed. The speaking skill was significantly enhanced through applying the CL method. Validating these findings entails conducting future research on the same scope of investigation using different research instruments. Based on the results obtained, the CL method should be endorsed in the Algerian EFL classrooms to teach speaking skills and other language

aspects to make learning English more appealing to both teachers and learners at different levels of education.

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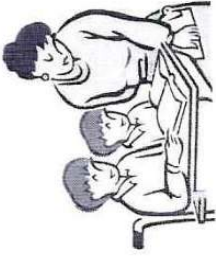
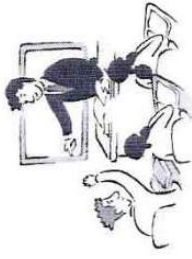


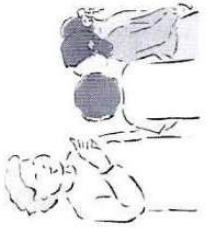

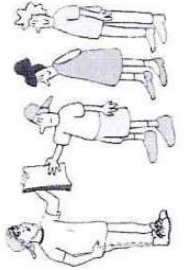
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APPENDICES

Appendix 5 Roles in Groups

<p>Recorder</p>  <p>Function: Keeps an accurate record Checks everyone's understanding</p>	<p>Participation Checker</p>  <p>Function: Helps others to join in Ensures everyone gets a turn</p>	<p>Questioner</p>  <p>Function: Asks group members to explain and say more Asks for paraphrasing</p>	<p>Noise controller</p>  <p>Function: Checks on use of quiet voices One speaker at a time</p>
<p>Materials manager (gofer)</p> <p>Function: Collects materials returns them Keeps things tidy</p> 	<p>Organiser</p> <p>Function: Keeps everyone on task Watches the time</p> 	<p>Checker</p> <p>Function: Makes sure everyone has learned or completed the task checks for understanding and agreement</p> 	<p>Praiser</p> <p>Function: Praises individuals' contributions Helps celebrate achievements</p> 

Appendix B

Learner's Profile Technical Card

Group	Number

1. Gender :

Male

Female

2. Age :

.....years old.

3. Secondary School Stream :

Language and Philosophy

Scientific/Mathematical/Management

Foreign Languages

4. Overall years spent in studying English :

..... years.

5. My mark /grade of the English subject in the official BAC exam was:

...../20

6. My speaking ability is:

Excellent Very good Good Average Below average Poor

7. Language (s) Spoken at home:

.....

8. Outside classroom context, I'm exposed to English Language :

a. All the time b. Frequently c. Sometimes d. Rarely e. Never

9. I have studied English in:

Public School Private School

10. In my consideration, learning to speak English is:

Important somehow important not important I don't know

Oxford Placement Test 2

Grammar Test PART 1

Name	
Total Listening	/ 100
Total Grammar	/ 100
Grand Total	/ 200

Look at these examples. The correct answer is ticked.

- a In warm climates people like likes are liking sitting outside in the sun.
- b If it is very hot, they sit at in under the shade.

Now the test will begin. Tick the correct answers.

- | | |
|--|----------|
| 1 Water <input type="checkbox"/> be freezing <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> is freezing <input type="checkbox"/> freezes at a temperature of 0°C. | 1 _____ |
| 2 In some countries <input type="checkbox"/> there is <input type="checkbox"/> is <input type="checkbox"/> it is dark all the time in winter. | 2 _____ |
| 3 In hot countries people wear light clothes <input type="checkbox"/> for keeping <input type="checkbox"/> to keep <input type="checkbox"/> for to keep cool. | 3 _____ |
| 4 In Madeira they have <input type="checkbox"/> the good <input type="checkbox"/> good <input type="checkbox"/> a good weather almost all year. | 4 _____ |
| 5 Most Mediterranean countries are <input type="checkbox"/> more warm <input type="checkbox"/> the more warm <input type="checkbox"/> warmer in October than in April. | 5 _____ |
| 6 Parts of Australia don't have <input type="checkbox"/> the <input type="checkbox"/> some <input type="checkbox"/> any rain for long periods. | 6 _____ |
| 7 In the Arctic and Antarctic <input type="checkbox"/> it is <input type="checkbox"/> there is <input type="checkbox"/> it has a lot of snow. | 7 _____ |
| 8 Climate is very important in <input type="checkbox"/> most of <input type="checkbox"/> most <input type="checkbox"/> the most people's lives. | 8 _____ |
| 9 Even now there is <input type="checkbox"/> little <input type="checkbox"/> few <input type="checkbox"/> less we can do to control the weather. | 9 _____ |
| 10 In the future <input type="checkbox"/> we'll need <input type="checkbox"/> we are needing <input type="checkbox"/> we can need to get a lot of power from the sun and the wind. | 10 _____ |

- 16 In 1957 he **has been picked** **was picked** **was picking** for the Brazilian national team. 16 _____
- 17 The next World Cup Finals were in 1958 and Pelé was looking forward to **play** **playing** **the play** . 17 _____
- 18 And **even though** **even so** **in spite of** he was injured he helped Brazil to win the final. 18 _____
- 19 Pelé was **a such** **such a** **a so** brilliant player that he helped Brazil win 3 World Cups. 19 _____
- 20 He didn't stop **playing** **to play** **play** for Santos till he was 34. 20 _____
- 21 After calling it a day in 1974, he came **from** **off** **out of** retirement and played for *New York Cosmos*. 21 _____
- 22 **Till** **By** **In** the end of his career he had scored over a thousand goals. 22 _____
- 23 He then settled for a role **as** **like** **in** a sporting ambassador for Brazil. 23 _____
- 24 By the end of the 20th Century he had received a great **many** **number** **deal** of awards. 24 _____
- 25 Though honoured with the title *Athlete of the Century*, he will always be remembered **as footballer** **as a footballer** **as the footballer** . 25 _____

Football, or soccer as it is sometimes known, **has been** **is being** **was** played for **above** **over** **more than** 150 years, but the first World Cup competition **has not been** **was not** **was not being** held until 1930, when Uruguay **could win** **were winning** **won** the first professional final. Four teams had entered from Europe, but with **a little** **little** **few** success. The 1934 World Cup was again won by **a** **the** **their** home team, Italy, **who** **which** **that** went on to win the 1938 final as well. Winning successive finals is something that **is not** **was not** **has not been** achieved again until Brazil managed **them** **these** **it** in 1958 and 1962. If Brazil **would have won** **would win** **had won** again in 1966 then the FIFA authorities would have needed to **have** **let** **make** the original World Cup replaced. However, England stopped the Brazilians **to get** **getting** **get** a third successive win. In the 1970s the honours were shared **among** **between** **inside** Europe and South America. Argentina succeeded **to win** **at winning** **in winning** in 1978, but in 1982, in Spain, they had **difficulty in** **difficulties to** **difficulty to** getting beyond the early stages. They won again in Mexico in 1986, **where** **which** **while** Maradona managed to win **much** **some** **any** of the games, especially the one against England, almost **by his own** **by himself** **on himself**. The 1990s finals were dominated by European teams **except** **apart** **save** from Brazil's win in the USA in 1994, with the 1998 finals in France again **to be** **being** **having** won by the hosts. Throughout the 1990s police in the host countries **was** **were** **have been** kept busy keeping rival fans apart, but **there was** **there were** **it was** to be no such problems when the first World Cup Finals of the 21st century took **part** **place** **hold** in Japan and South Korea in 2002. Football's third century **has seen** **saw** **seeing** success for a number of footballing nations in Africa and Asia, who **may well** **may as well** **might as well** prove to be the teams of the future.

Grammar Test PART 2

- 51 Millions of **persons** **people** **peoples** around the world now use the Internet almost every day. 51 _____
- 52 The majority of children in the UK **have** **has** **are having** access to a PC. 52 _____
- 53 Learning to use the Internet is not the same **as** **like** **than** learning traditional skills. 53 _____
- 54 Most of us start off with email, **who** **which** **what** is fairly easy to use. 54 _____
- 55 Children generally find using computers easy, but some adults can't get used **to work** **to working** **work** with them. 55 _____
- 56 There aren't **no** **any** **some** shortcuts to becoming proficient – everyone needs training and practice. 56 _____
- 57 Those who do best are those who also use computers a lot **on their own** **by their own** **on themselves**. 57 _____
- 58 It's no use **in trying** **to try** **trying** to become an expert just by reading books. 58 _____
- 59 There are many who wish they **started** **would have started** **had started** learning earlier. 59 _____
- 60 A few unsuccessful learners have resigned themselves to never **know** **knowing** **known** how to use the Internet. 60 _____
- 61 Some new users quickly become almost addicted **to be** **to being** **be** on line. 61 _____
- 62 Others decide they would just **rather** **prefer** **better** not have anything to do with computers. 62 _____
- 63 The trend continues **to be** **be** **by being** for computers to get smaller and smaller. 63 _____
- 64 Some companies already have more palmtops **that** **than** **as** desktops. 64 _____
- 65 It is thought that we'll have mobile phones as powerful as PCs **till** **by** **in** the end of the decade. 65 _____

Below is a letter written to the 'advice' column of a daily newspaper. Tick the correct answers.

Dear Marge,

- I'm writing** **I will write** **I should write** to you because I 66 _____
- am not knowing** **don't know** **know not** what to do. I'm twenty-six and a teacher at 67 _____
- a primary school in Norwich where **I'm working** **I've worked** **I work** for the last five years. 68 _____
- When I **was** **have been** **had been** there for a couple of years, one of the older members of staff 69 _____
- would leave** **left** **had been leaving**, and a new teacher 70 _____
- would be** **became** **was** appointed to work in the same department as me. 71 _____
- We **worked** **have worked** **should work** together with the same classes during her first year 72 _____
- and had the **opportunity for building** **possibilities to build** **chance to build** up a good professional 73 _____
- relationship. Then, about eighteen months after **she has arrived** **to have arrived** **arriving** 74 _____
- in Norwich, she decided to buy **her own** **herself** **her a** house. 75 _____

what I was living that I had lived I was living in

and she asked me if I liked had liked would like to live

with her. She said told explained me that by the time she

would pay would have paid had paid the mortgage

and the bills it there they wouldn't be

a lot many few left to live on. She suggested

us to we should we may share the house and share the costs.

It seemed like a good idea, so after we'd agreed we could agree we agreed with all the details

what that who needed to be sorted out, we moved into the new house together.

At the end of this month we have lived we have been living we'll have been living

together for a year and a half. It's the first time I live I'm living I've lived with anybody before, but

I should guess I might have guessed I'd have guessed what would happen. I've fallen in love with

her and now she's been offered another job 200 miles away and is going to move. I don't know what to do. Please give me some advice.

Yours in shy desperation,

Steve

Look at the following examples of question tags in English. The correct form of the tag is ticked.

a He's getting the 9.15 train, isn't he hasn't he wasn't he ?

b She works in a library, isn't she doesn't she doesn't he ?

c Tom didn't tell you, hasn't he didn't he of'd he ?

d Someone's forgotten to switch off the gas, didn't one didn't they haven't they ?

Now tick the correct question tag in the following 10 items:

91 Steve's off to China, has he hasn't he isn't he ?

92 It'll be a year before we see him again, won't it won't we shan't it ?

93 I believe he's given up smoking, isn't he don't I hasn't he ?

94 I'm next on the list to go out there, am not I are I aren't I ?

95 No doubt you'd rather he didn't stay abroad too long, shouldn't you wouldn't you hadn't you ?

96 He's rarely been away for this long before, is he hasn't he has he ?

97 So you think he'll be back before November, shall he will he do you ?

98 Nobody's disagreed with the latest proposals, did he has he have they ?

99 We'd better not delay reading this any longer, should we did we had we ?

100 Now's hardly the time to tell me you didn't need a test at all, did you is it isn't it ?

79 _____
80 _____
81 _____
82 _____
83 _____
84 _____
85 _____
86 _____
87 _____
88 _____
89 _____
90 _____

91 _____
92 _____
93 _____
94 _____
95 _____
96 _____
97 _____
98 _____
99 _____
100 _____

Appendix D

Focus Group Discussion Questions

2. Did you enjoy the fact of working in groups when you were given oral tasks in the classroom? Could you say why?
3. Do you think that working individually on oral tasks is better than doing it in groups? Why?
4. What did you benefit from cooperating with your peers in performing oral tasks?
5. Can you explain the things you did not appreciate during working on speaking tasks in groups?
6. Which stage (s) did you like most while cooperating with your peers in working on your tasks (preparation/ Expert exchange/ getting back to the home groups (discussion) / performing/ taking the test/ celebrating success)? Could you explain why?
7. What language aspect (s) do you think you have developed better while working on oral tasks with your peers in the group? Could you explain how?
 - Vocabulary
 - Pronunciation accuracy
 - Grammar accuracy
8. Which aspect (s) do you think you have developed while working with your peers in groups on speaking tasks? Could you say why?
 - Psychological aspects: self-esteem, motivation and anxiety lowering.
 - Social aspect: making better relationship with your peers, social skills...etc.

What do you think of the method you have been instructed the speaking skill (OE module)? Would you say why?

Responses from Focus Group Conversation

Conversation One

Q1: Did you enjoy working in groups? Could you say why?

Zineb: Yes I did enjoy group work. It was something new something that help me to discover my capacities to speak and discover my friends. It give me the chance to know better my friends and make good relation with them and ehhe to learn many things about English.

Lina: Of course, yes. It is interesting to do efforts together to be the best group. It was kind of fun to work in groups. As my classmate said we know now better each other because we worked a lot together. For me it was a situation that I liked because I worked with no stress and fear with them.

Nadjat: It was so lovely to work in groups. It makes me so excited to know the ideas of my friends, to compete with the other groups. It's really enjoyable. I would never forget those moments we worked together. It was pleasure to work in groups we all had very good moments, we worked with less stress as my friend said.

Yousra: Of course, yes. Because I start to know more myself, I started to trust myself more, to make good relations with my friends. In the past I was not very sociable ehhe but now I think I am.

Amina: I was always happy when I have oral expression and when you give us group works. It was a pleasure a great pleasure. I'm really so happy to experience this. Sometimes we don't agree but we learn how to respect each other.

Rihem: yes I liked it and I enjoy it too much. Because I am not very sociable in nature

Hanane: Yes although I didn't like working in groups because I hate working in groups. I'm kind of controlling person. In my personality real personality I don't like to talk a lot with others but in oral expression classes I started to learn to do so.

Ikram: I in favour group work I enjoy it. It was nice to work with my friends to speak with them a lot. We learnt many things from each other when we work together.

Q2: Do you think that working on oral tasks individually is better than doing in groups? Why?

Lina: it depends on the topic of the task. Sometimes we want to express our abilities in something so we need the individual work to show our abilities to the teacher. But sometimes we need to work in groups to develop our speech together. I think it depends on the task to see the best individually or group works.

Riham: It helps to discover different ideas from the individuals so in that case working in groups is better than individually.

Ikram: Sometimes you feel stress and you like an individual one but when you need to concentrate a lot in a task and she didn't give you any chance to talk and you get mad in this case you will chose the individual one. But when it's a simple subject and you can talk you can talk on it so you will just listen.

Amina: sometimes we need to develop our point of view so individual work is better. But sometimes we need to work in groups to develop our skills to talk.

Hanane: so for me I prefer to work alone because I think I am a controlling person. I like to be the leader in the teamwork. I like to make my opinion very clear but sometimes they don't listen to me so I feel stressed enough to dislike working with them.

Zineb: as my classmates say it depends in the task. When the student need to express his thoughts it is better to do individual works but if the task is not about express thoughts it is better to do group work.

Youssra: I think in group work we can talk more together, we can practise more our English, we can have the chance to listen more and when we listen more we learn more and we may speak more than we do in individually.

Nadjet: I think that to work in groups is better because when I work with my friends I speak more, I do more effort to be good, it is more exciting to me to talk to them.

Q3. What did you benefit from cooperating with your peers in performing oral tasks?

Ikram: when I worked with the group of Youssra and Lina, they give me the ability to talk and they make the ideas and they make they make things good and simple especially Youssra she give me ehh I see life can be better.

Hanane: I discovered that I'm a controlling person and I discovered that there are some people who have the leadership spirit and I also discovered that my opinion doesn't always have to be right.

Zineb: I have to express my ideas briefly and how to support and get the support from my mates.

Amina: I learned how to respect other's points of view, I learned how to manage time, I improved myself and got rid of being shy and stressed.

Youssra: I learned how we can develop a small idea from nothing to the best with the support of each member of the group and how to respect the others' point of view.

Nadjet: Working together is a great method it help me to share my feeling with others and gain also at the same time the other information and what to do and work together and saving time as my friend said, we learnt how to manage our time and how to collect information you know!

Lina: For me I learned how to listen to each other I would listen to Nadjet's ideas or Zineb's ideas. Also I learned how to manage my time this is the most important point that I gained from teamwork. Generally, I love teamwork because it make you share everything with others we love each other we work with love.

Rihem: I learned how to manage my time, how to work in a group, I know how to respect other opinions and I learned a lot of vocabulary.

Q4: Can you explain the things you did not really appreciate along the process of working on speaking tasks in groups?

Lina: The things I hate or I dislike it there is that ehh when some students talk a lot they control all the performance and the others they can't express their feelings. Sometimes I wanted to express my ideas but some of mates in the group did not give me the chance to say it so this made me feel nervous, upset and sometimes angry.

Zineb: Sometimes one of the student in the group talk too much and didn't give the chance to others. So this made us angry scause it's somehow selfish, they don't give us the chance to speak. This is unfair somebody speak a lot and another student do not speak at all. So this is the only thing that makes me disappointed when I work in groups with my colleagues.

Nadjet: The same thing as my classmates said. Sometimes they don't give you the chance to express your feelings, they control the discussion so this is unfair because normally every one should have the chance to speak like all his colleagues in the group.

Youssra: When you gave us role plays to perform sometimes you don't have the chance to choose the role of the performance because sometimes we chose the same role and I have to obey because I don't want to be in conflict with anyone.

Amina: Sometimes some performances are not fair because some groups have enough time and others don't. I mean the thing that made me not at ease is that some groups had more time to train before the performance while most of the time my group didn't have enough time to be ready for the performance.

Riham: I have to be sincere about something. Sometimes the teacher care about just the person who talks and forgets about the person who do not talk and you hate both the teacher and the mate who was talking and didn't give me a chance to talk. The teacher should tell the person who talks a lot tell him to respect his friend and to let him talk and to support his personal view. I want to say that some of my peers in the group intend to speak more than us and the teacher did nothing to stop him this made me dislike working in groups.

Hanane: I didn't dislike anything because I put all my energy in the performances so I didn't focus on the other things while working in group so I didn't feel that something was missed.

Ikram: I dislike my classmates I dislike my classmates when they all like an idea and when they don't even listen to you ehh and they are selfish they didn't give you a chance to talk or improve yourself, maybe your idea is better than theirs they even care. Maybe my idea is the appropriate but it is different and they tell you that their idea is the best. So I hate their selfishness, they impose their ideas on me even if I'm not convinced.

Lina : Another small thing, they are some students who don't work. They just come to the class and see on you and say yes do whatever you want cause I don't have time to work.

Ikram: They just improve their self in order to be the best student in the class and have high scores.

Q5: Which stage (s) you did you like most while cooperating with your peers in working on your tasks (preparation/ Expert exchange/ getting back to the home groups/ performing/ taking the test/ celebrating your success)? Could you explain why?

All the students talking and laughing together: the celebration of the winner.

Ikram: I really like the discussion part with the members of the group. When all the students discuss together what they learn with the other experts. I liked it because everyone have the opportunity to say what he learn from the other groups. It was really fun it was a special part in the task.

Lina: I liked the performance. When we are presenting the work together and we do all our best to be the winners at the end. As Ikram said it was really funny and we share nice moments together.

Youssra: I liked when I go back to my own group and exchange with them the information I brought from the other friends hhhh it was nice to do that . They were very nice moments. I even learnt many words from my teammates. I was able to correct my pronunciation mistakes while working with my friends.

Rihem: Experts' part, I like it because you give ideas and you receive ideas. We learnt so many things from each other. And we had the chance to work with different students that's why I liked it so much more than the other parts.

Amina: For me I liked all the parts hhhh cause every part has good things.

Hanane: To be honest hhhhh I liked all the stages, in every stage as Amina has just said has good things. But the stage I enjoyed most was the discussion stage because it was then that everyone had the opportunity to say whatever he wants. It was that stage in which you feel that you are contributing effectively in the group because your friends rely on you to bring them the necessary information related to your part and which makes the whole work good and complete.

