The Impact of Simulation Activities on Listening and Speaking Proficiency Development: An Experimental Study of Second Year Students of English at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1

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DEDICATION

To my beloved parents

To my brothers and sisters Zakaria, Islam, Fouzia, and Nada

To my aunt Soria

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ABSTRACT

In the light of the increasing demand on communication, the motor of international integration, oral communication has particularly become the foremost concern of English language teachers. Simulation is considered one of the most potential activities; teachers apply, to activate learners' speaking and listening in the interaction process. The present research investigates the impact of simulation activities on the teaching and learning of speaking and listening at the Department of Letters and the English Language, University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1. Indeed, this thesis sheds light on the students' perception of the benefits and challenges they encounter through simulation as well as teachers' views and recommendations for exploiting this activity in second year EFL classrooms. We hypothesize, then, that when teachers apply simulation technique; this would develop second year EFL students' listening and speaking proficiency. We also hypothesize that applying simulation teaching technique would stimulate students' positive attitudes and interest. A sample pre and post-test comparison study was used as a research methodology. In addition, this study is based on a questionnaire that was distributed to 40 second year students of English. The results reveal that the mean of communicative speaking testing scores in the post-test was significantly higher than in the pre-test at .05 significant level with (t = 2.90) in Exp. G. 1 and (t= 3.57) in Exp. G. 2. The first hypothesis is is consequently confirmed with slight reservation about listening improvement which does not allow complete confirmation of the first hypothesis. The Second hypothesis is validated as over 80% of students in both experimental groups held positive attitudes towards simulation activities. Besides, most of the teachers acknowledged their positive impact on students' performance and the classroom environment. Suggestions and recommendations are made as to how to improve and maximise the teaching and learning advantages using simulation technique.

Keywords: Simulation activities, the speaking proficiency, the listening proficiency.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CL: Collaborative Learning

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

EGAP: English for General Academic Purposes

ESAP: English for Specific Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: Second Language Learning

ELT: English Language Teaching

Exp. G.: Experimental Group

FL: Foreign Language

IQR: Interquartile Range

IRF: initiate-respond-follow up

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

LMD: Licence Master Doctorate

Mdn: Median

N: Number of Students or Teachers

OE: Oral Expression

OPI: Oral Proficiency Interview

PBL: Problem-based learning

PPP: Presentation Practice Production

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TBL: Task-based Learning

vs.: Versus

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Statement of the Problem

In spite of the fact that the ultimate aim of language teaching is to enable learners to use the language they have learned to communicate to the world outside the classroom, language teaching focuses on teaching about the language and not about what learners do with the language. The foremost problem appears to be how to prepare efficient learners to be able to handle the real-world language use properly, that is to say, enabling the students to become vigorous participants in different positions in the professional as well as academic situations. Recently, it has been realised that active learning, that is to say learning by doing, becomes the cornerstone of learning experience as acquired knowledge needs generic skills to be at work any time the learners call for language use.

Due to the increasing demand over professionalism in communication in varied conversational contexts, all language skills in general and the speaking and the listening skills in particular are considerably required by EFL students because they are supposed to receive and understand an input (listening), and produce appropriate output (speaking) in real oral communication settings. As a result, the need for competence in listening and speaking is the goal of course designers as well as teachers. Nevertheless, unfortunately, teachers and learners tend to neglect the value of listening in the process of communication. In addition to that the area of teaching listening comprehension is perceived as the least researched skill despite its importance in L2 learning. Moreover, in spite of the fact that "listening must be done in real time" (Brown, 2006, p.4), Algerian EFL students have fewer opportunities to focus on listening in face-to-face interactions in the classroom because one way listening (watching television, listening to audio, video, and radio podcasts) is the dominating teaching method. Reviewing the pedagogical recent practices, interactive language teaching seems to find its way to EFL classes to remedy the disorder of the teaching of listening. The adoption of

interaction in Oral Expression class, which integrates speaking and listening and promotes communication skills, has led to a considerable label change. As a result, interactive listening replaces one-way listening which teachers focus on in the few occasions they teach listening. To justify the new labelling, Vandergrift (1997) says that emphasizing interactive listening in ordinary social discourse, lead to a more general and important role in L2 classrooms. Furthermore, the same author (2004) argues that interactive listening is the technique that listeners engage in most frequently.

This study puts essentially two points at issue; the first is the discernibility of language knowledge in the outside world and the second is the possibility of teaching both the speaking and listening skills together to share mutual influence against which the manifestation of language in real-life conversational settings could be achieved. The nature of the two aforementioned problems urges to investigate the ways to teaching integrative listening and speaking format in real-life situations in EFL Algerian classrooms. Researchers agreed, thus, on active teaching and learning methodologies in general and simulation methodology in particular as it models real-life situations where speaking and listening are interactively used to activate effective communication as a need to achieve different functional purposes and not as a goal per se (Jones, 1982).

In spite of the fact that simulation activity "ideally suited to language practice"(Jones, 1982, p. 2) and simulations and language are "virtually inseparable"(Jones, ibid, p. 7), this method has grown rapidly in the pedagogical non-ELT literature such as agricultural economics (Blank, 1985; Madsa, 2012), thus, there seems to be a paucity of research on the impact of this method on developing EFL learners' language competence on a broader front and speaking skills and listening comprehension ability on a narrower front. Simulation is then applied in this study to second year students of English at the Department of Letters and the English Language, University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1 in order to boost

students' oral communicative competence by giving particularly more importance to speaking and listening proficiency.

2. Aim of the Study

Based on the problems stated in the previous section, this study aims to investigate the effectiveness of using simulation as a classroom activity on Algerian EFL learners' speaking and listening ability. More specifically, this study has two main objectives; first to prove the efficacy of simulation activities in developing students' speaking and listening proficiency, particularly, for second year students of English at the department of Letters and the English Language, University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1, second to study the students' interests and attitude towards the impact of simulation activity on teaching the speaking and listening skills.

3. Research Questions

The following are the questions that are to be answered in the present study:

-Do second year Oral Expression teachers at the department of Letters and the English language use simulation activities in their classes?

- What are the teachers' views about implementing simulation activities in oral expression in second year syllabus?

-Do simulation techniques improve the students listening / speaking and communication skills? And

-Do simulation techniques improve the students' interest and attitudes?

4. Research Hypotheses

In the light of the present research concerns, tow hypotheses have been made. We hypothesise that when teachers apply simulation technique in second year EFL classrooms, this would develop students' listening and speaking proficiency. We further hypothesize that

applying simulation teaching technique would stimulate second year students' interests and positive attitudes.

5. Means of Research and Procedures

The data, needed for validating the research hypotheses, are collected using two questionnaires and a quasi-experiment. More specifically, in an attempt to answer the questions about the teachers' views about the simulation activity and the students' attitudes towards this activity, we opted for questionnaires that seek for qualitative data, while for the hypothesis which is concerned with the effectiveness of the simulation activity, a one group pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental design is applied for a quantitative analysis. In order to add more reliability to this research, two different experimental groups were enrolled in the experiment. Both groups of students received the same learning condition, so that their oral performances can be fairly compared. Both are provided with instruction of multiple simulation activities for about three months (12 weeks). The instructional period is meant to acquaint learners with this technique and to give enough time to judge its influence. The pre-test, post-test and the questionnaire of the students are administered in two different points of time, that is immediately before and after the intervention. The pre-test aims at collecting data about the students' actual level in speaking and listening before the intervention. The post-test intends to check the improvement of the dependent variables (speaking and listening proficiency in relation to the manipulated independent variable (simulation activities), by comparison with the pre-test results. The pre-questionnaire serves to elicit information about students' interest in language learning and attitudes about the language activities which have been used in Oral Expression classes, whereas the post-questionnaire, which is administered after the intervention, provides data which would confirm the foreseeable changes in students' interests and attitudes after dealing with all the simulation activities.

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A teachers' questionnaire is administered to the Oral Expression teachers, particularly those who teach or have taught second year students. It intends to give a clear insight about whether they use simulation activities in their classes and their opinion about the usability and efficacy of simulation activities to develop second year students' oral/aural skills. This questionnaire also attempts to elicit the teachers' views about the implementation of simulation activities in second year Oral Expression syllabus to boost students' learning.

6. Structure of the Thesis

The study is developed in seven chapters that are consecutively content-interrelated. The first three chapters deal with the literature review. The thesis ends with the practical framework which is developed in four chapters. The first chapter "The Communicative Oral Skills" focuses on the speaking construct in relation to communicative competence and the listening construct in the light of its interactive nature. It shows that speaking and interactive listening can be taught interactively when the aim is to attain effective communication. It also suggests the activities that adhere to the integrative teaching format which this chapter adopts. Furthermore, this chapter deals with the approaches to assessing speaking and listening in interactive real-life situations.

The second chapter "Simulation Task-based Learning and Teaching" sheds light on the instructional area of the research. It elicits the definition of simulation activity on a broader front, including its relation with experiential learning theory, communication, reality and real-life task. The chapter devotes, specifically, a considerable attention to the difference between simulation activity, role-play and games. It also considers the benefits of the simulation activity. Simulation task in ELT context is discussed in this chapter along with this technique's applications in the classroom. Interestingly, this chapter casts some light on the way simulation activity is used as a way of assessment.

Communication for academic purposes is the main concern of the third chapter "Communication in Academic Context: Classroom Focus". This chapter describes communication in academic discourse and style and emphasizes the way this communication is incorporated in the language classroom. The overlapping areas between Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the EAP methodology are then discussed, notably, authenticity, real-life communication, teachers/learners' role, and cooperative and collaborative learning in task-based communication are the main areas this chapter reviews in relation to simulation methodology principles.

Chapter four, "Pilot study and Experimental Design", is devoted to the description of the experimental design which is basically developed in two sections. The first section speaks about the pilot study, its shortcomings, its results and its implications in the main study. A brief explanation of the experimental design and the sampling procedure belongs to the second section. In addition to that this section involves a thorough explanation of how the instruction (the six simulation activities used in this study) in this experiment works.

"EFL Students' Questionnaire Analysis" is dealt with in chapter five. This chapter is concerned with the students' questionnaire. It starts with a description of the questionnaire and the procedures of its administration. A deep analysis of all the pre/post-questionnaires is followed. Finally, the fifth chapter suffices a generic analysis of the results which deals basically with a comparison of the pre/post test results and interpretations of the questionnaire feedback.

Chapter six, "Teachers' Questionnaire Analysis", is concerned with the teachers' questionnaire. Firstly, this chapter deals with investigating whether the Oral Expression teachers use or have used the simulation activities in their classes in addition to their views about their effectives in second year Oral Expression classes, after describing the sample and

the questionnaire. Secondly, it provides an analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire results.

Chapter seven "Interpretation of Results and Research Findings" aims at presenting a practical part of the study. It intends to measure the impact of using simulation activities on students speaking and listening proficiency. Moreover, it presents the analysis and interpretation of the results obtained from the experiment, more specifically from the comparable results found in the pre-test and post-test conditions which reveal that simulation activity is completely effective in developing both speaking and listening. The findings were confirmed by the teachers who despite the fact they use this technique restrictively in the Oral Expression class, they believe in the necessity to implement them. Students likewise held positive attitudes after they dealt with the simulation activities. Thus, all the hypotheses stated in this study are confirmed. Based on the results obtained from all the aforementioned chapters, some implications of the present research are drawn. Some pedagogical practices are highlighted especially about the importance of simulation activities in stimulating the EFL learner. It also foretells the recommendations for future research that essentially stress classroom constraints, students' availability for innovation in learning, and the possible domains that simulation activity may be used in. Finally, research limitations about the timing in the simulation activities, sample characteristics and materials are dealt with.

CHAPTER ONE:

THE COMMUNICATIVE ORAL SKILLS

Chapter One: The Communicative Oral Skills

Introduction

As one of the major purposes of learning foreign languages, particularly English, is the ability to communicate meaningfully and effectively with other users of the target language, this chapter foregrounds both the speaking and listening skills in foreign language instruction. The activation of the learners' learning in relation to the appropriate language teaching practices has been assigned a considerable value in this review. Noteworthy, this chapter does not present merely the rational of the process of listening and speaking, but attempts to bridge the gap between successful listening comprehension and speaking production by focusing on specific conditions for oral interaction (e.g. real life tasks, language strategies, integration of both skills in the teaching process, and their assessment).

1.1 The Construct of Speaking

Speaking is perceived as an indispensable skill for foreign language learners and it is coined with the mastery of language (Bygate, 1987), since it is popularly assumed that knowing or learning a language centrally involves being able to 'speak' it. Conventionally, within the audio-lingual approach, speaking means uttering words or to be more precise, it starts centrally with the pronunciation of phonemes. According to Harmer (2008) speaking is more than pronouncing phonemes correctly; however, it refers to the ability to use a range of conversational strategies in functional exchanges. He (ibid) adds that speaking is no more than using a language for a purpose with given participants. Hence, speaking is coined with the act of communicating specific goals with a partner in social situations. In other words, it refers to the interactional process where both speaker and listener manipulate meaning with the purpose of communication.

Considering the prior definitions, speaking can be defined in terms of grammar, phonology features as well as interactive aspects, hence, the shifts from the bottom-up

linguistic view (starting from the smallest sound units to individual words and then semantic meaning) to top-down view schematic view (using background knowledge and the context) to define speaking became clear. Far more vision of speaking includes the special nature of speaking that according to Luoma (2004) expressed in the form of spoken grammar and spoken vocabulary.

1.1.1 Theories of the Understanding of the Speaking Act

The influential work of the generative-grammarian Chomsky brought the focus on the perfect innate ability which is shared by all languages (Universal Grammar) to the front. Chomsky considered competence, over performance, as a focal factor in the language exploration. Noam Chomsky asserts (1965):

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (p. 3)

Chomsky, by this assertion, makes a distinction between speaker's ideal linguistic knowledge (competence) and language that speakers actually produce (performance). He establishes that the speaker-listener's internal grammar that judges the grammaticality of sentences should be the main object of investigation for linguists. Later in the history of linguistic enquiry, Austin (1962) developed the theory that accounts for language use in real communication. Austin focused the attention on patterns of interaction, that is, how listeners interpret the speakers' intentions of their utterances. In 1975, Grice, in the same line of thought as Austin, provided another understanding which relates the inference of utterances meaning to contextual factors and principles. Accordingly, Grice proposed the cooperative principle in the form of four maxims:

- Quality (try to make your contribution one that is true)

- Quantity (make your contribution as informative as necessary, but not more)

- Relevance (do not say what if not relevant)

- Manner (be brief and orderly, avoid obscurity and ambiguity) (pp. 45-46)

Social communication, then, governed the understanding of oral communication. Thus, how far speaking is manifested in terms of appropriateness in social context was stressed by Hymes (1972). Hymes (1972) was inspired by the Chomskyan account of competence and performance and their interrelationship and a continuum of Austin and Grice's work. Hymes (1972) defines communicative competence as language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology and phonology, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. In other words, he argues that there are competences that go beyond the Chomskyan linguistic competence. He (ibid) proposes that we should study the knowledge that people have when they communicate messages in social contexts. Hymes's definition clearly demonstrates a shift of emphasis, away from the study of language as a structural system in isolation, the main focus of Chomsky (1965) work, towards the study of language as communication through extending its scope to include contextual appropriateness.

Many scholars such as Canale and Swain (1980), Bachman (1990) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) and (1997), later, further developed the theoretical grounding of communicative competence and attempted to redefine and refine Hymes's original construct of this competence to make it instructionally tangible and relevant to language teaching. Canale & Swain (1980) investigated the components of the native speakers' communicative competence and the way that they could be incorporated into ELT syllabus design. The widely common model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), includes three-component framework for communicative competence. Canale (1983) extends them to become four component competences:

Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of the linguistic system of the target language; it is what Chomsky referred to as linguistic competence. It indicates learners' grammatical and lexical capacity.

Sociolinguistic competence refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place, includes understanding of socio-cultural rules of language use in a particular context, role relationships, the shared information of the participants, and the communicative purpose for their interaction.

Discourse competence refers to the interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their interconnectedness and of how meaning is represented in relationship to the entire discourse or text in order to achieve coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written discourse)

Strategic competence refers the ability to employ various strategies effectively to initiate and terminate communication and repair communication breakdowns.

On the other hand, Bachman (1990) provides a different model of communicative language ability that is composed of three components, namely language competence, strategic competence and physiological mechanisms. The former comprises two further components: organizational which consists of grammatical and textual competence (discourse competence as in Canale and Swain's model (1980), besides, pragmatic competence which consists of illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Organizational competence refers to knowledge of speech acts and language functions and pragmatic competence refers to the knowledge of how to use language functions appropriately in a given context. Apart from language competence, the model also includes strategic competence and physiological mechanisms. The former refers to the mental capacity to implement language competence appropriately in the situation in which communication takes place. In this concern Skehan (1998) asserts that the capacity underlying Bachman's strategic competence

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is partly cognitive because of the nature of the operations it involves and metacognitive in the other part since there can be self-awareness built into these operations. Whereas, the latter (psychological) refers to the neurological and psychological processes that are involved in language use. Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) provided their own division of communicative competence into linguistic, sociocultural, strategic, discourse and actional competencies. In this model, discourse competence is described as the core competence of communicative competence; hence, it overwhelms all the remaining competencies, furthermore, all competences are interrelated. Discourse competence refers to the ability of selecting and sequencing sentences to achieve unified and coherent written or spoken discourse. Linguistic competence is defined as the basket that entails the basic elements of communication, like sentence patterns, morphological inflections, phonological and orthographic systems, as well as lexical resources. Sociocultural competence refers to the speaker's knowledge of how to express appropriate messages within the social and cultural context. Actional competence involves the understanding of the speakers' communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech acts. Finally, these four components are influenced by the last one, strategic competence, which is concerned with the knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them.

By analysing the former different components of communicative competence that are provided by pioneers of communicative language teaching in the era 1980-1997, it is deduced that communicative competence, the motto of communicative language teaching, is based on the same features of native language knowledge. In essence, any subdivision of communicative competence is extracted from Hymes prevailed explanation of communicative competence as the knowledge of both rules of grammar and rules of language use appropriate to a given context are rooted from various hybrid disciplines such as structural linguistics, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis/pragmatics and psycholinguistics. From each earlier

discipline, tenets and principles are taken to constitute communicative competence components in order to teach various language skills, mainly speaking as the communicative competence components are clearly implied in speaking because communication is centrally demonstrated through speaking. In fact, there is no such neat borders exist between these competences.

1.1.2 Speaking Paradigm: Comprehension, Production, and Interaction

Earlier evaluation and criticism of Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis has led to a focus on language production rather than comprehension. The input hypothesis says that comprehensible input and meaningful materials are necessary for language learning, in particular for speaking. Hence, listening was the only way to speaking (Krashen, ibid). The message in the input is all that is needed to acquire the language and hence to speak. Swain (1985) asserts that comprehension-based instruction was unnecessary, insufficient, and inefficient. Swain's criticism is due to the fact that how does comprehension "influence underlying interlanguage and generalize to production" (Skehan, 1998, p. 13) is not clear. Input can provide the platform for speaking, however; it can never provide the skeleton that explains speaking. She (ibid) then proposes the comprehensible output hypothesis. According to her, listeners need to know how meaning is expressed in speech and to use this knowledge that includes interlocutors' feedback to develop the quality of input as the basis for later production. This revolutionary exposition of speaking gave the first insight to the necessity of interaction in opposition to transaction to use input for production, thus, interaction, the motor of production and feedback, is compulsory for the language use to move from comprehension to production. On this account, Long (1996) puts that interaction facilitates comprehension of speech and negotiation of meaning. The human communication indicates what Long has launched, besides, a clear instance for this claim is that in classroom settings, the students' input is modified through negotiation, which allows not only comprehension of input but also

manipulation of form (Yu, 2008).This claim turns counter to Krashen's Input Hypothesis, which stresses the fact that simplified input is the key for second language acquisition. Furthermore, Skehan (1998) points out that conversation is seen as the mechanism to extend the interlanguage use, provide feedback, and use learning strategies to encode meaning (p. 20).

Language production starts to take a broad definition exceeding the act of producing meaningful language to the negotiation of meaning. The evidence is what O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) put in their words "speaking means negotiating intended meanings" (p. 59). Bygate (1987) also claims that to ensure negotiation of meaning, speakers should be careful for the word choice and level of explicitness to make the listener understands (p.19). The view in Bygate's claim is that output should be carefully constructed to result in well-developed input that explains the meaning expression and gives opportunity to the listener to co-participate in the negotiation. Bygate (ibid) further adds that "negotiation of meaning concerns not only how much information is communicated, but also how specific we are in what we say" and in order to ensure that, communication strategies to solve communication problems and enable the speaker and listener to make themselves clearly understood, are prerequisite (Bygate, ibid, pp.32-33). Skehan (ibid) accentuates this claim by saying that "solving communicative problems engages a language learning capacity directly" (p. 22). Thus, language production (speaking), namely in second language acquisition, and negotiation of meaning rely on strategic interlanguage use, feedback, and comprehension, besides it includes both listener and speaker as partners in speaking.

1.1.3 The Nature of Spoken Language

The co-construction of meaning and discourse that learners share has been coined with the spoken language as speakers and listeners attain different functional duties during their interaction together. According to Harmer (2008), speakers may tend different functions in

different speaking events. Transactional and interactional or interpersonal functions are the main ones speakers perform while speaking. He (ibid) points out, as well, that the purpose of the speaking event gives a clear idea about the interaction nature of the discourse. In the spoken discourse where for example, one buys a newspaper at a news kiosk is interactive, while leaving a message on an answering machine is non-interactive. Speaking can be planned like lecture and unplanned such as conversation with someone you have not planned to meet him/her (Harmer, ibid).

1.1.3.1 Transactional Vs. Interactional Talk

Brown and Yule (1983) make a distinction between two spoken language functions; transactional and interactional functions:

When the focus is on transactional function, the primary goal is then to get the meaning transference business done. It is 'message' oriented rather than 'listener' oriented (Nunan, 1989, p. 27). Particularly, the transference of message should be as clear as possible since the speaker assumes that less knowledge is shared with the listener. The goal of the speaker is to make the listener understands what has been said through the use of specific vocabulary (Brown and Yule, ibid, p. 13). Listeners generally confirm that the message has been understood through the use of formulaic expressions (backchannels) such as *really, yeah, I see, etc.* (Buck, 2001, p. 13). Furthermore, Larsen-Freeman (2000) asserts that if the speaker receives no feedback from the listener to assess whether his moves have been understood or not, then the exchange is not really communicative. (p. 129)

When the interactional or as Brown (2001) called it interpersonal language function is at work, the speaker aims at maintaining the social relationships assuming the shared knowledge between speaker and listener. Consequently, transactional talk aims at getting the business of message-transmission done while interactional talk maintains the norm of sociality and

exhibits an open door for different possible ways to get the message through (McCarthy, 1998, p.28).

1.1.4 Speaking in Real Time

Richards (2008) describes spoken language as "unplanned and often reflects the processes of construction such as ….reduced forms, fillers, and repeats" (p. 3). This fact is due the instantaneous nature of speech as "speech takes place in real time" (Buck, 2001, p. 6). Respectively, the real time nature of the spoken discourse means that speakers have to plan, to organize the message, and to control the language being used in a rapid rate under the pressure of time (Bygate, 1987, Buck, ibid). Consequently, an important consideration needs to be given to the features of real time speech. According to Buck (ibid) short idea units (short phrases or clauses) and colloquial grammar such as contracted forms, characterise speech. Accordingly, Thornbury and Slade (2006) claim that the lexical size, speakers and listeners need to operate successfully in a spoken context, is considerably fewer than it is for writers and readers (p. 42). Conventionally, conversation as spontaneous speech carries lower information load (O'Malley and Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 58). Thornbury and Slade (ibid) further argue that the lexical density (i.e. the measure of the ratio of the text's content words to its function words) and lexical variety in conversation are fewer than in other forms of speech. Thornbury and Slade (ibid) justified this measurement by asserting "the fewer the content words, in proportion to function words and inserts, the lower the lexical density" (p. 44). In another vein, lexical frequency was a matter of research too. It is assumed that "nearly half of all conversation consists of just 50 words, endlessly recycled" (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p. 45). Moreover, another feature of lexical frequency tends to cover the higher incidence of adverbial phrases than of nouns and the approximate use ration between verbs and nouns in contrast to written text where nouns outnumber verbs.

Buck (2001), in turn, affords some features of real time spoken language: hesitation which includes pauses and repetition which according to Thornbury and Slade (2006) serves a textual and interpersonal function in the sense that it maintains the text's coherence and cohesion and hence helps listeners to form accurate schema for the meaning. Fillers also are used to solve the problem of hesitation. According to Thornbury and Slade (ibid), these fillers have direct impact on turn taking. For example, pause fillers like *er* and *erm* or *uh* and *um* signal that the speaking turn has not yet finished, whereas verbal fillers like *well I mean, well erm you know* help speakers gain time at the beginning of the speaking turn. Moreover, spoken language has also repairs such as false starts, correction in grammar or vocabulary, and afterthought (Buck, ibid, pp. 10-11).

The spoken language has its own structure and it is characterised with the use of simple connectives (Buck, ibid, p.10), in addition to reciprocal openings and closings which vary in formal and casual conversations (Thornbury and Slade, ibid, p. 130). Thornbury and Slade (ibid) argue that cohesion is purely achieved through grammatical and lexical cohesive devices. Grammatical devices include the use of references, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions. On the other hand, lexical devices (like repetition, synonyms, and lexical chains of topically related items) are also used in conversation to maintain the connectedness of discourse and signal the consistency of the topic of the conversation (pp. 108-122).

Some researchers understand the difficulty of producing spoken text in real time pressure and provide mechanisms to help speakers become more fluent and cope with real time demands. The production skills; *facilitation* such as simplifying structures, ellipsis, formulaic expressions, and using fillers and hesitation devices, and *compensation* such as substitution, rephrasing, reformulating, self-correction, false starts, repetition and hesitation are useful strategies speakers may resort to when speaking (Bygate, 1987, p.21).

Along these lines, what has been referred to as communicative competence seems to underpin the structure of real speech as all the competences mentioned by Canale (1983) are there. Linguistic competence is realised in terms of the main grammar, pronunciation, and lexis features used in conversation, sociolinguistic competence is largely influenced by time factor, discourse competence reveals in the set of connectedness used by speakers to maintain the coherent ideas, and the strategic competence which is mandatory to control spoken language under the pressure of time.

1.1.5 Teaching Speaking: From Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Perspective

Teaching speaking was neglected in the traditional teaching methods as written form of language overwhelmed the language instruction. For most of the 20th century, speech was taught only on the basis of grammar, syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation in grammar-translation method, audio-lingual approach and the direct method, either through translating sentences from the L1 to the L2 or through repetition. Speaking then was almost taught for the sake of "choosing the right form; putting them in the correct order; sounding like a native speaker; even producing the right meanings" (Bygate, 1987, p. 5). Bygate (ibid) believes speaking had an underestimated value as humans can all speak. By the last three decades of the 20th century, communicative approach consistently brought new thinking of the centrality of speech within language pedagogy and speech has been largely seen similar to writing. As a matter of fact, the emergence of CLT has brought different changes to the domain of language teaching, one of which was the inclusion of oral communication in the teaching instruction. After 1970's, speaking was never taken for granted and training to speak and solve complex issues of the underlying competences of speaking to ensure better negotiation of meaning became prerequisite.