Nadjat: I liked the expert stage when I do my best to bring information and discuss with others to make my group the winner at the end.

Zineb: I liked the celebration part hhhhhhh receiving gifts ehhe it was exciting to know the winner group. Everybody was waiting to know who is the winner.

Q6: What language aspect (s) do you think you have developed better while working on oral tasks with your peers in the group?

- **Vocabulary**
- **Pronunciation accuracy**
- **Grammar accuracy**

Nadjat: I think vocabulary and pronunciation are the most thing that I have developed most. Because now I feel that I have less problems to find the words to say I feel that I learnt many new words, I feel that when I speak with my classmates I make less pronunciation mistakes. Because I used to pronounce some sounds in a wrong way but now it's okay hhhh.

Lina: grammar and vocabulary, most grammar hhhhh I didn't I found really a difficulty to know how to conjugate the verbs I mean which tense it should be in but now before I speak I know in which tense the verbs should be used hhhhh. Because we listen a lot to each other, my friends correct from me the grammar mistakes just to be the best group performer and the winners. And vocabulary because when we worked together I learn many new words as my friends said, I learnt new expressions hhhhh.

Zineb: Vocabulary is the most aspect which developed because I emmm I learn many new words and phrases, idioms when we were working together and my friends made me know the words that I didn't heard about them before.

Ikram: I think the three aspects are thanks god are developed I find it easier now to speak because I have the words that I need to speak, I think I have remarked that I corrected many pronunciation mistakes when I was working with my friends in the group. And especially grammar hhh I had many problems when I speak problems of composing correct sentences and use correct verb form, now I think I have less problems with this issue.

Hanane: pronunciation I neither had problems with vocabulary, nor grammar. But I used to have serious problems I think with pronunciation hhhhhh now al hamdoulilah I feel I do pronounce some words more correctly because some of my teammates corrected them for me and I listened to them when speaking so many of those mistakes are corrected.

Riham: hhhh Just the opposite of my colleague I had problems with grammar but many of these problems have disappeared thanks to group work it was so beneficial because my friends helped me a lot hhhhh and they did just to be the best performers in the class to make less grammar mistakes and I helped them with pronunciation hhhhhh

Amina: The three aspects because when I came to the university and before studying with you my english was poor and I use to be so shy to speak but the method of groups work was so beneficial because as my friends told me that my English is better than it was at the beginning of the year hhhhhh.

Q 7: Which aspect (s) do you think you have developed while working with your peers in groups on speaking tasks? Could you say why?

- **Psychological aspects: as self-esteem, motivation and anxiety lowering.**
- **Social relationship with your peers.**

Ikram: both of them. I'm motivated more. I'm motivated to work and work to be the best one because when we work together we encourage each other in the group to be the best performers. Emm and this help me all the time to be motivated. I also built a good relation with my teammates hhhh.

Hanane: None of them to be frank I didn't develop any of the aspects except for maybe lowering anxiety. I feel that I'm less anxious when I speak in the class.

Riham: social aspect and self-esteem. I developed my relationships with my classmates and I developed my self-confidence thanks to group work.

Amina: I think the psychological aspect more hhh because I was already a social person. I didn't have problems with social relationships because all my classmates are my friends hhhh but I was shy but not anymore as my friend said my self-esteem is better I'm more motivated and I'm less anxiety.

Youssra: psychological aspect I developed most because now I feel more comfortable when I speak in English in the classroom. I used to be so stressed to speak in the presentations but now I present more at ease, I'm not afraid I say whatever I want without be stressed.

Nadjat: it developed both aspects. When I worked with my friends I learnt how to be their friend, how to respect their point of view even if they are different of mine emm I also feel that I have more self-esteem and self-confidence to speak English in front of hhh my teacher and friends.

Zineb: both features developed. Now I can speak, I can present my presentation without fear .I also learnt how to make relations with my classmates I accept the different ideas I discuss without problems.

Lina: The same Mrs working in group was an opportunity because it helped me to strengthen my relations with the students in the classroom because I worked almost with everybody....it made me more tolerant with the different ideas. So I think it developed my social skills. On the other hand, I think group work learnt me to trust myself more than before.

Q8: What do you think of the method through which you have been instructed the speaking skill (OE module)? Would you say why?

Hanane: So this year of university was my first year or time to speak this much in class and honestly I was introvert previously but since I talked in oral session I expressed my feelings more expressed myself more and became more empowered to give my opinions and actually I think I might to consider the chance of turning to an actress. Actually, the method was very helpful to help me as it is interesting.

Ikram: First, I couldn't improve myself before three years. I couldn't improve myself I can't talk anything but when I started to learn how to speak in oral expression classes, I started to I say what I can't say before I show my feeling my experiences I feel secure comfortable. I like your method I think that you are my support you help me as much as anyone can't I improved my English and it's thanks to you first and the method you have adopted. So I like your method and I wish I could be a good teacher like you in the future.

Zineb: I think the method is good because we can share our thoughts our feeling together I was shy before in oral expression but now I feel so comfortable because of this method.

Lina: I think that we are a small family here. We discuss all things for me I can express my emotion more. I can express myself more I can talk with anyone with English now before I have problems in grammar a lot of problems in grammar and vocabulary but now my speaking skills are better and also you are my shining example want to be like you in the future.

Nadjat : Actually this is a great method for me because before I felt shy and I felt stress and not comfortable and I didn't feel confident at all but because of this method I feel more comfortable because I can share my ideas and my thoughts and my emotions with this small

family as my friend said so I think that this is the best method that I have ever seen in my life.

Youssra: the method is helpful, it gave me the chance to develop my skills cause I was so shy in first. It gave me the chance to share my ideas and discuss it with friends to develop my skill and to learn more so it's so helpful and give me the power to be better and to explain my feelings and my emotions and my ideas also with my friends.

Amina: So I think this method is good because the result is clear I love a lot of work, I love when we are doing performances. So I was before shy, I didn't know how to explain our feeling our idea and thoughts. In brief I liked it.

Riham: I have to say something about this method this method helps very much our team work because I was a person who can't involve in a team and a group. and now I can talk with my mates and share ideas and work together on presentations. So I guess this method helped me a lot to speak with my classmates.

Conversation Two

Q1: Did you enjoy the fact of working in groups on your oral tasks?

Afaf: yes because we shared our thinking with other friends. We learn many things from each other. It was beneficial because myself, they corrected my mistakes, they provided me help, we discuss and talk a lot in English and this was good to me.

Ahlam: group work helped me a lot. It was a pleasure to talk in English, share many ideas with my friends, do our best to present good presentations. I guess it was useful to all the students here hhhhhh.

Chaima: it's good but sometimes it is bad because sometimes it was difficult to me to work in groups. I have not good English so sometimes I can't express myself well, so I feel stressed.

Nada: To me it was so enjoyable. I found it exciting to be involved in groups because I'm an introvert person. So, this helped me a lot to speak hhhhhh. I always wait for Oral expression class because I work in groups. This makes oral expression module session different from the others.

Youssra: I think yes, sometimes it was good to work with our classmates, we all worked in an enjoyable way; we learnt many things from each other and developed more myself. That's all.

Imane: yes it is better to work in groups, I can develop myself better when I work in groups.

Dia: yes group work is awesome, it's better than working alone. I appreciate to work with groups because it makes me more excited and interesting. It develops my intellectual skills and give me the chance to know my friends.

Q2: Do you think that working individually on tasks is better than working in groups?

Youssra: In group is better because we share ideas and opinions and you'll be more relaxed. You will speak in less stress. You will be natural with your friends. Personally, I prefer to do my oral tasks in groups and not individually.

Ahlam: we exchange ideas and opinions more when we worked in groups. We could also know things that we didn't know them before. Work in groups is also exciting, it created fun and joy we shared many good things together I think more than I do when I work alone.

Anfal: In group it's better because I'm shy so it help me lot to speak with my friends to overcome my shyness.

Youssra: we do the best with each other. We take turn to explain our ideas, we can know more about English from our friends. I like to work in groups not individual.

Afaf: it's better in groups to learn new vocabulary or words to be more courageous to be more excited to do our oral tasks.

Nada : working in group is better because it shows us how others think and we can develop our level in speaking. As far as I am concern, working in groups is the best thing. I learnt so many things from my group mates.

Iman: I totally agree with my friends working in groups is better. In the past, I was not at all capable of talking alone but now I can speak, I can share my idea, I feel safe to be with the group than to present my tasks alone.

Q3: What did you benefit from cooperating with your peers in performing oral tasks?

Ahlam: I think that the most thing I benefit from was building my self-esteem. Now I can trust myself more, I can talk more without fear. I have now friends not just classmates. I can be more friendly with the others. I can accept their ideas more. I benefit from their English. I corrected some mistakes of language.

Youssra: As my friends said I learn to speak without fear I can now talk and not afraid of doing mistakes while speaking. I can be more friendly with my peers. I benefited from them by know more about their personalities and their language ehhe especially good speakers hhhhh. I feel more comfortable now. I feel I can face anyone and speak English but I was not like this in the past. I know now how to cope with our problems to do the best performance. I benefited because we were doing our tasks in a very joyful situation and we have fun.

Anfal: I benefited self-confidence. In the past I was not able to even speak a word in front of my classmates and teachers but now no. I benefited from them to speak better, I benefited to make challenge to be the best group performer.

Afaf: I benefited excitement, fun and lots lots of good words that I could learn from them I benefit to be more patient to respect the others' ideas. I know now how to accept my friends' different ideas.

Imene: honestly, the most thing I learned was to be more self-confidence and participate more. I learn to practise my language more and do my best to win the best performance. I learn to know more my classmates.

Nada: I benefited from many things while cooperating with my classmates. First, I trust myself more, I do my oral presentations with less stress and with more excitement. I could know more about my classmates' character I know how they think and I know how to deal with those situation in which we don't agree on something. I learned to be challenging and do my best to make the group the best winner.

Q4: Can you explain the things you did not really appreciate along the process of working on speaking tasks in groups?

Imene: sometimes we don't have enough time to prepare for the oral presentation.

Ahlam: I dislike when one member tries to impose his perspective and never changes. He or she tries to be the leader always and give rules to the other members. It was then that I hated cooperative learning groups.

Nada: sometimes it becomes difficult when a member doesn't cooperate and works alone. It made group work sound incomplete. This is the most thing I didn't like.

Youssra: not enough time to think so during the presentation I was or my group was not ready most of the time for the performance

Youssra: sometimes you do a performance or a role that you don't liking. This makes me angry and sometimes even hate group work.

Afaf: lack of time lack of time was a problem because we could not finish and prepare well for the presentation.

Q5: Which stage (s) you did you like most while cooperating with your peers in working on your tasks (preparation/ Expert exchange/ getting back to the home groups/ performing/ taking the test/ celebrating your success)? Could you explain why?

Ahlam: the expert part because they brought with them ideas and enrich our performances. When I went to discuss with the students of the other groups, eh I was doing my best to learn from them to make my group the winner.

Yousra: When we join the ideas together. I mean when everyone give what he bring from other groups. It was interesting because everybody feel that he is important in this stage. Everybody speaks everybody talks and the others just listen.

Afaf: The same idea as Yousra I liked when we share ideas together. For me I learnt many things when we discuss, I learn new words, correct my mistakes, make my knowledge bigger hhhh that's all.

Yousra: the presentation I like the presentation because the other students in the group can see what my group did. I like it also because we it was funny to see the presentation of my classmates.

Anfal: I like the experts' part when we exchange information and it was interesting.....

Nada: I love the performance part because the ideas are mixed .so, it give a good image about us about the group. The performance part also give the chance to everybody to show his ability to speak, to convince and everybody do his best to make his group the winner group at the end.

Iman: same. I like the presentation because it's the most interesting part. To put all the ideas as Nada said together and see the results in the presentation hhhhh.

Q6: What language aspect (s) do you think you have developed better while working on oral tasks with your peers in the group?

- **Vocabulary**
- **Pronunciation accuracy**
- **Grammar accuracy**

Imene: pronunciation and grammar. I think this two are more developed hhhhh in the past I make many grammar mistakes but now I pay more attention to verbs and conjugation before I speak this is due to my conversations with my them. Hhhhh in the past I didn't know how to pronounce many words in English because my English is weak so it helped me to listen to my friends who have good pronunciation hhh especially Nada.

Yousra: vocabulary and pronunciation because as Imene said I had many problems of pronunciation when I came to study English at the university but now thanks god I'm working on these mistakes to correct them. Vocabulary hhhh was a nightmare to me in the past because when I speak with the other persons I didn't find the words to say. So it was a problem to me now I can speak with no fear because I hhhhhh learnt some new words, some new expressions thanks to the method and group work.

Student: pronunciation and vocabulary

Afaf: vocabulary I think this is the most thing I ameliorate with my friends. Because I talk they talk and we all know and pick up words , idioms, expressions from each other.

Yousra: The both of pronunciation and vocabulary hhhhhh when I speak with my fiends now I have less problems to communicate than the past because I have the words to say and I pronounce better because we listen a lot to each other we correct pronunciation to each other and this was good to make our pronunciation better

Anfal: Vocabulary is the most thing I develop hhhh بالرغم I still have problems with vocabulary till now but I fell that it is better.

Nada: grammar is the most thing I managed to develop it was very practical to me to interact with my mates in the group especially good students because we are doing our best to be the best performers so we worked a lot on the correct used tenses of verbs.

Ahlam: All my speaking skill developed. If I compare myself before when it was the beginning of the year and maybe you have noticed it miss? I was unable to speak because I used to have many problems with pronunciation and I didn't have the words to say and express my feelings but now I was working a lot on my level when I was interacting with my friends in the group so I think all my speaking is better now.

Q7. Which aspect (s) do you think you have developed while working with your peers in groups on speaking tasks? Could you say why?

- **Psychological aspects: as self-esteem, motivation and anxiety lowering.**
- **Social relationship with your peers.**

Afaf: psychological aspect. I'm more motivated to study and to develop my speaking skill I am less stressed to speak and I am more confident.

Ahlam : psychological as my friend said I'm motivated more I'm excited to learn and develop my speaking skill this is thanks to the our group work.

Nada: psychologically I do feel more comfortable, more at ease, more able to speak without thinking of the others' reaction.

Anfal: I was shy to speak English but now no my psychological aspect is more stable emm but I did not have a problem with my classmates.

Youssra: psychological aspect. Hhh I can easily make friends but it was difficult to be self-confident. But group work was good to me because I learnt how to trust my capacities and make use of them to speak and do my tasks in front of the others.

Youssra: psychological aspect Im stronger I am able to speak without fear but I have never a problem to be friend with other people.

Q8: What do you think of the method through which you have been studying oral expression module?

Ahlam: for me it's an effective and helpful method especially because at the beginning of the year I was so shy and maybe you noticed that. I couldn't express myself freely I can't speak in front of the students, so now I became more self-confident and I adapt with the new students and the method.

Youssra: so for me I developed my reading skills a lot because in the beginning of the year I suffered from the lack of confidence in myself especially when I talk and the others look at me I feel shy. But now when I speak even in front of people, I feel nothing is bad, I feel comfortable, so it's a very good method.

Iman: It's helpful because I saw myself better than I was, we developed our oral skill we are not shy anymore. It's a good method indeed.

Nada: It's helpful because somehow I'm an introvert person, so at first I couldn't stare at people's eyes and talk comfortably. So it helps me a lot and it because I shared ideas of people. So it's helpful.

Afaf: for me it's too helpful; at the beginning of the year I was shy but now I feel myself comfortable. it's so helpful I liked it while learning to speak indeed.

Youssra: I developed myself a lot, I can face the stage now and I have self-confidence, I feel relaxed and comfortable enough to talk with the others in English.

Anfal: It's a good method that I didn't do before. In the past, I studied mathematics and I wasn't really interested in English but I hope that in the future I will develop myself more while speaking the language in front of my classmates.

Imene: psychological aspect because as all my friend said I don't have problems with people.....It's the easiest thing to have good relations with my peers but to be self-confident while performing presentations it was not easy for me.

Conversation Three

Q1: Did you enjoy the fact of working in groups when you were given oral tasks in the classroom? Could you say why?

Iness: sometimes yes, sometimes no, it depends on the members of the group. some members are selfish and impose themselves more than others, impose their ideas on others and don't respect their classmate's ideas and points of view. This things made me not enjoy working in groups. But when the members don't try to impose their ideas, I like it.

Chaima: some members are selfish and this makes me not like working with them. Their ideas should be always accepted. Ehh this makes me ehh angry sometimes and dislike to work with them.

Aicha: some members in the group ignore our opinion and they just insist on put their opinions. This made me very angry and stressed. It was not justice to impose their beliefs in us. That is why I didn't like to work with some members.

Djahida: as my friends say sometimes it is difficult to work with some selfish members. But in general I liked to work in groups. It give me the energy to do better to speak better.

Siham : Sometimes I couldn't accept that a member like me force me to do what she want. But when working with persons that respect the other's opinions I like a lot working in groups. It created a good place to study and to learn.

Q2: Do you think that working on oral tasks individually is better than doing in groups? Why?

Fella: Cooperative is more interesting; when we cooperate with others, we we correct our mistakes. We can speak more we can practise the language more. I think that working in groups is more exciting and enjoyable than invidually.

Chaima: I prefer to work individually because I sometimes don't can't say what I think in the group. I don't have the words to say my idea. So this make me feel shy and not at ease with them so I prefer to work alone.

Iness: I like in group, ehh we discuss with each other, help each other, take confidence. I think that I became more able to speak since I started to speak with my friends in the group. I have more confidence to speak now.

Djahida: In groups is better , exchanging ideas, correct the the mistakes, to helps us get more ideas in some issues. Why because it give me the chance to be less shy and more productive while speaking but when I do individual work I feel stressed and unable to speak.

Chaima: In groups because as my friend say it is very difficult to me to speak alone but in groups I express my self better, I find the pleasure to do better.

Aicha: In groups, both of them individually and in groups. It depends on the task and the topic. But I like both of them.

Siham: Both of them are good. Because each of them have its positive thing. Sometimes when I work in groups, I learn some things and when I work alone, I learn also other things.

Q3: What did you benefit from cooperating with your peers in performing oral tasks?

Fella: when we work in groups we learn we have the ability to be less afraid of speaking, we learn to be more confident and express our ideas comfortably. eh I learnt many words from my friends, many expressions. I have good relations with my friends, I know more about them.

Iness: confidence confidence confidence. I learn how to be confident

Chaima: We learned how to work together, have relationships and friends. Now we can know more each other because we worked a lot together also confidence I learned confidence I learned how to be confidence and speak without fear.

Djahida: know more ideas, make new friend, and learn more and correct mistakes. Work together is good because it can give you new friends and make your knowledge bigger and enrich your language.

Chaima: eh I learned to change opinion, I learned also eh to speak freely. I can speak freely with my classmates.

Aicha: I learn to talk without paper I mean spontaneously I eh I learn to be more friendly with my classmates and I learned many things about English while I worked with my classmates in groups.

Siham: I finally learned how to be less shy and speak more with the others and I learned many information and I learned how to be self-confident more, to accept my friends' ideas even if I am not okay with their them.

Q4: Can you explain the things you did not really appreciate along the process of working on speaking tasks in groups?

Djahida: I dislike when the others ignore my ideas I dislike when one member tries to impose his ideas and never changes. It makes me feel so angry and sad. Normally we should all learn from each other and no one should say I am the best because we are all like each other and no one is the best. So this point make hate cooperative works.

Chaima: As my friend Djahiha said, I hate when the other members in the group doesn't respect my ideas and ignore me. This issue make me feel as my friend said very very angry.

Fella: Forcing us to answer answers that we don't agree with it. I don't really like to say something that I 'm not convinced to say. This is the most thing I hated in group work.

Aicha: I hate when they start Laugh at you when you make mistakes and they impose their opinions. They say oh you don't this so they just laugh at you when you don't have the answer. Believe me I felt so bad when they laughed at me.

Chaima: I hate when they laugh when I make mistakes. I hate to work with members who laugh at me when I make a mistake of grammar or pronunciation. I find it difficult to be at ease with them again.

Ines: the same answer. Laughing at me sometimes they laugh at me when I make mistakes and this hurted me lot. I hate also when they force me to do something I don't convince.

Siham: I think that I didn't like as my friends ehh said I hate when some members give the rule and say we should do this and that and they don't even ask you what do you think or do you agree this is the most thing I hated when I work in group

Q5: Which stage (s) you did you like most while cooperating with your peers in working on your tasks (preparation/ Expert exchange/ getting back to the home groups/ performing/ taking the test/ celebrating your success)? Could you explain why?

Iness: I like when I come back to my group to give them information, it give me confidence. I felt that I was important hhhhh because they listen to me and I practise my English.

Chaima: The same thing when I came back to my group and take them the information as my friend Iness said I feel myself important in this stage.

Fella: I like celebrating the victory especially when you give us gifts to encourage other groups to work hard. Hhhhh it was so funny and exciting when we waited for the teacher to say who is the winner group hhhhhh.

Siham: going back to my group it was the most stage I like because the work will be complete only when we go back to our group and start the preparation for the presentation.

Aicha: performing in the class and taking the quiz and celebrating the victory I liked all these three stages because they are funny and we learn many things in the performance in the quiz and we feel happy to be the winner at the end.

Chaima: celebration stage and choosing group members. Because I do like to work with anyone but I like to work only with my friends.

Djahida: when we exchange ideas and come back to the group. I mean in the discussion stage because in this stage we can work hard to gain at the end.

Q6: What language aspect (s) do you think you have developed better while working on oral tasks with your peers in the group?

- **Vocabulary**
- **Pronunciation accuracy**
- **Grammar accuracy**

Student: pronunciation and vocabulary

Chaima: pronunciation. I think I develop more pronunciation because I listen a lot to my classmates so it help me in correcting some mistakes of pronunciation.

Fella: pronunciation and vocabulary. As my friend has just said, it helped a lot to work with friends in the group because I learned many new words that I didn't use to know before emm and pronunciation also now I feel that my pronunciation is better than before.

Siham: vocabulary and pronunciation these are the most aspects I develop in my group. As my colleagues said I learn many new words and expressions I didn't know them before from my teammates emmm I had also the chance to listen to them so I paid attention to many words many sounds that I used to pronounce them wrong.

Aicha: pronunciation, vocabulary, and a little bit of grammar. I feel that my speech developed better I corrected many words I pronounced wrong and I start to pay attention to the use of verbs and conjugation hhhh and I learn many expressions especially from the students who have good speaking.

Chaima: vocabulary. This is the aspect I develop because I didn't have many words before when I came to study English here but when I started to work in groups I started to listen to them and knew many words from them

Djahida: all of them hhhh I really feel that my speaking developed my pronunciation, my vocabulary because I have more words to express my ideas I better my pronunciation because I listen a lot to my friends wheile working with them hhhh as Chaima said especially from good students.

Q7. Which aspect (s) do you think you have developed while working with your peers in groups on speaking tasks? Could you say why?

- **Psychological aspects: as self-esteem, motivation and anxiety lowering.**
- **Social relationship with your peers.**

Fella: Both of them I develop both of them the psychological aspect and the social one. Because I was so shy and I was not able to express myself like now. Now I can talk I can speak freely with my friends because I feel more confident and my relationship with my classmates developed because each time I worked with new friends in the group so this made our relation like friends.

Chaima: eh I don't have problems to make relationships with anyone but previously I had problems of facing the others while speaking English because hhhh I make many mistakes so I was afraid that they are going to laugh at me but now I am comfortable hhhh.

Siham: psychological because I am stronger I can speak in more confidence I don't feel anxious to speak with my teacher and my friends hhh but I don't have problems to make social relations all my classmates are my friends hhh.

Chaima: psychological aspect because I am more confident and I feel I am able to talk with any one in English hhh but it was not possible before that.

Aicha: psychological aspect hhhh I am a sociable person by nature but I had a problem to speak English with my friends with my teachers hhhhh but when I work with my friends in the group they help me a lot to be more واثق confident.

Djahida: psychological aspect I don't have a problem to be a friend with my classmates. But I had a problem to have self-confidence and to be sure and not afraid when I speak English in the classroom.

Ines: hhhhh the same perspective I developed my psychological aspect hhhh I never have a problem with my classmates. So I don't think to work in the group developed my social hhhh.

Q8: What do you think of the method through which you have been instructed the speaking skill (OE module)? Would you say why?

Ines: It's good you make us easy easier than I think, it's good and effective. I can speak better, I can say my point of view, I learn many good things because of the method, I win friends, I learn new words hhhh.

Chaima: It's a good method but I think for me I find it difficult sometimes I can't speak freely in the past but it's good it makes us confident. It made us all friends. My English is not good but my friends helped a lot to speak without be afraid of the others to laugh at me when I make mistakes hhh.

Fella: I find it an interesting method because we talk freely, especially when we work in groups we exchange ideas we talk about our opinions. We work in and outside classroom and this make us close friends, we respect each other and even if we don't share the same point of view we respect each other

Siham: It's good because it make our speaking easy and somehow funny and it makes us know each other know more about the English language, it learn us to be friends and share knowledge with each other. It make the learning funny and interested

Aicha: It's good because for me I developed and became courageous I'm not afraid to talk I just learn how to talk and forget my fears. I learnt to be a friend, to put our differences apart, to do our best to be always the best....it was a great pleasure to be in the oral expression sessions. With this method we communicate with our classmates and that's the thing that make us discover each other and discover many things about English.

Chaima: I didn't find any problem to learn the speaking skill in this method. In the contrary, it was very good and we all loved it I think and I started to like English more I started to enjoy speaking more thanks to this method.

Djahida: I think that it's a good method because it developed my speaking skill; it made us more productive we learned more about many subjects, have ideas and made us more culture about some things. It made me and all of us trust our capacities.

Appendix E

Pretest Speaking Test

Task:

Suppose that your mother/father feels upset as s/he has noticed that the children have been living apart recently. Every member of the family has been occupied and lived his own private life on social media, spending the whole day using his/her technological devices (laptop, Ipad, tablet, smart phone...etc.). Then, s/he decided to arrange a family meeting with her/his three children to have a serious discussion about this issue. Cooperate with three of your peers to perform a role play in classroom about the previously exposed situation. Choose among the followings the role you would like to perform in the role play:

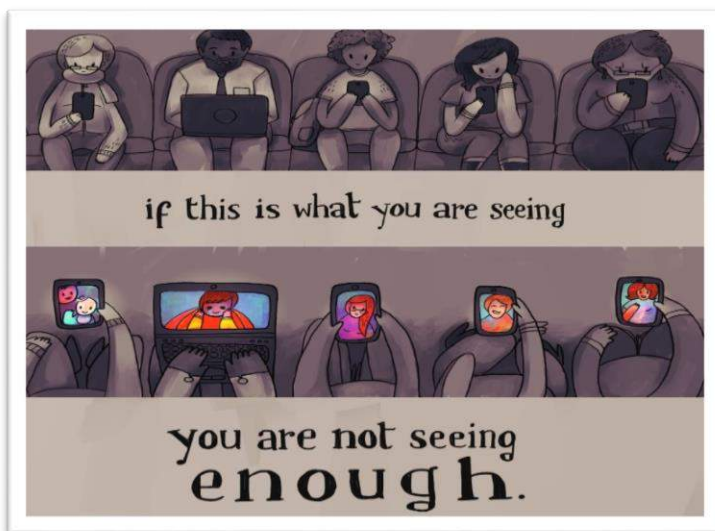
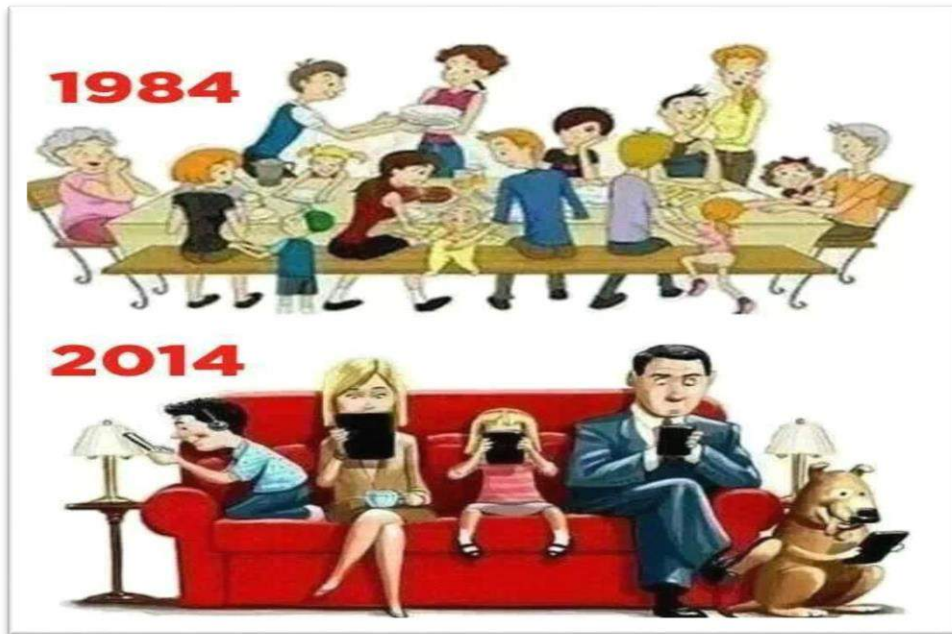
-The mother/father: who is unsatisfied with her/his children's addiction to social media and makes a comparison between family life in the past and now.

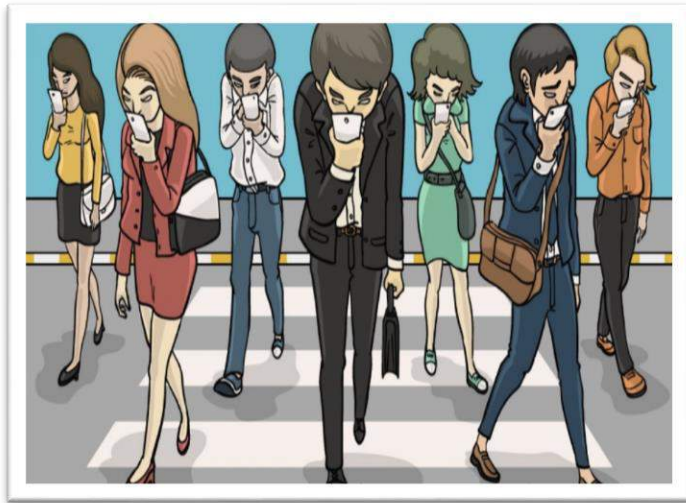
-Son/Daughter 1: S/he is supposed to define and clarify these concepts (social media) to his mother/father as the latter is not well-knowlegeable about them.

-Son/Daughter 2: S/he is supposed to expose the disadvantages and drawbacks of social media (use as much arguments as possible).

-Son/Daughter 3: S/he is expected to explain the benefits of social media.

At the final phase of your presentation, each one of you should state how we can limit the bad effects of social media on our social life.





Posttest Speaking Test

Task:

A family faces a lot of social problems that made the couple opt for divorce as a final solution to these problems. The only son/daughter contacted a psychologist in hope of trying to convince his/her parents to forget about the idea of divorce. Cooperate with three of your peers to perform a role play in classroom about the previously exposed situation. Choose among the followings the role you would like to perform in the role play:

-**The wife:** who is fed up with problems and she wishes to end her marriage as a final solution.

-**The husband:** who is also fed up with problems and who he is ready to accept his wife's suggestion to divorce

- **The daughter/ son:** who feels depressed and unhappy to know about his/her parents' decision and wish to divorce.

- **The psychologist:** who attempts to talk to the three members of the family and tries to convince them to make a new initiative to save their family.

At the final phase of your presentation, each one of you should state how divorce can affect children. And is Divorce a real solution?



Appendix F

A sample of Transcription and Text segmentation The Experimental Group

L1: |Lina, Nadjat, Ikram {we need an important subject} ehh we have an important subject|
|and we need to talk about it|
L2:|okay!|
L1: | have a seat.|
L3: |mom we are busy now okay? |
L1: |no you are not busy|
|we need to talk|
L3 & L2: |okay |
L1: |we need to talk |
L3: |what do you need to talk about?|
L1: {an important subject, it's just} ehh
| as I tell you||
| I have an important subject |
| and we need to discuss about it|
| and fix that problem|
| you are always too busy (::) and far away from me and from each others|
| we need to talk|
|we need to fix that|
| you know in the past {we we}|
|we are not like that all |
|we used to sit together (::) watch TV together (::) talk together|
|and if one of us have a problem (::) {we} we try to solve that problem together |
|and now you are too busy ehh|
| you are always {at }in your rooms (::) using your mobiles.
L3 & L2: |but we are together|
L1: |no|
L3: |we are using mobiles for our studies okay? |
L1:| no but you need to have a time for us for me |
| and for your father|
| we need to talk |
| we are are a family{you}|
| we need to act like a single unit |
| we are a family|
| yeah (::) so tell me about social media |
L3:|okay mom I'm gonna give you a simple simple definition about social media |
| social media it means a {mean} of communication (::) that involves our world
nowadays|
| like efbi instgram youtube twitter are all considered social media that keep us our
mind
connected with the others |
| eh eh {and} and we say because of the social media {we say} a lot of the culture of
the
other countries |
|we can say that social media is a sword with two edges |
| it have also it have eh hh advantages and also drawbacks |

L2: | yeah |

L3: ((talking to L4)) | so can you give me a lot... some drawbacks |

L3: | for me eh social media have all ehh just the drawbacks |
 | it have no benefits (::) cause it make people likes eh ehh exactly the age people |
 | it control our mind |
 | it make them think with a shallow mind and brain |
 | it cause many problems like depression and problems of seeing |
 | for example when we switch on the phone (::) your eyes will be very tired. |

L1: | yeah I agree with her |

L2: | actually I didn't agreed with her in some points eh |

L1: | she's right. |

L4: | {it make} it make you isolated from the others |
 | and you forget about your responsibility and your duties in your life. |

L1: | yes she is right |

L2: | I disagree with her |

L3: | I think (::) you have a lots of advantages |

L2: | yes {ehhh} |

L3: | do you talk about some of them? |

L2: | yes |
 | I will talk with you about at the advantages of social media |
 | actually mom social media help us first of all in education |
 | {it's the most import} it's the most important thing in our lives |
 | ehhh it can it make us {search} search any {of any} subject we want |
 | we can also ehh have an idea about :: what we want to do in our lives about |
 | we dream about :: emm we want to learn eh also eh |
 | in another side :: we can use social media in fashion and see the new clothes of the
 season
 like winter |
 | or any season :: you want |
 | third thing |
 | I think {it's} I think that social media help a lots of people:: in making food |
 | like you for example :: when you {want to when you want to when you } want see
 for a
 recipe of Oumwalid |
 | you come to us :: and do this |
 | give me the recipe:: also |
 | I want to see {also} learn from social media |
 | it help us :: to know cultures {other } other countries |
 | ehh we {take we stay} keep in touch with other persons |
 | communicate, know another people :: who ...we can {which we can} learn from them
 a
 lots of things | ehh also ehhh it have lots of advantages:: if I still tell you {to} to
 tomorrow |
 | I can't finish it :: but it's the most important things |
 | I think social media |

L1: | yeah I know |
 | I'm afraid of losing you:: that's why I (0.2) I'll try to fix that problem |

L2: | yes |
 | you can't tell us :: that social media {is} is not good for us |
 | do you agree with me? |

L3: | ehh for me:: sometimes it's good|
 | but sometimes it's bad |
 |it depend on the person :: that use it |
 L2: | yes it depend on the person |
 L3: |we have to use it in a good way |
 L2: | yeah we have to use it carefully |
 |we are not always staying |
 |and we {search we we have} have a lots of education |
 |we have a lot of searches |
 L3:| but we have to make a balance between our love for our mother and love of social
 media|
 L2:| I'm with you in the point:: that that we are so far from {for} you |
 | and we didn't stay together :: but it help us a lot |
 | actually for me:: I can't live without social media |
 L1:| but be careful |
 L2: |the internet and all Facebook Instagram that there is important
 L3: | what about you Mina? |
 L2: | did you change your mind? |
 L4:| yeah I do change my mind one hundred percent :: when....
 L1&L2&L3: ((talking together))
 wow
 L2: |okay mom|
 |we wish:: that we will be more connected to each other |
 | and we will |
 L3: | we will use it carefully |
 L1:| okay |
 | that's all |

Part Two

Teacher:

would you please just tell me how can we reduce the bad effects of social media on families?

L4: | first of all :: we need {to} :: to be one person |
 | I mean :: each one of a member of the family |
 | eh we need :: to respect and understand each other |
 | we need to use it {unconsciously} consciously |
 | I mean yeah:: we need to know about the bad results of social media eh (0.5) |
 | I mean :: use it in a good way (0.4) |
 | and we we mustn't use it with bad way (0.4) |
 | so |
 | that's all |
 L3: | first of all :: we have to teach our children about {the danger of this } about the
 danger of social media |
 | we have to use it carefully |
 | use just in a good way |
 | use it and the thing :: that we need |
 | we do not waste our time |
 | I mean all the time and |
 | we have to {first of all} for me {we have to } switch off the notification :: in
 order not to distract our mind about it :: when we are studying (0.3) |
 | and we have to stay most of the time {all} yeah most of the time with our

family :: discussing problems or or (0.5) |
| or we spend our time with our friends |
| maybe it's a good thing |
| we share ideas |
| and we share information about something |
| we didn't know before about |
| it's not eh spend all the time in Snapchat or Instagram or anything else |
| I think |
| that's all |

L2: | okay me I'll talk about eh my children {how I will how I will eh how I will} how
| I'll protect from social media |
| so first of all { I em I } I told {him} them :: this is social media this is facebook
this is

Instagram this is YouTube this is Snapchat |
| but when you want to use it :: take my permission and I will stay with you |
| I will give you the phone the computer from this hour to this hour |
| and this is enough in a day or in the week |
| they have two hours to use it and emmm I ll stay with them |
| I will {hh give eh hh} share with them |
| eh I will learn:: how they think { to to be to }:: {to be to hhhhhh so sorry} to learn
the

way how they think |
| for (0.2) to can help them to use it |
| eh I will stay with them |
| {I will} I will talk to them always |
| and know :: what they want from this life and {from} from me |
| and how they want:: to live in the future |
| eh emm and {I will} I will be close to them |
| {and eh and be} and I'll take care of them |
| and that's all |

L1: | yeah eh Algerians families don't stay together |
| and {they} they always far from each other |
| so { they need } they need {to } to be friendly with each other |
| and they aren't friendly |
| eh they need to discuss about their problems in a good way |
| they {don't need to and } they need {to} to take care of each other and of their
childrens

and (13.60) |

L1: | they need to take care of their children |
| and tell them :: that social media it's good and bad |
| {and} and teach them |
| eh {they need to} that's all |

L1: | yes |

L2: | the Algerian families have a wrong and bad idea for social media |
| this is a wrong wrong thing hhhh because children {cause } when he see another
child use

Youtube Instagram |

| and you tell him {it is not it is not} | it is not good and it is not important in your life

| eh he will be angry |

| and he want to use it :: like his friends |
|so this {what}:: why we we see lots of or most children go far far away from their
families
because of this|