The question about whether teaching pre-determined language with a pure linguistic focus in teaching oral skills would help learners to survive in real life language use was

raised. CLT takes the position that linguistic manifestation is jointly achieved by the appropriate functional use investment. As Bygate (1987) says that in order to achieve a communicative goal through speaking, there are two aspects to be considered: knowledge of the language, and skill in using this knowledge. It is not enough to master the knowledge, but a speaker of the language should be able to use this knowledge in different situations (p. 3). Nevertheless, the use of this knowledge will not be possible if learners are unable to acquire this knowledge, because according to Ellis (1997), the acquisition of grammar on the basis effective communication is not sure. Thus, the doubt lies on questioning the learners' focus on form while their primary concern is meaning conveyance; accordingly, Ellis (ibid) proposes two possible ways; one involving production and the other comprehension.

Noteworthy, CLT is influenced by cognitive and sociolinguistics theories, started to take account of meaning and the social context. Consequently, studies attempted to justify the relationship between formal features and categories of social behaviour to convey the appropriate language functions. For pedagogical implication, Littlewood (1981) points out "learners must pay greater attention to the social as well as the functional meanings that language conveys" (p. 43). The Functionalism view of language gave an insight of how language items function in different ways within different moves of any speech event (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

It has been believed that spoken language is likely to be delivered through the transactional means and the dissemination of information will be through producing long transactional turns since it is easily planned (Richards, 2008). However, current trend of spoken language teaching puts much concentration on teaching short interactional turns through using language meaningfully and appropriately in different situations. Brown and Yule (1983) go on to state that:

It is currently fashionable in language teaching to pay particular attention to the forms and functions of short turns…It must surely be clear that students who are only capable of producing short turns are going to experience a lot of frustration when they try to speak the foreign language. (pp. 19-20)

This problem according to Brown and Yule (ibid) can be remedied through developing students' ability to use language communicatively in context.

Task-based approach has become an important element in classroom teaching (Brown, 2001). Accordingly, this approach should underpin speaking classrooms as tasks in L2 oral instruction provide learners with the rehearsal and opportunity to keep up with the cognitive demands of fluency, accuracy, and linguistic complexity (Hinkel, 2006). Willis and Willis (2007) also argue that tasks are the effective way for language teaching, which require learners to use the language themselves, accordingly they further point out that task-based approach should be refined to fit learners' needs. The nature of spoken discourse has a great impact on the way speaking skill is taught. Richards (2008) discusses an expanded version of Brown and Yule (ibid) framework of the nature of speech to include: talk as interaction, talk as transaction and talk as performance.

Talk as interaction has the interactional aim that Brown and Yule (ibid) mentioned. It focuses at the first place on developing speakers social relationships. Richards (ibid) puts "Talk as interaction refers to what we normally mean by "conversation" and describes interaction that serves a primarily social function" (p.22). Thornbury and Slade (2006) point out "conversation is co-constructed by two or more participants, unfolding dynamically in real time" (p. 114). This definition highlights the concept that conversation is highly cooperative interaction.

 Thornbury and Slade (2006) and Richards (2008) provide some skills that learners need to be acquainted with while using talk as interaction, thus, conversation. In order to use talk as

interaction, leaners need to know the adjacency pairs that describe the moves that speaker and listener exchange (e.g., question/answer, complaint/denial, offer/accept). Turn taking mechanisms were a matter of analysis in describing the interactive nature of conversation. Thornbury and Slade (2006) assert that turn taking differs according to the degree of formality of the text. In formal spoken text, the turn taking is more ordered and controlled, while in casual conversation, overlapping, interruptions and back-channelling are very common (p. 123-125). Nevertheless, learners engage in both forms of conversation and the predictability of some speaking features can cause frustration. Thus, teaching speaking in both contexts, formal and casual, seems the right approach as the more the learner can control unexpected features of speech the greater his confidence, fluency, and language adaptation will be.

Teaching talk as interaction seems to have great importance in developing learners' language studies, since according to Richards (2008) learners may encounter situations where interaction is compulsory.

Talk as transaction, in the other hand, is not concerned with how speakers interact socially together. However, it "refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done" (Richards, ibid, p. 24). It is important to deliver understandable message for listeners. The main skills, Richards talks about to master talk as transaction, are centrally developed around language function such as explaining a need or intention, asking for clarification, justifying opinion, agreeing and disagreeing, etc. The functionalism view of language seems the way to master speech as transaction, that is, the message can be well-transmitted when learners use language function adequately.

As the name denotes, the focus of talk as performance is on how learners perform the language. Richards (ibid) defines it as "public talk, that is, talk that transmits information before an audience, such as classroom presentations, public announcements, and speeches" (p. 27). The difference between talk as performance and prior ones is the one way nature as

Richards (2008) asserts that performance generally takes the form of monologue rather than dialogue. The main skills involved in leaning talk as performance are adhering to the appropriate sequence of information presentation, maintaining audience engagement, using an appropriate opening and closing, and using correct language (p.28).

1.1.5.1 Teaching Speaking Underlying Competences

As speaking is defined as communication, its underlying competences have direct relation with the internal structure of communicative competence. The underlying competences of communicative competence incorporate in the communicative instruction in order to enable the learner to use the language appropriately in the target contexts. According to Richards (2006) communicative competence includes the following pedagogical aspects of language knowledge:

• Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions.

• Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication).

• Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations).

• Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies). (p. 3)

One of the provocative issues in teaching speaking is accuracy and fluency. Richards (2008) attests that "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"(p. 2). However, teaching speaking to attain fluency cannot overwhelm accuracy as they both characterise speech and the absence of one means the deficiency of speech. In language teaching, it is mandatory to emphasise both on fluency and accuracy, but

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it is only a matter of the amount of time devoted to teach each of them according to learners'

purpose of language use (Baker & Westrup, 2003; Hinkel, 2006).

1.2 The Construct of Listening

It is conventional that people gain a large portion of their knowledge, their

understanding and acknowledgement of the world through listening. On the basis of this idea,

listening is never perceived as an easy process, but rather as complex processes where human

brain infers and interprets meaning from spoken language. According to Brown and Yule

(1983) listening comprehension is the "process of arriving at a reasonable interpretation" (p.

57) of what speakers have said. One may ask how the listener listens in order to comprehend.

The cognitive demanding process of listening should be explained. On the one hand,

Vandergrift (1999) answers that question by stating that listening comprehension is an active

process in which learners must distinguish the differences between sounds, vocabulary,

grammar, intonation, stress and context in order to interpret and respond to messages

immediately, while on the other hand, Richards (1983) claims that listening comprehension

relies heavily on propositions that form the basic units of literal meaning. The listener's goal

is then to determine the propositions of the utterance he/she hears. However; "a proposition

does not mark the end of the listening process" (Field, 2008, p 130) as listeners misunderstand

these propositions in many occasions, thus, Field further contends that the situation in which

the spoken text has occurred is necessary to cover the whole meaning. During listening,

hearers are recommended to retrieve linguistic knowledge, schematic knowledge including

background knowledge, prior experiences and procedural knowledge (how knowledge is used

in discourse) and finally contextual knowledge (situation and co-text knowledge) in order to

reconstruct the intended meaning appropriately (Littlewood, 1981, Lynch, 2009, Anderson

and Lynch, 1988, as cited in Skehan, 1998, p. 14). The linguistic competence allows learners

to chunk the utterances into syntactic segments. Besides, the background knowledge, known

as real world or non-linguistic knowledge, helps listeners to interpret correctly what they hear by means of 'formal schemata' that reflects the listeners' knowledge of different text types and genres and 'content schemata' that consists of knowledge of the relevant subject matter (Lynch, 2009, p.48).

The process of interpretation that has been considered synonym to listening (Brown and Yule, 1983) involves a set of different simultaneous cognitive mechanisms in order to interpret correctly spoken messages. As a hearer first hears speech, an image holding all phonetic, syntactic and discourse elements of the message being heard is stored in short term memory. The hearer then identifies the type of speech (e.g., conversation, radio broadcast) and the objective of the speaker by considering the speech event and context (e.g., to persuade, to deny or to affirm …etc.). Afterwards, he recalls background knowledge and lifetime experiences to interpret the message. Subsequently, assigns a literal meaning to the utterance being processed, however, in many cases the literal meaning do not match the intended meaning, so the hearer goes beyound the surface of the utterance. In this case the hearer assigns an intended meaning to the utterance. Last but not least, the hearer determines whether information should be retained in short-term memory or long-term one. Eventually, he deletes the form of the utterance and keeps only meaning (Brown, 2001, pp. 249-50). From these neurological processes, it can be deduced that listeners make use of their internal competences like the knowledge of structural system, discourse patterns, possible phonological constructions, shared knowledge, context and prior experiences to understand. In other words, communicative competence helps listeners in the process of comprehension all along the line. The hearers too need to be pragmatic in their interpretation as Brown (ibid) points out "a key to human communication is the ability to match perceived meaning with intended meaning" (p.50). The foregoing processes are presented into two directions of listening processing as Richards (2008) calls them: Bottom-up and Top-down processes.

Bottom-up processing depends on "the incoming input as the basis for understanding the message" (Richards, 2008, p. 4). Brown (2001) counts listeners performing the intensive role while listening as developing bottom-up understanding of spoken language. Listeners using bottom-up comprehension process analyse the stretch of the text being heard according to hierarchal organisation in order to decode language; sounds, words, clauses, sentences and texts into meaningful data (Richards, ibid, p.4). The decoding process consists of the knowledge of how sounds and words are strung together and how the code can change in different ways when it is strung together.

The top-down processing refers to how listeners use their background knowledge to attribute meaning to language input; how our knowledge of social and cultural conventions help us understand meaning. Brown (ibid) considers arriving at a comprehension purpose as extensive role that listener may perform when listening to lengthy conversations and consequently using top-down processing. Field (2008) argues that top-down process refers to the use of context and co-text to identify unclear words. Context or co-text in this case stands for the previous knowledge about the topic of discourse, situational or contextual knowledge, or knowledge in the form of "schemata" or "scripts" about the overall structure of events and the relationships between them (Richards, ibid, p. 7).

1.2.1 Definition of Interactive Listening

Interactive listening is now an established part in L2 listening methodology (e.g., Anderson & Lynch, 1988). When discussing listening in interactive situations, the terms which have been used are interactive listening (Vandergrift, 1997), interactional listening (Vandergrift, 2002), bidirectional listening (Vandergrift, 2004, 2007), reciprocal listening (Anderson & Lynch, 1988), and collaborative listening (Buck, 2001). Interactive listening is easily confused with the interactive function of language; however, Vandergrift (1997, 2002) provides a distinctive definition of interactional listening as neither including "maintaining

social relationships" purpose, nor "recognizing personal components of message" purpose. As interactive listening appeared in opposition to transactional listening when listeners listen to oral texts in order to obtain information and complete a comprehension task, without interaction, it is noteworthy, that the word interaction is not used to express and maintain the personal relationship between participants, but it refers to the listener's active role in cooperation with speaker to fulfil the goal(s) of the interaction (Vandergrift, 1997). Thus, the accurate definition is:

> Interactive listening takes place in a communicative situation, in which the listener, taking an active role (as a participant or an addressee), listens and gives responses such as signaling comprehension, requesting clarifications, negotiating meanings, etc. In so doing, the listener, in collaboration with the speaker, solves communication problems, shapes the discourse, and accomplishes certain goals of interaction. (Xiaoxian & Yan, 2010, p.22)

Considering that interactive listening is based on the idea that listening is part of real-life communication, the interaction of listening with real communication is worth analysing. Undeniably, listening comprehension is one of the complex processes that learners face during learning. Lynch (2009) argues that "internal distractions (such as emotional upset or toothache), lack of interest, emotional reaction to speaker or topic, over-reaction to the language the speaker uses, jumping to conclusions, and preparing a response to what the speaker has said" (pp. 3-4) cause difficulties for listeners when trying to understand. He (ibid) further adds that there are also some spoken language-related challenges that prevent listeners from understanding, like: the expressions the speaker chooses, the speed of the spoken language, unfamiliar content and cultural references, and lack of speech clarity. It has been established as a vital means of interactive listening efficiency as it requires listeners to display signs of partnership. Hence, listeners play the role of speaker and listener interchangeably in

the interaction. Xiaoxian and Yan (2010) put "the listener receives messages from the speaker, comprehends/interprets/evaluates, and gives a certain response", and "the speaker receives the listener response, comprehends/interprets/evaluates, and gives a feedback response to the listener" (pp. 22-3).

Vandergrift (1997) also argues that interactive listening requires listeners to interact with an interlocutor, requesting clarification or providing feedback in order to ensure successful communication. In essence, "a listener may use reception strategies such as clarification requests …and receipt tokens (comprehension signals to move a conversation forward) in interaction with an interlocutor" (Vandergrift, 2007, p.195). Xiaoxian and Yan (ibid) report that there are attributes that cover the interactive listening strategy use on the basis of definitions they have drawn from 20 studies conducted to conceptualise the construct of interactive listening. These attributes are the reception strategies Rost and Ross (1991) and Vandergrift (1997, 2007) addressed in their studies. Rost and Ross (1991) conducted a study on 72 Japanese college EFL students and identified eight types of strategies under three headings: global questioning strategies (global reprise, continuation signal), local questioning strategies (lexical reprise, fragment reprise, lexical gap, and positional reprise), and inferential strategies (hypothesis testing, forward inference). These strategies are grouped along with the likely speaker response(s) in Figure 1.

Strategy	Stage	Definition	Speaker Response
Global Reprise	I	Listener asks for repetition, simplification, or simply states that nothing was understood.	Repeat or rephrase entire utterance or segment.
Continuation Reprise	I	Listener requests no elaboration or repetition and indicates current status of understanding with overt statement or nonverbal gesture.	Continue
Lexical Reprise	II	Listener asks a question about a specific word; may include repetition of	Repeat or rephrase entire utterance or segment.

		word with questioning intonation.	
Fragment Reprise	II	Listener asks a question about a specific part of the previous discourse; may include repetition.	Repeat or rephrase specific part of utterance.
Lexical Gap	II	Listener asks about a specific word or term, often requesting a repeat for the word.	Same response as above
Positional Reprise	II	Listener refers to a position in the previous utterance that was not understood.	Same response as above
Hypothesis Testing	III	Listener asks specific questions to verify what was hear and indicates a propositional understanding (or misunderstanding) of the utterance.	Confirm if the hypothesis check is true or plausible. Provide other information if the listener's hypothesis is false.
Forward Inference	III	The listener overtly indicates current understanding by asking a question using established information given by the interlocutor.	Answer question, confirm assumption if consistent with story/conversation, modify assumption or add information to clarify misunderstanding.

Table 1: Typology of Listener Feedback Moves and Likely Speaker Response(s)

Adapted from Rost& Ross (1991), pp. 245-250 (as cited in Vandergrift, 1997, p.497)

Vandergrift (1997) puts that these strategies are of different functions; they "call the interlocutor back", include all the reprise strategies, and "move the discourse forward", include continuation signals, forward inferencing, and hypothesis testing. Hypothesis testing may also "allow the listener to indicate current understanding of the utterance/discourse and the interlocutor to affirm or clarify comprehension" (pp.496-497).

1.2.2 Teaching Listening Comprehension: From Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Perspective

Listening instruction has evolved through time. It was first taught in the form of listening to repeat in the audio-lingual approach with mere focus on developing pronunciation

and then, through the question-answer comprehension approach. During the 1970's, listening pedagogy largely emphasized the development of learners' abilities to identify individual sounds, and sound combinations, contractions, words, sentence boundaries, that is, bottom-up linguistic processing. The 1980's witnessed a shift from the view of L2 listening as predominantly linguistic to extensive listening view, and listening pedagogy moved away from its focus on the linguistic aspects of comprehension to the activation of learners' top-down knowledge (Hinkel, 2006, p.117). Recently, real-life listening approach is adapted, involving communicative tasks and real interactions with native speakers (Vandergrift, 2004). Through this evolution, listening moves from mere understanding of aural texts to negotiating and interpreting meaning with speakers and from the least explicit of the four skills to the most important skill. Moreover, it was perceived in equal measure with speaking (Field, 2008, p. 5). Listening instruction became the first concern of many researchers (Richards, 1983, 2008; Vandergrift, 2004, 2007; Lynch, 2009).

Listening comprehension is the heart of foreign language learning. Learners are always eager to understand and be understood while engaging in conversations or listening to a variety of aural and visual foreign language texts like online audios, e.g., podcasts and videos, e. g., YouTube. According to Vandergrift (2007) "L2 learners are rarely taught how to listen effectively" (p. 191). Some researchers favour one process of listening over the other, for example O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) argue that "effective listeners used prior knowledge or elaboration, inferencing, and self-monitoring, while ineffective listeners focused on the individual words" (p.59);furthermore, "bottom-up processing alone often provides an insufficient basis for comprehension" (Richards, 2008, p. 9), however, some scholars believe that listeners need to learn how to use both processes to their advantage depending on their purpose for listening (Nunan, 1989; Richards, ibid). For example, Richards (ibid) supports this view by saying:

in real world listening, both bottom-up and top-down processes generally occur together, the extent to which one or the other dominates depending on the listener's familiarity with the topic and the content of a text, the density of information in a text, the text type, and the listener's purpose in listening. (p. 9)

1.2.3 Challenges for Teaching Listening

Because of the shift that listening instruction has made when it changed the emphasis from the listening product, that is to say, listening to learn to the listening process, i.e., learning to listen, listening became more difficult. Teaching leaners how to listen is then a challenging process where listeners face many challenges, among which listening strategies and real speech cause the most difficulties.

1.2.3.1 Listening Strategies

L2 listening experts advocate the teaching of metacognitive and cognitive strategies especially for L2 listening comprehension (Hinkel, 2006) and others like Lynch (2009) and Field (2008) add social-affective strategies which involve other people in the effort to understand. The key metacognitive strategies widely adopted in L2 listening instruction include planning for listening, self-monitoring the comprehension processes, evaluating comprehension, and identifying comprehension difficulties, besides the cognitive strategies that listeners use to make sense of what they hear (Hinkel, 2006, Lynch, 2009). Metacognitive strategies raise the listeners' self-awareness that leads for better understanding of the listening process; consequently listening becomes easier as the listener plans, monitors and identifies the comprehension problem.

Vandergrift (2004) argues that a consistent use of metacognitive strategies is more effective in improving learners' L2 listening comprehension than working on the listening skill alone. However, despite the fact that learning strategies – cognitive, metacognitive, and

social affective – are useful in listening, the aim of a listening lesson is not "to add to linguistic knowledge" according to Field (2008, p. 294), consequently, as Field says, communication strategies rather than learning strategies should be emphasized while teaching listening because the latter deals much more with solving "immediate and often unexpected problems of understanding" (p.294). Additionally, he groups communication strategies under broader strategies: avoidance strategies, achievement strategies, and repair strategies. Noteworthy, the repair strategies, according to Field (2008) are the ones that are used when "teaching listening interacts with the teaching of speaking" (p. 301). The repair strategies are known in Rost and Ross (1991) as reception strategies (as mentioned in Vandergrift, 1997). (See Sub-section 1.2.1 Definition of Interactive Listening, Table 1)

Furthermore, Vandergrift (ibid) points out that EFL/ESL teachers should discuss listening strategies in class to help students recognize and use them to understand spoken language. There is now enough evidence for the efficacy of strategy-based approach in explicit listening teaching. Undoubtedly, meta-strategic awareness is indispensable. The challenge then occurs when a decision about how explicit awareness raising has to be. Field (ibid) points out that the challenge for the instructor is not to only teach listeners particular strategies in controlled conditions but also to integrate them into their listening behavior in real communication. As Crabbe (2007) answers the question of how to foster learning awareness, "one obvious answer to this is to make sure that a continuous and systematic dialogue about learning takes place in the classroom among learners and between learners and teachers" (p. 118). Hence, this method is applicable to raise learners' awareness to listening strategies. The best way to achieve that according to Field (ibid) is through authentic recordings that demand realistic strategic response (p.309). However, Vandergrift (1999) sees that the exposure to oral text in a language rather than English to sensitize students, especially those who do not transfer their native language listening strategies in another language, and

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discuss the possible cues will help them to understand the meaning of the text (pp.171-172). Field (1998) points out that listener suffers from the lack of 'bottom-up' information, and accordingly, he stresses forcefully the use of compensation strategies, namely inferencing, to be used, in other words listeners need to use the knowledge of the context to make guesses about the accurate meaning. The possible cues that help listeners understand the meaning of the text, as proposed by Vandergrift (1999), are seen as compensatory strategies by Field (1998). Field proposes predicting what will be heard on the basis of the knowledge of the topic; understanding the general information in the text by recognizing the key words; using sentence stress to determine any 'new' information; identifying any change of the topic by adhering to markers; and whether ignoring the "unknown words" or relying on the general understanding. (p. 117)

Presently, the new trend in listening instruction has shown a growing reliance on strategy-based approach (Lynch, 2009, Hinkel, 2006) in order to develop the strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Thus, awareness and use of appropriate listening strategies help language learners to negotiate meaning more efficiently and effectively (Vandergrift, 1997; Lynch, ibid; Field, 2008). According to Lynch (1996) and Vandergrift (ibid) interactive listening should develop learners' ability for active negotiation of meaning through the effective use of reception strategies in interaction which can both resolve immediate comprehension problems and facilitate long-term language learning. Lynch (ibid) further affirms that "the effective use of interactive negotiation is the one of the things that differentiates successful listeners from less successful ones" (p. 98).

Vandergrift (1997) asserts that interlocutors use two kinds of communication strategies: production strategies to resolve a communication problem caused by a lack of linguistic knowledge or to further communication through clarifications, repetitions, or modifications; and reception strategies to clarify meaning or signal comprehension by comprehensible output

to the interlocutor (p. 496). Precisely speaking, Brown (2000) speaks about compensation strategies that learners use to compensate missing knowledge, such as memorizing "prefabricated patterns", "code switching", and "direct appeal" (when learner asks for help from native speaker or teacher) (pp. 128-30). These strategies can help learners to avoid some comprehension difficulties as the prefabricated patterns and code switching raise the familiarity of the language and reduce the anxiety towards the listening process.

1.2.3.2 Real Speech

Ur (1984) provides some real-life listening characteristics that may contribute to comprehension, such as the visibility of the speaker which clashes sometimes with the listener response, environmental clues, e.g., facial expressions, posture eye direction, proximity, gesture, and tone of voice. She (ibid) claims that "environmental clues are often more likely to provide information about the situation, speakers and general atmosphere than about the actual topic of discourse" (p.5); moreover, shortness of the chunks into which heard discourse usually divided, where the usual pattern in short listening followed by a response, informal speech that is usually spontaneous and colloquial characterize real-life listening situations. According to Ur (ibid) "classroom practice should usually incorporate such characteristics of real-life listening" (p. 10).

However, listening in the language classroom is not a depiction of real life listening which is characterised according to Ur (1996) by informal spoken discourse, the listener's pre-expectation of the topic and the purpose of the listening, the existence of visual stimuli besides the audio, the ongoing purposeful listener response that overlaps speaking, and the mutual influence speaker and listener have on manipulating the discourse usually on the basis of listeners reactions. It is noteworthy that the classroom provides mostly one –way listening and very limited formal spoken discourse in two-way listening. Ur (ibid), consequently, suggests classroom activities that include some of the features of real-life situations to best

prepare listener for effective listening outside the classroom. Vandergrift (2004) has argued that interactive listening is the technique that listeners engage in most frequently, and some researchers would argue that this is the only dimension of listening worth teaching (Vandergrift, 1997; Hinkle, 2006; Xiaoxian & Yan, 2010).

1.3 Integrative Teaching Format of Speaking and Listening

An integrated instruction is used in teaching listening and speaking since "integrated FL/L2 instruction can increase learners' opportunities for L2 purposeful communication, interaction, real-life language use, and diverse types of contextualized discourse and linguistic features, all of which have the goal of developing students' language proficiency and skills" (Hinkel, 2006, p. 114). Besides, the increased tendency towards the inclusion of the true real-life nature of communication in language pedagogy, has led current language teaching practices to focus on accustoming learners with real-life activities where authentic language is used. Once having understood the tenets of interactive nature of both speaking and listening in real life context, the question remained is how to implement them in the classroom. Although classroom speaking and listening teaching is not the same as ordinary social discourse, teachers attempt to imitate aspects of real world communication, in particular, the listening-negotiating-speaking paradigm (explained above). For example, in L2 listening pedagogy, two complementary approaches reflect current perspectives on more effective learning; one emphasizes the integrated teaching of listening for communication and in conjunction with other L2 skills, such as speaking, sociopragmatics, grammar, and vocabulary, favouring bottom-up processing, the other moves to foreground the learner's use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies to bolster the learning process, favouring top-down processing (Vandergrift, 2004).

Jingyan and Baldauf Jr (2011) propose a teaching format that encompasses the interaction of speaking and listening in classroom lessons. Worth to note interactive listening

is what is taught with speaking in the classroom to fulfil the purpose of communication. They provide three steps which should be systematically related in classroom teaching. They particularly emphasised the pre listening phase, which should precede the former steps, to set the context, to provide motivation and to teach important new vocabulary.

Step 1: Cooperative Listening (Listening)

In this step, listeners are required to listen for the gist, negotiating and compare their understanding with each other, after the first play of the listening material. In the second play of the listening material, listeners listen for details, interpret them and then negotiate their interpretation through paraphrasing, asking or answering questions, add contextual clarification, verification or repetition. In the third play of the listening material, if learners are still unsure about what they have heard, they clarify and verify their interpretations. The teacher can only interfere in this stage to clarify whatever listeners failed to understand.

Step 2: Communicative Production (Post-listening 1)

During the communicative production stage, the learners' comprehensible input, which they reach in step 1, is communicated during different types of activities such as group decisions recorded in the form of statements, choices among alternatives, problem solving, debate, role play, interview, etc. Once learners choose activity, they work in pairs to generate ideas and opinions. As it is noticed in this step communicative production takes the form of collaborative work and thus interactive speaking is set to work besides interactive listening.

Step 3: Oral Presentation (Post-Listening 2)

During the oral presentation stage, learners still work collaboratively, but negotiate shared work for the purpose of presentation. Learners have the opportunity to do this presentation in pairs to overcome the anxiety of speaking in public and receive feedback. (pp. 33-34)

Negotiation and cooperation are the focal axis of these steps. Negotiation is the line of connection between speaking and listening that is connected through cooperation. In essence, negotiation plays a key role in improving listening comprehension, and in developing second language acquisition (SLA).

Strategic competence is significant in speaking and listening teaching as it shapes the discourse. Strategic teaching is then an integrated part of the speaking/listening instruction; among these strategies Brown (2000) calls avoidance strategies that learners use to avoid what they cannot express because of their language deficiency. The avoidance can happen on three levels; syntactic, phonological and topic. For example in topic avoidance, the learner may change the topic or pretend not to understand. In listening, listener can use all the strategies mentioned in figure 1 to ensure meaningful communication. The way in which listening strategies should be taught to help learners recognise is the enquiry which seems to be called for. Relatedly, Field (1998) says that it is recommended to teach these strategies explicitly; however, recognition is not sufficient to account for their application in the real-like tasks. Consequently, he makes his own recommendation by implementing tasks that "reflect more closely what happens in a real-life listening encounter" (p. 116).