Experimental Group Posttest

Group One Part One

L3: | Lina where are you?|

| where is she?|

| hey you |

| I have been here for a while (0.7) |

| where have you been? |

L2: | where have you been? |

| what's wrong with you?|

L3: | do you know? |

| I have lots of difficulties |

| and I'm so tired ofr a long journey |

L2: | and I am so tired too |

L3: | and I need to take dinner |

| you know |

L2: | and I am tired too |

L3: | where have you been? |

L2: | I was working |

L3: | hhhh working ! |

L2: | do you understand |

| I said :: I was working |

L3: | what time is it? |

L2: | it doesn't matter|

L3: | it matter |

L2: | you treat me like a slave |

| I'm wrong |

L3: | you should take care of your children |

| and take care of me |

L2: | oh look (0.9) :: {who} hhhh who is talking! |

| do you notice :: that you have a daughter? |

L3: | yes |

| I noticed that |

L2: | do you notice that before? |

L3: | yeah |

L2: | or you noticed that before? |

L3: | {or now} or till now? |

L2: | the other day |

| we {talk }talked about that darling |

| I told you to ehh (1.4) :: that I resist your work |

| you don't have to work anymore |

| you should take care of you children |

| we talked about that the other day |

| and that's all |

| why {are you going to work} do you go to work? |

L2: | I go to work | ((interrupted by |

L3: | what time is it? |
L2: | it doesn't matter |
 | I go to work to have a comfortable lives |
L3: | what time is this? |
L2: | it doesn't matter! |
L3: | no it matters |
L2: | I told you it doesn't matter |
L3: | taking care of your kids does matter |
L2: | I told you :: it doesn't matter |
L3: | no |
 | it matters for me |
L2: | do you understand |
L3: | I don't understand you |
L2: | hhhh oh my god |
 | are you a human being ? |
L3: | I'm a human being |
 | you just think :: I'm a robot |
L2: | really? |
 | do you feel :: what I feel? |
L3: | you are working from the sunrise to the sunset |
 | oh my god |
 | from the sunrise to the sunset |
 | you don't care about your kids |
L2: | if you are working :: I will work |
 | if you are working enough :: I will not work |
 | but we discussed in this |
L3: | I get up very early |
 | and I come back late to my home but |
L2: | you let me work |
 | we discussed in this |
L3: | please put down your finger |
 | don't talk to me for that manner |
L2: | don't think |
 | don't think for a while to touch me |
L3: | hhhh you make me laugh |
L2: | if you touch me:: I will do something (0.9) :: you don't like it |
L3: | what are you going to do heh? |
 | what are you going to do? |
L2: | try |
 | and you will see |
L3: | oh ! |
L2: | try it |
L3: ((unclear words))
L2: | yes |
 | try it |
 | and you will see |
L3: | oh my god |
 | your daughter is coming |
 | and she ((interrupted)) |
L2: | you don't care about her |

| {why I} why I need to took care |
| why? |
L3: | {you are} you are the wife |
| you are the wife |
| and you should take care of your children |
L2: | you are {the} the father also |
L3: | yeah |
| but I ((unclear words)) |
| I can't |
| I can't speak |
| I really can't speak |
| I feel stressed |
L2: | ok |
| a robot |
L3: | you are a robot |
L2: | you will see |
L3: | yeah |
| working from the sunrise to the sunset |
| without preparing any much for me |
L2: | you will see |
L3: | what do you expect me? |
| to treat you like a princess ! |
| or what? |
L2: | yes |
L3: | oh my god |
| just stupid |
| where is your daughter |
| by the way? |
L2: | I don't know |
| you are her father |
L3: | where does she go? |
L2: | go |
| and search about her |
L3: | you see |
| you don't take care of her |
L2: | go home |
| and look for her |
L3: | I'll see her |

L1: | good morning Ikram |
| how are you? |
L4: | not fine |
L1: | why? |
| what's the problem? |
| you have problems with your lessons? |
L4: | no |
L1: | family problem |
L4: | you can tell everything |
| don't be afraid |
| just chill |

| and tell me everything (0.7) about the problem? |
 L4: | eh I'm happy without ((unclear word)) |
 | eh my parents always fighting |
 | always arguing (1.2) {without eh specific} without specific goals or reason |
 | eh it {it str} it strongly affects life |
 | {my} my mother is always in travel |
 | and enjoying her (1.4) her time (0.5) with her friends |
 L1: | so your mother is the problem |
 | you think that |
 L4: | no (2.0) actually the problem is about my father and my mother (2.5) |
 | my father always drunk and vein |
 L1: | he's a drunk |
 L2 : | he's drinker by the way |
 L1: | hhh a drinker |
 L4: | he lose all his mind (1.1) |
 | he even take {care of eh} of me |
 | and my mother |
 L1: | and your mother |
 | did she take care of you? |
 L4: | no |
 |actually no |
 L1: | okay |
 L4: | he just (2.8) he just drinks in the morning |
 | I feel insecurity |
 | unhappy |
 | eh when I come home :: I feel like battles are waiting fro me |
 | I just take breakfast |
 | dinner |
 | take dinner |
 | and I sleep in {a corner} a corner in my room {without} without eh |
 L1: | they don't discuss with you? |
 L4: | no |
 | I feel unhappy (1.8) |
 | eh I feel that life is unfair |
 | isn't stable |
 | attack me everywhere |
 | and every time |
 | I wanna cry :: but I don't know (1.6) how and why :: {because } (1.1) because of
 all
 these problems |
 L1: | yes |
 L4 : | and {I'm} I just feel jealous :: when I see { my } all my classmates with (1.70) with
 their parents |
 | eh I don't know :: how I feel then |
 | can you ((unclear word)) on your mother and father? |
 L4: | yes |
 L3 : | Iina |
 L2 : | what's wrong? |
 L3 | lets' go to the psychologist |
 L2 : | why? |

L3: | we have something to do |
L2: | good morning |
L1: | hey |
 | good morning |
 | how are you going? |
L2 : | not fine |
 | as usual |
L1: | why? |
 | what's the problem? |
L3: | lots of problems |
L2: | let's discuss |
 | you'll know |
L1: ((addressing her speech to L3)) | you want to start? |
L3: | she starts first | ((addressing her speech to L2))
L2: | okay|
L1: | you know your children is always stressed in class |
 | she doesn't feel unhappy |
 | she is insecure |
L2: | I noticed that |
 | I know :: because I have lots of problems |
 | a lot of problems |
 | do you know what mean lot of problems? |
L3: | what problems? |
L4: | just speak about the problems |
L2: ((addressing her speech to L3)) let me speak please |
L1: | let her speak please |
L2: | I respect you |
 | so (4.0) |
L2: | my problems |
 | my first problem (0.5) work |
 | I'm going out |
 | I work all the day like a robot |
 | such a robot |
 | I'm coming home |
 | { I } I enter |
 | I'll see him drinking |
 | you imagine that DRINKING |
 | the second |
 | We we discuss about {the} the problem of work |
 | he let me go out|
 | then he {tell} told me |
 | no you can't |
 | why? |
 | { bec} because he' s such a jealous |
 | a jealous person |
L1: | so |
 | you don't work |
L3 : | I've talked about that the other day |
 | but (0.7) you should organise your time |
 | {from the sun} imagine :: that she works from the sunrise to the sunset |

| and when I come to them:: I don't find food |
 | I don't find dinner |
 | {everything is} I don't know everything is like a storm |
 | the home is like a storm |
 | she {she don't } doesn't even take care of her children |
 | you know |
 L1: | she doesn't take care of you |
 L3 : | the daughter is just staying at the corner of her room |
 | and I don't know where {she} she has been |
 L2: | he's a liar |
 | just a liar |
 L3: | if I didn't prepare the dinner and lunL12: his daughter |
 | {from from how} how she will eat? |
 | he prepare the lunch |
 | he prepare the dinner |
 | ask him |
 | he's always drinking |
 L3: | what the hell |
 | do you say? |
 L2 : | he didn't have a work a work |
 | like a human |
 | like a man |
 | he didn't have |
 L3 : | oh my god |
 | {you make me} you make do that thing |
 | you are so |
 L2: | what |
 L3: | I can't speak a lot |
 L2: | really? |
 L3: | really |
 | yeah |
 | what are talking about ?|
 L2: | why why why ? |
 | give me a reason one reason |
 L1: | wait please |
 | just a second |
 | you've got a daughter |
 L3: | all the time|
 | she goes to work |
 | and she {don't } doesn't take care of me and my children |
 | and she don't even respect my ideas |
 | I said :: you have to work :: but you should organize your time |
 | but all time |
 | she goes from sunrise to sunset |
 | what the hell is that ? |
 L2 : | he blame me |
 L3: | I can't resist that |
 | I don't blame you:: but you should respect my point of view |
 | you know |
 | you know that |

L2: | he's always blaming me |
L3: | I don't blame you at all |
L1: | I think :: you should talk about your needs (1.0)
| {just } just tell her :: what you need |
| speak about your needs |
L3: | I tell her to work |
L2: ((addressing her speech to L4)) | can you go out for a while ? |
| please |
| for a while |
| please |
| when we married:: we didn't have any problems for one year |
| we can say one year |
| we have three years of marriage |
| the second year |
| he changed at all |
L1: | why? |
L2 : | he wants to change me |
| he wants to |
L3: | really? |
| I want to change you |
L2 : | yeah |
| he wants to change me |
| { he } gives me rules |
| and { I must } { fill } I must do these rules or not |
L3: | yeah :: because everyone should respect her husband |
| and (1.2) don't do lots of work outside |
| you know that |
| { you should the woman is also } the woman her place is at home |
| I don't say that |
| I'm open-minded |
| you can go {to } outside to work |
| but really from the sunrise to the sunset ! |
| oh no |
| I can't resist that really |
L2 : ((addressing her speech to L1)) | do you know the meaning of a slavery |
L3: | this is my problem |
L2 : | I'm a slave |
| he have rules |
| I have to do rules |
| or I'll punished |
| so do you know |
| divorce me |
| it's too simple |
L3:| its simple |
L2: | simple |
L1:| do you want to divorce? |
L3: | I want that :: because she made me |
L1 : | what about you? |
L2: | yes I want |
| do you see this life?|

| it's a hell |
| it's such a hell |
L3: | you are such a hell |
| okay? |
| you made me feel bad |
| you {made} made me bad |
| you know |
L1: | I think :: you should send quality time together |
| try to speak about your needs |
| {what } just try to know:: about what his needs from you |
| what's the problem |
| why you are arguing always |
| spend quality time with each other |
| and remember:: why you fell in love together |
L2 : | do you know :: why he love me {about } |
| the reason :: why he marriage me |
| he want me to work |
| give him money |
| ehh cook dinner |
| lunch |
| have children |
| and that's it |
| that's the marriage in his mind |
| this is the idea |
L3: | no |
| I didn't say that |
| she has to work yeah |
| but I can't respect her ideas |
| I'm sorry |
L1: | so |
| the problem is the time |
L3: | yeah time|
L1: | she didn't give you enough time |
L3: | she didn't give time at all |
| and my children is always crying over the corner |
| always |
L2: | oh my god |
| your mercy ((unclear word)) |
L3: | you know that :: she got lover of practice and courses and exams |
| this is :: because of you |
| you can't {learn} teach her |
L2: | thank you |
| thank you |
L1: | yeah |
| as I told you |
| just have enough time together |
| go for picnic |
| chill |
| have a small conversation |
| talk about your needs |

| and remember:: why you fell in love together |
| just try to find the problem |
| I think :: that the problem is :: because you are a working woman |
| and you don't given them enough time |
| you don't give enough time to your children |

L2: | and he is a drinker |

L1: | and he is a drinker :: but he didn't do problems about that |
| the problem is you are working (1.6) |
| you are a working woman |
| and you don't give him time |

L2: | so |
| if the problem is here :: I will {sol} find the solution |
| yeah |
| try to change |

L2: | will give him more time |
| and for my daughter not for him |

L1: | you should give him time |

L2 : | for me |
| this person is dead |
| you understand it |
| just for my daughter :: I will do my best |

L1 : | do the best for your daughter |
| remember :: that you have a daughter |
| and she is always stressed |

L2 : | yes |

L1 : | just think about your daughter |
| give him time |
| speak together |
| have small conversations |

L2 : | okay |
| thank you |

L3: | thank you |

L2& L3 : | have a nice day |

Part Two:

Teacher: How does divorce affect children? Is it a solution? Why do you think so?

L2: | of course divorce affects { with }in a negative way |
| a really negative way |
| {cause} it depends on the situation |
| you know |
| there is some children ehhe |
| have a happy life :: after the divorce of the parents |
| because the life before is such a hell |
| but there is in some cases { they } |
| { they }it will (1.0) affect in their personality |
| in their trust in people |
| or in their (0.9) way way ehhe of seeing life |
| you know |

Teacher : is divorce a solution ? Why?

L2: | sometimes yes |
| sometimes no |

| you know? |
| if I say yes : it's in some cases |
| if I say not : it 'sin some cases |
| but generally :: it's not {the}the solution |

L3: | so divorce is a big problem |
| not only on the parents :: but also on the children |
| it affects them in many ways |
| for instance (1.2) ehhe they get troubles in their minds |
| and { see ehhe } feel guilty about that |
| {maybe} maybe {they should} ehhe they should {have} have ehhe () an
overview

to the life |
| and () { they can affected } divorce can affect children socially |
| maybe they don't have contact |
| they can get poor marks in academics |
| because of the stress in their minds :: they feel painful |
| and also they have to change the house |
| the relation with others |
| friends this can affect also

Teacher : is divorce a solution?

L3: | no |
| yeah |
| in some cases I can say :: yes |
| but in other terms :: it's no |
| {you should} we should find a solution |

L1: | emm I think :: it they will be always stressed |
| they can't have a lots of friends :: because they will feel jealous of their parents |
| they will feel unhappy insecure |
| { they can't trust } when they grow up :: they can't trust the man :: because the
problem of the {men} because the problem is due to the parents |
| I think :: divorce sometimes is a good thing:: because eighty percent of divorce is
good :: because when they divorce :: {they} the children will () they will not see
their fight and arguing |

L4: | ehhe divorce is adifficlute problem :: that affects the children with mental disaster
like social mentality |
| ehhe they even can't communicate with each other with a spontaneous way |
| and {they }they are obliged always to ((unclear word)) a bad way |
| and () you see them lonely all the time |
| they feel insecure |
| unhappy |
|they just stay alone in a corner with themselves without hearing anything |
| without listening to anybody else () |

Teacher: is it a solution?

L4: | no ehhe |
| a bad thing is not always a solution () |
| we need to think about a good solution |
| ehhe you think about your children |
| and you need to take an appropriate solution like respect each other |
| and listen to each other |

| we need to learn to listen not only to speak :: because always children are the
victims |

Appendix G

HEALTH PROBLEMS CROSSWORD PUZZLE

Look at the numbers on the pictures and write the health problems vocabulary in the crossword puzzle

15

12

13

14

8

3

10

5

4

10

11

4

9

7

11

12

15

9

7

1

6

12

2

11

Appendix H

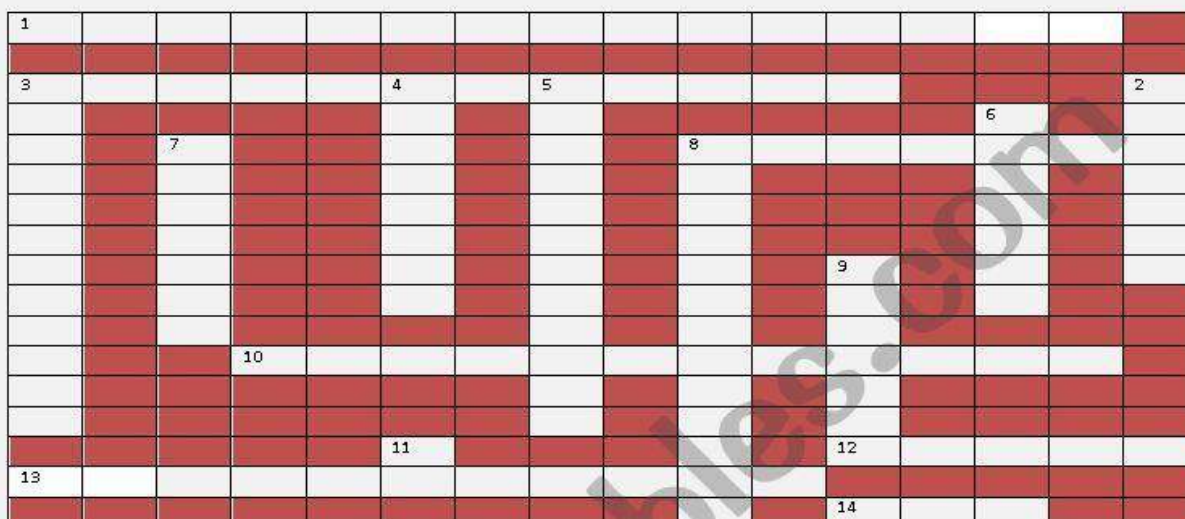
TYPES OF DOCTORS

Task 1. Match the following pictures with the proper words given below.



Ophthalmologist	Psychiatrist	Lab technician
Pediatrician	Dietician	Massage therapist
Podiatrist	Cardiologist	Emergency medicine doctor
Gynecologist	Otolaryngologist	Veterinarian
Therapist	Neurologist	Dentist

Doctors crosswords puzzle



ACROSS

1. A doctor who can **perform operations** on people's **eyes**
3. A doctor who studies how people's **minds work** and how this **affects** their **behaviours**
8. a doctor who **takes care** of your **teeth**
10. a doctor who **deals with the heart** and the diseases that affect it.
12. someone who is trained to **look after ill** or injured people, especially **in a hospital**
13. a doctor whose job is to **treat injuries** or **diseases** affecting people's **bones**, muscles, joints and ligaments (American spelling)
14. a doctor for **animals**

DOWN

2. A person who is in the hospital **receiving medical care** (someone who is very ill)
3. A doctor who **treats** people with **mental illness**
4. A person who **sells** or **makes glasses**
5. A **doctor** whose job is to **check the health** of a **woman** who is **pregnant** and helps with the birth of the child
6. A **nurse** (or a woman) whose job is to **look after women** when they are **having a baby**.
7. **Pharmacist**
8. A doctor who **treats** your **skin**
9. A doctor who **performs operations**
11. **General Practitioner** (**abbreviation**)

Appendix I

Medicine





1. aspirin
2. cold tablets
3. vitamins
4. cough syrup
5. cough drops

6. throat lozenges
7. antacid tablets
8. decongestant spray/
nasal spray
9. eye drops

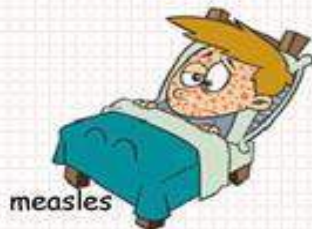
10. ointment
11. creme
12. lotion
13. heating pad
14. ice pack
15. wheelchair

16. pill
17. tablet
18. capsule
19. caplet
20. teaspoon
21. tablespoon

Appendix J



WHAT'S WRONG WITH YOU? HEALTH PROBLEMS...



- The Experts who are given the worksheet of the different places found in hospitals are expected to provide short description and definitions to the given terms.
- The third Experts group should work on the given puzzle to have a list of the different names of doctors and check the pronunciation of the words.
- The fourth group of the Experts should match the given pictures of medicines with the provided definitions. They should check the pronunciation of the unknown items They should try to explain the way these medicines are taken.
- When the Experts get done with the task, they need to get back to their Home groups so as to discuss, take turns to explain and negotiate the meaning of the words they have learnt.
- The teacher then starts assessing their learning by addressing the following questions:
 - *Explain in which case an ointment can be used.*
 - *Why do doctors use heating pad?*
 - *What is a bruise?*
 - *Give the name whose definition is the following: to force out air suddenly and noisily through your throat, for example when you have a cold. (cough)*
 - *What is an intensive care unit?*
 - *Give the name whose definition is the following: The patient part of hospital allocated to the caring of infants. (paediatric ward).*
 - *What is the word found in number 15 Across in the cross word puzzle1? (measles)*
 - *What is the word found in number 7 Down in the cross word puzzle 2? (chemist)*
- The teacher distributes worksheet about individual processing to make each individual evaluates his/her part of the task.

Part 2:

(45 mns)

- After the students get the quiz, she sets them to work on a role play in which they should try to invest as many new words as possible in the script.
- She distributes the roles on the groups (in each group, there would be a doctor, a nurse, a patient and a family member /friend of the patient).
- The teacher passes around to make sure the students are cooperating, making use of social skills and supporting each other to perform their roles adequately.
- At the end, the teacher sets each group to perform the role-play.

2. Criteria for Success:

- Students should perform the given task within the allotted timing (15 minutes).
- They should make use of as many words as possible in their role plays.
- They should be able to demonstrate their mastery of their part and the part of their teammates.
- To interact orally with teammates as longer as possible using English.

3. Positive Interdependence:

- a. *Positive goal interdependence:* * the teacher explains that each individual is supposed to learn the new vocabulary items related to medicine realm and make sure that his/her teammates learn them as well so as to be able to perform the quiz (the teacher's addressed questions above).

*The teacher highlights that they should finally perform a role play in which most of the learnt vocabulary items should be demonstrated in the performance of the role play.

b. *Positive reward interdependence*: * the teacher gives all the members of the group

bonus marks if they attain 90% of correct answers in the quiz and they cooperate positively to perform the role play.

c. *Positive resource interdependence*: to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher divides the task into a jigsaw of four parts (words related to illnesses, names of medicines, parts/places of hospital and names of the different doctors).

d. *Positive role interdependence*: the teacher assigns roles to the students: a recorder (who is supposed to record and note down the necessary information to be included in the script); a checker of understanding (who constantly asks questions to make sure his classmates have learnt and retained the words); a corrector (who supervises his mates' pronunciation of the newly acquired words) and a summarizer (who should read aloud what information should be mentioned).

4. Individual Accountability:

* The teacher clarifies to each Expert that he is responsible for clarifying, defining and facilitating the learning of the terms to his/her teammates.

* The teacher calls on names randomly to present the items explained by one of his/her teammates.

* The teacher passes around to make sure that every individual is contributing to the fulfilment of the Jigsaw oral task.

5. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

* The teacher passes around to encourage the students in each group to actively listen to each other's explanation and definition.

* She makes sure that they take turns to explain their part and the part of their peers as well.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

➤ Encouraging one another by praising and giving positive words.

➤ Asking for help and supporting each other.

➤ Socializing and cooperating with peers.

Monitoring and Intervening

1. Observation Procedure: structured and formal via a checklist devised and conducted by the teacher.

2. Group Processing: * the teacher asks each individual in the group to evaluate the explanation of the terms of his peers.

* She asks them to decide about the best performer in the play and justify their selection so as to take into account the positive part of his/her performance and try to do the same in upcoming presentations.

➤ The teacher distributes group processing worksheet to enable each group discuss and reflect about their whole performance.

Appendix L
Teacher Observation Checklist

Teacher's name:

Date & Time:

Module:

Level:

Present Students' number:

Topic:

Absentees Number

Technique: Jigsaw

Rating Scale: 1. Always 2. Sometimes 3. Rarely 4. Never

Statements	1	2	3	4
1. Ss demonstrate background information about the topic.				
2. Ss respond to the questions addressed in the brainstorming stage.				
3. Ss showed positive attitudes towards teacher's group formation.				
4. Each expert makes use of the handed materials.				
5. Experts make use of dictionaries to check pronunciation and definitions.				
6. Experts ask for teacher's help whenever necessary.				
7. Experts are interacting orally while discussing their part of the task.				
8. Experts take turns to explain to one another their part of the task.				
9. Each Expert showed enthusiasm and seriousness in learning the material.				
10. All the HOME teammates take turns to discuss and teach one another the learnt information from the other experts				
11. All teammates negotiate meaning, ask for clarification from their teammates to be more-informed about their peers' part of the task.				
12. All teammates worked ONLY on the task.				
13. Teammates make use of the mother tongue while interacting.				
14. Teammates find problems with pronunciation and vocabulary while speaking to the others.				
15. Every mate in the group is listening attentively to his/her peers in the group by taking notes.				
16. Teammates take turns to correct the other's pronunciation and grammar mistakes.				
17. Every teammate is assuming responsibility of teaching his/her part to his/her peers.				
18. Teammates succeed at responding to the questions of the quiz.				
19. Teammates show the feeling of belonging to the group.				
20. Winner group teammates celebrate their achievement and reflect on their process of interaction.				

Further Comments:

.....

Appendix M

GROUP PROCESSING FORM

Group Name:

Lesson Title:

as a group to the following statements using the following scale, and provide full answers where necessary.

1. **All the time** 2. **Often** 3. **Sometimes** 4. **Rarely** 5. **Never**

1/ We (the teammates) contributed positively to the performance of the task.....

2/ We took turns to speak and explain to one another one's part
.....

3/ We stayed on the task and kept discussing only about the topic.....

4/ We exchanged positive criticism to make the task performance a good one.....

5/ We were thinking of the overall group evaluation rather than the individual one.....

6/ We think our group work was beneficial as we learnt some new things related to the English language from our peers.

7/ State a behaviour that you were not satisfied with in the performance of the task.

.....
.....
.....
.....

8/ In the upcoming presentation, we will try to develop (*state sth that you would like to achieve while performing another group work*).....

.....
.....
.....

INDIVIDUAL PROCESSING FORM

Individual processing

Group Name :

Individual Name :

Respond to the following statements individually. Try to be as much honest as you can using the appropriate item from the following scale.

1. **Excellent.** 2. **Good** 3. **Somehow good** 4. **Poor.** 5. **Very poor.**

1/ My role in the task was.....

2/ In comparison to my teammates, my contribution to the task performance was.....

3/ My cooperation with my teammates to achieve the task goal was.....

4/My teammates would consider my contribution to the task performance as.....

5/My teammates' contribution to the performance of the task was.....

/In the upcoming presentations, I will attempt to make more effort to
develop.....

.....

Appendix N

Task : (TV Show Instruction)

- Your group is going to perform a TV show about '*Polygamy*' in which a debate should be held. The whole performance should comprise the following four roles. Prepare a performance about the topic.
1. The *broadcaster*: who is supposed to animate a TV show and addresses the questions to the guests.
 2. The *guest who is with the concept 'polygamy'* and s/he should use pros arguments to defend his/her standpoint.
 3. The *guest who is against 'polygamy'* and s/he is supposed to use cons arguments to argue his/her viewpoint.
 4. The *sociologist/psychologist* who is supposed to discuss the phenomenon of '*polygamy*' from different perspectives.

FUNCTIONAL LANGUAGE

giving opinions

As far as I'm concerned ...
In my opinion ... In my view ...
From my point of view ...
The way I see it is (that) ...
To my mind ...
Well, I reckon (that) ...
I (strongly) believe (that) ...
I (honestly) think (that) ...
I (really) feel (that) ...
Personally speaking, I believe ...
As for me, I reckon ...

asking opinions

What do you think/reckon?
Do you see what I'm getting at?
Do you know/see what I mean?
Do you agree with me?
Would you go along with that?
Would you agree with me that ...?
What are your thoughts on that?
Don't you think (that) ... ?

agreeing

I (totally) agree with you/that.
I couldn't agree more.
I'd go along with that.
I feel the same.
You're absolutely right.
Absolutely/Definitely/Exactly.
No doubt about it.
That's a good point / I see your point.
I see where you're coming from.

disagreeing

I'm afraid I disagree.
I don't agree with you/that.
I'd be inclined to disagree.
That's not the way I see it.
I don't think so / I don't feel the same

partly agreeing

I see your point but ...
I kind of agree with you/that.
I agree with you to an extent, however, ...
You make a good point, but ...

Appendix O
Cooperative Lesson Plan Worksheet

Language Skill: Speaking
/2020

Date: /

Type of Task: meaning and form focus (accuracy and fluency)

Title: Making TV ads

Pre-instructional Decisions

Language function: * advertising. * describing * persuading

Language focus: * Introducing vocabulary items related to advertising, using adjectives for describing objects to advertise and practise persuasive language.

Group size: Four

Method of Assigning Students: Informal groups selected randomly

Materials: * Products' worksheet. (One for each group)

 *A plan for an advertisement worksheet. (One copy per individual in the group)

 * Product guidelines worksheet. (One copy per individual in the group)

 * Advertisement techniques worksheet

Technique: Jigsaw

Explaining Task and Cooperative Goal Structure

Task: Part 1

Allotted Time: 80 mns

- The teacher displays a short video about a **TV Mobile Ad (Samsung Note 10)** (retrieved from: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=itZKXXmUwNU>) to the students as a warming up stage to the lesson.
- She addresses some questions related to advertisement and commercials podcasted on TV
- Then, she arranges the students into groups of four members and hand them with the products' worksheet (comprising different products)
- The teacher asks each group to select ONE product.
- Then, she explains that each group is supposed to design a TV Ad for the chosen product (she reminds them that they may get inspired from the previously exposed one)
- The teacher elucidates that any member (s) in the group will be addressed a set of questions as an evaluation to the whole groups' achievement.
- The teacher gives ONE product guidelines worksheet to each individual in the group. Then, she explains that each student is expected to be the Expert of his/her part of the task.
- She asks the experts working on the same aspect of the ad to gather around the same table.
- She explains that each expert within the group is supposed to contribute to enrich the part of the ads s/he is working on.
 - The first group EXPERT is supposed to determine the target of the ad and prepare arguments later for the chosen population.
 - The second group EXPERT is supposed to describe thoroughly the product.

- The third group EXPERT should work on clarifying why people should buy the product (thinking of as much sound arguments as possible).
 - The fourth group Expert should make comparison between the given product they are advertising for and the ones available in the Market.
- After the Experts finish their part of the task, they should get back to their Home groups so as to discuss, take turns to explain to each other the items they have opted for to advertise the product.
 - The teacher asks each group to set an appealing slogan for the ad to persuade the customers to buy the item.
 - The teacher gives time to each group to polish the content of the ad and think of the slogan.
 - The teacher, then, calls random names from each group and asks them to
 - Explain the slogan of the ads they have chosen for their ad.
 - Recapitulate the differences between the already existing and similar products and their created one.
 - The teacher asks the students to keep the drafts of their ideas for later use and think of animated materials that might be used to advertise their product and bring them later to the classroom.

Part 2:

(45 mns)

- The teacher asks students to arrange the whole parts of the previously done task
- She asks each group to sit together again to decide on the script of their TV ad.
- She distributes the roles on the group members (there should be three characters in the in each ad and one would student will later play the role of the recorder of the ad)
- The teacher passes around to make sure the students are supporting each other to perform their roles adequately.
- The teacher assigns the following roles to each group members: (a *reader* of the final script/ a *corrector* of the mistakes of pronunciation and grammar, *time checker*/ a *supporter*).
- At the end, the teacher sets each group to perform their TV ad presentation (that should be filmed by one of the partners).
- When all the groups present their works, the teacher may ask them to vote for the best and most persuasive TV ad in the class.

6. Criteria for Success:

- Students should be as much persuasive as possible in advertising their product.
- They should demonstrate their ability to use appealing words to describe their product.

7. Positive Interdependence:

- b. *Positive goal interdependence:* * The teacher explains that each group should strive to have the best advertisement in terms of content (captivating to the audience), language (choosing powerful slogans and use positive adjectives to qualify the product).
- c. *Positive reward interdependence:* * the teacher rewards the winner group by offering them something to remember their performance.

- e. *Positive resource interdependence*: to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher divides the task into four parts (description of the item/ determining the targeted audience/ persuading the audience/comparing with other products)
- f. *Positive role interdependence*: For the first part of the task, the teacher assigns each individual within the group a part to work on; she clarifies that each part is important to the achievement of the group. As to the second part, the teacher assigns new roles to each member (a reader of the final script/ a corrector of the mistakes of pronunciation and grammar, time checker/ a supporter).

8. Individual Accountability:

- * The teacher clarifies to each Expert that he is responsible for clarifying, defining and facilitating the learning of the terms to his/her teammates.
- * The teacher calls on names randomly to present the items explained by one of his/her teammates.
- * The teacher passes around to make sure that every individual is contributing to preparing the presentation.

9. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

- * The teacher passes around to encourage the students in each group to actively listen to each other.
- * They should take turns to speak and explain their part of the task to their partners.
- * They should accept to direct positive criticism about each other's ideas and contributions.
- * They should do their best to correct language mistakes for one another to enhance their own and their peer's accuracy.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

- Encouraging one another.
- Asking for help and support each other.
- Supporting and persuading.

Monitoring and Intervening

- 3. **Observation Procedure**: structured and formal via a checklist devised and conducted by the teacher.
- 4. **Group Processing**: the teacher asks each group to watch the record of their presentation and address valuable comments to their teammates (committed errors) for a better performance in the upcoming tasks.

Appendix P

Sample Worksheet

The Language of Advertisements

Task :

You are going to watch 4 TV advertisements. As you watch them, listen carefully to the language that is used and complete the following table.

	Advert 1	Advert 2	Advert 3	Advert 4
1) Name of product e.g. <i>Coles Persona Facial Tissue</i>				
2) What words/ phrases are used to describe the product (adjectives or adjectival phrases) e.g. <i>the most magnificent, simply wonderful</i>				
3) Are the words in 2) positive or negative?				
4) What other words/phrases are used to persuade you to buy the product?				

5) Can you think of other examples of language used to persuade people to buy a product?
Write them down in the space below.

Plan Your Advertisement

When is your product available?

Who is your target? (*age, gender...*)

Where can it be purchased?

How will you advertise?
Which mediums will you use?

What is your product?

Why do people need your product?

Why is this better than the competitors?

Appendix Q

Cooperative Lesson Plan Worksheet

Language Skill: Speaking
/2020

Date: /

Type of Task: meaning and form focus (accuracy and fluency)

Title: Tourism.

Lesson objectives:

- * To practise the newly acquired vocabulary relevant to tourism& travelling.
- * To use the present simple, present continuous and future to speak about future plans.
- * To be fluent in using the new words and idioms while performing orally the role play.

Pre-instructional Decisions

Language function: * Giving instruction * describing * asking for and giving advice

Language focus: * Present simple * Present continuous * Future simple * Modals

* Vocabulary related to air travel/ Hotels and Restaurant and Tourist

activities

Group size: Three

Method of Assigning Students: Informal groups selected heterogeneously

Materials: * Worksheet comprising vocabulary related to air travel.

* Worksheet comprising hotels and restaurants.

* Worksheet comprising tourist activities and places description vocabulary.

Technique: Jigsaw

Explaining Task and Cooperative Goal Structure

1. Task: Part 1

Allotted Time: 80 mns

- The teacher explains that each group is supposed to learn vocabulary items related to a given part of the task and teach it to his/her teammates so as to be able to answer the questions of the quiz that is given at the end of the task.
- She arranges the students into heterogonous groups of three students.
- Then, she divides the task into parts and gives each member the worksheet s/he needs to perform the task.
- She elucidates that each member is supposed to be the EXPERT of his/her part and is held responsible for teaching what s/he learns to his/her teammates.
- The teacher explains that in each part of the task, there are different subparts.
- The experts are given twenty minutes to study the new words along with their pronunciation.
- The EXPERTS move to meet around the same table and take turns to explain to one another the vocabulary items relevant to their part.
- The EXPERTS who are supposed to work 'Air travel' should work on three different subsections (*Departures/ the Flight/ Arrival*). The teacher reminds them to make use of the present simple to give instruction and ask for clarifications)
- The EXPERTS who are assigned the part of 'Hotels and restaurants' should work on three different subsections (*Types of hotel accommodation/ Booking a room at a hotel/ Dining at a restaurant*). The teacher reminds them to use of the present simple/ continuous to make reservations)

- The EXPERTS who are supposed to work on tourism activities should work on two different subsections (*Tourist activities/ Describing places*).The teacher reminds them to make use of present simple to describe/ present continuous/future simple to speak about future plans. The students should also make use of modals to ask for and give advice about places to visit.
- The EXPERTS go through all the new words and they should check the pronunciation of each word in the worksheet and add other synonyms whenever possible.
- The teacher asks the EXPERTS to get back to their Home groups to teach their teammates the words they have learnt and gives them fifteen minutes to exchange information.
- The members of the HOME groups take turns to negotiate the meaning of the words and teach them their accurate pronunciation.
- The teacher passes around to make sure all the students are taking turns to speak and are using English along their interaction.
- The teacher then gives a quiz in the form of exercises to each group (She defines the term and asks them to say it or she gives the term and asks for definition...etc.).
- The teacher addresses questions to each member about one of his/her teammates' part.
- The teacher announces the winner group after counting the scores of each one in the group.

Part 2

Allotted Time: 60 mns

- The teacher explains that the students should keep gathered within the already formed groups to perform a role play pertaining to tourism and traveling.
- The teacher explains sections of the role play (at airport/ at the hotel and Restaurant/ at the Tourism agency).
- The teacher then sets the groups to think about and work on the script and the roles they should undertake to perform the play.
- The teacher reminds the students that they should make use of the present simple when they are at the airport, hotel and restaurant and the future simple/present continuous when they are at the tourism agency to plan their tour schedule.
- The teacher passes around to assign the roles (a *recorder* of the events of the role play/ an *organizer* of the ideas to be put into practice while performing the play/ a *checker* of the use and pronunciation of all the vocabulary items learnt in the previous part of the task and a *time keeper* to manage task performance on time).
- The teacher gives thirty minutes to the groups to get prepared for the performance of the role-play.
- The teacher passes around to make sure the students are using exclusively English as the language of interaction and that every member is fully engaged in the task.
- Then, the teacher sets each group to perform the role play.
- At the end, she asks all the class to vote for the best performance.
- The teacher rewards the winner group by offering them bonus marks in the continuous evaluation grade and lets them celebrate their success.

2. Criteria for Success:

- Students should demonstrate their mastery of the newly acquired words relevant to airport/ travelling and tourism (the whole parts of the task not only theirs) and cooperate to facilitate their peers' learning.
- They should make use of the tenses accurately (present simple to describe and give instruction/ future and present continuous to make plans for holidays and modals to ask for and give advice).
- Students should be creative in their role play performance.

3. Positive Interdependence:

- a. *Positive goal interdependence*: * The teacher highlights that each group should do their best to succeed at the quiz and perform the best play.
- b. *Positive reward interdependence*: * the teacher rewards the winner group by giving them bonus in their continuous evaluation grade.
- c. *Positive resource interdependence*: to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher divides the task into four parts (At the airport/ at the hotel& restaurant/ at the tourism agency).
- d. *Positive role interdependence*: The teacher assigns to each member a role to perform both parts of the task (a recorder/ an organizer/ a checker and a time keeper) to

4. Individual Accountability:

- * The teacher clarifies that each Expert is responsible for the teaching of the newly acquired words and their accurate pronunciation to their teammates.
- * The teacher addresses questions to each individual related their teammates' part.

5. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

- * The students should actively listen to one another.
- *They should ask for clarification whenever necessary.
- * They should take turns to explain the terms and negotiate their meaning.
- * They should facilitate to one another the retaining of the words all along their pronunciation.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

- Facilitating the learning of one another.
- Taking turns to explain to one another.
- Supporting one another in the performance of the role play.

Monitoring and Intervening

1. Observation Procedure: structured and formal via a checklist devised and implemented by the teacher.

2. Group Processing: the teacher asks each group to discuss verbally the strategies they think were positive in the teaching of the terms to their peers and the negative points in the performance of the role play.

Appendix R
Tourism Vocabulary

word <i>part of speech</i>	Meaning	example sentence
adjoining rooms <i>noun</i>	two hotel rooms with a door in the centre	If you want we can book your parents in an adjoining room .
Amenities <i>noun</i>	local facilities such as stores and restaurants	We are located downtown, so we are close to all of the amenities .
Attractions <i>noun</i>	things for tourists to see and do	The zoo is our city's most popular attraction for kids.
Baggage <i>noun</i>	bags and suitcases packed with personal belongings	If you need help with your baggage we have a cart you can use.
Bed and Breakfast <i>noun</i>	a home that offers a place to stay and a place to eat	I can book you into a beautiful Bed and Breakfast on the lake.
Bellboy <i>noun</i>	a staff member who helps guests with their luggage	The bellboy will take your bags to your room for you.
Book <i>verb</i>	arrange to stay in a hotel	I can book your family in for the weekend of the seventh.
Booked <i>adj</i>	full, no vacancies	I'm afraid the hotel is booked tonight.
Brochures <i>noun</i>	small booklets that provide information on the local sites and attractions	Feel free to take some brochures to your room to look at.
check-in <i>verb</i>	go to the front desk to receive keys	You can check-in anytime after four o'clock.
check-out <i>noun</i>	return the keys and pay for the bill	Please return your parking pass when you check-out .
complimentary breakfast <i>noun</i>	free of charge	All of our rooms have complimentary soap, shampoo, and coffee.
cot, rollaway bed <i>noun</i>	a single bed on wheels that folds up	If you need an extra bed, we have cots available.

damage charge <i>noun</i>	money a guest owes for repairs to hotel property (when caused by violent or careless acts)	We will have to add a damage charge for the hole you put in the wall.
Deposit <i>noun</i>	amount paid ahead of time to secure a reservation	You will not receive your deposit back if you cancel.
double bed <i>noun</i>	a bed large enough for two people	They are a family of four, so give them a room with two double beds .
Floor <i>noun</i>	a level of the building	The swimming pool is on the main floor .
front desk, reception <i>noun</i>	the place where guests go to check in and out and to get information	Towels are available at the front desk .
guest <i>noun</i>	a person that is staying at the hotel	Our washrooms are for guests only.
hostel <i>noun</i>	a very inexpensive place for backpackers and travelers on a budget	In the hostel you probably won't get your own room.
hotel manager <i>noun</i>	person in charge at the hotel	I'll let you make your complaint to the hotel manager .
housekeeping, maid <i>noun</i>	staff members that clean the rooms and linen	Put a sign on the door if you want housekeeping to come in and change the sheets on the bed.
ice machine <i>noun</i>	a machine that automatically makes ice that guests can use to keep drinks cold	There is an ice machine by the elevator on all of the even numbered floors.
indoor pool <i>noun</i>	place for guests to swim inside the hotel	The heated indoor pool is open until 10 pm.
Inn <i>noun</i>	another word for "hotel"	There's an inn on the other side of town that has a vacancy.
Jacuzzi, hot tub, whirl pool <i>noun</i>	a small hot pool for relaxation	Our honeymoon room has a personal hot tub .
king-size bed <i>noun</i>	extra large bed	A room with a king size bed costs an extra ten dollars a night.