1.3.1   Activating Students' Learning while Speaking and Listening

In traditional learning in higher education learners are considered as passive holders of knowledge, it was shown in "sitting in class inattentively, dividing one's concentration between episodes of daydreaming and periods of attentiveness to the lecture, and listening and occasionally taking literal notes" (Bonwell & Eison, 1991, p.1). Hence, learners were passive listeners who never contribute orally in the classroom; however, research has proved the value of immersing students in active rather than passive learning. Ur (1984) puts that passive listening implies the act of simple listening with the aim of comprehension, whereas active listening involves production, in other words, she means that it is not enough for listeners to

hear what the counterparts said, but it is necessary to understand and think about how to respond to what has been said and develop mutual communication with the speaker. In essence, active learning came about to replace passive learning and to basically "involve students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing" (Bonwell & Eison, 1991, p.2). The general characteristics of active learning according to the same authors are:

- Students are involved in more than listening.

- Less emphasis is placed on transmitting information and more on developing students' skills.

- Students are involved in higher-order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation).

- Students are engaged in activities (e.g., reading, discussing, and writing).

- Greater emphasis is placed on students' exploration of their own attitudes and values.

In the same vein, Bonwell and Eison (ibid) mention the interactive techniques or strategies that promote active learning from which they accentuate the techniques that bolster active speaking and listening learning. (1) Discussion is the most recalled strategy to promote active learning, accordingly, both authors stress the idea of simplifying the task to help students understand it and be able to solve the problem successfully, that is help students to easily engage in "defining a problem; diagnosing possible reasons for the problem; searching for alternative solutions; and evaluating the alternatives and choosing the most appropriate solution" (p.38). (2) Audio-visual instruction such as film, multimedia presentations, television, and videos contribute also to the development of active learning. (3) Cooperative learning which, according to Bonwell and Eison (ibid) serves to develop students' learning, social skills like decision making, conflict management, and communication (p.43). (4) Debates which stimulate students' motivation, oral communication, participation, and logical thinking. (5) Drama has proved its value in increasing students learning potentials and avidity toward the content. (6) Role playing, simulation and games are useful for content being

considered in the lecture, result in high levels of motivation and enthusiasm, and promote cooperative learning due to their approaching to the real- life experiences, besides these techniques proved to be valuable to teaching learning styles.

1.3.2   Speaking and Listening Activities

Accounting for the interactive nature of speaking and listening, the different types of activities that Jingyan and Baldauf Jr (2011) said they can be used in step 2 in their teaching format need to be recalled in the classroom. These activities should insure the transformability of comprehensible input into comprehensible output in the form of interaction. Speaking about these activities, one should know the rationality behind them. Bygate (1987) criticizes whatever activity that resembles "learning to drive without ever going out on the road" (p.5) because language is more than an object of study, but "a vehicle" for classroom communication that allows learners to go out on the road, Larsen-Freeman (2000) put. This is the view adopted by CLT which emphasized the social context of the communicative event. As a result, "it is important for learners to practice the language they are learning in situations which are similar to life outside the classroom" (Baker and Westrup, 2003, p.7). Harmer (2007) provides three main types of speaking tasks: rehearsal tasks to practice real-life speaking, assessment tasks to provide feedback of success and failure, and language activation tasks to promote fluency.

Consequently, teachers' role in the classroom is to help their students to make use of experiences they get from classroom tasks into real situations beyond the classroom (Lynch, 2009; Crabbe, 2007). Crabbe (ibid) tries to encourage "private management" where "it is necessary to engage the learners in understanding, identifying and taking up the learning opportunities" (p. 124). To ensure the feasibility of classroom activities a lot of attention has been paid to the design of activities to cope with the characteristics of real spoken texts. Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Thornbury and Slade (2006) provide some communicative

activities that adhere to the features of real life interactions; role plays, problem-solving activities, and games where the learner uses minimal range of lexis, use different set of connectives to produce consistent ideas, choose what to say and how to say it, use the language purposefully and appropriately to the context, prepare himself for real situations, negotiate meaning through cooperative learning, and receive immediate feedback from the listener on whether or not he/she successfully communicated.

Moreover, developing speaking activities depends a lot on the spoken function that is emphasised in the classroom. As mentioned earlier, talk has three major functions and activities are assigned accordingly. On the one hand, if interaction is the aim, starting and closing conversations, making small talk, narrating personal incidents and experiences, reacting to what others say, giving feedback, and signalling understanding through back channelling and turn taking are emphasised. Additionally, the provision of naturalistic dialogues that simulate the real-life features of spoken language, such as minimizing the lexical range which is used in the transcripts of interactive exchanges (Seedhouse, 1999, p. 151), are the aim of interactive activities as pointed out by Richards (2008, p.29). Richards (ibid) asserts that foreign language learners need opportunities to develop interaction skills. Bygate (1987) calls for interaction skill to ensure better production and thus reception as it involves the *negotiation skills* that manage the interaction and negotiation of meaning so that understanding is achieved. On the other hand, when transaction is accentuated in the classroom, using talk for sharing and obtaining information in real time transactions is then the ultimate goal. Richards (ibid) proposes problem solving and role play activities which include activities include ranking, values clarification, brainstorming, and simulations to teach talk as transaction (p.30).

A different strategy is employed in teaching talk as performance. The aim of the classroom activities is to prepare learners for all the linguistic resources such as speech

patterns typically used in speeches and presentations, besides paralinguistic features such as body language. Richards (2008) suggests the following set of activities to teach this type of talk; models of speeches, oral presentations, stories, etc. He adds that video or audio recordings or written examples are useful techniques to illustrate real performance.

In the same vein, listening, which appears in these different functions of spoken discourse as it always collaborates with speaking, is taught through transactional listening tasks; listeners are exposed to comprehensive input, generally marked as one-way listening, in order to help listeners internalise the language rules which help develop other language skills such as speaking and writing. However, comprehension is insufficient in L2 learning where learners need to receive oral input and produce a comprehensible output in two-way listening, as a result, the response to received input helps learners become aware of what they know and what they do not know (Vandergrift, 1997), thus, interactive listening requires students to be actively involved in negotiating meaning to find the way to understand each other. Ur (1984) points out "listening exercises are most effective if they are constructed around a task" (p. 25). There seems then that convergent tasks, as Lynch (1995) named them, promote more substantial interaction among interlocutors and provide rich opportunities to use confirmation checks and clarification requests.

1.3.3 Assessing Speaking

In language learning context, speaking assessment is coined with the classroom as it is the context where the assessment takes place. One argument says that formative assessment is the type of assessment that should be realized in the classroom context. This is due the fact that learners must have freedom to use the language in the classroom whenever they have the opportunity. According to Brown (2001) this can only be done through grading learners informally during the process of acquiring their competences and skills. He (2001) adds that teacher can be successful through constant informal (formative) assessment. However, this

fact does not underpin the avoidance of summative assessment which stands for the term 'test' and measures the rate of learners' achievements (product) at the end of a lesson, course, etc.

Canale and Swain (1980) put that language assessment is based on tasks that involve communicative competence and require communicative performance, thereby; the assessment of speaking in the classroom is performance–based (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). In the same vein, Brown (2001) describes the performance-based assessment as having interactive nature, as the learner assessment is based on his relation with the environment and others in the interaction, Fulcher and Davidson (ibid) put. Further to that, Brown (ibid) contends that when a teacher is doing little less of summative assessment and little more formative assessment, is actually doing performance-based assessment.

The importance of learning environment, which is according to Fulcher and Davidson (2007) defined as "set of learning experiences that are designed to lead to the acquisition of language and communication" (p. 25), and which reveals in reshaping the learning process by identifying what the learner needs to be learnt next, is undeniable. Along the way learners improve their learning, learners apply different ways of assessment in the classroom. Self-assessment, peer feedback and feedback provision were and are still the most addressed areas in language assessment. As far as feedback provision is concerned, Ellis (1997) provides two central options; overt and covert feedback. By overt feedback, he (ibid) means the explicit correction of learner errors with the aim of drawing the learners' attention to a specific grammatical error, whereas, covert feedback, according to Ellis (ibid) is the kind of feedback that occurs in conversation that is usually given implicitly, for example when the teacher repeats his student statement with an incidental correction and a raising intonation. Noteworthy, the most occurring way is peer assessment as it adheres to the well-established principal of second language acquisition which is cooperative learning (Brown, 2004).

Nevertheless, self-assessment falls in the core of the formative assessment, thus, it is another favored way of assessment in the classroom. Additionally, self-assessment derives from the theoretical conception that learners should pursue their learning and achieve their own goals without external assistant, that is to say autonomy that will inevitably increase their intrinsic motivation (Brown, ibid).

Brown (ibid) provides a set of tasks that more likely to be strategies that can be developed to assess learners' speaking through self or peer assessment; filling out students peer and self-checklist and questionnaire, rating someone's oral presentation holistically, detecting pronunciation or grammar errors on a self-recording, asking other for confirmation checks in conversation settings, and setting goals for creating/increasing opportunities for speaking (p. 277).

Due to lack of confidence in learners own assessment because of learners' subjectivity that effects their ability to detect accurately their errors, the teacher is then recommended to get involved in feedback provision. Nevertheless, even this process needs carful considerations and some techniques such as the avoidance of overlapping the learner's fluent speaking due to the fact that speaking is real-time process and interrupting it may lead to destroying it. This is the main issue Harmer (2007) speaks about as constant interruption from the part of the teacher will destroy the purpose of the speaking activity, especially conversations, and disturb students. He (ibid) suggests that teachers ask their students first to give their own feedback and then choose the appropriate way to correct the mistakes; by discussing them with the whole class, writing them on the board, or give directly to the students concerned (p.131). As a point of interest, teachers should give a chance to their students to decide on the way and time they prefer to be corrected. In short, Harmer (ibid) suggests that never cease assessing students, whether incidentally or intentionally, Brown (2001) contends.

1.3.4 Assessing Interactive Listening

Not much information will be added to what has been discussed in speaking assessment above, however; some techniques and strategies that are typically used for listening assessment should be addressed as well. Brown (2004) sees that listening assessment goes along with the types of listening, for example, when listening is intensive, the recognition of phonological and morphological elements of language is assessed by their identification among two or more choices or choosing the correct paraphrase of the correct stimulus, when listening is responsive, the test-taker's response of an open-ended questions is counted, and when listening is selective, as the name denotes, the test-taker performs the listening cloze, that is to say, he/she finds the exact deleted word, that can be of a grammatical category, in the written text that is identical to the spoken one or transforming spoken text to a visual representation of it, however; extensive listening is assessed in the form of dictation where test-taker writes down what has been heard three time in different rates of speed, or in form of communicative stimulus-response task where test-taker responds to comprehensive questions. However, as stated by Buck (2001) "there is no such thing as a communicative test" (p.92). Brown (2004) puts that interactive listening approaches the standards of the real world context of the listening performance, authentic communicative listening test is the ideal representation of language assessment. Thus, all the ways of listening assessment mentioned above are of weak validity if they are used in isolation from their authentic interactive use.

Interactive listening assessment has seen a rapid growth of research-related efforts. It has been agreed on the fact that this type of listening is more difficult to test because the listener must process the input in real time, clarify understanding when comprehension is uncertain, critically evaluate what is understood, and then respond (Vandergrift, 2004). Negotiation then became the value under assessment as it resembles what Vandergrift mentioned. There are many difficulties in interactive listening assessment; the non-

collaborative way of assessment like oral interviews restricts the listener to eliciting output and following regular patterns of natural conversation 'question-answer', besides speaking is the only skill assessed through this kind of activities as stated by Buck (2001). Nevertheless, listener is a participant in communicative interaction, accordingly "assessing how well listeners can perform in collaborative interactive situations requires actual communication between two or more participants" (Jingyan & Baldauf Jr, 2011, p.35). Thus in order to achieve a good understanding of this complex interaction, "it is necessary to conduct a close examination of interactive listening performance, investigating the two-way process between the listener and the speaker which focuses on what happens on the part of the listener" (Xiaoxian & Yan, 2010, p.22). Most of research reached the conclusion that claims that interactive listening performance is assessed through the effective use of reception strategies (Vandergrift, 1997; Buck, ibid; Xiaoxian & Yan, ibid).

Conclusion

The chapter reviews a broad definition of the speaking and listening skills in respect to what communicative language teaching approach (CLT) implies. Here with the information retention and comprehension have been accentuated in the light of the interaction nature of the spoken discourse. In accordance to this nature, speaking and listening instruction is seen in relation to real-life communication influence, the social and functional view of language teaching, thus, teaching norms, classroom activities and assessment are widely elicited. In short, the active learning view is coined with the concept teaching/learning listening and speaking as receptive and productive skills. It implies, consequently, the integration of both skills in interactive real-life language use which simulation techniques ensure to thrive in the language classroom.

CHAPTER TWO:

SIMULATION TASK-BASED LEARNING AND TEACHING

Chapter Two: Simulation Task-based Learning and Teaching

Introduction

Moving towards new innovations in language teaching and learning, namely active techniques has led to reconsideration of old practices in language teaching/learning and implementation of new ones. Simulation activities, as one of these techniques, are considered as the core focus of this chapter. This technique brings its own technicalities to the classroom which, consequently, pushes teachers and learners to step outside their creed. To put it simply, simulation activities are efficient and effective activities as they provide naturalistic environment for language use and generate ample opportunities of real communication in EFL classrooms. Thus, self-generated real communication, genuine language use in experience-based tasks, the activation of higher order thinking, planting the sense of cooperation to solve a problem or make decision, which simulation activities brought to the language teaching/ learning, represent the improvements of EFL classroom techniques and practices.

2.1 Definition of Simulation

Group discussions, debates, collaborative projects and internships are different activities that fall in the realm of active learning techniques. Simulation activity came fifty years ago to form part of these techniques and gained huge popularity since. It is not immediately clear as a technique used in the classrooms; hence, a thorough definition and explanation of its technicalities are needed.

Simulation activity has been intertwined with the language techniques in the university classrooms for decades. This technique was integrated in the classroom in the late 1950's and early 1960's, and after this decade, simulation activity has increasingly been used as a teaching technique. In 1977, simulation was a clearly defined technique as it was newly

introduced to the ELT field. Kerr (1977) defines it as governed by scenario and objectives and the participants should follow a set of procedures and stages to perform in the situation as if it is real. A more comprehensive definition of simulation is delivered by Jones (1982) "a reality of function in a simulated and structured environment" (p.5). In other words, simulation involves the impersonation of a function and perceived it as real, and adaptation to real aspects of environment. In 1995, Jones defines again simulation as "an event in which the participants have (functional) roles, duties and sufficient key information about the problem to carry out these duties without play acting or inventing key facts" (p. 18). Acceptance of the reality of function means that a participant should function in the role as the real person in the real-life would. The role of students in simulation activities, therefore, is participating by taking the functional roles such as a doctor, reporter, politician, etc., living the event, shaping it and carrying out their duties and responsibilities.

Jones (1995) stresses in his definition the problem solving structure of the simulation activity that depends on the real condition of the situation. He (1982) further contends that simulation activity is based on structured situation which involves problem solving and decision making. Hence, any kind of problem-solving activity where problems are negotiated and solved can be starting point in a simulation. Thereby, the efficacy of the simulation activity reveals when participants come to a decision. (Harmer, 2007)

On the one hand, a simulation activity is the situation in which a person is placed into a scenario and is directly responsible for the changes that occur as a result of their decisions (Madsa, 2012, p. 3). This responsibility is driven from the personal involvement of participants who start to perceive environment as real situation and characters as real people despite the fact that according to Ur (1996) the group role, situation and task they are given are imaginary. Kerr (1977) adds that participants in the simulation activity make a decision individually or jointly on the basis of their own personalities as the simulation activity is not

controlled and participants participate in the simulation by their own character, experience, skills, and knowledge (Jones, 1983; Harmer, 2007).

On the other hand, Mack (2009) defines the term simulation as "a method of training or research that attempts to create a realistic experience in a controlled environment" (p. 4). The controlled environment is a setting for learning that models the real world context to be studied and forms safe context of learning and experimenting. Due to limited access to real world environment, the dangerous "contact, interaction or consequences between the participants and the world outside the classroom" (Jones, 1982, p. 5), and learners' low competency to understand and perform adequately in the outside world system, the classroom seems the best place to resemble the outside world and generate a safe controlled learning context by simple arrangement of classroom furniture, Jones (1982) puts. Further to that, Jones (1995) argues that simulation is the most successful activity when there is dispersion with the real world. Simulation, then, offers controlled reality which allows experimentation of aspects of reality that otherwise would be impossible to study outside in real life. However, the challenge is how much students immerse within the reality of the scenario. "The goal is not to win but to acquire the knowledge and understanding" (Madsa, 2012, p. 3), transmitting this information to the students would ease their immersion within the scenario as the pressure of having only the expected correct performance is diminished. In essence, simulation activity is the actual manifestation of the interconnection between language education and professional training (Jones, 1983), in other words, it describes the relation between theory and application in more authentic way where failure is as desired as success, Jones (1983) says.

2.1.1 Simulation vs. Role-play

Talking about simulation activity and role play one can easily regard their similarities but hardly distinguish them in terms of differences. There is no clear cut between simulation

activity and role play as Madsa (2012) argues that simulation activity "may contain elements of a game, a role-play, or an activity that acts as a metaphor" (p.4). However, there is a difference even if it is slightly noticeable. Simulation activity is considered as complex form of role plays as Ladousse (1987) puts it "role play activities range from highly-controlled guided conversations at one end of the scale, to improvised drama activities at the other; from simple rehearsed dialogue performance, to highly complex simulated scenarios"(p.3). Role play generally focuses on prescriptive themes and specific language. Learners act out small scenes limited improvisation as they stick to the information in the role cards. Besides, the aim of these role cards is offering the students opportunities to practice specific pieces of language which can be grammar points, functional areas and lexical groups (Herbert & Sturtridge, 1979). Conversely, simulation activity makes use of different documents besides role cards like news flashes and newspaper articles, etc. as well as provides real problems and gets the participants more personally involved. However, in a role-play, as the learners take on characters that are not their own, they will add much of the invented information to complete the scenario.

In simulation activities, students experience the freedom of participation in real-life events, while in role-plays; students are restricted to what is in the role cards. Hence, on the one hand, the difference is a matter of degree as participants in simulation activity participate in an event and feel free to adopt their own vision in solving the problem and making decision. In this respect, Jones (1982) declares that simulation "is not taught" (p.2), but role play is taught in terms of what should learners say and do. Participants in simulation activity do not play role but they fulfil a function as Jones (1983) points out that participants do not pretend to be someone else but adopt only "a new surname". On the other hand simulation and role play took different aims as simulation activity aims at encouraging communication

which occurs as a survival need, however, role play's aim is to practise typical activities students will probably perform in real life.

Role-play is an effective way to develop students' communicative competence, especially the sociolinguistic and strategic competence discussed in Canale and Swain's (1980) framework as it "allows learners to explore the effects of different contextual factors- power relationships, setting, communicative purposes, etc." (Thornbury & Slade, 2006, p. 265). It also helps the students acquire interactional knowledge because role-play usually involves a finite interaction between characters rather than the resolution of a problem (Herbert & Sturtridge, 1979). Thereby, the inclusion of interactions and problem solving braided the practice to be more simulation oriented. Role plays can be communicative in the sense that students are provided opportunities to communicate together, however, students still lack reality of function that simulation provides as Jones (1982) points out, in simulation activity the participants step inside the roles and behave as the person would do in the real-life position solving real but not imaginary issues. Unlike simulation activity, role play exerts on students to pretend to be someone else and not to take on the role and often are "told what they think about certain subject" (Harmer, 2007, p. 125), besides students are engaged in artificial conversations where the stretches of language are predicted in advance. On one hand, simulating reality allows students to cope with real-life situations using their own personal background and language experiences to any situation in the simulation activity in a variety of activities such as resourcing, discussing, and analyzing. On the other hand, students may express themselves more freely when they hide behind the character they are playing (Harmer, ibid).

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

Sturtridge (ibid) call this kind of simulation, role-simulation. Because of the fact that participants will pretend to be in the assigned role, as opposed to taking on the role, the opportunities to communicate will be much more oriented towards the prescribed communication rather than towards the actual real behaviour that the role imposes. Whereby, Herbert and Sturtridge (ibid) suggest that role-play is more supportive of the shy or weak student as the possible end-product will be more exaggerated language than that produced by role-simulation.

2.1.2 Simulation Activities vs. Games

Games are another class activity that overlaps with simulation activities and teachers often confuse them with the latter. The point both simulation activities and games share is that the players in a game and the participants in a simulation are responsible of their role and accepting the conditions within their particular environment (Jones, 1995, p. 13). Games can be communicative activities, yet they lack reality of function. This point is what constitutes the difference between games and simulation activities as Jones (ibid) puts it "the key distinction between games and simulation activities is the existence of real-world ethics" (p. 13). Participants in games have one function which is players and one goal which is wining no matter if unethical decision has to be made. Whereas, in a simulation the participants do not only play part, but function in real-like event adhering to real world ethics to attain professional knowledge and not to perform a task. (Jones, ibid)

2.1.3 Experiential Theory and Simulation

English Language Teaching (ELT) has been struggling to refine its theoretical and practical implications, along the different theories; cognitive and behavioural learning theories which both count no basis for experience and ignore its impact on the learning process. However, finally, ELT is seen as a holistic adaptive process that combines experience, cognition, and behaviour in leaning.

Learning is defined as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 41). David Kolb states here that learning is a multi-dimensional process. Kolb's experiential learning model begins with two polar dimensions that explain the grasping of experience; (1) concrete experience - the tangible qualities of the immediate experience, (2) abstract conceptualisation - the process of analysing the data received and the internal process of developing concepts and theory from the experience. Transforming experience is depicted in two other dimensions; (3) reflective observation - a collection of data through observation and critical thought regarding the experience, (4) active experimentation - a modification of behaviour and knowledge occurs, while the implications for the future are considered. The completion of Kolb's cycle considers two ways process that employs the concepts and theories that result from the reflection and conceptualisation processes which in turn put at work to create experience and possible modifications for future one.

Hence, the experience-based language teaching, frequently cited dimension of CLT and learner- centred approach, caught much interest in recent years and instructional frameworks were advocated to task design that promotes the learners as active participants in experiences designed on the basis of the learner's unique interest, style and goals (Richard and Rodgers, 1986). Thereby, experiential learning, which merges co-operative education, active learning and training, develops interpersonal relationships through promoting interactive learning as well as enhances academic learning by bridging theory and practice. Experiential learning, or active learning, interactive learning, or "learning by doing" have been used compatibly in ELT and take large place in reshaping the learning process, consequently, learning now is conceived as follows:

1. Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes.

2. All learning is re-learning.

3. Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world.

4. Learning is a holistic process of adaptation.

5. Learning results from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment.

6. Learning is the process of creating knowledge. (Kolb's (1984) proposition of characteristics of experiential learning)

Experience and context overlap in large part as according to Luoma (2004) context "includes concrete aspects of the situation such as the place where the talk happens, and cognitive and experiential aspects such as the language use experiences that the speakers bring to the situation and the goals they have in a particular conversation" (p. 30). As far as the learning experience is concerned the classroom is the platform for the context that is represented in the form of learning environment that in turn Fulcher and Davidson (2007) define as "set of learning experiences that are designed to lead to the acquisition of language and communication" (p. 25). With the new requirements of learning, today, turning passive students to active ones, promoting greater interest in the subject material, enhancing intrinsic learning satisfaction, increasing understanding and retention of course material, developing the desire and ability to be autonomous continuous learners, improving communication, and interpersonal, problem solving, analytical thinking, and critical thinking skills of the students, which adheres to experiential learning (Brickner & Etter, 2008), urge instructors to apply different tasks that reflect experience-based learning. In this respect, simulation is one of the activities that serve as a best referent to these tasks. Thus, learners, in simulation activity, interact with real-world scenarios, apply their knowledge and skills to the experience, which they perceive as real in respect to its outcomes, and reflect the manipulation of learning for pedagogical purposes. To put another way, the learner is immersed in a complex, evolving

realistic situation in which he/she tries to adapt the experience and the social reality it represents. The immersion is then based on the changes of the cognitive and behavioural manners due to experience.

García-Carbonell et al. (2014) provide a model that represents the overlapping relationship between Kolb's experiential theory and simulation by adding interlanguage learning as they define "A learner's interlanguage is his/her evolving system of rules which results from a variety of processes that occur when learning a second language (L2)" (p.11). Their model consists of three phases; interlanguage briefing phase which stands for active experimentation, the language learner becomes aware of his/her language skills, interlanguage action phase which implies concrete experience, the learner uses the language within an actual context, and finally, the interlanguage debriefing phase which combines the reflective observation and abstract conceptualization phases, the learner reflects on and analyzes the experience, so as to enable the projection of future linguistic experience (See Figure 2).

Figure 1: Model of simulation and gaming, experiential language learning and acquisition of professional competences (from García-Carbonell & Andreu-Andrés, 2014, p.12)

The interlanguage debriefing in this model is clearly defined when the participants taste the success or failure of their decisions which result from the reflection and conceptualization of their own performance. Put simply, the debriefing of simulation activity, as Jones (1982, p. 48) points out, should concentrate on those aspects of the behaviour that correspond to the teacher's aims and serves to help learners to see their behaviours objectively from their experience as participants and to allow them to integrate into the course of events in the simulation activity. The debriefing stage helps learners to describe and evaluate their feelings and experiences during the simulation activities and apply the knowledge gathered in the classroom within the wider context of real life. Worth to note, Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) state that in a language learning situation the 'substitute elements' that are represented by simulation to depict real life in more genuine way can be any kind of the information; the problem itself or the experience and attitudes of the participants themselves.

2.1.4 Simulation and Communication

Simulation theory came to depict the communicative language acquisition through interaction and experience. In essence, in order to improve communication skills, ample opportunities to communicate with others should be provided to learners. Simulation is a perfect activity that offers these opportunities for learners to communicate in the target language as it provides the participants with "the mutual need to communicate and the need is inherent in the activity" according to Jones (1982, p.9).

This technique entails unexpected events in which "real communication", not artificial (acted) communication is generated automatically and hence communication, which has been a challenge for long time for teachers and learners, is driven to the classrooms. As learners are immersed in scenarios where a need for surviving in the situation by solving problems and making decisions that are achieved by the instinct resulted from the responsibilities and duties of the function, real-world communication is given impulse in the classroom (Jones, ibid).

Thereby, simulation activity offers authentic opportunity to practice a full range of communication skills such as analysis, advertising, negotiations, journalism, etc. (Jones, 1982; Jones, 1983). Adding to that, Jones (1982) says that in simulation activities, the failure in communication between participants is as valuable as success and consequently, communication breakdown resulted in the simulation lead to negotiation of meaning, which will lead in turn to more communication. Whereby, in simulation activity a good deal of the learning (communication) may occur afterwards through reflection of the outcomes and follow-up discussion (Jones, 1982, p. 9). Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) put that in the discussion stage of the realisation of a simulation activity students are placed in a realistic communicative situation which is freer and more evolutionary than normal role-playing activities. Simulation activity changes the classroom as it tends to generate authentic communication by changing the teacher-student asymmetry of the conventional classroom when "the individual participants speak and react as themselves" (Ur, 1996, p.132).

According to Littlewood (1981), the learners must develop skills/strategies for using language to communicate meanings as effectively as possible in concrete situations. Learners have to develop skills/strategies to communicate properly, not to use language correctly, for effective communication in a certain situation. When teaching is focused on language itself, learners cannot experience real communication since there is no negotiation of meanings. Simulation activities, then, are an ideal way of developing communication skills, since communication plays a vital role in simulation activities. They can provide the environment where real communication can be carried out because participants are constantly negotiating meaning while fulfilling their duties in simulation activities. In simulation activities, communication will be always generated to discuss issues, and learners will be involved in various types of communicative activities (Jones, 1982). Within simulation activities, learners will face many situations where different communication skills may be required. Sometimes

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learners have to initiate the conversation to do the job, have to convince others by presenting their thoughts, discuss potential solutions for the problem presented in the simulation or they may have to reach an agreement (Jones, ibid). Through exploring different situations, learners will learn how to communicate properly and effectively. As a result, learners will be able to improve their communication skills/strategies.