Kitchenette <i>noun</i>	a small fridge and cooking area	Your room has a kitchenette so you can prepare your own breakfasts and lunches.
late charge <i>noun</i>	a fee for staying past the check-out time	You will be charged a ten dollar late charge for checking out after 11 am.
Linen <i>noun</i>	sheets, blankets, pillow cases	We will come in and change the linens while you are out of your room.
Lobby <i>noun</i>	large open area at the front of the hotel	You can stand in the lobby and wait for your bus.
luggage cart <i>noun</i>	a device on wheels that guests can push their luggage on	Please return the luggage cart to the lobby when you are finished with it.
maximum capacity <i>noun</i>	the most amount of people allowed	The maximum capacity in the hot tub is ten people.
Motels <i>noun</i>	accommodations that are slightly cheaper than hotels	Our motel is very clean and is close to the beach.
Noisy <i>adj</i>	loud	The guests next to you have complained that you are being too noisy .
parking pass <i>noun</i>	a piece of paper that guests display in the car window while in the hotel parking lot	Display this parking pass in your window to show that you are a hotel guest.
pay-per-view movie <i>noun</i>	extra charge for movies and special television features	If you order a pay-per-view movie, the charge will appear on your bill.
pillow case <i>noun</i>	the covering that goes over a pillow	Room 201 doesn't need their sheets changed, but they requested one new pillow case .
queen size bed <i>noun</i>	bed with plenty of space for two people (bigger than a double)	They have a queen size bed so the small child can easily fit in the middle.
Rate <i>noun</i>	cost of renting a room for a certain time period	Our rates change depending on the season.
Reservation <i>noun</i>	a request to save a specific room for a future date	They say they made a reservation but it doesn't show on the computer.
room service <i>noun</i>	delivery of food or other services requested by guests	If you would like a bottle of wine, just call room service .

sauna <i>noun</i>	a hot room for relaxation, filled with steam	We don't recommend bringing young children into the sauna .
single bed <i>noun</i>	a bed for one person	The economy priced room includes one single bed .
sofa bed, pull-out couch <i>noun</i>	a bed built into a sofa or couch	The room contains a sofa bed so the room actually sleeps five.
Towels <i>noun</i>	used to cover and dry the body after swimming or bathing	You can get your swimming pool towels at the front desk.
Vacancy <i>noun</i> vacant <i>adj</i>	available rooms	We only have one vacancy left, and it is for a single room.
valet <i>noun</i>	staff that parks the guests' vehicles	If you leave your car keys with us, the valet will park your car underground.
vending machine <i>noun</i>	a machine that distributes snacks and beverages when you insert coins	The vending machine on the fifth floor has chocolate bars and chips.
view <i>noun</i>	a window that offers a nice image for guests	The room is more expensive because it has a spectacular view of the beach.
wake up call <i>noun</i>	a morning phone call from the front desk, acts as an alarm clock	What time would you like your wake up call ?
weight room, workout room, gym <i>noun</i>	a room that guests can use for exercise and fitness	Our weight room has a stair climber and a stationary bicycle.

Appendix S

Cooperative Lesson Plan Worksheet

Language Skill: Speaking

Date: /

/2020

Type of Task: meaning and form focus (accuracy and fluency)

Title: Presenting an Educational System Report.

Lesson objectives: * To be able to make a report about an educational system of a country.

* To be able to describe the different cycles of an educational system of a given country.

* To be able to make comparison between different educational systems.

* To be able to present orally an ideal model of an educational system.

Pre-instructional Decisions

Language function: * describing * explaining *comparing and contrasting * Advising

Language focus: * Describing educational system in the UK, Finland and South Korea using adjectives/ comparative adjectives and vocabulary items related to education. * Modals to propose suggestions for an ideal educational system.

Group size: Three

Method of Assigning Students: Informal groups selected randomly

Materials: * Worksheets comprising information about the different levels of education in the UK, Finland and South Korea.

* Glossary sheet of educational terms.

Technique: Jigsaw

Explaining Task and Cooperative Goal Structure

10. Task:

Allotted Time: 80 mns

Part 1:

- To brainstorm the topic of the lesson, the teacher addressed some questions to elicit information about the best educational systems around the world from the students' perspectives.
- The teacher explains that each group is supposed to make a report about one of the three suggested country's educational system (UK /Finland and South Korea).
- She arranges the students into heterogeneous groups of three students.
- Then, she gives to each group the worksheets comprising information about each country's educational system with its basic cycles.
- The teacher explains that each member in the group should work on one part/cycle of the educational system of one the given countries and compare it with the Algerian one using as much comparative adjectives and adverbs as possible.
- She passes around the group to assign to each individual the part of the task s/he should work on and upon which he becomes an EXPERT.
- All the EXPERTS gather around the same table for 15 minutes to start developing the report of the undertaken educational cycle (primary/secondary/ further and higher education).

- The teacher elucidates that any member (s) in the group will be addressed a set of questions as an evaluation to the whole groups' achievement.
- The teacher asks the EXPERTS to get back to their Home group to exchange information about each part of the report.
- Each member was assigned a role (a recorder of the information, an assessor of the rehearsal of the information and an organiser of the ideas)
- The members of the HOME groups take turns to speak and explain to one another their part, they were given 15 minutes to do so.
- Meanwhile, the teacher passes around to assign roles to each member of the group: (a *recorder* of the report who is in charge of noting down the important information pertaining to each part of the report, a *leader* who keeps all the members of the group focussed on the task and an *assessor* who makes sure that his/her teammates are retaining the information of each part and that the new words are well-understood by all the group members).
- The teacher gives fifteen minutes to the groups to work on the final report.
- The teacher passes around to make sure the students are speaking English not the mother tongue, working on the task and that each individual is actively engaged and taking part effectively in the task.
- Then, the teacher calls the groups to present the report by setting each individual to present and recapitulate the part of one of his/her teammate a form of a quiz given to the group) .

Part 2:
mns

Allotted Time: 45

- The teacher starts the second part of the lesson by asking the students some questions pertaining to the current Algerian educational system as a brainstorming to the task.
- Then, she asks each group to prepare an oral presentation about 'an ideal educational system in Algeria'.
- She explains that each member in the group should work on proposals to make each cycle of education in Algeria ideal (primary& middle/secondary and higher education) using as much modal verbs as possible.
- After selecting the cycle, each member becomes an EXPERT of that part and should interact with the other EXPERTS.
- The EXPERTS meet around the same table to discuss and propose ideas for the perfect model of school.
- Then, after they finish their part, all the EXPERTS join again their HOME groups.
- Teammates take turns to speak and discuss their ideas.
- The teacher gives fifteen minutes to each group before they start exposing their proposed model for the educational system.
- Then the teacher asks each group to present their model by setting each member to present his/her part.
- After each presentation, the teacher asks the other groups to evaluate the proposed model.
- Finally, the teacher asks them to choose the best proposed model and rewards them.

11. Criteria for Success:

- Students should introduce a comprehensive report.
- They should be knowledgeable about the whole educational system (their own and their peers' part of the report).

12. Positive Interdependence:

- d. *Positive goal interdependence:* * The teacher highlights that each group should do his best to present the best report on the educational system of the selected country.
- e. *Positive reward interdependence:* * the teacher rewards the winner group by Giving them bonus in their continuous evaluation grade.
- g. *Positive resource interdependence:* to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher divides the task into three parts (primary education cycle/ secondary education cycle/ further/ higher education cycle).
- h. *Positive role interdependence:* The teacher assigns each individual within the group a part to work on; she clarifies that each part is important to the presentation of the report. She highlights that to have a comprehensive report presentation, each part should be thoroughly explained. During the task performance, the teacher assigns a role to each member (a recorder, a leader, a time keeper, an assessor).

13. Individual Accountability:

- * The teacher clarifies that each Expert is responsible for providing a comprehensive description of the cycle of education s/he works on.
- * The teacher asks each individual to recapitulate the part of one of his/her teammates.

5. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

- * The teacher passes around to encourage the students in each group to actively listen to one another.
- * They should take turns to speak and explain their part of the task to their partners.
- * They should accept their mates' suggestions for polishing the final report.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

- Supporting one another.
- Taking turns to speak with quiet voices.
- Paraphrasing another member's contribution.
- Asking for clarification whenever necessary.

Monitoring and Intervening

- 5. **Observation Procedure:** structured and formal via a checklist devised and conducted by the teacher.
- 6. **Croup Processing:** the teacher asks each group to fill in the handed processing sheet together to reflect about the group presentation.

Appendix T

Lesson One

Cooperative Lesson Plan Worksheet

Language Skill: Speaking
/2020

Date: /

Type of Task: meaning and form focus (accuracy and fluency)

Title: *Cooking Recipes*

Pre-instructional Decisions

Language function: * Describing * Explaining * Giving Instruction

Language focus: * Introducing verbs used to describe actions in cooking

* Practising cooking vocabulary and giving instructions.

* Practising countable and uncountable nouns and quantifiers.

Group size: Four students

Method of Grouping Students: Informal groups selected randomly (heterogeneous groups)

Materials: * The Task instruction worksheet (One Copy per group)

* The Starter worksheets (A copy for one student)

* The Main course worksheet 1 (A copy for one student)

* The Main course worksheet 2 (a copy for one student)

* Cooking action verbs worksheet (One copy for each student)

Technique: Jigsaw

Explaining Task and Cooperative Goal Structure

Task:

Allotted Time: 80 mns

- The teacher brainstorms the topic with the students by addressing some questions related to restaurant, invitations for dining out and meals' preferences She addresses some questions related to advertisement and commercials podcasted on TV
- Then, she arranges the students into groups of four members and hand them with the task instruction worksheet
- The teacher asks each group to work on a part of the menu.
 - Then, she explains that each group is supposed to design a TV Ads for the chosen product (she reminds them that they may get inspired from the previously exposed one)
 - The teacher elucidates that any member (s) in the group will be addressed a set of questions as an evaluation to the whole groups' achievement.
 - The teacher gives ONE product guidelines worksheet to each individual in the group. Then, she explains that each student is expected to be the Expert of his part of the task.
 - She asks the experts working on the same aspect of the ads to gather in the same table.
 - She explains that each expert within the group is supposed to contribute to enrich the part of the ads s/he is working on.

- The first group EXPERT is supposed to determine the target of the ads and prepare arguments later for the chosen population.
 - The second group EXPERT is supposed to describe thoroughly the product.
 - The third group EXPERT should work on clarifying why people should buy the product (thinking of as much sound arguments as possible).
 - The fourth group Expert should make comparison between the given product they are advertising for and the ones available in the Market.
- After the Experts get done with the task, they should get back to their Home groups so as to discuss, take turns to explain to each other the items they have opted for to advertise the product.
 - The teacher asks each group to set an appealing slogan for the ads to persuade the customers to buy the item.
 - The teacher gives time to each group to polish the content of the ads and think of the slogan.
 - The teacher, then, calls random names from each group and asks them to
 - Explain the slogan of the ads they have chosen for their ads.
 - Recapitulate the differences between the already existing and similar products and their created one.
 - The teacher asks the students to keep the drafts of their ideas for later use and think of animated materials that might be used to advertise their product and bring them later to the classroom.

Part 2:

(45 mns)

- The teacher asks students to arrange the whole parts of the previously done task
- She asks each group to sit again to decide on the script of their TV ads.
- She distributes the roles on the group members (there should be three characters in the in each ads and one would student will later play the role of the recorder of the ads)
- The teacher passes around to make sure the students are supporting each other to perform their roles adequately.
- The teacher assigns the following roles to each group members: (a reader of the final script/ a corrector of the mistakes of pronunciation and grammar, time checker/ a supporter).
- At the end, the teacher sets each group to perform their TV ads (that should be filmed by one of teammates).
- When all the groups present their presentations, the teacher may ask the students opt for the best and most persuasive TV ads in the class.

2. Criteria for Success:

- Students should be as much persuasive as possible in advertising their product.
- They should demonstrate their ability to use appealing words to describe their product.

3. Positive Interdependence:

- a. **Positive goal interdependence:** * The teacher explains that each group should strive to have the best advertisement in terms of content (captivating to the audience), language (choosing powerful slogans and use positive adjectives to qualify the product).
- b. **Positive reward interdependence:** * the teacher rewards the winner group by

offering them something to remember their performance.

c. **Positive resource interdependence:** to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher divides the task into four parts (description of the item/ determining the targeted audience/ persuading the audience/comparing with other products)

4. **Positive role interdependence:** For the first part of the task, the teacher assigns each individual within the group a part to work on; she clarifies that each part is important to the achievement of the group. As to the second part, the teacher assigns new roles to each member (a reader of the final script/ a corrector of the mistakes of pronunciation and grammar, time checker/ a supporter).

5. **Individual Accountability:**

* The teacher clarifies to each Expert that he is responsible for clarifying, defining and facilitating the learning of the terms to his/her teammates.

* The teacher calls on names randomly to present the items explained by one of his/her teammates.

* The teacher passes around to make sure that every individual is contributing in preparing the presentation.

6. **Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:**

* The teacher passes around to encourage the students in each group to actively listen to each other.

* They should take turns to speak and explain their part of the task to their partners.

* They should accept to direct positive criticism about each other's ideas and contributions.

* They should do their best to correct language mistakes for one another to enhance their own and their peer's accuracy.

6. **Expected Cooperative Social Skills**

- Encouraging one another.
- Asking for help and support each other.
- Supporting and persuading.

Monitoring and Intervening

1. **Observation Procedure:** structured and formal via a checklist devised and conducted by the teacher.

2. **Group Processing:** the teacher asks each group to watch the record of their presentation and address valuable comments (about the committed grammar and pronunciation mistakes) to their teammates for a better performance in the upcoming tasks.

Cooperative Lesson Plan Worksheet Lesson Two

Language Skill: Speaking
/2020

Date: /

Type of Task: form focus (accuracy and fluency)

Title: Idioms and Proverbs to express feelings.

Lesson objectives:

* To learn some idioms and proverbs to express feelings in English.

* To use the newly acquired proverbs and idioms in conversations.

Pre-instructional Decisions

Language function: * Expressing feelings and emotions.

* asking for and giving advice

Language focus: * Idioms expressing feelings * proverbs describing feelings.

* Present simple

* Past simple

* Conditional type III

Group size: Four

Method of Assigning Students: Informal groups selected heterogeneously

Materials: * Worksheet comprising idioms of expressing feelings.

* Worksheet comprising proverbs and sayings to express feelings.

Technique: Jigsaw

Explaining Task and Cooperative Goal Structure

1. Task: Part 1

Allotted Time: 80 mns

- The teacher explains that each group is supposed to learn first some idioms and proverbs that are used to express feelings and then use them in a conversation.
- The teacher arranges the students into heterogonous groups of four students.
- The teacher then explains that each member of the group is supposed to collect and make use of as many idioms and proverbs as possible to express one of the following type of feelings (*happiness, sorrow* [sadness, grief], *regret* and *surprise*).
- Then, she divides the task into four parts and gives to each student the worksheet of the part of the task s/he needs.
- The teacher explains that each student is supposed to be the EXPERT of the undertaken part of the task and s/he is held responsible for learning and then teaching to his/her teammates the idioms and proverbs used to express the feeling in question (happiness, sadness, regret and surprise).
- She calls the EXPERTS of each part to gather around the same table to start discussing and collecting the idioms and proverbs they need to express the given feeling.
- The Experts are given fifteen minutes to study the idioms and proverbs.
- The EXPERTS who are supposed to work on ‘the *feelings of happiness*’, should discuss the meaning of the idioms and proverbs and the contexts in which they might be used. They should provide definitions to each idiom/proverb to teach them later to their teammates by putting them into in meaningful sentences.
- The EXPERTS who are supposed to work on ‘the *feelings of sadness & sorrow*’, should discuss the meaning of the idioms and proverbs and the contexts in which they

might be used. They should provide definitions to each idiom/proverb to teach them later to their teammates by putting them into meaningful sentences.

- The EXPERTS who are supposed to work on ‘*the feelings of regret*’, should discuss the meaning of the idioms and proverbs and the contexts in which they might be used. They should provide definitions to each idiom/proverb to teach them later to their teammates.
- The EXPERTS who are supposed to work on ‘*the feelings of surprise*’, should discuss the meaning of the idioms and proverbs and the contexts in which they might be used. They should provide definitions to each idiom/proverb to teach them later to their teammates by putting them into meaningful sentences.
- The teacher asks the EXPERTS to get back to their Home groups and gives them twenty minutes to teach their teammates the idioms and the proverbs they have learnt.
- The members of the HOME groups take turns to discuss the definitions of the idioms and proverbs.
- The teacher passes around to make sure all the students are taking turns to speak and are using English along their discussion.
- The teacher gives a quiz to the groups by writing some proverbs and idioms on small pieces of papers and folds them.
- She explains that the winner group is the one whose members score higher in the quiz.
- She asks each member of the group to pick up two pieces of papers and explain them.
- The teacher announces the winner group after counting the scores of each one in the group and rewards them by offering them something to remember their success.

Part 2

Allotted Time: 40 mns

- The teacher explains that the students should keep gathered within the already formed groups to hold a discussion between four friends in which they should make use of as many idioms and proverbs newly acquired as possible in their discussion.
- The teacher explains that the held discussion should incorporate the expression of the four feelings mentioned beforehand.
- The teacher then sets the groups to cooperate and think about what how the discussion should be performed and how the idioms and the proverbs should be inserted in the discussion.
- The teacher reminds the students that they should make use of the present simple to describe their feelings, the past simple to speak about the past events that provoked these feelings and Conditional type III to express regret about past situations.
- The teacher passes around to assign the roles (a *leader* who should supervise and make sure that all teammates are indeed taking part/ an *organizer* of the ideas to be put into practice while performing the play/ a *checker* who should be mindful about the use of the newly acquired idioms and proverbs/ a *time keeper* to manage task performance on time).
- The teacher gives thirty minutes to the groups to get prepared for the presentation of the discussion.
- The teacher passes around to make sure the students are using exclusively English as the language of interaction and that everyone is doing his/role adequately in the group.
- Then, the teacher sets each group to perform the discussion in front of the whole class.

- At the end, she asks all the class to vote for the best performance.
- The teacher rewards the winner group by offering them bonus marks in the continuous evaluation grade and lets them celebrate their success.

2. Criteria for Success:

- Students should make use of the newly introduced idioms and proverbs in a conversation.
- They should succeed at the quiz and be able to explain any of the idioms/proverbs they select.
- They should express their feelings overtly and fluently.

3. Positive Interdependence:

- a. *Positive goal interdependence*: * The teacher highlights that each group should do their best to succeed at the quiz and hold a creative conversation.
- b. *Positive reward interdependence*: * the teacher rewards the winner group by offering them something to remember their success in the performance.
- c. *Positive resource interdependence*: to ensure cooperation, the teacher jigsaws the task into parts in which each member is supposed to learn some idioms and proverbs to express a given feeling and later teach them to his/her teammates.
- d. *Positive role interdependence*: the teacher assigns to each member a role to perform both parts of the task (a leader / an organizer/ a checker and a time keeper) to ensure that students contribute effectively in the task performance.)

4. Individual Accountability:

- * The teacher clarifies that each Expert is held responsible for the teaching of the newly introduced idioms and proverbs and the contexts in which they might be used to their teammates.
- * The teacher asks each member to explain some idioms/proverbs introduced by one of his/her teammates.

5. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

- * The students should actively listen to one another.
- *They should ask for clarification whenever necessary.
- * They should take turns to explain the targeted idioms and proverbs and practice their use into meaningful sentences to facilitate their learning as much as possible.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

- Facilitating the learning of one another.
- Taking turns to explain to one another.
- Supporting one another in the performance of the role play.

Monitoring and Intervening

1. Observation Procedure: structured and formal via a checklist devised and implemented by the teacher.

2. Group Processing: the teacher asks each group to discuss the strategies they think were beneficial and helpful to learn and remember the introduced idioms and proverbs.

14. Criteria for Success:

- Students should perform the given task within the allotted timing (15 minutes).
- They should make use of the past simple, past continuous fittingly to narrate the events of the story.
- They should be able to practise sequencers and transitional words to link the continuum of the events.
- They should be able to memorize all tiny events of their part and the part of their teammates as well.
- To interact orally with teammates as long as possible using English.