2.1.5 Simulation and Reality

Reality has been always an integral part of simulation as According to Mack (2009) "the earliest practical use of simulation was in the construction of physical models of real objects" (p.4). The reality in simulation activities is provided in the authentic data which the learners gather since "they involve language use in interactive contexts" and use "elements of real-life conversation" (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 85). O'Malley and Pierce (ibid) say that such activities are more authentic because they provide a format for using the real-life conversation such as repetitions, interruptions, recitations, facial expressions and gestures. In addition, simulations can provide realistic situations that convey a depiction of the outside world into the classroom and stimulate real communication by allowing the students to take on the functional duties that resemble to those in real life. On a general perceptive, real communication involves real people who share their real personality and thought in the communication while discussing real issues. While on a specific perspective, interaction, exchanging thoughts and negotiating meanings that result from the attempt to fulfil the duty that the function of the participants imposes generate real communication in simulations. Thereby, Activities as simulations can provide a realistic context which portrays real life situations where participants become a part of the communicative event and involved in real communicative act. Besides, the realistic experiences in simulations give learners the confidence when communicating with others in a real situation later on not because they know the performance but because they can perform as Jones (1983) put it, it is not the "I've

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read it, so now I know it" type of confidence: It is the "I've done it, so I can do it" confidence (p. 12).

2.1.6 Simulation vs. Real-life Task

Tomlinson and Masuhara (2000) find that simulation activities were more economical than real-life tasks as they aided "visibility by making certain kinds of phenomena more accessible for observation and measurement, and by introducing clarity into what is otherwise complex, chaotic and confused"; and they allowed numerous aspects of a system to be varied "in ways that yield profitable insights into how the system operates" (p. 153). Besides, they add that simulations free the participants from the obstacles that inhibited their thinking in their usual working environment and to put them in situations that they had never previously encountered. However, simulation is said to model real life environment and approaches the aspects of language appearing in the real situations, thereby, Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) say "the closer the simulation can be to reality and to the student's own first language role or new foreign language role, the closer the language that he produces will be to that which he will need to produce in the real situation."(p.9)

2.2 Benefits of Simulations

For most of the literature, simulation activity was rather focused upon eliciting their positive impacts on learning. For it was suggested that simulation activity develop real-time communication by approaching real-life experience (Jones, 1982). As simulation activity generates purposeful communication that makes participants make decision or solve problem, participants therefore apply their own background knowledge and first language experiences to a situation. Thus, they become motivated and their interest and enthusiasm set at work. Worth noting, simulation task increases student (and teacher) motivation when English is referred to as a deferred need, which is the case in EFL situations (Jones, ibid).

Another benefit of simulation task among many is active involvement of the participants. In simulation activity, the participants behave as themselves which gives them a real insight of immersion in interactive event because simulation activities force students to apply themselves to a particular situation and as a result they "gain a better understanding of the person, as well as the actions and motivations that prompt certain behaviours… explore their feelings" (Moore, 2009, p. 209). Therefore, participants get involved in the learning process extensively and explicitly. Thereby, language acquisition becomes a matter of free involvement in interaction.

Reducing anxiety levels is one essential advantage that simulation activity offers. Simulation activity reduces the stress associated with learning and using new language (Jones, 1982) and hence, it encourages language development (Krashen, 1982) through three main positive effects of simulation activity: firstly, crumbling the dominant interactive pattern that underpinned the classrooms for a long time, teacher-teacher relationship, as in this kind of activity students are given the necessary background information and environment to solve the problem. Furthermore, participants get more personally involved as their self-appreciation of autonomous learning is raised due to the fact that they take control of their own destiny of learning within the simulation activity. Secondly, the chance of playing the role as themselves rather than the role of someone else gives them more freedom and confidence while performing the task. Thirdly, reducing the teacher power in the classroom as he is not allowed to interfere in the simulation activity and he monitors participants' progress unobtrusively can free the learners from the teacher domination and explicit feedback especially for introvert students. Furthermore the fact that simulation activities offer a relatively safe environment for making mistakes and receiving error correction right after the simulation activity is finished (Jones, 1982; Jones, 1983) reduces the anxiety about the accuracy of the utterances produced and hence shifting attention to the meaning and thus the task achievement.

Another innate benefit of simulation activity is fulfilling students' need for realism desire. The sense of realism in the simulation activities is not according to Jones (1982) the result of the reality of function only but also the documents such as handwritten letter, journal article, and interview results, etc. Simulation activities, then, provide a realistic setting for more extensive interaction   with different input resources where participants explore the learning out of the boundaries of classroom constraints that in most cases limit the learners' resources to learn, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2000) assert that simulation activity "allowed us to free the participants from the constraints that inhibited their thinking in their usual working environment and to put them in situations that they had never previously encountered" (p.153). The ambiguity and the uncertainty of what is coming in the simulation activity depict in most part the situation in real world outside the classroom and hence the fact that the learner feels that he is acquainted with such conditions puts him in a better position for learning.

Fluency development is the utmost concern of simulation activity when speaking about language development. It is obvious that simulation's motor generator is communication that is produced as an immediate survival need and overwhelmed by the 'doing' principle of communicative teaching. Communication appears then as a result of participants' immersion in a situation in which its constraints exert its influence on the resultant communication and fluency becomes all what matters. The participants are involved in solving problems, making decisions, forming judgments and identifying their emotions and thoughts in the social environment they are put in, consequently, their concern about the utterance form is decreased and fluency is developed. According to Jones (1982) simulation and language are inseparable and the language changes according to the role allocated to the participants. Hence, language development is not a matter of correct linguistic forms in terms of grammar and pronunciation but appropriate language to, as Jones (ibid) puts, "behaviour, context, motive, meaning, and

shared knowledge" (p. 8). Unlike many tasks, in a simulation language use means communication which results from task performance and not a test of correctness. In essence, the task-based simulation emphasises the ability to perform a task instead of explicitly teaching grammatical structures.

A new feature of simulation activity is the integration of different skills. It exceeds the four language skills to include the communication skills. Simulation then is the typical communicative task and fall under the category of what Littlewood (1981, p.17) calls "whole-task practice". Simulation task teaches communication through acquiring the intercultural and interpersonal competence, manifesting the pragmatic meaning to use language appropriately, to develop the nonverbal components of language. Furthermore, simulation task stimulates cognitive abilities by activating high order thinking skills such as analysing, evaluating, and synthesising data and background knowledge provided to the students. As simulation is whole-task practice, all the skills are put under focus as in one simulation speaking, listening, writing and reading are complementary taught in different stages.

Long term learning is another characteristic of simulation activity as the process of learning that demands cognitive processing remains for long time as Jones (1982) puts it "participants remember vividly what they tried to communicate, how they tried to do it and what happened as a result" (p. 9). All these processes become part of memory that will be put at work whenever the learners encounter a situation that requires similar actions.

Self-driven communication in simulation arises out of the structure of the simulation activity, because the participants engage in studying and analysing the problem to reach decision together. Jones (ibid) argues that the discussion in simulation activity that results from the mutual need of all the participants in the interaction is different from ordinary classroom discussion and thus simulation activity promotes the cohesive, psychological and functional language use as Mack (2009) says that simulation in teaching and learning

concerns itself mostly with the psychological and social processes (p.4). Participants adhere to every step of problem solving or decision making process cohesively together and thus learn the social manifestation of language and deal with different personalities, genders, races, cultures, backgrounds due to the random allocation of roles which is according to Jones (ibid) beneficial for language learning and the wide range of emotional and personal involvement. This will give chance to the learner to experiment different emotions and multiple ways to deal with each category of persons. The simulation is seen as the communicative event, in which participants use the language to achieve a given purpose.

Simulation activity encourages functional language use. It provides variety of functions which according to Jones (1982) constitute rich platform for language skills use and promotes functional appropriateness over grammatical correctness. The learner has the chance to interact in communicative exchanges by using a full range of grammatical-semantic notions and communicative functions. However, it is noteworthy here that function in simulation activity exceeds its ordinary definition which is doing purposeful action but using the appropriate social skills, language and behaviour that represent the role in the best way.

Simulation activity helps the learner confront and identify the target culture as it breaks down the culture by its non-discriminatory nature (Jones, ibid). It, for example digests speech acts which are different from the learners' first language L1. Speech acts are generally difficult for L2 learners to realize in terms of syntactic structure, conventionalized expressions, and sociocultural difference between their L1 and L2. Simulation activities provide the opportunity to make and respond to any illocutionary act as they encourage communication and reflective experimentation of the knowledge needed to perform and understand illocutionary acts which constitutes part of communicative competence and is included in Canale's (1983) sociolinguistic competence and in Bachman's (1990) illocutionary competence under pragmatic ability.

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Autonomy is another important advantage of simulation activity as it exceeds the autonomous learning style in dealing with the problems to evaluating their own simulations in the form of follow up discussion. Littlewood (1981) puts that the learner must learn to use feedback to judge his success, and if necessary, remedy failure by using different language. When the learner assesses his performance by him/herself, this will lead to greater confidence and high professional learning.

Simulation activity in its other facet develops interpersonal relationships, thus the quality of interaction is enhanced through this activity. Proupore (2005) puts that problem solving tasks, among them simulation, produce more comprehensible output and thus leads to more interaction. The simulation nature which resembles self-generated communication, as Jones (1982) puts, justifies the aforementioned simulation's facet.

2.3 Simulation Structure

It has been proved that simulation activities foster the development of professional skills such as team work, negotiation, decision making or the development of interpersonal relationships. Jones (1982) signals out three main characteristics of simulation activity that will be polemically considered in any designed simulation activity among which structured environment plays an important role. He defines it as "where the participants have all the facts and information provided for them" (pp. 4-5).

2.3.1 Problem Solving

Problem solving forms one of the basic axes of simulation structures (Jones, 1982) which he claims "it must be… built around some problem or problems" (p.5); thus, the notion problem-based learning (PBL) overlaps, in a large part, with simulation's structure. PBL was developed in the 1960s at McMaster University in Canada. Merrill (2005) points out that, real problems, which are characterized by messy and ill-defined nature, are the merits of PBL. Merrill explains PBL as requiring information-gathering by the student besides reflection on

the process and on the content, that is, "people work together … by collecting information about the problem, reviewing that information and making a decision on their findings" (Barker and Gaut, 2002, p.160). Apparently, simulation and PBL share the collaborative learning that aims at actively engage learners in sharing their learning while solving a problem. Jones (ibid) puts that a simulation is the one that is structured around a problem that is sufficiently explicit to preserve reality of function, and allows the participants the power and responsibility to shape the event and tackle the problem. In short, simulation activities spin-off PBL principles, that is involving participants emotionally, intellectually and morally in the problem solving.

2.3.2 Critical Thinking

In the process of problem solving, students develop and use cognitive abilities to analyse their options and evaluate their solutions; in this vein, simulation activities "give students the chance to apply theory, develop critical skills, and provide a welcome relief from the everyday tasks of reading and preparing for classes" (Kanner, 2007). An additional benefit of many of these simulations is the introduction of an aspect of realism into the students' experience in which students have to deal with the processes of analysing real aspects of the problem, to put it another way students become actively involved in the learning. According to Bonwell and Eison (1991) put forcefully: "students must engage in … higher-order thinking tasks as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation" (p. iii) and they point out clearly that students should be involved in activities that immerse them in "doing things" and "thinking about what they are doing" (p. iii). Bonwell and Eison (ibid) suggest simulations as the kind of activities which promote doing and thinking at the same time because students deal with problems which are of a high complexity before they eventually reach a decision which in turn requires hiring decision-making skills.

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2.3.3 Decision Making

The other basic axes of simulation, that Jones (1982) mentioned, is decision making. Jones (1983) puts it in his word "in a simulation you will often be working as a member of a team, sharing the decision-making …with each other" (p.1). However, Herbert and Sturtridge's (1979) claim that simulation's function which depends on the situation, that is to say, in a first language situation the function is training in decision-making or in making those involved aware of a problem; while in the foreign language situation this function is more oriented to the language-practice function, is worth considering. However, the reality of function that simulation brings to the classroom learning, reveals new signs of training in decision making and raising awareness towards the problems, especially when considering the eight simulations Jones (1983) designed, it is seen that these simulations are meant to engender the decision making skills in foreign language learning situation.

2.3.4 Negotiation

Meaning negotiation is a process, in which the participants in a conversation collaborate with each other to solve problem. To do this, they employ meaning negotiation skills, including negotiation devices such as confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests, repetition requests, and repetition (Lee, 2000, p.103). Simulation goes along with the strategic component of the communicative competence mentioned in Canale and Swain's model (1983) as the negotiation devices help learners to indicate any misunderstanding of what is being said or meant and thus improving communication. Simulation activity forms great platform for negotiating meaning as it entails generic context for potential misunderstanding that is similar to the one that may occur in real world which requires negotiation of meaning.

Meaning negotiation skills are essential for learning a second or foreign language, in that they can facilitate 'comprehensible input' (Krashen, 1982), 'comprehensible output'

(Swain, 1995), and enhance motivation (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Poupore (2005) elicits six types of interaction variables: negotiation of meaning (N-Meaning), negotiation of form (N-Form), negotiation of task content (N-Content), negotiation of task procedure (N-Procedure), negotiation of personal experience (N-Experience), and self-initiated repair. He (ibid) after a research contends that problem-solving tasks "produced more quality interaction than did jigsaw tasks" (p. 248). As participants in the simulation activity focus on the problem to solve, a tendency towards negotiating meaning and content will be high. This was confirmed by Poupore (2005) as he contends "problem-solving tasks had a much higher success rate in producing additional information responses" (p.249).

2.4 Simulation in ELT Context

Crookall (1984) points out that simulation in the EFL classroom is designed to create or approach authentic social experience in which students are encouraged to use language spontaneously. He adds that the more a student believes in the real world reflection, the 'communicativeness' of his language appears. The challenge of accepting the authenticity of the simulated situation is more likely to appear in ELT (English Language Teaching) simulations more than non-ELT as "many non-EFL simulations can… be perceived by students as more real and credible than many EFL simulations", according Crookall (ibid, p.263). Taking this account in regard, role assignment has a direct influence on the way students perceive the reality of the simulated situation. In 1983, Jones designed eight simulations addressing foreign learners of English. In his simulations participants may adopt a new surname. Crookall (ibid) criticized this procedure of role assignment as, according to him, when students adopt a pseudonym, their belief in the simulated situation and therefore their authentic language use will be hindered. He further contends that this will cause a large discrepancy between the EFL participant's own self or identity and the kind of personality that he or she is expected to assume even if adopting new pseudonym does not "involve them

in pretending to be someone with a different personality" (Jones, 1983, p.1). Language is another aspect that might be dealt with from learners' perspective, that is, EFL students should be involved with social and human aspect of the situation to see language from learning perspective but rather spontaneous and normal perspective, Crookall says.

When it comes to the implementation of non-EFL simulations, there should be a special consideration of Herbert and Sturtridge's (1979) claim which is that simulation in ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is particularly relevant, for linguistic, as well as for academic/occupational reasons. Non-EFL simulations are the most appropriate teaching techniques in ESP as they served in developing the two facets of ESP; teaching ESP and teaching a speciality to speakers of other languages through the medium of English, Crookall (1984) puts. Worth to note, what is still uncovered in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) whether these be academic or occupational, how simulations find their place among these needs to reach optimum students satisfaction. The challenge is then how to design a simulation that fits the needs of all ESP students.

2.4.1 Simulations in the Language Classroom

The development of second language acquisition (SLA) depends on the classroom interaction in which "classroom settings play an effective role as social settings" (Yu, 2008, p. 48). The realistic social role is depicted inside the classroom through activities which promote communication in social settings. As an example negotiation as a part of classroom interaction is best developed through simulated negotiation (Yu, ibid, p.49).

Thus simulation activity in the language classroom changes the teacher and learner roles; although there is no teacher in simulation activities, his role remains crucial during the simulation task since he is the controller who makes the simulation possible (Jones, 1982, p. 40). Simulation activity provide the opportunity to the learners to be active participants in the

social setting created in the classroom and free from the teacher's dominance. Simulation activities, in essence, adheres to the learner-centred approach as it involves the learner's needs, desires and expectations in the realisation of the simulation as Kerr (1977) asserts that for a successful simulation the conceptual level and theme need to match the participants' expectations.

2.4.2 Simulation: Acquisition vs. Learning

Acquisition has been perceived for a long time as a subconscious process while learning is the conscious process, where the learned language is in the brain, according to Krashen (1982). However, these definitions are controversial as the concrete entity of language in the brain (learned knowledge) cannot be acquired subconsciously. Krashen's definition clearly demonstrates confusion about the relationship between learning and acquisition. Learners know that they are communicating (learning a language) but they are not aware that they are acquiring the language by processing the learned language. In real world, acquiring how to communicate is much more needed than acquiring a language. As simulations are untaught events (Jones, 1982, p. 2), explicit language teaching does not exist. Participants can acquire how to communicate implicitly during simulation activities as no explicit instruction is provided by the teacher and the participants discover how to say or what to say in any situation in the simulation by themselves. They, for example, speak in different ways, use nonverbal behaviour to make others understand what they mean, or negotiate meaning to solve communication breakdowns. Simply put, Learners as participants are the ones who shape the event and are involved in the communicative action, thus they can acquire how to communicate implicitly using simulation activities. As "simulations provide 'input' that is reasonably comprehensible" (Crookall, 1984, p. 264), learners get involved in the situation, without worrying about the language, and the rest (acquisition) will follow.

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2.4.3 Preparing for Simulations

Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) note that in a successful simulation the complexity of the overall professional content, is grasped when students realize the detailed content during the simulation. Thus, to prepare for simulation as a continuous process different stages need to be followed and some information should be given appropriately on time.

The preparation of simulation implies student integration as noted by Herbert and Sturtridge (ibid). In the first phase in structuring any simulation students should be provided with information i.e., the problem discussed in the simulation, their task, the rules and constraints. Briefing is the name devoted to this phase, wherein, as Jones (ibid, p. 34) contends, the controller should provide enough information for the participants to understand what is involved in the briefing stage and ensure that all required documents are present. Simply put, in this phase role acceptance is emphasized and not to play or act, so that learners can behave properly in the simulations. This phase according to Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) is presented in the form of skills cooperation, e.g. not-taking, reading and listening comprehension. A linguistic input practice can be then forwarded in this phase, they (ibid) put. The second phase includes preparatory discussion. Sub-grouping is the way to achieve these discussions which take place in smaller groups and the results that come out are discussed in larger groups (Herbert and Sturtridge, ibid). Simulation at this phase shows the first signs of cooperative learning as the learners learn to negotiate their suggestions about the problem solving to reach a joint solution. Herbert and Sturtridge (ibid) recommend tape recording of the discussion in the simulation to be viewed and assessed in the follow-up session. The follow-up stage is the last stage in the simulation in which the teacher evaluates the participants through written or oral work, according to them. This stage is referred to as the debriefing which is the most critical stage of the simulation process. Jones (1982, p. 47)

suggests that it would be a good idea to start the debriefing by asking each participant to explain briefly what s/he did and why.

2.4.4 Simulation Activity and Motivation

The word 'motivation' comes from the Latin movere – 'to move'. It means pushing people to 'move' so that they respond. Students respond to their learning by devoting their time and effort to increase their achievements. Two type of motivation are sometimes distinguished: Instrumental motivation which refers to investing effort on learning to attain study proposes, e.g., passing an exam or passing job interview and integrative motivation which stands for learning a language in order to communicate with people and integrate in the target-language culture (Ur, 1996). Another important distinction is set between intrinsic motivation (the eagerness to learn for its sake) and extrinsic motivation (derived from external incentives). Ur (1996) contends that these types of motivation are possibly more useful for teachers. Therefore, teacher's responsibility in motivating students is crucial. The more motivated the learners are the better their learning process will be (Ur, ibid).

In the 1970's, there has been a shift of emphasis from intrinsic motivation to extrinsic motivation as language was related more to its social manifestation, its utilitarian factors became clear. However, in recent literature Jordan, et al. (2008) put that "learners are motivated by factors which can be partly extrinsic and partly intrinsic" (p.158). Consequently, what happens inside the classroom caught more attention as Ur (ibid) sees that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation play an important role in classroom motivation. Teachers methods, activities and their perception of their success or failure (Harmer, 2007) are motivational factors that teachers usually focus on to sustain motivation. To put it another way, teachers are responsible for arousing interest in the tasks handled in the classroom, especially for example when "the degree of involvement and enthusiasm aroused by a game or simulation in a particular group of students is extremely difficult for the teacher to predict" (Kerr, 1977, p. 6).

Kumaravadivelu (2006) puts that innovative classroom activities (such as games, role plays, and scenarios) aimed at creating and sustaining learner's motivation. As simulations are self-generated and involving, motivation raises in participants' behaviour (Harmer, ibid). Jones (1982) claims that motivation is inherent in the duties, responsibilities and the circumstances of the event as simulations involve "clear goals but require students to solve problems, avoid traps, or overcome obstacles in order to reach the goals" (Brophy, 2004, p. 197). The signs of motivation; the enjoyment, pleasure, and excitement are seen when the participants taste the delight of solving a problem or making an effective decision. Supporting the last point, Harmer (ibid) says that "if students feel they have some influence over what is happening, rather than always being told exactly what to do, they are often more motivated" (p. 21). Furthermore, the social construction of learning in simulations provides rich cooperative learning environment and offers potential motivational benefits to students as, according to Brophy (2004), they respond directly to students' relatedness needs. Noteworthy, the interaction that is provided in the simulations enhances the intrinsic motivation (Brophy, ibid) because "personal delight in solving a problem is mostly intrinsic." (Jordan, et al. 2008, p. 158)

On instructional basis, Jones (1982) and Harmer (2007) mention an important benefit of the simulation which is breaking down the common classroom pattern student-teacher interaction to be student-student interaction and hence the teacher becomes the controller who facilitates and monitors the learning process, while the students become active participants responsible for their own learning and consequently a wider range of language skills will be included in the learners' repertoire. This orientation will exert more confidence, natural self-generated communications, and a sense of security as participants apply decision-making skills and solve situation-based problems in a controlled environment without terrifying by the consequences. Simulations, additionally, have long term impact as participants remember

"what they tried to communicate, how they tried to do it and what happened as a result" (Jones, ibid, p. 9) even years after the simulation. This fact may well be enough reason to make learners reach their learning expansions. Ur (1996) states that "listening activities based on simulated real-life situations are likely to be more motivating and interesting to do than contrived text book comprehension exercises" (p.107). Furthermore, Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) put that participants are highly motivated when they use English as an instrument for academic purposes, as they appreciate the immediate transference of this experience to an academic situation conducted in English.

2.4.5 The Use of Authentic Video in Simulation

Since the first phase for preparing simulation is providing the basic input information needed to operate effectively in simulation, the most useful means should be used to get this information across is video. Multimedia seems to be the most effective, vital and interesting way for information transmission. Because listening comprehension, a significant skill in foreign language development, is one of the skills that teachers use in the input information provision of the simulation, the first phase of simulation can take place in the classroom or language laboratory (Herbert & Sturtridge, 1979, p.10).

In the absence of any technological tools that exist today, scholars in the past believe that the creation of the generalized context visually in the classroom is prerequisite. Language learner tends to use materials that are supplemented by visual clues that provide setting information, real spoken language and the mechanisms of interaction, (Willis, 1983, p. 33) because for a long time, video supported the comprehensible input hypotheses (Krashen, 1985) as it is an open-window for the foreign culture, "a stimulus or input … can be used for discussions, for writing assignments, as an input for projects or the study of other subjects" (Sherman, 2003, p. 3). Video is used to teach how to use the language communicatively and for the sake of comprehension and retention of spoken discourse. Video also teaches students

places, people, and behaviour that help students constitute the experience of using the English language. Consequently, "because of the moving visual component that video is a popular aid in the language classroom" (Willis, ibid, p.30).

The video is an engaging tool in the classroom as it allows students to step inside the context of language use. Sherman (ibid) puts that the visual cues of the videos provide "excite… interest in the meaning of the words" (p.2) besides the concept of understanding and enjoying the real aspects the video provides, makes the video powerful tool in the classroom (Sherman, ibid). "Video is richer than audio" Harmer (2007) says, as the visual cues support meaning by the background information they provide. Thus, using video in the language teaching is beneficial as it satisfies students' needs to access the world English language media (Sherman, 2003). Media, then, can reinforce the direct relationship between the language classroom and the outside world. Sherman (ibid) stresses authenticity that video brings in terms of accent, vocabulary, syntax, and discourses, in other words matches each genre to its structure. Nevertheless, video is less useful if students are drawn by the visual senses and hence pay little attention to hearing. (Harmer, 2007)

Despite the fact that, in the continual effort to improve the teaching of foreign languages, textbook authors and their publishers are now urging teachers to include video in the curriculum, because Videotapes permit students to hear native speakers interacting in everyday conversational situations and to practice important linguistic structures and video's visual dimension motivate students to want to learn the foreign language (Herron et al., 1995, p. 775). However, its integration in the language classroom is not easy because the teacher according to Harmer (ibid) should sustain the students' motivation by choosing the video that is relevant to students' level and interest. Accordingly, he (ibid) provides procedures for using the video in the classroom: playing the video without sound, students guess first from what they see what the characters are saying. This procedure allows the teacher to assess the

students' capacity of inferring, playing the audio without picture: students listen to the audio and then try to guess the contextual factors of the language characters are using. This way of using video draws the students' attention to the importance of context to language use. At the end the teachers plays the audio with the visual image, freeze frame: the teachers pauses the video at a given time and ask his students to predict what will happen next, and dividing the class in half: half of the class face the screen, conversely the other half face the wall. The 'screen' half describes the visual image to the 'wall' half.

A research held by MacKnight in 1981 revealed that "teachers like video because they believe it motivates students, bringing real life into the classroom, contextualizing language naturally, enabling students to experience authentic language in a controlled environment" (as cited in Willis, 1983, p. 30). All these benefits of video go into line with the characteristics of simulations, whereby video and simulation can be a complementary tool for each other as video plays a role in the provision of input for the realization of the simulation or video recording of the simulation for later assessment, while the simulation in turn can deprive the learners of the passive role they attain after watching the video by immersing them in active roles when they interact with authentic language situations in the simulation.

2.4.6 Simulation as Language Assessment

Simulations are considered as real-life or target tasks and can serve as a tool for assessment. Luoma (2004) sees that the real aspect that simulation brings makes it a replication of non-test language use in the assessment situation. Littlejohn (1990, p. 125) suggests that "the use of simulations as a testing device is ... an important development since it should be possible to replicate the situations in which learners will have to use the language." He also puts that this kind of replication allows the shift of vision from the language product to the process which engenders language. Thus, the language use has a direct impact on the situation assessment as "simulations will show us how the student

actually performs" (Littlejohn, ibid, p. 128). The question then which needs to be asked is: on what basis the learner would be assessed? In other words would he be assessed on how might he do in a real setting, or in the replicated situation? In this respect, McNamara (1996) distinguishes between strong performance testing which replicates the real-life language-use event and uses real-world criteria for judging task success, and weak performance test that accounts having enough language ability suffice for task success (as cited in Luoma, 2004, pp. 40-41). However, the pervasive test type in most language tests follow the weak performance testing because the student even in simulation testing consider himself as a learner more than language user in real-life situation according to Luoma (ibid).