15. Positive Interdependence:

- f. *Positive goal interdependence:* * The teacher explains that all the members of the group should work on telling the best version of the stories given, bearing in mind that the language of the story should be as accurate and fluent as possible.
- g. *Positive reward interdependence:* * The teacher explains that each individual is evaluated according to his/her contribution to the story telling. Nevertheless, a final grade is given to the whole presentation.
- h. *Positive resource interdependence:* to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher jigsaws the task into six parts (each part is in itself a series of events) that should be finally gathered to tell the whole story.

16. Positive role interdependence: The teacher assigns six roles to each member in the group 1. a *recorder*, who is supposed to record all the events of the story, 2. an *organizer*, who should work on organizing the events and ideas of all the members, 3. a *checker*, who works on controlling the tenses used in the script, 4. a *time manager* who controls time so as to get done with it on the appropriate time, 5. a *questioner* who assesses that all tiny details of the events are well-retained, 6. a *praiser who keeps saying encouraging words to the teammates*).

17. Individual Accountability:

* The teacher clarifies that each Expert is expected to be as much creative in his/her imagination as possible while telling his/her part of the story. Therefore, each one is supposed to make his /her mates remember the tiny details of his/her part of the storytelling.

* The teacher calls on a name randomly from each group to tell the whole version of the story.

18. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

* The teacher passes around to encourage the students in each group to actively listen to each while narrating one's part.

* The teacher encourages them to accept criticism and suggestions to have the best version of the story.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

- Encouraging one another by to be more creative.
- Asking for help and supporting one another.
- Accepting criticism and advice.

Monitoring and Intervening

7. Observation Procedure: structured and formal via a checklist devised and conducted by the teacher.

- 8. Group Processing:** * the teacher asks each group to reflect on their storytelling and which part could have been more developed to benefit from them in the upcoming tasks of the storytelling.
- The teacher along with all the students select the best told story. Then, she gives bonus to the winner group and let them celebrate their victory.
 - The teacher distributes group processing worksheet to enable each group discuss and reflect about their whole performance.

Picture Story

Look at the pictures and use the words to write a story.



railway
untie
date
fall in love
marry
horrible
tie

The picnic

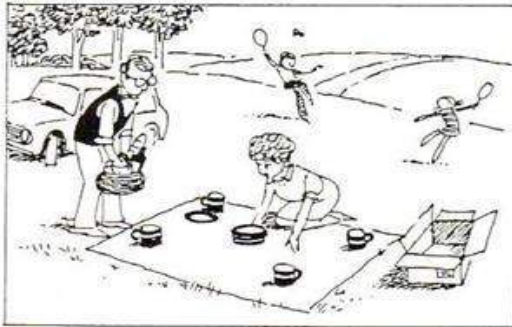
Look at the pictures and with the help of the questions write down the story.



Who is in the picture?
 What are they doing?
 What do they put in the basket and in the box?



Where are they going?
 How are they going?
 What are they doing in the car?



Where are they?
 What are the parents doing?
 What are the children doing?



Where are they going now?
 Who arrives?
 What do they find?



What's the family's name?
 Who rings the bell the next day?
 What does he bring?
 How do the people react?



What's in the parcel?
 How do the people react now?

Appendix V
Cooperative Lesson Plan Worksheet

Language Skill: Speaking
2020

Date: / /

Type of Task: Role play

Task Focus: Meaning & Form (accuracy and fluency)

Title: Buying and selling pieces of furniture.

Lesson objective: * To practise the newly acquired vocabulary pertaining to pieces of furniture.

* To use the present simple to describe furniture.

* To perform transactional speech to buy and sell goods.

* To cooperate to perform the role play.

Pre-instructional Decisions

Language function: * Transaction. * buying and selling goods * Describing objects

Language focus: * vocabulary items related to furniture (kitchen utensils and bedroom)

* Present simple. * Expressions used in shopping and bargaining.

Group size: Four.

Method of Assigning Students: Informal groups selected heterogeneously.

Materials: * Instruction task

* Kitchen utensils worksheets.

* Bedroom pieces of furniture worksheets.

* Group processing worksheet.

* List of bargaining expressions

Technique: Jigsaw

Explaining Task and Cooperative Goal Structure

19. Task:
mns

Allotted Time: 80

- The teacher explains that the task should be performed as a role play that comprises four roles (two salesmen, a couple: husband & wife).
- The teacher sets the scene of the role play and explains to each member the role s/he has to play. The couple is supposed to come to the furniture store as an attempt to buy new pieces of furniture for their bedroom and kitchen. The two salesmen are supposed to expose different items (One salesman would expose kitchen utensils while the second would introduce bedroom pieces of furniture).
- The teacher jigsaws the task and highlights that to have the work completed as a role play, everyone should extend the script of his/her part and respond to the quiz by the end of the task.
- The teacher gives the pictures of kitchen utensils and bedroom pieces of furniture worksheets to each member in the group.
- Then, she gives each member within the group the role s/he has to play.
- Each student is supposed to be the EXPERT of the undertaken part. Then each one moves to the table in which the other EXPERTS of the same part would start working.
- The two students who play the role of the salesman in charge of kitchen utensils and bedroom pieces of furniture are expected to introduce as many vocabulary items as

possible to the whole HOME group. They are the ones who are responsible for developing his/her teammates' vocabulary background.

- The student who plays the role of the wife is supposed to enquire about the function of each tools they attempt to buy.
- The student who plays the role of the husband is supposed to enquire about the prices and ways of paying the bills, and to bargain as much as possible with the salesmen.
- The teacher gives fifteen minutes to each EXPERT group to work on their part of the task.
- Then, Each EXPERT gets to his/her HOME group and starts teaching the new vocabulary items and expressions used in shopping/selling/buying to his/her teammates.
- The teacher passes around to assign roles to each individual in the group (a *recorder* of the role play script/ an *assessor* of the vocabulary items acquired, a *time keeper* and an *organizer* of the whole presentation).
- The teacher sets each group to perform the whole role play and gives to each performance a mark.
- At the end, she gives them the quiz (She provides definitions to some bedroom pieces of furniture and kitchen utensils and asks them to label the items being defined).
- The teacher gives the final grade to the quiz and announces the winner.

20. Criteria for Success:

- The students should perform creatively.
- They should succeed at the quiz.

21. Positive Interdependence:

- i. Positive goal interdependence:* * The teacher explains that each group should first strive to perform the most creative play and succeed at answering the questions of the quiz related to kitchen utensils and bedroom pieces of furniture.
- b. Positive reward interdependence:* * the teacher gives all the members of the group
bonus if they perform the play in a genuine way and answer correctly the questions
of the quiz
- i. Positive resource interdependence:* to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher divides the task into a jigsaw of four parts (vocabulary pertaining to pieces of bedroom furniture, vocabulary related to kitchen utensils, a focusing on expressions of shopping and bargaining).
- j. Positive role interdependence:* the teacher assigns roles to the students: a recorder (who is supposed to record and note down the necessary information to be included in the script); an assessor (who constantly asks questions to make sure his classmates have learnt and retained the words); a time keeper who supervises time allocation to finish within the time given; and an organizer who should organize the whole ideas of the script.

22. Individual Accountability:

* The teacher clarifies that each individual is responsible for assisting his/her teammates' learning of the new vocabulary and expression that are frequently used in shopping and bargaining in English conversations.

* The teacher addresses to each member questions in the final quiz related to his/her teammates' part not.

23. Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

* The teacher passes around to encourage the students in each group to actively listen to each other's explanation.

* She makes sure that they take turns to explain their part and the part of their peers as well.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

- Encouraging one another to learn the new words and expressions.
- Asking for help and supporting one another.

Monitoring and Intervening

9. Observation Procedure: structured and formal via a checklist devised and conducted by the teacher.

10. Group Processing: * The teacher asks each group to list the best thing of their performance compared to the other presentations.

English Idioms and Idiomatic Expressions used in shopping

from: 'bargain hunting' to: 'window shopping'

1. bargain hunting

If you spend time in the shops looking for items to buy at the lowest price, you go bargain hunting.

"During the sales I go bargain hunting with my friends!"

2. it's a bargain

Said when an article is well below the usual price.

"That handbag goes beautifully with the dress, and at that price it's a bargain!"

3. I can't afford it

If you can't afford something you don't have enough money to buy it.

"I'd love that jacket but I can't afford it!"

4. it costs an arm and a leg

If an article or service costs an arm and a leg, it is very expensive indeed.

"The diamond engagement ring cost an arm and a leg!"

5. it costs a fortune

Something that costs a fortune is very expensive.

"Look at the price of that bag - it costs a fortune!"

6. it's a steal

The expression 'it's a steal' means that something is so cheap that it's almost as if you haven't paid anything for it. "At that price it's a steal. You won't find it cheaper in any other shop."

7. it's good value for money

Something that is good value for money is worth the money spent on it.

"The quality is excellent so it's good value for money."

8. it's a bit pricey

The expression a bit pricey means that something is a bit expensive.

"Their clothes are a bit pricey but they have a wonderful selection"

9. it's a rip-off

Something that costs much more than it should is called a rip-off.

"\$10 for an orange juice? That's a rip-off!"

10. shop around

If you shop around, you visit a number of shops selling similar articles in order to compare the prices.

"You can usually save money by shopping around."

11. shop till you drop

If you shop till you drop, you go shopping for a very long time, until you are exhausted.

"If you go to London with Ashley, you'll shop till you drop, so take comfortable shoes!"

12. shopping spree

If you go on a shopping spree, you enjoy a lively outing, usually with much spending of money.

"Liza is planning to go on a shopping spree as soon as she gets her bonus."

13. shopping therapy

The term shopping therapy refers to the idea that buying things can make you feel better.

"A little shopping therapy can usually cheer up bored teenagers."

14. splash out

If you splash out on something, you buy it even though it costs a lot of money.

"When he got a promotion Andy splashed out on a brand new car."

15. window shopping

When people go window shopping, they look at things in shop windows, without actually purchasing anything.

"I haven't been paid yet, so I can only go window shopping."

<https://www.learn-english-today.com/idioms/idiom-categories/shopping/shopping.html>

Kitchen utensils



Measuring jug



Knife



Pot



Colander



Cleaver



Spoon



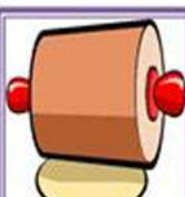
Cup and saucer



Skimmer



Grater



Rolling pin



Bottle opener



Mixer



Fork



Pressure cooker



Mortar



Sifter



Peeler



Bowl



Oven glove



Cutting board



Squeezer



Pan



Microwave



Spatula



Frying pan

Appendix W

Cooperative Lesson Plan Worksheet

Language Skill: Speaking

Date: / / 2020

Type of Task: Jigsawed role play

Task Focus: Meaning & Form (accuracy and fluency)

Title: Working women.

Lesson objective: * To argue and defend one's point of view.

* To express disagreement/agreement with others' perspectives.

* To express negative feelings.

Pre-instructional Decisions

Language function: * Arguing. * Agreeing * Disagreeing *describing and expressing feelings

Language focus: * Expressions of agreement & disagreement.

* Giving advice through the use of modals.

* Past simple * present simple * future simple

* Adjectives to express annoyance, dissatisfaction and disappointment.

Group size: Four.

Method of Assigning Students: Informal groups selected heterogeneously.

Materials: * Worksheet of expressions used in debates to express agreement & disagreement.

* Worksheet of the role-play and monologue.

* A list of some idioms used to persuade, convince agree and disagree.

* The group processing worksheet.

Technique: Jigsaw

Explaining Task and Cooperative Goal Structure

24. Task:

Allotted Time: 80

mns

- The teacher distributes the instruction of the role-play sheet on the students.
- Then she explains that each group is supposed to perform a role play in which a debate should be held about 'working woman' and the best performance is the one in which the four members succeed at playing their roles perfectly.
- The teacher explains that by the end of the performance each individual's performance is graded and then all the teammates' performances are counted to get the final mark for the whole presentation.
- The teacher jigsaws the task by splitting it into four basic roles (the role of the *working wife*, the role of *the husband*, the role of the *wife's interior monologue reader*, and the *husband's monologue's reader*).
- Then, she explains that each student is supposed to be the EXPERT of the part s/he has undertaken.
- The first interior monologue reader EXPERTS who, are supposed to expose the advantages of working for women, meet around the same table to and describe the wife's feelings. They should make use of as much adjectives of expressing annoyance, dissatisfaction and disappointment as possible.

- The EXPERTS who are supposed to develop the second interior monologue are supposed to describe the feelings of the husband.
- The EXPERTS who are supposed to play the role of the husband should think of the arguments to introduce to his wife.
- The EXPERTS who are supposed to play the role of the working wife should think of the arguments she would make use of to defend her perspective.
- The teacher gives the experts from ten to fifteen minutes to get done with their part.
- Each expert gets back to his/her HOME group and start sharing the gathered information in the previous experts groups and start working on the script of the role play.
- Meanwhile, the teacher passes around to assign roles to each member of the group (a *writer of the script/ a reader of the script/ an organizer of the ideas/ and a time manager*)
- The teacher gives twenty minutes to all the groups to get ready for the role play performance.
- Then, she asks all the groups to perform in front of the class and evaluates each teammates' presentation to give later a final mark for to the group.

25. Criteria for Success:

- Students should be able to describe feelings using appropriate adjectives.
- Students should perform the role play in a creative way.
- Students should demonstrate the ability to express agreement/disagreement within given situations and acts

26. Positive Interdependence:

- j. *Positive goal interdependence:* * Each group should strive for performing the best role play in which they make use of as many targeted language points as possible.
- k. *Positive reward interdependence:* * Reward in the form of adding extra point to their continuous evaluation mark is given to the best performance.
- k. *Positive resource interdependence:* to make sure the students cooperate, the teacher gives to each member a worksheet (adjectives of expressing feelings/ expressions used to expose 'pro' arguments/ Expressions used to expose 'con' arguments)
- l. *Positive role interdependence:* the teacher assigns four roles to the students: a *writer* of the role play script, a *reader* of the script, an *organizer* of the ideas of the role play, a *time manager* to finish within the allotted time given.

27. Individual Accountability:

* The teacher explains at the very beginning that the final mark given to the groups' performance depends on each member's contribution (the final score of the group presentation is given by counting each individual's performance)

Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:

- * The students should actively listen to one another
- * They should accept constructive criticism for the benefit of the whole group performance.
- * They should take decisions for polishing the play.

6. Expected Cooperative Social Skills

- Communicating ideas freely.
- Respecting each one's ideas.
- Encouraging and assisting one another in the performance of each part.

Monitoring and Intervening

11. Observation Procedure: structured and formal via a checklist devised and conducted by the teacher.

12. Group Processing: * the teacher asks each group to fill in the group processing worksheet by reflecting on their group performance (stating the positive and negative behaviours).

Task :

- Your group is supposed to perform a role play and a monologue revolving around the topic of 'Working Women'. To perform the task, you need to agree with your teammates about one of following roles to play. Make sure to use the following cues in your presentation.

1. The Husband, who is supposed to disagree and express dissatisfaction with the fact that his wife is a working woman.

He should express his negative feelings about the whole situation. (He should first explain his viewpoint and then use arguments to convince his wife about quitting her job for good. (Use expressions of agreeing/disagreeing and persuading)

2. The husband Monologue reader, who is in charge of preparing a script in which s/he expresses loudly and overtly the negative feelings he was enduring. (Use as many adjectives as possible to describe the husband's feelings.)

3. The wife, who should express her satisfaction and joy with her job; she should use arguments to convince her husband with the benefits her job brings to their life.)

4. The wife monologue reader should prepare a script in the form of a monologue to describe the wife's reaction to the husband.

Idioms and phrasal verbs used to express feelings

I/ Sadness

1. Down in the mouth

The first idiom on our list that expresses sadness means to look unhappy. It comes from the fact that the corners of the mouth are usually turned down when a person is sad. This idiom is never used to describe oneself. It is always used to describe another person.

Eg. :She seems to be down in the mouth. Maybe she failed her exams.

2. Down in the dumps

This idiom, in contrast to the previous one, is not used so much to describe a person's appearance, but rather a person's mood or the way they feel.

Eg. Nina seems to be down in the dumps because she broke up with her boyfriend recently.

3. Reduce to tears

This idiom means to make someone cry or to be so unhappy, and down that, you begin to cry.

Eg. My boss reduced me to tears with his constant criticism today.

4. Lump in your throat

Usually, when we watch an emotional movie (for example a drama like Titanic), we get a feeling in our throat that means we are about to cry. We are upset, sad, and we worry about the main characters of the film.

Eg. His speech was so emotional that I lumped my throat.

5. Feeling blue/to have the blues

The colour blue is associated with depression, a bad mood, and sadness. That's where this phrase comes from. We can use the phrase feeling blue when talking about ourselves or others, but the phrase have the blues is usually used to speak about others.

Eg. She has the blues today.

6. Face like a wet weekend

This expression is British slang. It may come from a situation where a person wants to relax, do something outdoors, or get some fresh air on the weekend but can't because the weather leaves much to be desired – it's overcast, cold, or continuously raining, and this makes the person sad or depressed.

Eg. Billy, your face is like a wet weekend. What's wrong?

I hope that you will find these English idioms useful. You should learn them!

Good luck!

Don't be down in the dumps. ☺ Smile.

II/ Happiness

1. On top of the world

If you feel on top of the world, you are extremely happy because everything is going well for you.

Eg. "It's been such a good year for Amy that she feels on top of the world."

2. walking on air

When you are happy and excited because of a pleasant event that makes you feel as if you are floating, you are walking on air.

Eg. "Sophie has been walking on air since her painting won the first prize."

3. Thrilled to bits

Someone who is thrilled to bits is extremely pleased about something.

Eg. "Julie was thrilled to bits when her project was selected."

4. Tickled pink

If you are tickled pink, you are very pleased about something.

Eg. "My dad was tickled pink when he was asked to announce the winner."

5. In seventh heaven

If you are
in seventh heaven, you are extremely happy.

Eg. "Every time Rebecca wins a match, she's in seventh heaven!"

6. Stars in your eyes

If someone has stars in their eyes, they are looking extremely happy

Eg. "Hugo had stars in his eyes when he saw the car he had won"

7. Over the moon

If you are over the moon about something, you are very happy about it.

Eg. "When she heard the results of the exam, Caroline was over the moon!"

III/ Agreement

1. clinch a deal

In a business relationship, if you clinch a deal, you reach agreement on a proposal or offer.

Eg. "Tom's final argument enabled us to clinch the deal."

2. a done deal

This expression is used to refer to an agreement or decision which has been reached on a certain matter

Eg. "We're still considering several proposals, so it's not a done deal yet."

3. Birds in their little nests agree

Housemates should try to treat each other amicably.

E.g. Even though I know that birds in their little nests agree, I can't seem to stop myself from arguing with my sister all the time.

5. Bury the hatchet

When people who have had a disagreement decide to forget their quarrel and become friends again, they bury the hatchet.

E.g. "I didn't agree with my colleague's decision, but for the sake of peace, I decided to bury the hatchet."

IV/ Disagreement

1. Much ado about nothing

If people make much ado about nothing, they make a lot of fuss about something which is not important.

E.g. "A discussion took place about the colour of the receptionist's shoes - much ado about nothing!"

2. Argue the toss

If you argue the toss, you dispute a decision or choice which has already been made.

E.g. "The final choice was made yesterday, so don't argue the toss now!"

3. All hell broke loose

If you say that all hell broke loose, you mean that there was a sudden angry or noisy reaction to something.

E.g. "When it was announced that the plant was going to close down all hell broke loose."

4. Blamestorming

A discussion among a group of people who try to determine who or what is to blame for a particular mistake, failure or wrongdoing, is called 'blamestorming'.

"A blamestorming session took place following the unfavourable reviews in the press."

4. Bone to pick

If you have a bone to pick with someone, you are annoyed with them and want to talk to them about it.

E.g. "Mark wants to see the boss. He says he's got a bone to pick with him."

Appendix X

NPARTESTS

/WILCOXON=MTa MTc WITH MTb MTd (PAIRED)

/MISSING ANALYSIS.