2.5 Simulation Discourse Analysis

Generally speaking, simulation discourse analysis happens during the debriefing phase as announced by Jones (1982). He says that the analysis may take two different forms addressing; (1) the grammatical efficiency and (2) functional effectiveness.

2.5.1 Grammatical Analysis

The grammatical analysis focuses on the grammatical errors. Jones (ibid) put that the analysis concentrated itself on their type and their frequency. This analysis according to him serves to constitute a student profile that includes what is there and what is missing in his linguistic competence. The first step in this analysis is to highlight these errors. The example below shows how to conduct the first step (taken from Jones, 1982, p.50, a part belongs to the transcript from a West German school where five children-who have had six years of English-taking, part in Jones's simulation 'Space Crash').

Andro: the information is: Dyans are friendly and
they will show us the way to the radio station and there

we find food and   water. But Dyans are not drinking   we would find

water – they need only a kind of dry grass and they never   do not drink

move away from grassy areas.

    Erid: Yes. Betelg?

    Betelg: We are on a flat land. I have a compass and

– er – can choose our way, but we can't go – em –

diagonal on Dy. We must be careful that we do not go in   diagonally

circles and – em – and we can …

    Cassi: I know how long we can stay without water.   go or live or survive

That's three days, and – er- on Dy the valleys are not

usually – usually near hills – em – we're – er – only – nee

– the only other water on Dy is at the radio station –er –   omit, or and

that we can see the   radio station – em – mast from the

hill if we climb on them. And I've also the information   hills

that – em – the sand is dangerous, but I don't know why   climb up them or climb

and – er – perhaps the story is untrue.   them

The step after underlying grammatical errors is categorising them for example Andro's errors

'we find' and 'are not drinking' indicates a problem with tenses. (Jones, 1982, p. 51)

2.5.2 Functional Analysis

The functional analysis, of the simulation discourse, deals with how much participants are able to communicate meaning in context. The important factors, Jones (ibid) mentioned, that should be considered to achieve this analysis is 'cohesion' of the discourse, in other words "what it is that the participants are trying to communicate" (p.52) in relation to the context in which language is used. The re-analysis of the above transcript revealed the following conclusions: Andro announces informational category of discourse when he said

'the information is…', but failed to provide full information that they have no food or water and that they have nothing to carry water in (he violated Grice's (1975) quantity maxim). Additionally, Erid's statement, 'yes Betelg', conveys the functional meaning 'I am in charge. Thank you, Andro, for your contribution. I assume you have finished. It is now your turn, Betelg. You may begin' as he decides to organise the discussion. Jones says also that functional analysis can be categorised according to its interest or worth to be addressed in the future lessons. He adds that each type of discourse has its own patterns of functional use, besides, the analysis of simulation discourse is different from ordinary classroom talk where talk is ruled by what is appropriate to the teacher (the learner says what the teacher wishes him to say) rather than what contributes usefully to the discussion (p.57). According to Jones (ibid), the two types of analysis "are not mutually exclusive" as they can be both done on the same transcript (p.58).

2.6 Researches Related to Simulation Activities

Blank (1985) has researched the effectiveness of role playing, case studies, and simulation games in teaching Agricultural Economics. His research aimed at assessing the impact of introducing these techniques into undergraduate courses. The results showed that simulation games allowed a diversity of abilities when used as a teaching aid more than the other techniques. In more details the research reported the following conclusions:

 - Role playing only helps giving students better understanding of the decision-making environment.

 - Case studies can only present detailed information about situations, thus they are useful when the instructor's aim is to present large amounts of technical data.

 - However, simulation games give students both repeated exposure to the decision-making environment and the opportunity to deal with large amount of detailed information.

Davis (1996) has implemented simulation called "Let's Do Business" for six months in an attempt to assess the effectiveness of simulation as an ELT technique at a business college in Tokyo, Japan. Davis allowed the participants to encounter gradually the complexity of simulation as he started with skits to more involved productions, that is allowing the participants and himself to understand the working manner of simulation and acknowledge clearly its impact on language learning and teaching. The findings strongly supported that once students had tasted the benefits of simulation, their desires to learn improved considerably.

Tompkins (1998) attempted to assess the effectiveness of role playing/simulation in ELT. The findings reported the fact that when the role playing/simulation techniques are employed, they should be integrated with other language learning activities. If this integration takes place in the classroom, students as well as teachers will be engaged in extremely rewarding experience.

Silvia (2009) surveyed 198 students enrolled in the four sections of the urban policy course during the fall 2009 semester; three instructors in four sections of an urban policy course at a large public University in the Midwest used the simulation *Camelot: A Role-Playing Simulation for Political Decision Making* (adopted from Woodworth et al., 2005). The results of the survey indicated that most of the students had a favourable opinion of the simulation's impact on their higher-level learning. This conclusion has been validated by the following findings:

  - Simulation helped them apply the concepts learned in class.

  - Simulation helped them draw conclusions and compare different viewpoints (students were more willing to think critically about what is being discussed).

  - The simulation also proved to give students the opportunity to learn about themselves and others.

- The simulation increased the student's self-awareness and made them sensitive to the perspectives of others.

  - The simulation also had a significant impact on helping the students learn to want to learn more. (pp. 409-413)

Mañeru et al. (2011) have studied the effect of simulation activities on bridging the gap between universities and the health care (workplace).The research was conducted in the Medical Simulation Center in Spain where medical school students developed multiple activities from their first year of medical studies in the course ―Initiation in Clinical Procedures. The research concluded that in simulator scenarios, the highest levels of quality and training effectiveness can be achieved. In other words "learning by simulation makes it easier for medical students to enter the work place with better preparation and adjustment." (p.257)

Madsa (2012) has conducted an extended experience of motivating students' speaking skill through simulation in English for specific purpose class in Rattaphum College Language Centre. The data have been collected through class observation, teaching journal, document collection, questionnaire and interview and the results have been analysed qualitatively. The findings of this research have promoted the motivational effect of simulation on students' behaviour. The researcher summarised them as follows:

1. Students are highly motivated with this approach. It is shown from their work on some assignments and task given with good results.

2. Students are keen on attending the class as they feel that they get enough practice as well as theory.

3. Students state that their English is improved in some ways.

4. Students feel more confidence.

5. Students state that the lecturer give good assistant during the class.

6. Students can achieve their expectation in learning English.

7. Students state that the equipment provided in class is very useful easy to use.

8. Students sate that this simulation approach can be continued with some improvement.

Angelini (2014) designed two sessions that delved into human rights by means of a simulation and collaborative learning to 35 prospective teachers at the international week at University College South Denmark. The aim of the study was to inspect the rate of engagement of participants into reading about human rights and environmental issues through a simulation and debating possible solutions to several social problems. The qualitative analysis revealed that most participants agreed on the use of simulations due to an added value: social interaction and exchange of ideas openly, valued working in team, and they were satisfied with the experience of learning during the simulation.

Conclusion

The urge to create rich communicative realistic environment in the classroom, where students actively become part of the world outside the classroom, develop students' communicative competence by involving them in functional language use. It generates student-student relationship by making them take control of their learning; thus be responsible for its outcomes, and has mapped the terrain for simulations to be part of the EFL classroom. As a result, simulations changed the stereotyped picture of the EFL classroom under the revolutionary reformulation of the communicative language teaching. The review presented in this chapter stresses the fact that simulations' aim is to help EFL learners improve their communicative ability in naturalistic context of learning; accordingly, it has taken the line that simulations should be implemented in the EFL classrooms.

CHAPTER THREE:

COMMUNICATION IN ACADEMIC CONTEXT: CLASSROOM FOCUS

Chapter Three: Communication in Academic Context:

Classroom Focus

Introduction

College English teaching has been the focus of many teachers and thus effective communication which plays a vital role in universities. In a nutshell, communication has been called the key concept of academic disciplines of the university. For the purpose of this study, this chapter examines the working mechanism of classroom communication in EAP context. The practical definition of communication, in relation to EAP discourse and style, builds on multidimensional vision of its implications in the classroom; consequently Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as the blanket term which involves communicative teaching methodology, learner-centered approach, collaborative learning, task–based communication and communicative activities, is essentially the focal point of concern.

3.1 English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

In order to captivate the notion of communication in academic context, it is important to cast light on English for academic purposes (EAP) and its impact on communication. EAP has been emerged from the larger field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and it has two subdivisions: *English for General Academic Purposes* (EGAP) and *English for Specific Academic Purposes* (ESAP) (described by Blue (1988a) as cited in Jordan, 1997, pp. 4-5). Hyland and Hamp-lyons (2002) put that English for Academic Purposes refers to language research and instruction that focuses on the specific communicative needs and practices of particular groups in academic contexts. Thus, EAP means equipping students with the communicative skills to participate in particular academic contexts. Worth to note that one of the strongest links between EAP and ESP is the focus on needs analysis as a systematic way of identifying the specific sets of skills, texts, linguistic forms and communicative practices that a particular group of learners must acquire (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). However,

needs analysis should exceed the emphasis on students' needs that may have great influence on "the kind of teaching and learning that takes place" (Jordan, 1997, p. 22) to include the mutual influence of the academic context on the students' needs as EAP "seeks to provide insights into the structures and meanings of academic texts, into the demands placed by academic contexts on communicative behaviours, and into the pedagogic practices by which these behaviours can be developed" (Hyland & Hamp-lyons, 2002, p. 3). For thorough understanding of EAP, it is crucial to examine the context and purposes to use EAP. The contexts in which EAP might be involved to reach academic literacy vary according to different settings and circumstances; they can be English–speaking context (e.g., UK, Ireland, USA, etc.), a context where English is used as foreign language (e.g., Germany, Finland, etc.) or is used as second language (e.g., India). Whereas, the purposes, that student may need EAP for, are higher education studies or pre-departure courses before studying abroad (Jordan, ibid, p. 2).

Worth mentioning, in 1974 the term 'English for Academic Purposes' appears to be "concerned with those communication skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems" according to ETIC (1975) (as cited in Jordan, ibid, p.1). Consequently, communication in academic context should concentrate on communication skills that lead to educational efficacy. The communication instruction then should be based on "an understanding of the cognitive, social and linguistic demands of specific academic disciplines." (Hyland and Hamp-lyons, ibid, p. 2); further to that, global job market is also one of the main facets that the pedagogical instructional framework at universities is centralized on, to put it another way, EAP tries to develop the competence of graduates at the university to be adequately effective in real life situations, by applying the appropriate techniques, procedures and methods.

3.1.1 Communication for Academic Purposes

Before we dive into the foreground of communication in academic context, it is important to shed light over what the word 'communication' means. Communication is defined as an aspect of human behaviour according to Rai (2010). It is a part of everything we do. A detailed definition of communication implies "the transmission of information and meaning from one individual or group to another" (Rai, ibid, p.6). To put it another way, it is bridging the information gap between two (or more) people (Morrow, 1981, p.62). The process of communication is interactive and can be achieved only through sharing mutual influence between the speaker and listener, that is to say both the receiver and the sender understand the same meaning transmitted. The mutual relationship reveals in the listeners response which depends on the aim stated by the speaker all the time he is speaking (Morrow, ibid). To sum up, human communication is according to Barker and Roach Gaut (2002):

- Action meaning behaviour that involves verbal and nonverbal symbols that shape, reinforce, or change one another's behaviour.
- Communication is a tool for satisfying needs and hence to survive.
- Communication is purposeful: people communicate for a reason.
- Communication is mutually influencing: communication is an event where participants share the communication process and influence one another in the interaction
- Communication is structure: can be either formal or informal.
- Communication systems evolve: the communication system changes immediately or over time. (pp. 13-18)

Rai (ibid) provides seven elements necessary for the communication to take place: (1) the sender, who initiates the process, (2) encodes (3) the message, which has a (4) purpose, into symbols through (5) medium or channel and receives a response from (6) the receiver that is called (7) feedback about the effectiveness of the communication. Worth noting,

Barker and Roach Gaut (2002) shed light on important dimensions of communication; verbal and non-verbal symbols that are used to achieve the purpose of communication.

3.1.1.1 Verbal communication

Verbal communication is the behaviour that originates in the form of words (Baker and Gaut, ibid, p. 11). Rai (2010) puts that verbal communication involves the four language skills: speaking, writing, reading, as well as listening. While others think that verbal communication is only manifested in speaking and hearing (Widdowson, 1978). For an effective verbal communication, one needs to have "a rich vocabulary, command of a variety of sentence structures, clarity in thinking, and focus on the audience are necessary" (Rai, ibid, p.13). Furthermore, Rai (ibid) points out that verbal communication is always accompanied by non-verbal communication.

3.1.1.2 Nonverbal communication

Communicative event is incomplete without the paralinguistic devices and features. Widdowson (1978) puts that speaking and listening involve verbal communication while the appropriate labels are saying and hearing that exceeds the spoken language to include the non-verbal elements (p.73). Rai (ibid) puts that "non-verbal communication is mostly involuntary and unconscious and difficult to control" (p. 16) and it "occurs mainly through visual symbols and auditory symbols" (p.17). The non-verbal elements which Widdowson (ibid) calls paralinguistic devices, according to Baker and Gaut (2002) and Rai (ibid) include facial expressions, tone of voice, gestures, body movement, eye contact, appearance, and paralanguage.

When speaking about communication in academic context, it is important to refer to the fact that the systematic study of communication started in college and universities. Morreale et al. (2000) attest that "the communication discipline should be viewed as central on college

campuses" (p.2). In line with this fact, Gizir and Simsek (2005) have addressed in their study the common perspectives on organisational communication which they adopted from Krone et al. (1989). They focused on communication patterns that are most likely to occur in university context since it represents very complex organism where complex input is negotiated between different operating units such as faculty, school, college, chair, institute, and departments. The first perspective they adopted, is *the mechanistic perspective* which "emphasizes the channels that connect communicators", *the psychological perspective* "deals with how characteristics of individuals affect their communication", *interpretive perspective* in which "organisational communication is composed of patterns of coordinated behaviours that have the capacity to create, maintain, and dissolve organizations" and *the system-interaction perspective* which leads to "concentrating on external behaviours as the fundamental units of analysis" (p. 200). For our aim in this study, we will focus attention on perspectives of communication in the classroom which represents the lowest organism at the university, because the classroom context involves complex organisms of communication that should be cast light on to have direct influence on the higher levels of organizational communication which is found between faculties, institutions, and departments.

3.1.2 Communication in Academic Discourse and Style

Speaking about communication discourse and style draws attention to English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) as the latter is characterised by different registers, discourses and genres. *Register analysis* in 1960's focused its arena on tense frequencies and vocabulary frequencies that characterise grammar register and lexicons of different subjects (ESP), Jordan (1997) puts. In a nutshell the analysis was superficial as it concerns itself with word and sentence level.

In 1970's, the analysis went beyond word and sentence level, this has led to a different approach to analysis – *discourse analysis*. This analysis, according to Jordan (1997), concerns itself with "describing the language and its structure that is used in speech or text that is longer than a sentence, e.g., conversation, paragraphs, complete texts" (p.229). He (ibid) adds discourse analysis counts for the effect of communicative contexts on language use, for example, in social transactions, the relationship between the speakers and listeners. Of the same account, choice of verb tenses or other grammatical features affect the structure of the discourse, Jordan clarifies. Relatedly, Grimshaw (2003) says that discourse analysis is related to how words "can do things like promise or threaten, and perhaps thus 'cause' social outcomes" (p.29). It is clear then the mutual influence that word choice and social context share. Jordan (ibid) continues saying that cohesion, discourse markers or cohesive devices, that are employed, fall in the realm of discourse analysis. Grimshaw (ibid) emphasized an important notion in discourse analysis – discourse processes – rather than careful measurements of processes. In the same vein, Jordan (ibid) highlights the recurring patterns and text organisation in the analysis. Grimshaw (ibid) illustrated this by the following example: in the analysis of conflict talk, the focus is on how "sequencing, interruption, amplitude, and the tune, and ... how … termination is signalled" (adopted from Bailey, 1983, as cited in Grimshaw, ibid, p. 30), in other words, this illustration is what Jordan puts as problem-solution pattern which entails situation, problem, response, and evaluation. Jordan accentuates the fact that this pattern is highly relevant for academic texts (p.230). Basically, Jordan and Grimshaw agree on the importance of discourse/context of situation in the analysis of the discourse. Noteworthy, college undergraduates are aware of the rules about discourse and a context, as Grimshaw (ibid) says. Accordingly, the context of situation for discourse analysis is "that of quasi-voluntary participation in experiments on production, perception, interpretation, recall, and so on of discourse variables (Grimshaw, ibid, p.36). To go into line

with the present study aim, conversation discourse analysis should be primary site of this review. Consequently, Schober and Brennan (2003) emphasize the unique structure of this discourse as it is the first referent, which comes to mind, to language use and communication. Schober and Brennan (ibid) distinguish this discourse by its unique face-to face interactive nature that includes *visible, audible* participants who can use paralinguistic cues as well as speech in *instantaneous* manner; as a result this type of discourse is *evanescent*. Notably, what is typical to conversation discourse is that "the addressees can give speakers immediate feedback. (p.125). (for more details about features of spoken discourse, see Chapter One, Sub-section1.1.4 Speaking in Real Time, p. 16)

In 1980's and 1990's, *genre analysis* appeared to analyse the different varieties of discourse such conversation, lecture, and so on (Grimshaw, 2003). Dudley-Evans (1987) accentuates the fact that the difference between discourse and genre analysis is that the latter is concerned with individual texts, while the former is interested in the common features between all texts (as cited in Jordan, 1997, p.213). Relatedly, Grimshaw (ibid) asserts that discourse types can be similar in some ways and can be also called 'subgenres'. As far as this study is concerned, studying spoken language genres is the utmost concern. According to Jordan (ibid) "spoken language has received much less attention than written" (p.235) as only seminars, introductions to lectures, plenary lectures are the first spoken discourses that caught the attention of genre analysts, at the beginning.

Communication is taught not only on the basis of students' needs only, but it exceeds to the ability to distinguish between a formal/academic style and an informal one, Jordan (ibid) puts. To put it another way, Jordan says that students need to know what style is more appropriate, that is, they have to understand what is acceptable in spoken language and not appropriate in written. Jordan (ibid) provided set of lexical characteristics of spoken discourses that should be avoided in written ones:

- Contractions (e.g. it's, hasn't)

- Many phrasal phrases (e.g. look into, find out)

- Colloquialism/ slang (e.g. you know, lots, kid)

- Personal pronouns (e.g. I, you)

- Vagueness in word choice (e.g. thing) (p.245)

Exceeding the ability to differentiate between academic discourses, registers and styles, Jordan (1997) stresses study skills which are a dispensable reference in EAP working definition. In essence, students do not use the English language in one subject, one discourse or one style; however, they use it in all variety of subjects which entail the requirement of different skills which students use for study purposes. Jordan (ibid) classifies these skills into receptive and productive skills without denying their possible mutual use, for example note-taking is used in reading and listening and then the notes taken are used in speaking (comments in seminar) and writing (an essay). To enlarge the range of the study skills upon shortly, the author mentions the skills which might be used in spoken and written discourses as well as for listening comprehension: asking questions, answering questions, giving oral presentation, initiating comments, giving reasons, interrupting, verbalizing data, conducting interview, describing, justifying, note-taking, scanning, skimming, analyzing data (graphs and diagrams, etc.), collating information, planning, writing drafts, revising, using quotations, footnotes and bibliography, summarizing, and paraphrasing. Among all the study skills used in EAP discourse, this study is interested in the following skills: note-taking, asking questions for repetition, clarification and information, especially in the listening phase which precedes and follows the simulation activities. Additionally, agreeing, disagreeing, starting a point of view, explaining, interrupting, persuading, commenting, and stating criticism are the most study skills relied on in the study, especially in the spoken discourse when communication takes place in the classroom.

3.1.3   Communication in the Language Classroom

The focus on communication in the classroom brings oral communication to the top concerns of investigation because the communication which takes place in the classroom, including the teacher with his students and students with each other, happens orally. Morreale et al. (2000) contend that "competence in oral communication - in speaking and listening - is prerequisite to students' academic, personal, and professional success in life" (p.1). Furthermore, they say that beyond the limits of school, the social construction of human being which depends on adjusting, participating and maintaining the interpersonal relationships is developed due to oral communication competence (p.2). Knowing that students in the classroom, as narrower version of society, are also required to adjust, participate and maintain the interpersonal relationships to achieve effective communication, communication seems to reinforce its place and importance in the classroom. To prove this importance, Morreale et al. (ibid) provide seven traits to explain the relationship between communication education and the educational enterprise improvement. As far as this study is concerned, the first two traits are highlighted, namely:

- Communication education enhances classroom instruction.

- Communication is the key to successful collaboration in the educational environment. (p.3)

3.1.3.1 Classroom Instruction

Lee (2000) describes the classroom communication structure as having three main stages: expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning (p. 101). This construction of classroom communication reveals the interactive nature of the communication enrolled in the classroom. An important concern of teachers as well as learners is the manifestation of communication in the classroom, to put it another way how the components of communicative competence mentioned in the first chapter are realized to achieve the main event in the classroom. The famous communicative model, Canale and Swain's model (1980),

was synthesised by Bachman (1990) that took into account not only what knowledge learners possess but also how to act on that knowledge.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a broad approach that has become a term for methods and curricula that embrace both the goals and the processes of classroom learning, for teaching practice that views competence in terms of social interaction and looks out for further language acquisition research to account for its development (Savignon, 1991, p. 263). Noteworthy, the communicative language ability we want to develop in second language learners is the communicative language ability native speakers of the 'second language' have" (Lee, 2000, p.99).

However, many researches according to Ellis (1997) failed to account for any influence of classroom communication and language acquisition, except for one which considers the illocutionary act students use when interacting. As "communication abilities embrace linguistic skills but not the reverse" (Widdowson, 1978, p. 67), the illocutionary force of communication allows students to discover the linguistic options to achieve it. Despite this fact, Ellis (ibid) believes that the communicative environment in the classroom my not lead to successful grammar acquisition, however, even if learners fail to acquire the grammatical features, they develop discourse and strategic competence in such classroom. The failure, according to him, is learner-related as "may be unable to avoid the transfer of L1 features in their interlanguage …They may lack access to Universal Grammar and so have to fall back on general strategies of learning" (p. 53).

Another account seems to consider a direct influence of communication genres on classroom communication and thus language acquisition as it is stated in Baker and Gaut's (2002) statement "both formal and informal communication structure have a significant impact on the communication dynamics of a college classroom" (p. 18).Speaking about

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classroom instruction for effective communication, the teaching approach should be the focal point of attention. As it has been already mentioned, CLT is the endeavour to reach effective communication in the classroom through concentrating efforts on developing communicative competence.

3.1.3.2 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

For over three decades, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been perceived as the most prevailing instructional framework in foreign language teaching and learning programs. It has started dating from 1960's in Europe as a reaction to traditional dogmas in the language teaching and learning as older methods Audiolingualism in North America and situational approach in the United Kingdom fell out of fashion. As any other approach, CLT has formulated its own tenets and principles which foreground its understanding of the language and language use.

3.1.3.2.1 Language Theory

According to Brown (2001) what distinguishes CLT from the traditional language teaching methodologies is its conception of communicative competence, rather than linguistic competence, as the primary goal of language learning and teaching. "While grammatical competence was prerequisite to produce grammatically correct sentences, attention shifted to the knowledge and skills needed to use grammar and other aspects of language appropriately for different communicative purposes such as making requests, giving advice, making suggestions, describing wishes and needs, and so on" (Richards, 2006, p.9). Due to the influence of communicative language teaching, it has become widely accepted that communicative competence should be the goal of language education, mainly, classroom practice.

The communicative approach to language teaching starts from the theory of language as communication. Hence, it is mainly based on a prevalent set of beliefs about the nature of language, the language within its social context and the language learning. Ma (2009) lays the assumptions that conceptualize CLT in the following quote.

> Assumptions in CLT are that language is social behavior, which concerns conveyance of meaning, i.e. the grammar of a language is a means of organizing meaning; language is about making texts, connected discourse (not sentences in isolation); knowing a language means knowing the grammatical rules and knowing the rules and conventions of the speech community; language is not seen as comprised of four skills (reading/writing/speaking/listening), but of various abilities. (p. 40)

3.1.3.2.2 CLT: Moving from 'Learning That' to 'Learning How'

Traditionally, before 1970's, the language instruction was directed towards developing learners' ability to purely manipulate the linguistic structures accurately, in other words, developing learners' language or linguistic competence. Grammar was at the core of language teaching at that time. By the late 1960's, CLT emerged to replace traditional language teaching methods as mentioned earlier. With the emergence of communicative language teaching, new instructional approach has revealed. A new shift to teaching learners' how to use language appropriately in real communication took place as Nunan (1989) explains it as moving from "learning that" to "knowing how". Consequently, a theoretical concept labelled communicative approach appeared to mean being able to use what a learner knows effectively and appropriately in the target speech community.

As any other prevailing approach in a given era, CLT approach has been developing since the late 1970's and received a lot of renewing frameworks. The early 1990's witnessed a raising dissatisfaction of some content and pedagogic aspects of the communicative approach

to language teaching namely about the place of grammar in CLT which was uncertain then (Celce-Murcia, et al., 1997, Nunan, 1989). According to Nunan (ibid) this dissatisfaction stems its roots from the following questions "What do we do with our more formal approaches to specification of structures and skills? Can they be found a place in CLT?" Hymes (1972) finds a solution for these problems by asserting "There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 275). Nevertheless, Hymes's conceptualisation of the term communicative competence has provided no basis for undoubting the pedagogical implementation of this competence in relation to linguistic competence.

Later, in 1990's it was widely recommended to create a balance between grammatical correctness and communication appropriateness. The indirect communicative approach shifted to direct approach. In other words, there was a shift from conversation competence-based approach to micro skills, process and strategies oriented approach (Richards, 1990, pp. 76-77). This approach to communicative teaching starts to account for the grammatical competence. Nunan (1989) confirms this view by saying that in order to communicate effectively grammar is necessary. Besides, Celce-Murcia et al. (1997) contend "making learners aware of structural regularities and formal properties of the target language will greatly increase the rate of language attainment" (p.145). Pedagogical research has investigated deeply the way teachers raise their learners' awareness towards grammar. In *weak* or *shallow-end* CLT, grammar is still the core goal of the syllabus, although it is often "dressed up in functional labels: *asking the way, talking about yourself, making future plans, etc.*" On the other hand, the *strong* version, which is referred to as *deep-end* CLT, rejected explicit grammar instruction and instead proposed a syllabus of tasks (Thornbury, 2000, p. 22). Consequently, linguistic competence was perceived to be learned as a result of learners' engagement in communicative activities. (Celce-Murcia, et al., ibid, p. 145)

Therefore, communicative competence includes Chomsky's linguistic competence, however, with fractional difference: the inclusion of linguistic features that may transmit social messages as well as referential meanings in social context rather than describing those features in terms of construction and combination in linguistic context. Littlewood (1981) argues that "it is not sufficient on its own to account for how language is used as a means of communication" (p.1). Thereby, to say that a person knows a language, he or she must know "when to speak, when not, (...) what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes, 1972, p. 277), in addition to how to construct grammatically correct sentences. In other words, speech context in which actual language use takes place should be considered by any language user to interpret the right meaning as grammatical and functional meanings may not be compatible most of times (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 126). Littlewood (1981) illustrates the contradiction between linguistic forms and function with a simple sentence "Why don't you close the door?" From a linguistic perspective it is an interrogative, however, from functional viewpoint, it may function as a question, a command or a complaint (p. 162). In sum, "communicative language teaching means little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.66).

In essence, communicative competence is not a matter of knowing rules for the composition of sentences and being able to employ such rules to assemble expressions from scratch when occasion requires, Widdowson (1989) puts. It is much more a matter of knowing pre-assembled patterns, formulaic frameworks, and a kit of rules, so to speak, and being able to apply the rules to make whatever adjustments are necessary according to contextual standards (p. 135). According to this claim, learners are supposed to assemble a set of grammar items and rules in an appropriate way to covey the adequate communication. Moreover, according to Celce-Murcia, et al. (1997) the retrieval of these preassembled patterns and rules is "cognitively undemanding" as they come as result of language use.

3.1.3.3 Pedagogical Implications of Communicative Language Ability

The shift of language pedagogy came from the changing of education realities in Europe. The social and political pressures resulted in new language teaching schemata that promotes a more semantic, more social and more communicative tendency to language teaching. This tendency included the theory of speech act (Austin, 1962) which offers a much more comprehensive view of language as communication, which explains how language users perform speech acts such as requesting, informing, apologizing, and so on. An important linguistic theory of communication favoured in CLT is Halliday's functional perspective of language use, "linguistics … is concerned … with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus" (Halliday, 1970, p. 145). On the basis of this theory, D. A. Wilkins (1972) who was from the pioneers who developed the communicative syllabuses for language teaching, and proposed a functional or communicative definition of language (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p.65). Wilkins according to Richards and Rodgers (ibid) distinguishes between notional categories of meaning including; concepts such as time, quantity, sequence, frequency and functional categories of meaning such denials, requests, complaints, etc. In the same way, Littlewood (1981) supports this theory by claiming "one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language" (p.1). This tendency towards the inclusion of functional meaning has declared for the inclusion of language functions in language education; as a result, speech acts, meaning potential and language functions become part of CLT. It has long been believed by many scholars (Halliday, 1970, Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1991) that organizing language teaching around categories of language functions best helps students use language for communicative purposes. Many theorists provided a set of functions that language used to fulfil. Bachman

(1990) provides seven functions; *ideational*: expressing propositions, information or feelings, *manipulative*: affecting the world around us, *instrumental*: getting things done through the use of speech acts*, Regulatory*: controlling the behaviour of others, *interactional*: managing interpersonal relationships, *heuristic*: extending our knowledge of the world, *imaginative*: the humorous or aesthetic use of language (Bachman, 1990, p.87). While Baker and Gaut (2002) categorize them into three functions; *to label* which means referring to entities, acts or persons in the world be a name, *to interact* that means to share ideas, emotions and mutual influence in the communication, and *to transmit* which refers to the transmission of information between individuals.

Of equal importance, theory of communicative competence proposed by Hymes (1972) which incorporates interactional and sociocultural norms caught a considerable attention in the classroom practices. Widdowson (1978) came years later to present a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. He focuses on the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes. An important referent for conceptual views of the communicative nature of language that seeks to translate this into instructional system, materials, teacher and learner roles and behaviors, and classroom activities and techniques is the Canale and Swain's (1980) model which states incomplete definition of communicative performance; speech event forms the basis for understanding the rules of language use. This model was further developed in the Canale's (1983) model which counts the sociolinguistic component as the appropriateness of functions, ideas and meanings to context, besides the appropriateness of its formal realization rather as socio-cultural rules. An additional component appeared in Canale's model which is discourse competence which concerns the ability to produce unified written and spoken texts by means of coherence and cohesion. Strategic competence is no longer perceived, in Canale's adaptation, as a support for communication breakdowns, but it is the ability to

enhance the effectiveness of communication. Years later, Bachman (1990) refined communicative competence model. Bachman (ibid) explains the interaction between the components of the communicative competence in language use. The illocutionary competence, mentioned in his model, involves the performance of language functions and speech acts. Noteworthy, in Canale and Swain's model, grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence lead all the components of the communicative competence; however, Bachman's model was driven by the strategic competence which controls communicative performance through:

- Assessing components: identifying knowledge and language competences needed to achieve the communicative goal.

- Planning the components: retrieving the appropriate information in language competences and choose channel.

- Executing components: use psychological mechanisms to realize utterance.

The main implication of Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) is the incorporation of non-cognitive factors in the understanding of the language use and hence, considering the strategic competence a metacognitive competence. On another facet, Canale (1983) puts that social meaning is concerned even with the nonverbal behaviour. A clear evidence for the last claim is the evolution of the models of communicative competence from 1980 to 1995 stated in detail in chapter one (subsection 1.1.1Theories to the Understanding of the Speaking Act, p. 10). But, it is noteworthy that no "single model that is universally accepted as authoritative" Richards and Rodgers (1986) put.

Littlewood (1981) accentuates another view of communication language teaching through emphasising the social meaning (p. 4). Back to CLT principles, communication relies heavily on the appropriateness of language to a given context. Littlewood (ibid) claims that the nature of the language is centrally determined by the social situation (p. 5). This claim

justifies the account of social factors in language teaching to ensure adequate delivery of social meaning. Savignon (1991) in turn makes clear that language competence is viewed "in terms of social interaction" (p. 263). A teacher who values CLT approach will naturally be drawn to materials that emphasize the language functions and social norms used in a particular speech community.

3.1.3.4 The Inclusion of Real Communication in the Classroom

Genuine communication and meaningful interaction are the lifeblood of CLT. It is only when learners are given extensive opportunities to engage in realistic communication, which is contextually rich and meaningful to them, the objectives of language teaching (the development of communicative competence) may have chance to be achieved. Nevertheless, due to the lack of exposure to English speaking environment, foreign language students face many difficulties to integrate in the English society and attain academic achievements as native spoken English is mostly fast and idiomatic, formulating quick contribution, shyness, inability to formulate an idea in English and frustration of being unable to enter a discussion. The classroom instruction, consequently, should focus attention on the communication patterns that most probably appear outside the classroom. Negotiation of meaning is one facet of real communication that can be covered in the classroom. Lee (2000) asserts that whenever breakdowns in communication occur, negotiation mutually takes place (p.8). Hence, tasks that stimulate negotiation of meaning can form useful language learning situation in or out of the classroom, whereby they may be one of the easiest ways to facilitate for the learners to focus on the form without losing attention on meaning, Long (1996) believes. However, the challenge is how authentic these tasks can be in the classroom to really replicate the real negotiation of meaning.

3.1.3.4.2 Authenticity for Genuine Communication

It has been believed that communication in the classroom can never achieve absolute authenticity as the purpose of learning is attaining foreign language competency and hence real intentions for communication cannot be recreated. In the 1980's and 1990's, the language pedagogy seems to have its practical applications that are stemmed largely from the tenets of communicative language teaching and "classrooms were increasingly characterized by authenticity, real-world simulations, and meaningful tasks" (Brown, 2001, p.42). Communication in the language classroom, therefore, depends on the instructional orientation of the teacher to create a classroom experience that is conducive to communication. It is CLT practice that promotes authentic use of language materials that is oriented to useful engagement with meaningful negotiation, interpretation, and expression in the language classroom, Kumaravadivelu (2006) claims. From previous interpretation of authenticity in communicative-oriented classrooms, it is deduced that language pedagogy concerned itself with bringing the language use, functions and strategies of the outside world to handle the language inside the classroom, on the one hand. Larsen-Freeman (2000) agrees on that fact and notes that the authentic context that can be best delivered to learners during language use is the real-life situations where learners replicate authentic use of language outside the classroom. Thus, making authenticity the core concept of language teaching is context-dependent. On the other hand, authenticity in the classroom can be achieved through the use of authentic materials. Gebhard (1996) gives examples of authentic materials EFL/ ESL teachers have used. Some of his examples, which are related to their purpose of use in the classroom, are presented below:

1. Authentic Listening/Viewing Materials: TV commercials, quiz shows, cartoons, news clips, comedy shows, movies, soap operas, professionally audio-taped short stories and novels, radio ads, songs, documentaries, and sales pitches.

2. Authentic Visual Materials: slides, photographs, paintings, children's artwork, stick-figure drawings, wordless street signs, silhouettes, pictures from magazines, ink blots, postcard pictures, wordless picture books, stamps, and X-rays.

3. Authentic Printed Materials: newspaper articles, movie advertisements, astrology columns, sports reports, obituary columns, advice columns, lyrics to songs, restaurant menus, street signs, cereal boxes, candy wrappers, tourist information brochures, university catalogues, telephone books, maps, TV guides, comic books, greeting cards, grocery coupons, pins with messages, and bus schedules.

However, what remains unclear in the use of these authentic materials presented by Gebhard in the classroom, to put it another way, should their use depend on authentic intentions (i.e., the same intention of real communicators in the real world) or depend on artificial intentions (i.e., the teacher's pedagogical intention e.g., to teach students specific skills). Nunan's (1999) definition of authentic materials has laid down the use of these materials. He defines them as spoken or written language data that has been produced in the course of genuine communication, and not specifically written for purposes of language teaching. In line with the same vision, Coffey (1984) says that "all ESP work is in essence a simulation of a real-life task" (as cited in Jordan, 1997, p.113). Accordingly, encouraging students to bring into the classroom their own samples of authentic language data from real-world contexts outside of the classroom is recommended by Nunan (ibid).

The point that appeared to be at issue in the recent years is whether authenticity is worthwhile in the ESP/EAP classroom. In this concern, Jordan (ibid) sees nothing wrong with the non-authentic text in the EAP classroom as long as they are compatible with the pedagogic purpose; however, Jordan admits that authenticity is the link between classroom and the outside world. Thus, as far as EAP materials are concerned with authentic texts, they

are judged, then, on the basis of their match with those which are normally used in students' specialist subject area.

3.1.3.5 EAP Communicative Methodology

As mentioned earlier, the communicative approach has passed through different periods where the approach has polished its tenets, beliefs and implications. Nunan (1989) has provided a set of principles that stem largely from the beliefs and content of this approach. According to Nunan's principles, the learner should be able to use the rules of grammar effectively and appropriately when communicating as the process was given a priority over content. Richards (2006) provides an insight of the principles of communicative language teaching methodology in the time 1970's to 1990's as follows:

- Make real communication the focus of language learning.

- Provide opportunities for learners to experiment and try out what they know.

- Be tolerant of learners' errors as they indicate that the learner is building up his or her communicative competence.

- Provide opportunities for learners to develop both accuracy and fluency.

- Link the different skills such as speaking, reading, and listening together, since they usually occur so in the real world.

- Let students induce or discover grammar rules.

Interestingly, tolerance with mistakes is one of the important principles of communicative methodology as mentioned by Richards. Morrow (1981) stresses also this point when he espouses the principle *mistakes are not always a mistake* as one of the communicative methodology principles. He contends that in order to develop the communicative competence of students, teachers should be flexible with tolerating mistakes and not every error should be corrected. Simulation activities, which are described in chapter two of this paper, are one of

the communicative activities that adhere to this principle as mistakes are treated as equal as success as making errors is a sign of progress in learning (Fulcher, 2003).

By deduction, the move from 'learning that' to 'learning how' which implies the change from learning by 'being told' to learning by 'doing' is clear in the classroom methodology which aims at producing genuine communication where active learning is embedded. It is 'doing' which advocated EAP teachers to use a variety of practices in the classroom like problem-solving exercises, tasks or projects to increase students' self- awareness of the alternative ways of learning and to develop their self-confidence (Jordan, 1997). Simulation, which is a problem-solving task, promotes high quality of communication as it serves in large part in the activation of communicative competence as participants get involved implicitly in the communication during simulation activities. Thus, when communication breakdown occurs, participants will resolve it by negotiating meaning to find the way to understand each other; they ensure the mutual intelligibility through verbal as well as nonverbal behavior to make others understand what they mean. During this process, learners can acquire the properties of language and context that are appropriate to communicate successfully in particular situation and even familiarizing themselves with the appropriate study skills to be used in the situation. Therefore, simulations deal with acquiring 'how to communicate' not 'what to communicate' as formal accuracy is learned as an outcome of performance while fluency is the aim in simulations (Jones, 1982; Harmer, 2007).The clear evidence of the promotion of communication through simulation in academic context is the assertion made by Basta (2011) who puts in her study that "many activities at universities are designed to improve students' academic literacy" (p.135) as the target goal is to prepare the learners to perform adequately in the foreign academic culture. She sees that cooperative learning is the most effective method for teaching communication in higher education, simulation is known as interactive task, and hence as a matter of deduction, simulation is one of the activities that

underpin cooperative learning in its nature. Thus, a simple conclusion is then drawn and states the fact that simulation is an excellent, reliable and effective activity for reaching the university goal.

3.1.3.5.1 Communication and the EAP Learner's Characteristics

On the basis of the statement of Jordan (1997) which says that EAP students "need to be able to continue their EAP learning without EAP teachers after they moved on to their specialist studies" (p.116), autonomy is prerequisite for learning. Jordan (ibid) puts that in addition to autonomous learner who can self-direct his learning, "a mature, balanced individual, possessing an open, questioning mind, and willing to adopt an active, independent approach to study" (p.118) and motivated learner is also needed. According to Jordan classroom materials should be advocated to develop these aspects in the students' characteristics, that is to say raising students' awareness to these aspects in order to be successful. On broader front, the role of classroom instruction should be centred on encouraging students to discuss and think about their learning, in other words think about "the reasons for doing what they do" (p.118). In order to achieve the classroom instruction role, Jordan (1997) recommends espousing learners in self-questioning and discussing and sharing the learning experiences with each other. The latter activity, which students may engage in, is motivating according to him. Jordan makes his intention out loud clear for individualised instructions which stems its existence from the rationality behind ESP/EAP as the instruction should fit each individual (learner) needs. In the same line of thought, Jones (2007), like Jordan, supports this idea as he advocates delivering different task to students according to their strengths and weaknesses. Individualised classroom instruction which goes along with the student-centred approach depends, in a large part, on the teachers' ability to manage his/her classroom. Jones (ibid) says that teachers should be able to manage small/large classes, mixed-ability classes, monolingual classes, and students with different classes, pair or

group work, different personalities, and timing of each task. All these strategies are said to help the teachers to encourage autonomous and self-directed learning which ends in learners fully aware of their learning style with will lead to effective learning and thus meaningful and effective communication.

3.1.3.5.2 Learner-centred Communicative Instruction

ELT has witnessed a revolution in the late 60's and early 70's with a shift from the teacher-centred pedagogy to an emphasis on learners and learning. This has led to what is known today as Learner-centred teaching approach which has stemmed from CLT. Thinking of the academic teaching content without any consideration of learner's role seemed to be weakening the learning process. There become necessary to shift the focus from mere thinking of input linguistic manipulation-oriented course design to new paradigm that puts the learner at the centre of higher education program design.

Learner-centred approach is embedded in communicative language teaching as the latter evaluates students' academic and communication needs which constitute the course goals with regard to the functional communicative competence needed for learners to be adequate language users in a given task. Learning is "influenced by learners' perceptions about what they should contribute, their views about the nature and demands of the task, and their definitions of the situation in which the task takes place" (Nunan, 1989, p. 20). Consequently, learning is preceded by the process of knowing students' needs. Jordan (ibid) attests that needs analysis is crucial before teaching and learning take place in the classroom. Again, CLT principle 'learning by doing' is clearer as the learners' ways of doing things in the classroom are considered as learners "felt comfortable with their own methods and techniques, even if they were insufficient, and felt insecure if told to change them" (Jordan, 1997, p.14). Hence, it is the university or college responsibility, in general, and communicative language teaching, in specific, to put the learner at the heart of the learning process which measures the learning

outcomes in terms of the learner's needs, shortcomings, and the learning challenges in a task. With regard to the consideration of the learner as the focal point of the learning process, learner-centred approach remains unclear without a clarification of how the roles are distributed inside the classrooms. In other words, where do the teacher's and learner's roles start and end.

3.1.3.5.3 The Role of the Teacher in Classroom

With the emergence of CLT, the teacher and learners roles inside the classroom have also changed. Within this approach, teachers are losing their control over their classroom "teachers … had to assume the role of facilitator and monitor's" (Richards, 2006, p.5). Moreover, Brown (2001) defines the role of teachers in communicative classrooms in terms of what learners need, he points out "students are encouraged to deal with unrehearsed situations under the guidance, but not control, of the teacher" (p.44). The controller role seems to be recognized in the realm of the traditional teaching methodology. One of the main critics of the controllers' role, who interferes in every step of the learning process, is that students will have little chance "to take much responsibility for their own learning" (Harmer, 2007, p.25);however, Brown (ibid) contends also that "the teachers should maintain some control" (p. 167) in the classroom. The Brown's assertions is made as some activities such as **simulations** need the control of the teacher especially in the planning phase or the briefing phase in which the controller explains how the technique works, provides students with the appropriate input, elicit the instructions and timing techniques. When the controller plans for the task appropriately, interactive classroom will be created. Interestingly, the controller's role witnessed some refrains to expand the students' responsibility over their learning, as a result, the teacher's role changes from being controller of planned tasks that seeks for decreasing the error possibilities of language use to otherwise allowing mistakes and facilitating the learning process by providing necessary feedback. The teacher helps where necessary by monitoring

the strengths and weaknesses of the learner (Littlewood, 1981, pp. 92-93). A more practical definition is provided by Breen and Candlin (1980) who describe the role of the teacher in the classroom in terms of three roles: a participant within the learning-teaching group, a facilitator of the communicative process, and a learner (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 77). Nunan (1989) states that problems are likely to appear when there is a gap between the roles perceived by the teacher and the learner. He clarifies:

> It is not uncommon in adult classes for the teacher to see herself as a guide and catalyst for classroom communication while the learners see her as someone who should be providing explicit instruction and modeling the target language. In such situations, it is necessary for there to be a consultation and negotiation between teachers and learners. (p.84)

Teacher's role in communicative instruction is rather dynamic, in other words sticking to one or more roles mentioned by Breen and Candlin earlier is not enough to complete the teachers' picture in communicative classroom. The teacher still remains the main organizer and controller of activities, especially in grammar explanations and other information presentations (Harmer, 2007), though as Littelwood (1981) suggests that the teacher's function "becomes less dominant than before, but no less important" (p.19). It is, then, assumed that the teacher should play different roles to maintain effective classroom instruction. In the simulations, the main task investigated in this study, the teacher is called 'the controller' (John, 1982; John, 1983), but his role is restricted to planning for the simulation, monitoring the learners' achievement and never interferes during the simulations to allow the students take over their learning in interaction in the classroom.

3.1.3.5.4 The Role of the Learner in Classroom

Lee (2000) believes that instructors should teach communicative competence as a part of pedagogy that moves to Learner-learner interaction. As communicative approach dominated in language teaching, a shift of focus has been made and the emphasis became on the process of communication rather than the mastery of linguistic forms. This has led to a considerable change of roles assigned to learners from those found in the traditional language classrooms. Breen and Candlin (1980) describe the learner's role within CLT as negotiator who share the negotiation process with himself, learning, and object of learning with others in the classroom, procedures and activities in the way s/he becomes independent learner. (As cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 77)

Fulcher and Davidson (2007) put the classroom context is characterized by collaboration between learners. In line with this claim, Breen and Candlin (ibid) make clear that "learners … had to participate in classroom activities that were based on a cooperative rather than individualistic approach to learning" (as cited in Richards, 2006, p.5). Learner is perceived to have an active, negotiator role in which he or she should employ a set of learning strategies. As Javid, Al-thubaiti and Uthman (2013) point out CLT approach calls for the participation of learners in the decision-making process and to find out their language learning strategies LLS (p. 35). Nunan (1989) provides a set of language learning strategies and roles that stemmed from four important learner abilities: being adaptable, creative, inventive, and independent. Thereby, according to Nunan (ibid), what is required is:

➢ Finding learner own way (e.g., help him to find a way to best learn vocabulary items)

➢ Organising information about language (through making notes, charts and grouping items)

➢ Being creative (exploring new ways of using words e.g., playing with different arrangements of sounds and structures)

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- ➢ Making your own opportunities (learning language actively by interacting with fellow learners or the teacher, asking questions, listening regularly to the language reading different kinds of texts and practicing writing)

- ➢ Learning to live with uncertainty (help the learner broaden the scope of meaning by trying to work thing out with the help of resources like dictionaries, e.g., encouraging learners to speak about the gist of the text rather than understand every item.)

- ➢ Using mnemonics (helping learners find quick ways of recalling what they have learned for example, through rhymes, word classes, etc.).

- ➢ Making errors work (helping learners to prevent errors from blocking their participation in tasks, help them to ask for error correction).

- ➢ Using your linguistic knowledge (helping learners to make comparison between language of their mother tongue and the new language in terms of formal rules and conventions for language use).

- ➢ Letting the context help you (helping learners to infer meaning from the context)

- ➢ Learning to make intelligent guesses (developing learners' capacity to work out meaning, infer meaning of the main parts of message according to their occurrence in the context).

- ➢ Learning formulised routines (encourage learners to learn whole phrases, sound sequences, and dialogue extracts, etc.).

- ➢ Learning production techniques (help learners to develop accuracy as well as fluency)

- ➢ Using different styles of speech and writing (making learners differentiate between styles of speech and writing). (p. 81)

These strategies are based on the way learners handle the learning difficulties, create their own way to learn, and then reflect the knowledge and skills on their language achievements through autonomy.

3.1.3.6 Classroom Interaction

Little et al. in the Shorter Oxford Dictionary of English (1973) define the noun 'interaction' as a 'reciprocal action or influence'; therefore, interaction is more than action and its reaction. It includes acting reciprocally, giving the same advantage of acting on each other. Brown (2001) relates interaction to communication, saying, "…interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication: it is what communication is all about" (p.165). Interaction, then, has similar implication in the classroom as communication, it is the process that learners and teachers share for the sake of communication; thus, communicative interaction mostly encourages cooperative work between learners and teachers (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 127).However, it is noteworthy that not all interactive activities involve communication, for example performing dialogue that is learned before as an input.

It has been perceived that teaching a language should be oriented towards the appropriate methodologies in isolation; however, after 1970's the focus has shifted to consider the classroom interaction as the most vital element in the instructed second language learning process (Seedhouse, 1999, p. 149). Seedhouse (ibid) conducted a study investigating classroom interaction transcripts found that the pedagogical focus of classroom activities is the task accomplishment rather correctness of the language (p.150). Thornbury and Slade (2006) take the same view by asserting that classroom talk is rather process-oriented and far from product-oriented. Thus, the tenets of communicative approach shed their light on the way interaction is manifested in the classroom. Yu (2008) declares that classroom interaction reflects the outside socio-cultural and institutional realities and involves the components of collaborative dialogue, negotiation and co-construction. Collaborative dialogue is the result of interaction between learners and other members of their socio-cultural world such as parents, teachers, and friends. Crabbe (2007) provides an instance of collaborative dialogue as "a continuous and systematic dialogue about learning takes place in the classroom among

learners and between learners and teachers" (p.118); however, it is noteworthy, as the teacher's role is co-communicator and a facilitator, a minimal interaction between the teacher and the students can be seen in the classroom (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

In the same vein, interaction transcripts of many CLT classrooms proved that IRF exchanges (initiate-respond-follow up) predominate (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, pp. 238-240). The IFR exchanges resemble the negotiation form that takes place in the classroom. Negotiation is then the other characteristic of classroom interaction, Yu (2008) presents, which refers to 'discussion to reach agreement' and takes two forms; face-to-face peer negotiations and corrective feedback negotiation. To stimulate these negotiations, the teacher initiates the topic, assigns the questions to selected speakers and evaluates their responses. Lynch (1996) in a specific vision, puts that the use of referential questions that seek for new information rather than display questions that seek answers, the teacher already knows, is critical for initiating classroom interaction. He (ibid) supports his claim by saying that referential questions encourage learners to provide longer responses and initiate communication between them (pp.108-109). Another important axis in classroom interaction is the fact that negotiation is co-constructed jointly. Yu (ibid) describes co-construction as the construction of the awareness of self-regulation gradually from dialogic interaction when they negotiate. To put it another way, learners' consistent use of the language structures that are bound to particular social context become automatic, Yu adds.

Other visions have emphasized some structural features of classroom exchanges such as the transaction that classroom interaction entails through which the speaker signals the boundaries of themes or activities that are being used in the whole spoken discourse. By the same token, Thornbury and Slade (ibid) believe that classroom interaction is transactional since "the goal is the transmission of subject-matter knowledge from teacher to learners" (p.240).

Nevertheless, the real need for English results from needs in real-time contexts where learners' would engage in real interactions to achieve social purposes. Crabbe (2007) recommends that "the learner must … be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language in actual use" (p. 3). Thus, classroom interaction is a replication of real-time interactions that usually take place between learners rather than teacher-learner interaction that exists in teacher-fronted classrooms and focus on teaching linguistic structures. It entails cooperation between participants that increases learners' sociability as they transmit meaningful messages and maintain interpersonal relationships. Brown (2001) believes that interaction is about collaboration process in which the learner sends and receives messages in dialogue form, negotiates their meanings in context (p. 165). In essence, classroom interaction develops learners learning as it can create the learning opportunities, which motivate the students' interest to communicate with others (Yu, 2008).

As we speak about interaction, one cannot deny the place of language use that aims at achieving a purpose in constructing the interaction. Here the best referent is 'function' that stands for communicative act. Ur (1996) puts that function that is usually confused with the term 'notion' involves interaction. He (ibid) adds that the use of function is often binary, in other words "the performance of one implies a certain response or set of responses which take the form of another, complementary function" (pp. 92-93). The participants in the interaction practice the so called the adjacency pair, for example, one suggests and the other accepts or refuses. This format of interaction has to be dealt with in the classroom instruction, namely, activities (further discussion of these activities will be in the coming section of this chapter).

3.1.3.7 Cooperative and Collaborative Learning

In the past few decades, group work or pair work learning has gradually made its way into foreign language classrooms. Cooperative Learning (CL) started developing within the

framework of communicative language teaching. By now, teachers are more acquainted with cooperative and collaborative learning. "Collaboration is a philosophy of interaction and personal lifestyle whereas cooperation is a structure of interaction designed to facilitate the accomplishment of an end product or goal" (Panitz, 1996, p. 1). CL is then group work structured in such a way as to enable student interaction, the exchange of information, as well as cooperation. Thus, as CL emerged from CLT, it aims at developing communicative competence by means of activities of social interaction nature that involve a joint work by two or more learners.

According to McCarthy (1991) "task-based contexts where students carry out group activities can yield natural use of boundary marking by the participants when the teacher is no longer dominant" (as cited in McCarthy 1998, p. 51). Of the same account, Harmer (2007, 2008) asserts that pair work encourages independent interaction without teacher guidance. Cooperative learning, hence, sustains students' responsibility and raises their awareness towards their learning decisions without the supervision of a teacher. Furthermore, teachers gain more time to focus on two or more individuals in the group at the same time (Harmer, ibid). Speaking about further advantages of cooperative learning, Richards (2006) provides a set of benefits of cooperative learning as follows:

- [Learners] can learn from hearing the language used by other members of the group.

- They will produce a greater amount of language than they would use in teacher-fronted activities.

- Their motivational level is likely to increase.

- They will have the chance to develop fluency.(p.20)

In the same vein, Lynch (2009) claims that classroom collaborative work has two advantages: the first is sustaining learners' attention and motivation as students get out of listening

individual activities routine, while the second is the provision of opportunities to compare notes with partners and exchanging their individual interpretations.