Tests non paramétriques

Remarques		
Sortie obtenue		05-MAY-2021 16:03:17
Commentaires		
Entrée	Données	C:\Users\lokman\Desktop\ CHADIA.sav FINSH.sav
	Jeu de données actif	Jeu_de_données1
	Filtre	<sans>
	Pondération	<sans>
	Scinder un fichier	<sans>
	N de lignes dans le fichier de travail	25
Gestion des valeurs manquantes	Définition de la valeur manquante	Les valeurs manquantes définies par l'utilisateur sont traitées comme étant manquantes.
	Observations utilisées	Les statistiques pour chaque test sont basées sur toutes les observations dotées de données valides pour les variables utilisées dans le test.
Syntaxe		NPARTESTS /WILCOXON=MTa MTc WITH MTb MTd (PAIRED) /MISSING ANALYSIS.
Ressources	Temps de processeur	00:00:00,02
	Temps écoulé	00:00:00,06
	Nombre d'observations autorisées ^a	349525

a. Basée sur la disponibilité de la mémoire de l'espace de travail.

Test de classement de Wilcoxon

Rangs				
		N	Rang moyen :	Somme des rangs
total Ex-post - total Ex-pret	Rangs négatifs	3 ^a	5,33	16,00
	Rangs positifs	21 ^b	13,52	284,00
	Ex aequo	0 ^c		
		Total	24	
total Con-post - total Con-pret	Rangs négatifs	6 ^d	9,83	59,00
	Rangs positifs	19 ^e	14,00	266,00
	Ex aequo	0 ^f		
		Total	25	

a. total Ex-post < total Ex-prêt
b. total Ex-post > total Ex-prêt
c. total Ex-post = total Ex-prêt
d. total Con-post < total Con-prêt
e. total Con-post > total Con-prêt
f. total Con-post = total Con-prêt

Tests statistiques ^a		
	total Ex-post - total Ex- pret	total Con- post - total Con-pret
Z	-3,829 ^b	-2,785 ^b
Sig. asymptotique (bilatérale)	,000	,005

a. Test de classement de Wilcoxon
b. Basée sur les rangs négatifs.

/M-W= T1 T2 T3 TT BY GROUPE(1 3)

/MISSING ANALYSIS.

Tests non paramétriques

Remarques

Sortie obtenue		11-MAY-2021 00:47:42
Commentaires		
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	Jeu de données actif	Jeu_de_données1
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	Pondération	<sans>
	Scinder un fichier	<sans>
	N de lignes dans le fichier de travail	98
Gestion des valeurs manquantes	Définition de la valeur manquante	Les valeurs manquantes définies par l'utilisateur sont traitées comme étant manquantes.
	Observations utilisées	Les statistiques pour chaque test sont basées sur toutes les observations dotées de données valides pour les variables utilisées dans le test.
Syntaxe		<pre> NPAR TESTS /M-W= T1 T2 T3 TT BY GROUPE(1 3) /MISSING ANALYSIS.</pre>
Ressources	Temps de processeur	00:00:00,00
	Temps écoulé	00:00:00,02
	Nombre d'observations autorisées ^a	314572

a. Basée sur la disponibilité de la mémoire de l'espace de travail.

Test de Mann-Whitney

		Rangs		
	GROUPE	N	Rang moyen :	Somme des rangs
ACCURACY	experimental pretest	24	28,17	676,00
	control pretest	25	21,96	549,00
	Total	49		
FLUENCY	experimental pretest	24	26,04	625,00
	control pretest	25	24,00	600,00
	Total	49		
COMPLEXITY	experimental pretest	24	25,13	603,00
	control pretest	25	24,88	622,00
	Total	49		
TOTAL	experimental pretest	24	26,71	641,00
	control pretest	25	23,36	584,00
	Total	49		

Tests statistiques^a				
	ACCURACY	FLUENCY	COMPLEXITY	TOTAL
	Y	Y	TY	TOTAL
U de Mann-Whitney	224,000	275,000	297,000	259,000
W de Wilcoxon	549,000	600,000	622,000	584,000
Z	-1,520	-,500	-,060	-,820
Sig. asymptotique (bilatérale)	,129	,617	,952	,412

a. Variable de regroupement : GROUPE

NPART TESTS

/M-W= T1 T2 T3 TT BY GROUPE(2 4)

/MISSING ANALYSIS.

Tests non paramétriques

Remarques	
Sortie obtenue	11-MAY-2021 00:48:06
Commentaires	

Entrée	Données	C:\Users\lokman\Desktop\CHADIA.sav FINSH - Copie.sav
	Jeu de données actif	Jeu_de_données1
	Filtre	<sans>
	Pondération	<sans>
	Scinder un fichier	<sans>
	N de lignes dans le fichier de travail	98
Gestion des valeurs manquantes	Définition de la valeur manquante	Les valeurs manquantes définies par l'utilisateur sont traitées comme étant manquantes.
	Observations utilisées	Les statistiques pour chaque test sont basées sur toutes les observations dotées de données valides pour les variables utilisées dans le test.
Syntaxe		NPAR TESTS /M-W= T1 T2 T3 TT BY GROUPE(2 4) /MISSING ANALYSIS.
Ressources	Temps de processeur	00:00:00,03
	Temps écoulé	00:00:00,04
	Nombre d'observations autorisées ^a	314572

a. Basée sur la disponibilité de la mémoire de l'espace de travail.

Test de Mann-Whitney

		Rangs		
	GROUPE	N	Rang moyen :	Somme des rangs
ACCURACY	experimental	24	34,00	816,00
	posttest			
	control posttest	25	16,36	409,00
	Total	49		

FLUENCY	expermental posttest	24	17,54	421,00
	control posttest	25	32,16	804,00
	Total	49		
COMPLEXI TY	expermental posttest	24	30,46	731,00
	control posttest	25	19,76	494,00
	Total	49		
TOTAL	expermental posttest	24	29,33	704,00
	control posttest	25	20,84	521,00
	Total	49		

Tests statistiques^a

	ACCURAC Y	FLUENC Y	COMPLEXI TY	TOTAL
U de Mann-Whitney	84,000	121,000	169,000	196,000
W de Wilcoxon	409,000	421,000	494,000	521,000
Z	-4,320	-3,580	-2,620	-2,080
Sig. asymptotique (bilatérale)	,000	,000	,009	,038

a. Variable de regroupement : GROUPE

- c. It enhances learners' comprehension of the material exposed through negotiating the meaning?
- d. It promotes learners' retention (remembering) and metacognitive strategies (such as planning/ monitoring the process of learning)?
- e. It builds social skills that are needed in professional life?
- f. It creates positive attitudes towards the process of learning the language.
- g. It enhances learners' self-esteem.
- h. It develops learners' motivation to learn.
- i. It decreases learners' anxiety in classroom.

6. To what extent do you think cooperating with your peers is important in developing your social interaction and strengthening your relationships?

- a. Extremely b. significantly c. moderately d. not at all

7. Do you think that working in groups/pairs is more beneficial than working individually to develop your language abilities?

- a. Yes b. No c. Not sure

8. Please indicate the frequency of your teacher's assignment to perform Group/pair works.

Frequency → Types of Tasks ↓	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Pair Work					
Group Work					

9. The teacher sets you to work on group/pair work oral presentations in:

- a. classroom context b. outside classroom context c. both contexts

10. In arranging group/pair work tasks, does your teacher:

- a. Explain and elucidate to the whole class how the task should be performed?
- b. Give the learners the freedom to decide about how to perform the task?
- c. Discuss the ways of performing the task with each group?

11. Does your teacher train you how to work cooperatively to perform a task?

- a. Yes b. No

12. Which one (s) of the following do you adopt as principle (s) while working in a group to perform an oral presentation?

- a. You feel interdependent to your peers in the group and each member in the group is responsible for making the whole performance successful (your success is related to their success and vice versa.)
- b. You feel responsible towards performing only your part of the task.
- c. You feel that your part of the task should be the best among the others' parts.
- d. You assist your peers to achieve their parts of the task.
- e. You discuss/evaluate each time how well each group member functioned while performing his/her part.

13. When starting to work on a group/pair oral presentation, does your teacher distribute roles to the members of the groups?

- a. Yes
- b. No

14. To what extent do you assume responsibility while preparing cooperatively an oral presentation?

- a. Extremely
- b. significantly
- c. moderately
- d. not at all

15. Please respond to the following statements by showing the frequency of using the following principles by selecting *always, often, sometimes, rarely* and *never*.

Frequency→ Principles↓	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a. During the preparation of the task, I constantly encourage my partner (s) by addressing positive feedback.					
b. During the preparation of the task, I help my partner (s) whenever he/she/they find difficulty in understanding the task.					
c. During the preparation of the task, I help my partner (s) to finish his/her/their part.					
d. During the preparation of the task, I challenge my partner(s)'s conclusions and contributions for promoting the whole group performance.					

16. Along the preparation for the group oral presentation, you:

- a. Listen to your partner(s) to understand his/her/their perspectives.
- b. Provide constructive criticism.
- c. Communicate with your partner(s) to accept differences in standpoints.
- d. Do not tolerate the others' opposing perspectives.
- f. Feel marginalized and isolated as some peers manipulate and get control of the group discussion.
- g. Shift away from the target of the assigned task and discuss other irrelevant issues.

17. Once you get done with the preparation for the oral presentation, do you reflect (think deeply) on the whole process in which the task was performed?

- a. Yes
- b. No

18. If yes, you do it by:

- a. Evaluating each member's contribution to the work.
- b. Taking decisions so as to change unproductive contributions.
- c. Both.

19. To what extent, do you think meeting to work together before the oral presentation would help providing opportunities to all the members to reflect on their achieved part before exposing it orally in front of the class?

- a. Extremely
- b. significantly
- c. moderately
- d. not at all

20. When your OE teacher assigns you a task to perform with other peers, do you

- a. Keep working for many weeks with the same groupmates to perform many tasks (more than one session)?
- b. Work with different groupmates each time to perform a task within each session?
- c. Keep working for the whole academic year or at least a semester with the same groupmates to perform all the tasks?

21. In forming cooperative groups, does the teacher give you the freedom to select your partners in the group?

- a. Yes
- b. No

22. How many peers are usually gathered per group?

- a. Two
- b. Three
- c. Four
- d. Five
- e. Six and more

23. While presenting pair/group work, does the teacher play a:

a. Central role?

b. Minor role?

SECTION THREE: Speaking Practices in EFL Classroom

24. In your perspective, speaking English as a foreign language is:

a. An easy process.

b. A complicated process.

c. Not sure.

Please explain:

.....
.....
...

25. Which of the following do you think most develops EFL learners' speaking skill?

a. Listening to native speakers/ competent speakers of the language.

b. Practising the language with other speakers of the language (as teachers and peers).

c. Both.

26. Would you please rank the following from the most to the least important in terms of focus while speaking by using numbers: (1. Most important 2. Important 3. least important)

a. Accuracy (using correct pronunciation/grammar/vocabulary)?

b. Fluency (communicating with no difficulties/pauses and hesitations)?

c. Complexity of the produced speech (in terms of the structure and the varieties of discourse)?

27. While evaluating the students' oral presentations, how often does the teacher focus on the following?

Frequency→	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Aspects↓					
a. Pronunciation (stress/intonation..)					
b. Grammar Correctness					

c. Vocabulary					
d. The flow of speech and spontaneity					
e. The content of speech					
f. Others:					

28. To what extent do you usually feel anxious while communicating orally with your peers/teacher?

- a. Extremely b. significantly c. moderately d. not at all

29. If (a/b/c/ options are chosen), which of the following strategy (es) do you make use of to overcome communication breakdown?

- a. Paraphrasing, using synonyms.....
b. Self-monitoring and self-evaluating your speech by noticing your language first and then reconsidering/revising what you said beforehand.
c. Repeating parts of your speech, asking your interlocutor to clarify more, using examples to explain concepts and asking for help with difficult words.
d. Others:

.....
.....

30. Which one(s) of the following tasks are you assigned to perform in OE classes?

- a. Communication gap activities (in which you complete a task with other partners in the group, such as puzzles, describing things...etc.)
b. Discussion tasks and debates.
c. Role plays.
d. Others:

.....
.....

31. How often does the teacher rely on the following types of assessment to evaluate the students' oral presentations?

Frequency→ _____	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Assessment types ↓					

a. The teacher's assessment.					
b. Peers' assessment.					
c. Self-assessment.					

32. After performing your group/pair work oral presentations, does your teacher:

- a. Evaluate and give feedback about the presentation of each individual?
- b. Evaluate and give feedback about the overall presentation?
- c. Evaluate and give feedback about each individual's performance and then evaluate the whole presentation?

33. When you perform orally with your peers, do you:

- a. Prefer to get a grade (mark) upon your own part in the oral presentation?
- b. Prefer to get a grade upon the overall oral presentation (all the group members should get the same mark)?

SECTION FOUR: Learning Speaking under the Cooperative Learning

Method in EFL Classroom.

34. Would you, please, indicate how much you agree with the following statements by ticking Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), Undecided (U), and Strongly Disagree (SD)

Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. Despite the fact that peers cooperate to achieve oral performances, each one is accountable/responsible of the whole task fulfilment.					
2. When set to work on an oral group task, learners should work and think cooperatively rather than competitively or individually.					
3. Cooperation with peers strengthens social relationships and may result in better oral performance.					
4. Successful oral presentations are reward to every peer in the group.					
5. Interacting verbally with other peers gives opportunities to practise the language better than they do in individual presentations.					
6. Cooperation decreases learners' language speaking anxiety. 5 i					
7. Cooperation enhances learners' motivation and willingness to speak.					
8. Cooperation develops learners 'self-esteem while speaking.					
9. Cooperating with peers develops learners' accuracy as they are given chances to notice and correct their grammar mistakes.					

10. Cooperation paves the way for learners to learn more vocabulary items.					
11. Cooperation helps learners correct their pronunciation mistakes.					
12. Cooperation enhances learners' fluency.					
13. Negotiating meaning with other peers in the group gives the chance to learners observe how advanced speakers make use of complex language (complex grammar structures, the use of some genre discourses in different cultural settings).					
14. Learners should be allowed and trained to self-assess/evaluate their oral performance.					
15. Learners should be allowed and trained to assess/evaluate their peers' oral performance.					
16. The teacher should be the only one who evaluates/assesses learners' oral performances.					
17. The speaking classes should be controlled by the learners and the teacher's role should be minimized as much as possible.					
18. Working cooperatively on oral tasks may lead to noisy oral classes.					
19. Working cooperatively on oral tasks may lead to the total reliance on active peers.					
20. Working cooperatively on oral tasks may create conflicts among peers.					
21. The teacher should distribute different roles on the groupmates to make sure that every peer is effectively working on his/her part of the task.					

SECTION FIVE: Further Suggestions

35. Would you, please, add any suggestions or comments on the learning of the speaking skill under the cooperative language method.

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Thank you so much for your cooperation.

Appendix Z

Symbols for Phonemes (British English)

ɪ	as in 'pit'	i:	as in 'key'
e	as in 'pet'	ɑ:	as in 'car'
æ	as in 'pat'	ɔ:	as in 'core'
ʌ	as in 'put'	u:	as in 'coo'
ɒ	as in 'pot'	ɜ:	as in 'cur'
ʊ	as in 'put'		
ə	as in 'about' , 'upper'		
ɛɪ	as in 'bay'	əʊ	as in 'go'
aɪ	as in 'buy'	aʊ	as in 'cow'
ɔɪ	as in 'boy'		
ɪə	as in 'peer'		
eə	as in 'pear'		
ʊə	as in 'poor'		
p	as in 'pea'	b	as in 'bee'
t	as in 'toe'	d	as in 'doe'
k	as in 'cap'	g	as in 'gap'
f	as in 'fat'	v	as in 'vat'
θ	as in 'thing'	ð	as in 'this'
s	as in 'sip'	z	as in 'zip'
ʃ	as in 'ship'	ʒ	as in 'measure'
h	as in 'hat'	l	as in 'led'
m	as in 'map'	r	as in 'red'
n	as in 'nap'	j	as in 'yet'
ŋ	as in 'hang'	w	as in 'wet'
tʃ	as in 'chin'	dʒ	as in 'gin'

Résumé

La présente étude quasi-expérimentale tente de sonder l'efficacité de la méthode d'apprentissage coopératif dans le développement de l'habileté à parler. Sur la base de l'hypothèse générale selon laquelle l'apprentissage coopératif peut entraîner des résultats positifs dans l'amélioration de la précision, de la fluidité et de la complexité de la parole, l'étude a été menée selon un plan de recherche à méthodes mixtes. Deux instruments de collecte de données quantitatives ont été utilisés. Premièrement, un questionnaire a été adressé à 69 des 258 étudiants de première année de premier cycle de langue anglaise à l'université Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia-Jijel. Conçu principalement pour inspecter leurs attitudes concernant l'apprentissage de la compétence orale via l'apprentissage coopératif, le questionnaire visait également à dévoiler les pratiques en classe pour examiner comment les principes de cette méthode sont appliqués. La conception de groupe non équivalente prétest-post-test a été utilisée comme deuxième outil de collecte de données quantitatives pour étudier l'impact de la méthode d'apprentissage coopératif sur un échantillon de la performance orale de 49 participants. En outre, des discussions de groupe ont été menées avec 23 participants pour rendre compte des avantages et des inconvénients de la méthode appliquée dans les classes d'expression orale. Les résultats de la recherche ont révélé la grande appréciation et la volonté des participants de coopérer tout en performant oralement, bien que de telles pratiques n'aient pas été pleinement coopératives. Plus important encore, les résultats ont confirmé les hypothèses articulées car les tests ont révélé une différence statistiquement significative dans la performance des deux groupes en faveur du groupe expérimental dans les trois caractéristiques de la parole (précision, fluidité et complexité). Être sur-contrôlé par certains pairs dans les groupes et enclin à la moquerie ont été les facteurs les plus négatifs rencontrés dans le traitement. Ainsi, la méthode a été jugée puissante pour améliorer certaines composantes du langage, les aspects psychologiques et sociaux. À la lumière de ces résultats, certaines recommandations et suggestions pédagogiques sont avancées.

Mots clefs : la méthode d'apprentissage Coopératif, l'expression orale, Précision, Fluidité, Complexité

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة شبه التجريبية الى التحقق من فعالية أسلوب التعلّم التعاوني في تنمية مهارة التحدث، استنادًا إلى الفرضية العامة التي تنصّ على كون التعلّم التعاوني قادرًا على تحقيق نتائج إيجابية فيما يخصّ تعزيز دقة، وطلاقة، وتعقيد مهارة التحدث. وقد أجريت الدراسة من خلال تصميم بحث متعدّد الوسائل، أين تم استخدام أداتين لجمع البيانات الكميّة، إحداهما عبارة عن استبيان وُجّه إلى 69 طالبة من أصل 258 في السنة الأولى بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة محمد الصديق بن يحيى - جيجل. وقد تمّ تصميم الاستبيان بشكل أساسي بهدف معرفة آراء الطلبة حول تعلّم مهارة التحدث من خلال أسلوب التعلّم التعاوني، كما يهدف الاستبيان إلى معرفة كيفية تطبيق مبادئ هذه الطريقة. في حين تتمثّل الوسيلة الثانية المستخدمة لجمع البيانات الكميّة في تصميم مجموعة الاختبار القبلي والبعدي غير متكافئ، بغية التحقيق في تأثير أسلوب التعلّم التعاوني على الأداء الشفهي لعينة مكوّنة من 49 مشارك، إذ تمّ إجراء مقابلات مركزة للمناقشة الجماعية مع 23 مشارك، لتحديد مزايا وعيوب الطريقة المطبقة خلال حصص التعبير الشفهي. وقد كشفت نتائج البحث عن التقدير العالي للأداء الشفهي من قبل المشاركين، واستعدادهم للتعاون أثناء أدائهم، على الرغم من كون هذه الممارسات غير تعاونية بشكل كامل. والأهم من ذلك أن النتائج قد أكدت صحّة الفرضية المقترحة، حيث كشفت نتائج الاختبارات عن وجود فروق إحصائية كبيرة بين أداء المجموعتين، أين تفوّقت المجموعة التجريبية على نظيرتها فيما يخصّ سمات مهارة التحدث الثلاث (الدقة، والطلاقة، والتعقيد). ويعدّ التحكّم المفرط من قبل بعض العناصر في المجموعات، وتعرّض بعضهم الآخر للسخرية من قبل زملائهم، من أكثر العوامل السلبية المسجّلة عبر مراحل الدراسة، ومن جهة أخرى تعتبر هذه الطريقة فعّالة في تعزيز بعض المكونات اللغوية للطلبة، على غرار تدعيم بعض الجوانب النفسية والاجتماعية لديهم. وقد تمّ على ضوء هذه النتائج، تقديم بعض التوصيات والاقتراحات التربوية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: أسلوب التعلّم التعاوني، الأداء الشفهي، الدقة، الطلاقة، التعقيد.