Using cooperative learning in classroom activities is in fact typical to CLT principles where learners seek for autonomy and teacher monitors their way to achieve that. By the same token, teachers' role is to teach his students collaborative or social skills so that they can interact together effectively (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 164). However, cooperative work should not be introduced to students directly. Before they attempt the group work, students need to be familiar with this type of work through simple practice, e.g., two line question-answer exchanges (Sadow, 1987, p. 34). Once learners contend with the cooperative learning, the teacher's role began to appear. Rationally, the teacher is the responsible for selecting the appropriate partners in group or pair work. Harmer (2008) suggests some vital criteria for choosing partners. He says that friendship, streaming (gathering mixed-ability students), and chance can be used to identify who is going to work with whom. Furthermore, Harmer (ibid) contends that the nature of the task can primarily determine the partners in cooperative learning.

3.1.3.8 Task-based Communication

In 1980's, Task-based approach emerged to open the door for new perspectives in language instruction and map the floor for the operation of communication in the language classroom. Task, hence, became the driven power of language teaching and its definition ranges from activities people do to its implication to the language learning context as Ellis (2003) defines it:

A work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary

attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may dispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears resemblance, direct or indirect, to the language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes. (p. 16)

As stated in the definition, task promotes language use for a purpose, used as an assessment tool for communication success, and bridges the gap between grammatical competence and communicative competence as it allows linguistic resources to be used as a means to an end with a communication purpose. Nunan (1989) also supports this fact when he asserts tasks involve communicative language use in which the users' attention is focused on meaning rather than linguistic structure (p.10). Ellis (ibid) refers to target task as direct or indirect resemblance of real-life language use, while pedagogical task takes place in the classroom as it is "… a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language" (p.10). Lee (2000) declares communication and classroom, principles to be considered to engage in task-based teaching. The task-based concept entails a flexible approach in which "content and tasks are developed in tandem" (Nunan, 1989, p. 19).

3.1.3.9 Communicative Activities

According to American (e.g., Savignon, 1991) and Canadian (e.g., Canale & Swain, 1980) commentators, CLT was essentially concerned with the concepts of negotiation, interpretation, and expression which form the core basis for communicative activities (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.61). As students carry out communicative tasks, the assumption is that they engage in the process of negotiation of meaning, employing strategies such as comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and clarification requests. These are believed to lead to a gradual modification of learners' language output, which over time takes on more

and more target-like forms (Richards, 2008, p. 31). Precisely speaking, the efficient communication does not mean expressing language accurately in terms of its structure in its most part, but it is the careful choice of words that are used appropriately and correspondingly to a given context that both speaker and hearer share (Littelwood, 1981).

According to Richards (2006) communicative activities today involve the use of language in real communication situations where the use of language is usually unpredictable (p. 16). Littlewood (ibid) and Harmer (2008) also believe that practice activities should model 'real-life' language use. Furthermore, "realistic activities have the advantage that they are relatively easy to formulate and can more or less replicate true-to-life experiences that the students might encounter in the target culture" (Sadow, 1987, p. 33). Therefore, simulation is more conducive to generating classroom communication, precisely, real-life communication. Thus, simulation activity seem the most adequate task to thrive classroom communication as it stimulates interaction, cooperative learning, learners' autonomy, and genuine language use in academic context (the classroom).

It is well-known that communicative activities are ruled by certain ideas that explain and control how they work in the classroom. Jordan (1997) adopts five principles that Johnson (1982) proposes for communicative exercise typology:

1. Information transfer (e.g. reading information to extract data in order to fill in a form);
2. Information gap (e.g. information is known by only one student in pair and it can be conveyed by different exercises to the other student);
3. Jigsaw (an example of co-operative learning in which each member of a small group has a piece of information needed to complete a group task)

4. Task dependency (the principle by which a second task can only be done if the first task has been successfully completed, e.g. listening to, or reading, something and then using the information to produce something, e.g. a report (oral or written);

5. Correction for content (the principle argues that 'at some stage the student's language production should be judged its communicative efficacy in relation to a specific task) (p.112)

On instructional front, the most influential work concerning communicative activities which is advocated to Littlewood (1981) work on communicative activities should be considered. He divided the communicative activities into two phases; pre-communicative activities are typically used to acquaint learners with the language forms. Then, the teacher starts the communicative activities by engaging learners in situations in order to put the linguistic forms at work and communicate meaning fluently (pp. 85-89). The pre-communicative activities can be performed as structure-based communication tasks which Loschky and Blay-Vroman (1990) distinguished them into three types:

1. Tasks which make the use of a specific grammatical construction 'natural' but which can be performed without using it.

2. Tasks which make the performance of a task easier if a specific grammatical structure is used but which again can be performed without it.

3. Tasks where the use of a specific grammatical structure is essential (i.e. the tasks cannot be performed without use of the structure in question). (As cited in Ellis, 1997, pp. 82-83)

Speaking about the quality of the communicative, we should consider Richards's (2006) characteristics that underpin communicative activities as follows:

➤ They seek to develop students' communicative competence through linking grammatical development to the ability to communicate. Hence, grammar is not taught in isolation but

often arises out of a communicative task, thus creating a need for specific items of grammar. Students might carry out a task and then reflect on some of the linguistic characteristics of their performance.

➢ They create the need for communication, interaction, and negotiation of meaning through the use of activities such as problem solving, information sharing, and role play.

➢ They provide opportunities for both inductive as well as deductive learning of grammar.

➢ They make use of content that connects to students' lives and interests.

➢ They allow students to personalize learning by applying what they have learned to their own lives.

➢ Classroom materials typically make use of authentic texts to create interest and to provide valid models of language.

Richards (2006) characteristics reflect the creative, interactive, purposive, and authentic nature of communicative activities. The purpose and the learning goals identify the kind of the activities, as communication activities "aim ultimately for social acceptability as well as functional effectiveness" (Littlewood, 1981, p. 43), and then a distinction is clearly made between functional and social communicative activities.

3.1.3.9.1 Functional Communicational Activities

The inclusion of communication in context decrees the appropriateness and effectiveness of language used; thus, the shift is clearly made from how linguistic items are formed (the structural approach) to what communicative purpose is expressed by these combined words. As a result, meaning conceptualization is highlighted into a spectrum of different functions. Many scholars agree on that the aim of functional communication

activities is to use learners' language resources to overcome an information gap or solve a problem (Littlewood, ibid; Richards, ibid). One of which Widdowson (1989) also claims that communicative competence is achieved through functional investment by engaging learners in problem solving tasks that are participatory and motivational in their nature according to Ur (1996). Adding to this claim, Ur (ibid) contends that the investment of function in language use depends "on its actual context" (p. 93) and he further advises that learners need to function in a variety of different contexts where simulations and role play in opposition to discussions would provide a wide range of these contexts.

3.1.3.9.2 Social Interaction Activities

According to Littlewood (1981) functional effectiveness is not enough but conforming to social conventions is needed to communicate effectively. He accentuates the task of the communicator as "to let social as well as functional considerations affect his choice of language" (p. 43). Richards (2006) points out that context, the roles of the participants identify the formal versus informal language and hence the choice of language should be addressed in social interactive activities (p.18). Recently, classroom activities focus on developing learners' communicative ability which requires the involvement of the social dimension of language. Native speakers in daily conversation-that is to say when language is used for the sake of communication focus more on language use than on grammar (Widdowson, 1978). As a matter of fact, language used in social situations exerts communication as its own objective and supplements classrooms with the social dimension of language use. Thus, we would firmly agree with Willis and Willis (2007) who say that tasks used in the language classrooms should take into consideration the social requirements of language use. In order to achieve that, Willis and Willis (ibid) propose two mandatory conditions; raising learners' consciousness to "the way the social dimension is encoded", and providing "the appropriate language forms" (p. 148).

Conclusion

Communication takes a central position in university instructions; accordingly it should be assigned deservedly the importance to be the core focus of communication in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) contexts. This arena includes organisational communication between sub-systems of the university; faculty, institute or department where English is used to achieve academic, personal, and professional purposes. This chapter took the narrowest front of the sub-systems – the classroom. Consequently, classroom instruction, interaction and the most possible practices of effective communication requirements, have been interestingly covered to show the significant role of simulation, as motor generator of communication, in EAP contexts.

CHAPTER FOUR:

PILOT STUDY AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Chapter Four: Pilot Study and Experimental Design

Introduction

As the main aim of this thesis is to prove the efficacy of simulation activities on students' speaking and listening proficiency development, an experimental study is conducted. We dedicated this chapter to foreground the skeleton of the instructional treatment employed in the experiment. First, this chapter reviews the pilot study results which intend to constitute a platform for the main experiment and refrain it from any inadequate procedure that leads to undesirable, unauthentic, and non-confidential results. Second, the explanation of the experimental design of this study, including the description of the population, the sampling technique and then the procedure followed in the experiment is highlighted. Furthermore, how simulations work in this study is elaborated in a large part of this chapter.

4.1 The Pilot Study

A pilot study is a "small scale version or trial run in preparation for major study" (Polit, Beck, & Hungler, 2001, p.467). To put it another way, pilot study helps determining the feasibility of the research and pre-warning the researcher about any weakness of the proposed study. Mackey and Gass (2005) elaborate the aim of this small version study as "to test-often to revise- and then finalize the material and the methods" (p.43). Moreover, Simon (2011) puts that pilot study increases the chances of the research success as it can help reduce the ambiguity of the research and resolve many factors before the main study is conducted, such as whether the instructions are comprehensible, the investigators are skilled in the procedures, the wording of the survey, the reliability and validity of the tests, and the efficacy of the assessment process.

4.1.1 Design and Implementation

As far as this study is concerned, a pilot study was conducted in the first semester of the academic year 2014-2015 at the Department of Letters and English language, in the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine1. Thus, the pilot study was conducted one year prior to the main study for two reasons; first, avoiding conducting both the pilot study and the major study on the same sample and thus the probability of affecting the test reliability can be increased as the participants will be exposed to the same materials twice which can lead to a better performance in the second time. The second reason is that this study needs to be conducted during the first semester as it is the longest semester in comparison with the second one which is overlapped with the exam period and the spring holidays.

The pilot study took eight 90 minutes classes, two classes per week. Additionally, one week (two 90 minutes classes) before and after the eight classes were devoted to data collection; pre-test and pre-questionnaire, post-test and post-questionnaire.

In the instruction, in the pilot study, four simulations were implemented. Teachers' meeting, radio programme, and university repair were the main simulations used in the pilot study. The pilot tests took place in the form of learner-learner discussion. These discussions were audio-taped and tapes were used for the assessment of speaking and listening proficiency.

The pilot pre/postquestionnaires include two similar sections; whereas the pre-questionnaire includes three additional sections. Thus, the pre-questionnaire was divided into five sections; the first deals with investigating the demographic nature of the sample: age and sex. The second section intends to collect date about academic profile, while the third is concerned with the educational status. The fourth section, in the pre-questionnaire, requests information about the emphasized skills, the used activities and materials, the participation

rate, while in the post-questionnaire deals with the degree of participation and students' opinion about the simulations. The last section aims at investigating students' speaking and listening levels, their preferences about the teaching materials, activities and methodology.

4.1.2 Population and Sample of the Pilot Study

The participants of the pilot study were randomly selected from the whole population enrolled in the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1, Department of Letters and English language. Second year students (491 learners) were selected as the population of the pilot study. The pilot study was quasi-experimental in nature. One experimental group, selected randomly, participated in the study. Baker (1994) puts that the reasonable number of participants enrolling in the pilot study is 10-20% of the sample size for the actual study. The sample size for the actual study is 20% (1/5) of the whole population. Thus, it is (491/5) ninety eight (n=98) learners. Considering Baker's statement, the sample size of pilot study (20%) is nineteen (n=19) learners belong to one whole class.

4.1.3 Results of the Pilot Study

The results revealed students' good control of linguistic features that were under focus in the simulations (such as grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary); thus the practice of these features was unnecessary, besides rehearsal in the form of tasks was missing. As a result, a practice of functional language and integration of tasks were considered in the main study.

Besides, the pilot study results gave insights about speaking and listening proficiency development. The assessment of speaking using the analytic rubric revealed a significant improvement basically in fluency and grammar. While the students' use of the hypothesis testing, forward inferencing and uptakes strategies, which proficient listeners use according to Vandergrift (1997), was meagre.

The findings also indicated the participants' awareness of the importance of both the speaking and listening skills to advance their academic as well as future professional career and communicating with foreigners. The participants confessed themselves not to be confident in speaking and listening as fear of making mistakes and fluency are the main aspects that hinder their speaking. However, the pilot experiment has revealed the following deficiencies:

The first indication in the pilot study is the use of one experimental group which may lead to invalidating the results or the feasibility of the experiment, especially that the experimental design applied in the pilot study is of quasi nature which is famous for its weak internal validity. Consequently, a consideration of enhancing the experimental design should be taken while the main study is designed.

Concerning the instruction, the results of the pilot study indicated a shortcoming in the introduction of the simulation technique to students at the beginning of the study which caused frustrated performance. Students are more likely to take the simulation seriously if they understand what the learning objectives are, what they are expected to do, and how they will be graded (Herbert and Sturtridge, 1979). This insufficiency of instruction has led to recurring interference of the teacher which is not desirable according to Jones (1982). Therefore, this deficiency should be remedied by adding a briefing session at the beginning of the study and diminishing the interference of the controller.

Additionally, a detailed discussion about the students' performance in the simulation was done on short scale. This is due to the absence of video recording of the simulations to give students a chance to recycle what they did, thus they can learn more. This fact is supported by Murphey and Kenny's (1996) claim: "videoing pre-practiced strategies in action … gives students rich segments of conversation to learn from when they replay them" (p.

202). Therefore, simulation sessions should be enlarged upon shortly with a follow-up session (debriefing session) where videotaped simulations are played to detect and avoid any shortcoming in the next simulation.

The tendency to test listening comprehension in the pilot study was difficult to resist. Thus, one-way listening was almost more important than the main focus of the study which is interactive listening. We have been driven by the stereotyped way of teaching listening, whereas what should be taught through simulations is how the listener provides feedback to the interlocutor in order to clarify meaning and signal understanding. In short, teaching listening should be centred round playing an active role in cooperation with the interlocutor to fulfil the goal(s) of the interaction while the assessment of listening proficiency should focus on interactive listening.

In addition, some limitations were experienced in the pilot testing, among which some were remediable whereas others were unfortunately not. Time was the main limitation addressed as time allocated to some tasks in the simulation was insufficient and stretching this time would lead to delaying some other tasks which should not be separated from the main event in the simulation with a long time. Group size was another limitation encountered as participants' participation was too limited due to the large number of students in the same group (39) where only 19 students were enrolled in the pilot study. Listening laboratories were not equipped with sufficient materials to include all the participants.

The research encountered also few problems during the pilot study concerning the questionnaires. This was limited to misunderstandings of some items such as the questions about the activities that students have not dealt with yet and length of some questions which include ranking as participants were reluctant to answer long questions. This required clarification when requested and organizing some questions in tables in the form of rating

scales which will lead to a better understanding and responding. Some questions, which were confusing or deal with investigating one-way listening problems, were unnecessary included. Notwithstanding, some suggestions and opinions of the participants were considered in the main study.

4.2   The Main Investigation: Quasi-experimental Design

Often new teaching methods are toted as effective practices in studies that measured one group with a pre-test, implemented a treatment manipulation, and then measured the same variable – as was measured with the pre-test – with a post-test (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). In regard to this account, this study, which aims at investigating the effectiveness of the teaching practice (simulation activities), considers one group pre-test/post-test design as its overall design. It is often represented as: 1 *O* X 2 *O* with 1 *O* representing the pre-test, *X* representing the treatment implemented, and 2 *O* representing the post-test (Cohen et al., ibid).

A quasi-experimental design is used in this study. Worth mentioning, this design has been subjected to criticism for its weak internal validity, for that reason different versions were proposed to avoid any weakness in internal validity. Dornyei (2007) asserts that it is not easy to design a quasi-experimental study and thus he proposed two conditions for having an effective quasi-experimental design; "avoiding any situation whereby the students self-select themselves (for example, volunteer) to be in the treatment group" and "minimizing the pre-test differences between the treatment and the control group as much as possible" (p. 117). As far as this study is concerned, the first condition has been successfully achieved as we have been assigned to teach both groups, enrolled in the experiment, by the department of Letters and the English Language without pre-arrangement. Concerning the second condition, the participants in both groups have been matched according to the pre-test results to minimize

the differences between them before they are subjected to the intervention (this procedure will be further explained later in this chapter).

4.2.1 Population of the Study

The sample of the present study is derived from a population of 285 second-year LMD (Licence Master Doctorate) students of English, at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1, during the academic year 2015–2016. The reason behind choosing this population in particular is that the majority of the students of English, as foreign language learners, struggle with the psychological effects to speak or be engaged in classroom activities; thus their first year at the university is generally oriented towards freeing the learners from the anxiety of speech. In their second year, afterwards, more efforts to improve their language competence as well as performance are exerted. Considering the immersive nature of simulations, students can develop their language by submerging themselves in language learning when attention is paid to their involvement in the activity as much as it is paid to their efficacy. Consequently, simulations seem to find their place in the second year syllabus.

4.2.2 Sampling

Our sample is a total of 40 students, constituting experimental groups; two groups with an average of 20 students each. Both groups were randomly enrolled in this study as the students were randomly assigned to different groups by the administration. Random sampling which "refers to the selection of participants from the general population that the sample will represent" (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 119) has two common types: simple random sampling and stratified random sampling. According to Mackey and Gass (ibid) simple random sampling means "ensuring that each and every member of a population has an equal and independent chance of being selected for the research" and "stratified random sampling provides precision in terms of the representativeness of the sample and allows preselected

characteristics to be used as variables" (p.120).As the experimental design for this study is quasi and the participants in both groups should be assigned non-randomly. Stratified random sampling procedure was appropriate. Dornyei (2007) puts that the participants should not be randomly assigned in the experiment by the researcher, thus the approximate equilibrium created between groups brings a fairer results. He (2007) adds that to minimize the differences between the treatment and control groups, there are two methods. Matching the participants in both groups is the first method. To achieve this match both groups, treatment and control groups, should be equated "on a case-by-case basis on one or more variables" which have an impact on the dependent variable. Using the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), which is the second method Dornyei offers, applies "a statistical method for adjusting the post-test scores for any pre-test differences" (p. 118). In the present study, stratified random sampling was used, particularly, matching procedure where participants in both experimental groups, were matched on the basis of their achievement in the pre-test in the speaking skill. On the basis of this mark, participants were matched and assigned to two different well-matched experimental groups (Exp. G.).

4.2.3 Duration

The whole experiment lasted 3 months. The instruction was delivered in twenty four sessions; each session lasts one hour and a half. The sessions were devoted as follows:

- Four sessions for the pre-test and for the post-test.

- Three sessions for each simulation with the exception of simulation 1 which included two more sessions: one for the role play and another for the maze task in the practice phase.

4.2.4 Objectives

Each element of the experiment had a purpose which serves to achieve the aim of this study. The pre/post tests were used to collect data for comparable reasons as to differentiate

the results and seek any possible improvement of students speaking and listening proficiency. They serve as a means to detect the relationship between the research variables.

The questionnaires of both students and teachers aim at collecting *factual information* (sex, age, language learning and teaching status) and *opinions* (views, attitudes, preferences…etc.) about the effectiveness and usefulness of simulation activities for second year students. The objective of the treatment materials is to provide controlled environment for the study. These materials serve as reference to discover new relationships or properties associated with them.

4.2.5 Procedure

The present study consists of three fundamental stages: the pre-test, instruction and the post-test. The instruction is explained in this chapter, while test are elaborated in chapter seven. Both experimental groups had two Oral Expression (OE) sessions of one and a half hour per week. They were both provided with instruction of six simulations during these scheduled hours.

4.2.6 How Simulations Work in this Study

Half an hour was devoted to the explanation of simulation Jones (1982) declares that the briefing phase can be half an hour if necessary (p.32). This explanation was necessary in the light of the fact that second year students of English, at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1, are not familiar with this technique. Noteworthy, one of the two groups of the sample was not acquainted with any drama activities in the first year, mainly role plays which are commonly taught at the Department of Letters and the English Language, while the other group had one semester in the first year dealing with role play activities.

There are six simulations in this study implemented in second year classes at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1 in 2015-2016. Each simulation lesson is

designed according to the three phases of task-based approach, pre-task represents the preparation stage, during-task represents the simulation, and post task stands for the follow-up session. In other words, all the simulations rely mainly on two axes which are: *preparation* and *execution*. In the *preparation* stage, the simulations used both approaches; PPP (presentation, practice, production), and TBL (task based learning). At the heart of this stage was teaching structural knowledge that learners need in order to perform their functions in the simulation adequately as "it is still possible — desirable, in fact — to prepare the students beforehand by practising some of the functional language they are likely to need in the simulation; e.g. giving orders or instructions, expressing agreement or disagreement, making proposals, and so on" and "the indispensable lexis of the subject matter must be taught where necessary" (Kerr, 1977, p.7).

PPP model is seen substantially effective as it focuses on presenting grammar points, lexis, language functions most needed in the simulations, and allows some practice and production in different kinds of activities. In spite of the fact that what is practiced and produced can be far from what should be done, the PPP model serves as a method that structures learning in this study. Noteworthy, the simulations in this study replicate the communicative method, that is to say, the simulation task resembles the action "do" which follows "learn". In addition, knowing that "tasks seem more fun and keep our students interested, as well as providing more natural learning opportunities" (Loumpourdi, 2005, p.33), their use becomes indispensable. Thus, TBL in this study, which forms part of the communicative method, is duplicated in the form of simulation activities.

In the *execution* stage (the simulation phase), TBL raises the rate of success for learners and helps better learn not only the language for its sake but the language in use to achieve different purposes. This resembles the last P in PPP model which stands for **production** in which what has been presented and learned is likely less efficient if it is not put in real-like

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situations. This fact gives simulations an established status that is appreciated by students. Consequently, since simulation promotes active learning, TBL seems to come in line with this technique.

Each simulation took one session (1 hour and a half) in the preparatory stage as it was devoted to presentation and practice lesson. Besides, one session (1hour and a half) was dedicated to the simulation or production stage. A follow up session (1hour and a half) was needed to debrief what has been done and achieved in the simulation.

Before speaking about simulation session structure, it is worth mentioning the explanation of the principles of simulation activities. As the aim of the simulation activities is to develop students communicative ability, the principles that underpin the simulations used in this study are the same principles of the communicative exercise typology proposed by Johnson (1982) (see Chapter Three, Subsection 3.1.3.9 Communicative Activities, p. 113). The principles are illustrated with examples from the simulations as follows:

1. Information transfer (students in the simulations are required to read information, listen to an audio or watch a video to extract data in order to perform effectively in the simulations);

2. Information gap (in many simulations some information are known by only one or two students in pair or group of students, according to their function and the situation of the simulation and it can be conveyed by interacting with each other);

3. Jigsaw (in all the simulations participants work together by bringing the different pieces of information and then complete a group task which is in most cases either solving a problem or reaching a decision);

4. Task dependency (simulations in this study are always preceded by listening or reading which can never be done without completing the listening or the reading task. In a nutshell, the whole session that precedes the simulation session serves as the task that simulation depends on to be successfully completed);

5. Correction for content (due to the minor control that the teacher has over the participants' performance during the simulations as they involve self-directed learning, the correction of the student's language production and its communicative efficacy is delayed until the debriefing session in which a discussion about students' achievements in the simulation, in accordance to the task purpose, takes place)

The simulation session itself was divided into three parts; the briefing which meant to increase learners' familiarity with the theme of the simulation. At this stage the controller has to be careful in terms of the amount of explanation he/she provides to the participants as Jones (1982) puts. The briefing included also the timing (the deadline for each task in the simulation), the procedures (what should participants do and the data and resources they have), the location (the arrangement of the classroom to model real-life environment), and explanation of any teaching aids (charts, documents, role cards, etc.). (Jones, ibid, p. 35)

4.2.6.1 Role Assignment in the Simulation

Harmer (2007) believes that students can play as themselves or someone else; however, the decision can be made by trying simulations with and without roles to see which works best with a particular group. Nevertheless, some simulations exert one option over the other according to the nature of the problem addressed in the simulation and its occurrence in the students' life. Accordingly, the majority of the simulations were based on students playing the roles as themselves. This choice has been made for two reasons: to approximate the students' learning to real-life situations they might most probably encounter and accentuate the responsibility of their personal achievements in the simulations, and as a result encourage autonomous learning. The teacher in the simulations performed the role which is exerted by the communicative language teaching and imposed by the simulation rules: the controller who has the most important status during a simulation. The role of the controller in this study was restricted to "adjust [ing] the seating arrangements or extend [ing] a time limit" (Jones, ibid,

p. 41). The controller, then, had minimum control over the simulations – no matter how much the temptation is big – as the interference of the controller may lead to breaking the chain of thoughts of the participants, pushing the participants to abandon their functions and duties and inhibit their language use, according to Jones (1982). His interference might be in the most exceptional cases via a note from any participant to the others (e. g. asking for urgent meeting which leads to cut the simulation off to allow the controller interference) during the simulation, however his most contribution to the language learning (his original goal in the language classroom) took place in the debriefing phase (further explanation of the debriefing will be in the subsection 4.2.7.7   The Debriefing).

4.2.6.2 Class Arrangement in the Simulation

Kerr (1977) puts that "classes of twenty or more students are too large to benefit greatly from language games and simulations, since individual speaking time is bound to be very short" (p. 6). Hence, minimizing group size in the simulations and maximizing speaking time took place in this study. A helping procedure to maximize the speaking time is applying the cooperative work. In other words, Kerr (ibid) suggests "in the case of simulations, large numbers are best catered for by dividing them into small groups and requiring each group to perform a separate but interrelated task" (p.7). In this study, the classroom arrangement is constrained by the group work and the nature of the simulation theme. However, some simulations (simulations two, four, and six, see appendix XI) employed small group as well as large group work.

The classroom context plays vital role in students' learning experience, especially as simulation depends largely on the environment. Considering what Jones (ibid) puts "the environment must be simulated, otherwise it is not a simulation" (pp.4-5), the classroom was reshaped to provide a simulated environment. However, the inaccessibility of some materials such as equipment to simulate the studio environment (in simulation three: radio program),

big round- table to simulate the assembly hall (in simulation four: university repair: the plenary meeting), we had to resort either to change the location of tables to form long table like in simulations two, four and six, or to do the simulation in the laboratory to use the recording equipment and headphones, e. g. in simulation three. (See the class arrangement figures in appendix XI)

4.2.6.3 Timing in Simulation

The length of simulations vary dramatically, Davis (2009) declares that some simulations may last only 5 to 10 minutes while others are held over multiple class sessions (Jones, 1983). The majority of simulations, in the present study, took from 15 to 30 minutes depending on the simulation nature; for example the simulations which involved more than five participants and was designed around 'meetings' (simulations two, four and six) lasted half an hour.

4.2.6.4 The Six Simulations in this Study: Authenticity of the Instruction

The six simulations used in this study were designed by the teacher because first teachers should be given every encouragement to design their own simulations, and second the shared cultural background and professional interests may need special designed simulations, according to Kerr (1977). Kerr (ibid) clarifies that the selection of simulations for inclusion in an ELT programme, the nature of the language to be employed and its usefulness to the students must be considered in the first place. Besides, he (ibid) contends that for a successful simulation the conceptual level and theme need to match the participants' expectations. Moreover, "the closer the simulation can be to reality and to the student's own first language role or new foreign language role, the closer the language that he produces will be to that which he will need to produce in the real situation" (Herbert and Sturtridge, 1979, p.9). Considering all the prior claims, we have decided to design simulations which intend to satisfy the conditions Kerr (ibid) mentions.

The first five simulations considered the shared culture, interests, expectations, and the real target needs and situations; besides, they are inspired by the six simulations proposed by Jones (1983), while, the sixth simulation was proposed by the students themselves as Harmer (2007) claims that to sustain motivation, students should feel responsible for their learning. In other words, "they will have some decision making power, perhaps, over the choice of which activity to do next" (p.21). Accordingly, we have assigned learners to choose one of the simulations, particularly the last one, when they became familiar with these activities.

Furthermore, concerning the authenticity of the themes of the simulations, a high degree was achieved, despite the fact that we did not adopt simulations as they were from Jones (1983) book, but rather we tried to invent scenarios that students might encounter in their life. Accordingly, we have chosen the following themes:

-Simulation one: getting a job (talks about company board meeting to decide on the best fit for a particular job).

- Simulation two: teachers meeting (the head of the department meets the students and teachers to discuss their concerns).

-Simulation three: radio program (encourages students to make their own radio program).

-Simulation four: university repair (includes plenary meeting to discuss the committee meeting and informal consultation sessions' results about the solutions provided to fix the problems the faculty is suffering from).

- Simulation five: news program (approaches one of the students target needs which is *job* in the time job is, paradoxically, unattainable).

-Simulation six: leaders' debate (learners were approximated to their reality by talking about the issues that concerns them as citizens in their country in a debate which forms part of election campaign).

Additionally, materials (e.g., audio, video recordings, job advertisement, and articles), employed in the preparation stage as input generator for the simulations, were genuine because of the simple fact that simulations are replication of real-life situation, so students should see the real performance before they do it themselves in their simulations. In regard to this view, materials were selected, however, due to the absence of absolute match of these materials with the intended theme of the simulations; we could not use them in some of the simulations (simulations one and four).

4.2.6.5 The Use of Multimedia in Simulation

Multimedia took part in the simulation activities, particularly, audio and video materials were used to elicit the linguistic factors and therefore "reducing the complexity of the task (e.g., by familiarizing students with the demands of the activity)" (Richards, 2008, p. 33). Herron et al. (1995) put that video links language forms to meaning better than instructional materials. Thus, the main reason for substituting written texts like text-books or worksheets with video is that videos supplement the text (Herron and Morris, ibid). Besides, the visual clues, the video affords, help students guess the meaning of the proposition of the speech event, memorize the linguistic features, and acquire "strategies to overcome communication problems, and paralinguistic devices" (Ellis 2003, p. 246). Furthermore, knowing that "to do a simulation, present students with a context" (O'Malley and Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 86), and audio-visual instruction is significantly useful when it is used to simulate what students will perform later (Bonwell and Eison, 1991), video or audio was used then as the alternative material to elicit the context, therefore the language forms. This research brought into line with the idea of investing meaningful speech to actively engage students in intelligible

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exchange of ideas in the production stage. This idea supports the output hypotheses thus interaction and refrains the input hypothesis (see Chapter One subsection 1.1.2 Speaking Paradigm: Comprehension, Production, and Interaction, p. 13). Accordingly, learners watched videos or listened to audios that showed similar language use or scenario that they will perform during the task (simulation) in the first session (in the preparation stage: presentation phase) and then they develop the quality of input as the basis for later production.

Concerning the use of these multimedia mediums, a systematic procedure was used, that is, the interactive teaching format proposed by Jingyan and Baldauf Jr (2011) (see Chapter One, Sub-section 1.3 Integrative Teaching Format of Speaking and Listening, p. 34). After students watched the video or listened to the audio or even read an article, they had the chance to negotiate their understanding with other students in order to give them the chance to clarify, paraphrase, verify and confirm understanding. As a helping procedure and to advance students negotiations, we have provided students with the ready-made expressions they can use in order to express misunderstanding, confirm and check understanding, and ask for repetition. Afterwards students were asked to retrieve some expressions related to a given functional meaning e.g., expressing opinion, agreeing and disagreeing, providing counter argument, rephrasing, explaining, opening news programme or radio podcast. We have added some other expressions when necessary. In the second step Jingyan and Baldauf Jr (2011) say that students put their comprehensible input in practice in the form of different activities generally group discussions for one main reason; simulations are structured around problem solving and decision making which mainly take place in discussions. The third step Jingyan and Baldauf Jr put in their teaching paradox of interactive listening and speaking was applied in the follow-up discussion as students were appointed to present their evaluation of their simulation.

4.2.6.6 The Language Focus in the Simulations

The six simulations presented in this work, as mentioned earlier, focus on language function and vocabulary that are generally presented in the form of video, audio or written sources. The reasons behind emphasizing the functional language over the grammatical features is that second year students are equipped with the linguistic resources as they already study grammatical structures in grammar module. Furthermore, the teaching of language functions forms part of the general movement toward communicative language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 1986), besides, language is taught as a means of communication not as a system of grammatical structures. Noteworthy, functional language goes into line with the principle of simulation 'learning by doing'. To support this claim, we review the finocchiaro and brumfit's (1983) description of the perspective that led to the development of the approach: "language was much more appropriately classified in terms of what people wanted to do with the language (functions) … than in terms of the grammatical items as in traditional language teaching models" (p. 12). Namely, agreeing, disagreeing, expressing an opinion, persuading, stating a criticism and commenting are the language functions (production language skills) which have direct relationship with problem-solving task, according to Jordan (1997).

The reason for briefing the functional meaning of language is not for restricting the lexical repertoire of the student when they perform the simulation, but to teach them how to do things. It is true that briefing the language "may make…students inhibited to say anything rather than deviate from the forms and patterns of speech practiced" (Jones, 1982, p.38) and thus they will be plagued by the language used and fail to function in the situation as they should be; however, the language briefing in this study is meant to shape the students discourse not to restrict it as they were given set of expression from which they can express their communicative intent. Furthermore, as some of the simulations required formal language

rather than informal, and the situation hinges upon academic and professional contexts, the language briefing then served to elicit them.

Negotiation devices (reception strategies) such as global reprise (asking for repetition, rephrasing, or simplification), hypothesis testing (confirmation checks), and lexical gap (asking for repeating a specific word or item) were also stressed in the preparation stage in order to help learners solve any communication breakdown while they exchange meaning.

4.2.6.7 The Debriefing

The follow up session which generally follows classroom activities was considered as the debriefing for the simulations in this study. Students in this session explained what they did in the simulation and why. A deep analysis of the simulation discourse based on a video recording was done. We have not focused the analysis on reciting students' mistakes in the simulation to avoid their apprehension to perform in the future simulation on Jones (1982) advices, but rather we have emphasized the language of effective communication, in other words students' successful performance was accentuated as much as students' grammar and pronunciation mistakes were. Students were involved in the assessment process as they took equal partnership with the teacher and peers to detect their failure and success in their own performance. This step was assumed to motivate them, as they are "the best authority on the subject" (Jones, ibid, p.49), when they discuss their own performance. Besides, students themselves can create their own portfolio that includes what they know and do not know, in other words, what they are able to do and what they cannot do.

4.2.6.7.1 Using Video Recording as a Tool of Assessment

Audio-visual instruction has been the most significant tool of input provision in this study as mentioned earlier. We further used multimedia in the debriefing; consequently, this instruction is used as a tool of assessment in which learners attain feedback by playing back

their performance to gain clear sight of their performance in the simulation. Video-recorded simulations were used in the follow-up session to give students the chance to watch their own performance and be able to detect the problems of communication along with their peers and the teacher (the controller). We have taken this initiation to use video-taping for feedback provision owing to the pilot study results, and the assertion made by Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) who say that tape recording of the discussion in the simulation should be viewed and assessed in the follow-up session. Additionally this initiation is reinforced by the results found by Murphey and Kenny (1996) who videotaped students' conversations in a three-times-a-week class, justifying the use of this instruction by saying that "students are not only learning strategies and 'language' from each other, but … they are learning and appreciating their attitudes toward English, their effort in studying, an assertive style of talking and questioning, and appreciative responses" (p. 202). The findings promoted the use of videotaping instruction, for self-evaluation, because it increases motivation for practice and directs students to more awareness and noticing how they used the language correctly and incorrectly. Besides, the teachers become aware of students' levels and problems that should be treated in the coming simulations.

4.2.7 Simulation Lesson Model

Simulation Three

Duration: 90 minutes for preparation/ 90 minutes for the simulation/ 90 minutes for the follow-up.

Topic: radio program

Description:

Students, in this simulation, create their own podcast. Students are encouraged to listen to different radio programs in order to see how these programs are presented. Students choose

the topic they want to talk about.

Before the simulation, students are asked to read newspapers and journals in order to select a topic to deal with in their podcast.

Aims

Enable students to interview others seeking their experiences and points of view.

Preparation Phase

*Duration:*1hour and a half

Language Focus

Function: interviewing

Vocabulary: expressions used for starting and ending a broadcast interview and expressions used check understanding.

Teaching aids

Radio podcast downloaded from www.Bardwellroad.com , a handout explaining 'How to Conduct a Podcast Interview'.

*P*restentation

> ➢ The teacher presents the theme of the simulation to the students by asking:

What are the topics you want to discuss in a radio program?

Have listened recently to a radio broadcast? What was it about?

Can you use some ideas from the radio programmes you have listened to in your podcast?

Do you read the university magazine? Are there any ideas from the magazine that you may use in order to organise the content of you radio podcast?

> ➢ Now, the teacher asks students to listen to a radio broadcast organised by students in Sinclair University and answer the following questions:

How did the presenter start the interview? (The presenters introduced themselves by name and the theme of the podcast)

"Hi my name is Macarena, my name is Vicky, my name is Gisela, and we are students at Sinclair's Oxford. In this show you are going to hear students from GO2 talking about different cultures"

> ➤ The teacher gives his students a list of expressions to start and end a broadcast interview.

Usually, presenters begin their broadcast interviews like this:

We have with us in the studio …
This is …
Miss/Mrs/Mr …welcome to the studio …
We welcome to the studio …

And finish their broadcast by saying:

Mr/Mrs/Ms … thank you for joining us today.
Mr/Mrs/Ms …thank you very much.
And now back to John at the news desk. (Taken from Leo Johns, 1983, p.10)

Practice

> ➤ The teacher gives students articles about a particular topic and asks them to do the following:

In pairs, read the documents and summarize the main points in each document.

Then, transform these points in questions (questions about the topic being dealt with).

Pairs exchange the question sheets and evaluate them for each other. To help students discuss and evaluate the input, the teacher then gives students some expressions they might use to verify their understanding:

Would I be correct in saying that…?
If I've understood you correctly, you're saying that…?
Correct me if I'm wrong, but…
Am I correct in assuming that…?
Are you saying that…?
Basically, what you're saying is…

Each pair afterwards interviews other classmates using the prepared questions and the expressions they learned to open and end an interview and verify their understanding if

necessary.

Home work

> ➢ The teacher asks each pair of students to collect articles or other sources about university life and its challenges and then do the same as they did in the practice activity.

Simulation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* interviewing
>
> *Vocabulary:* expressions used for starting and ending a broadcast interview, and expressions to confirm understanding.

Teaching aids

Articles brought by students, headphones, and questions for the interview prepared by students.

The briefing

- **Timing**: The time of the simulation is one hour and a half; the teacher explains briefly what will happen in the simulation. There are no role cards as students will simulate the situation as university students. Students will be given time for audio (used in the previous session) listening if requested to remind students of radio broadcast is presented. The teacher ensures that every student knows his/her role and what he/she has to do. All the former steps are assumed to be done in 10 minutes. One hour and ten minutes are devoted to the simulation itself.

- **Classroom arrangement:** In the laboratory each pair of students interview other three students.

Production

1. The teacher ensures that the equipment for the podcast (headphones and microphone) is all set.

2. Then, the first pair takes the place of presenters and the controller chooses three students from the other group randomly to be interviewed (make sure that these students have done enough research about the topic students will speak about).

3. The teacher monitors students' performance and writes down their errors.

4. The radio podcasts are recorded in audio format and videotaped.

Follow-up Session

Duration: one hour and a half

Teaching aids:

Audio recording of the simulation

Procedure:

The students are asked to explain briefly what they did and why.

The students listen to an audio recording of the simulation and then are asked to evaluate the simulation discourse by asking these questions:

How successful the podcasts were?
What makes you say this simulation is successful?
Did presenters do what they have to do?
What are the language mistakes you notice?
What do you think you have learnt from this simulation?
What would you do differently if you could do the simulation over again?
How is a real life radio programme different from yours? (Questions are taken from Jones book 'eight simulations' (1983).

The students discuss these questions in pairs, listen to each other opinion and evaluate the radio broadcast they listened to, at the end each group chooses one students to report their evaluation to the whole class while the other students listen and make comments. This task helps encourage students to interact, evaluate ideas, and reflect on students' vision of communication; consequently the behavioural performance is addressed. The teacher will be engaged also in the whole group discussion. (This task may take 30 minutes)

The teacher will explain language mistakes that are collected by him and by students (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and communication skills) and suggest some remedial activities.

4.2.8 Spoken Data Collection Procedure

Spoken data, which is used for assessing students' speaking and listening proficiency in this study, is collected through video-recordings. Underhill (1987) points out that recording learners' oral performance facilitate the process of the assessment for the flexibility and several repeated listening opportunities that a tape or a video yield. He adds that to assess learners' oral communicative ability, the visual clues are momentous and only the video can elicit the verbal and non-verbal communicative abilities that constitute oral proficiency (pp. 92-93).

Conclusion

Based on what has been found in the pilot study, some recommendations were considered in the main investigation. It, consequently, necessitates reflective development of what interactive listening entails in the instructional framework (simulation), in addition to some important practical recommendations, like using video-recording, and eliciting the questionnaires to make them more intelligible. The outcomes of the pilot study have been of great influence on reshaping the actual experiment. The experimental design is, then, elaborated; including the nature of the experimental design and a detailed explanation of the instructional framework. In short, this chapter plays the most significant role to the understanding of the analysis and discussions of whatever has been reached in the practical part of this thesis.

CHAPTER FIVE:

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE ANALYSIS

Chapter Five: Students' Questionnaire Analysis

Introduction

In this part of the study, we employed the questionnaire to serve as a needs analysis. The aim is, then, examining the following enquiries in two different points of time, before and after the implementation of simulation activities: the second year students' needs, lacks and wants, their learning followed-pattern in the classroom, and their views and attitudes towards the materials and activities implemented in OE classes. Another point of investigation focuses on the students' interests and attitudes towards simulation activities. To put it another way, the students' appreciation for what has been changed in their learning due to simulations, is elaborated. The answers to these enquiries will pave the way for testing our second hypothesis: applying simulation teaching technique would stimulate second year students' interests and positive attitudes.

5.1 Description of the Questionnaire

Two questionnaires were administered to the participants in this study. A pre-questionnaire was handed to the students at the beginning of the first semester of the academic year 2015/2016 while the post-questionnaire was administered at the end of the first semester of the same academic year. A pre-questionnaire (See Appendix III) seeks for different sorts of information (as mentioned in Jordan, 1997); *present situation analysis* (PSA) which focuses on students' abilities, resources and views towards speaking/listening teaching/learning situation (Q3, Q8, Q13, Q14, Q15, Q19, Q21, Q22, Q23), *target situation analysis* (TSA) that emphasizes students' target needs (Q4), and *strategy analysis* which deals with students' needs (Q17), 'wants' (Q6, Q 18, Q24) and 'lacks' (Q16, Q20). This questionnaire seeks also historical background of English learning (language skill most taught, listening materials and speaking activities, and the rate of participation).The results of

this questionnaire helped to instruct the appropriate simulation activities in the light of correspondent participant lacks in the speaking and listening skills for both groups; moreover, it gave clear insight on learners' desires about some learning aspects, like participation and cooperation. Noteworthy, the questions, in the pre-questionnaire were grouped into four blocks, (in order to help learners answer them in accordance to their aim) each reflecting a different aspect to be valued: **personal profile** (age, sex, number of years of studying English), **English education, classroom focus/ materials/ participation** (the methodology employed within the classroom), **English speaking and listening proficiency** (a self-evaluation about students' speaking and listening skills).

The post-questionnaire (See Appendix IV) was organised to meet one main aim which is analysing students' perceptions and attitudes towards the implemented programme (simulation activities) to see whether it satisfied the students' desires and supplemented their lacks or not. The findings were assumed to result in students-based evaluation of simulation activities that included suggested changes to make them more effective for learning to speak and listen. In this questionnaire, there are two blocks only: **learners' attitudes and participation** (to value students' attitudes and opinions in accordance to the use of simulation activities), and **English speaking and listening proficiency** (to recognise the deferential between what they knew and what they gain).

Pre-questionnaires contained more items (23) than the post questionnaire (18) as it additionally aims at seeking the demographic and personal profile of the respondents. Nevertheless, both questionnaires items are scored on the basis of different scales according to the nature and the feasibility of the questions. They include dichotomous questions (yes/no, male/female), while some questions were scored on a two-point scale, going from number 1(if they can/ or it is true), to 2 (if they cannot/ or it is false). Both pre/post questionnaires consist of closed-ended questions, namely multiple choice items type. Semantic differential scale is

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applied in these questionnaires whereby the answers were marked by an 'X' between two extremes, for example 'Not difficult' to 'Very difficult' and 'Least favourable' to 'Most desired'. Additionally, some open-ended items, namely, contingency questions, are included to elicit some questions where the respondents added any piece of information not mentioned among the options.

5.2 Procedure

The procedure of questionnaire administration is composed of three stages; the first stage took place before starting the intervention with both experimental groups (at the beginning of the first semester of the academic year 2015-2016). The pre-questionnaire, in this stage, was administered to both experimental groups at the same time. The second stage dealt with the implementation of the intervention. It involved the application of the experimental design to both experimental groups. In the third and last stage, post-questionnaire was handed to both research groups simultaneously. The aim was to establish any students' communication skills development according to their self-evaluation. Besides, their motivation and attitudes are considered in which the account for their wants satisfaction is emphasized. A comparable process, of the pre-/post questionnaires of both experimental groups, is followed. The aim is to determine the participants' possible enhancement by using the same scoring scale and to match both groups' results seeking identical findings and investigating any feasible difference.

5.3 Analysis and Discussion of the Results

The data collected is analysed in an attempt to answer the following question:

- Do simulation activities improve the students' interests and attitudes?

5.3.1 Analysis and Discussion of the Pre-questionnaire Results

Section One: Personal profile

The first question investigated the age, along with sex, as it is one of the major factors that reveal the amount of students' exposure to the English language throughout their language learning span. As the study is undertaken within the norms of quasi-experimental design, the two experimental groups were matched on case-by-case basis according to students' speaking and listening proficiency which the amount of exposure to the English language has the most impact on.

1. Sex: male ☐   **female** ☐   **Age**: …

Options	Exp. G.1		Exp. G. 2	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Male	02	10	06	30
Female	18	90	14	70

Table 2: Students' personal profile

Sex: Among the forty respondents, eight are male and thirty two are female. This indicates that girls outnumber boys in the sample assigned in this study.

Age	Exp. G.1		Exp. G.2	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
19	02	10	0	0
20	15	75	15	75
21 -23	03	90	05	25

Table 3: Students' age

Age: The expected age span of second language students is 20 years old, however, in the sample population there were some exceptional cases (two cases) of 19 years old, in experimental group 1 (they must be started their education at five years old), four students aged 21, two aged 22, and two who are aged 23. It is assumed that those who are aged between 21and 23 either started their education late, repeat one to three years or blocked one or two years at the university. All in all, the age span of the sample population is between 19 and 23.

2. How long have you been studying English? ……

Time Span	Exp. G.1		Exp. G.2	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
09	17	85	14	70
10 – 11	03	15	05	25
12	0	0	01	05

Table 4: English learning time span

Along with the age factor, the years students spent on learning English are counted as a background variable that impacts the dependent variables of this study. Although, students have already four years tuition in English at the Middle School, three years in the High School and one year at the university, the results revealed that the majority of students (85% in experimental group 1 and 70% in experimental group 2) spent nine years studying English. Only few anonymous cases (03 cases in Exp. G.1 and 05 cases in Exp. G. 2) which spent from 10 to 11 years in studying English, while 01 informant said s/he spent 12 years studying English. Thus, there was a slight discrimination of the amount of the exposure to the English Language. Simply put, both experimental groups are approximately matched on the age factor and the amount of exposure to English.

Section Two: English Education
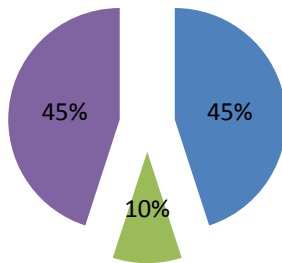
3. Do you consider English: important ☐ **unimportant** ☐ **optional** ☐
necessary ☐
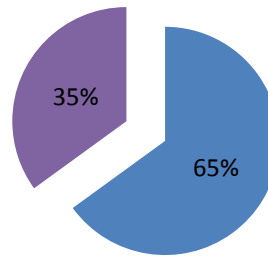
Figure 2: Students' opinion about the degree of importance of English in both Exp. G.1 and

Exp. G 2

According to Figure 3, the participants in experimental group 1 seem to consider English language important and necessary as the degree *important* has an absolute frequency of 09 (45%), likewise, the degree *necessary* seems to be the common opinion of 09 other students. 13 participants (65%) in experimental group 2 perceive English as *important,* while 07 students claim English as *necessary*. Thus, 90 % of the Exp. G. 1 and 100% (all the participants) of the Exp. G. 2 consider English as necessary and important. This result is expected as students have chosen to study this language at the university among many other options, thus they really appreciate the English Language.

4. For what reason/s do you think you need to learn English?
   a. Future job
   b. Further studies
   c. Going abroad
   d. Writing e-mail or any academic paper
   e. Communicating with foreigners via social media (Facebook, twitter, skype, etc.)
   f. Tourism (travelling)

Other reasons (specify please)

………
………
……………………………………

Options	Exp. 1		Exp.2	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
a	13	65	16	80
b	03	15	06	30
c	08	40	04	20
d	05	25	0	0
e	05	25	07	35
f	09	45	10	50
Other reasons	0	0	0	0

Table 5: Students' reasons to learn English

Table 4 reveals that over half of the participants with respective percentage of (65%), in Exp. G.1, study English for future job, 45% of students need English when travelling for the purpose of tourism and 40% of participants study English to survive in foreign environment when they go abroad. Few members of this group, represented by 25%, saw English as a means to write an e-mail or any academic paper and communicate with foreigners via social media (frequency of 05 for each option respectively), while only 03 students study English for the sake of going further in their studies.

In Exp. G.2, the majority of the students with frequency of 16 believe also that English is needed in the future job or at least to attain job opportunities. It has been observed that the half (frequency of 10) of the participants need English for tourism purposes. 07 students (35%) expressed their will to study English to communicate with foreigners via social media and 06 other students needed it to attain further studies, while a inconsiderable percentage (20%) represent those who study English for potential opportunity to go abroad, nobody

expressed their need to write an e-mail or any academic paper, besides, no one added any other reason to study English in both groups.

Section Three: Classroom Focus/Materials/Participation

5. At what frequency the following language skills were taught last year?

Language Skill	Always	Sometimes	Never
Reading			
Listening			
Writing			
Speaking			

Options	Always		Sometimes		Never	
	Exp. G.1	Exp. G.2	Exp. G.1	Exp. G.2	Exp. G.1	Exp. G.2
Reading	05	05	12	12	03	03
Listening	15	07	04	11	01	02
Writing	09	12	11	08	0	0
Speaking	10	13	9	07	01	0

Table 6: The Teaching frequency of language skills

According to the Exp. G. 1 results, listening is the most frequently taught skill as 75% responded that it was taught *always* in the preceding year before which this study was undertaken and 60% of respondents chose the adverb *sometimes*. Speaking was the second skill which was taught after listening as reported by half of the respondents (10 respondents ticked the adverb *always*) while 09 students opted for the option *sometimes*. In the same vein, respondents ranked writing and reading in the third and fourth place respectively, as they were taught only *sometimes*, represented by (60%) and (55%) respectively.

However, as far as the experimental group 2 is concerned, 13 participants (65%) said that speaking was taught *always,* thus this skills was the main skill taught in OE in their first year at the university. 12 participants (60%) said that writing was the second skill that was emphasized, as they opted for the adverb *always*, while the same percentage was devoted to reading but it was taught *sometimes*. Listening was also dealt with sometimes according to 11

informants (55%). The results of both groups were so close and indicate the teachers'
concentration on both the speaking and listening skills. However, a discrimination of the
teaching focus on both skills was obvious, according to the findings.

6. According to you, which language skill/s that should have more focus?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………...

Options	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking
Exp. G.1	07	09	06	13
Exp. G.2	04	09	06	13

Table 7: The Students' opinion about the most important skill/s to be studied

On one hand, speaking was at the top concerns and desires of the Exp. G. 1 students
with aggregate frequency of 13 (65%), followed by listening as slightly less than a half of
participants (45%) wanted to focus on. Reading and writing seem to come in the bottom
priorities as they are represented by frequency of 07 and 06 respectively. On the other hand,
the participants of the second experimental group seemed to share the same desires as the first
group, demonstrating frequency of 13 (65%) to focus primarily on speaking and frequency of
09 (45%) to focus on listening, while writing was desired to have more focus by only 06
participants (30%) and reading was the utmost desire of 04 participants (20%). It is clear that
the students' desires come into line with the research focus.

7. What kinds of materials were used in the Oral Expression class last year?

Textbook ☐   Handouts ☐   Videos ☐   Audio recordings   ☐

Options	Textbook	Handouts	Videos	Audio recordings
Exp. G.1	05	04	02	19
Exp. G.2	01	05	15	07

Table 8: Materials used in Oral Expression

Table 7 indicates that audio recordings permeated Oral Expression class as 95%,
representing almost all the participants of the Exp. G.1, said that. Concurrent results of the

Exp. G. 2 revealed that videos were mostly used in their Oral Expression class, reported by 15 students (75%). The pervasive use of these two materials is probably related to the nature of the lessons which focused on listening either always or sometimes (see table 5). Handouts and textbook use was relatively limited in both groups as only small proportion (01, 04 or 05 students) ticked these two options.

8. Did the Oral Expression module help you to improve your English?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Exp. G.1	16	80	04	20
Exp. G.2	17	85	03	15

Table 9: The effectiveness of the Oral Expression module in the improvement of English

Participants in both experimental groups were satisfied with the improvement of their level in English as 80% and 85% in experimental group 1 and 2 respectively reported their improvement in English. This result is most probably due to the fact that what students want to study (as revealed in table 6) (the speaking and listening skills) matches what they actually studied (see table 5), or the materials used were beneficial to the students. Adding to that, they probably see that the speaking and listening skills have direct and remarkable influence on their English.We also notice that slighter percentages of participants 4% in Exp. G.1 and 3% in Exp. G.2 see that their English was not improved.

9. Did you have any chance to speak in English in the classroom last year?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Exp. G.1	18	90	02	10
Exp. G.2	18	90	02	10

Table 10: Students' chance to speak in the classroom

Similarly, the majority of participants in both experimental groups (90%) had the chance to participate in the classroom, while only 02 informants (10%) in both groups responded negatively. The 10% of participants most probably are introvert students who lack the incentive to take the risk to speak or be involved in any task.

10. How often did you participate orally in English class?

Always ☐

Often ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐
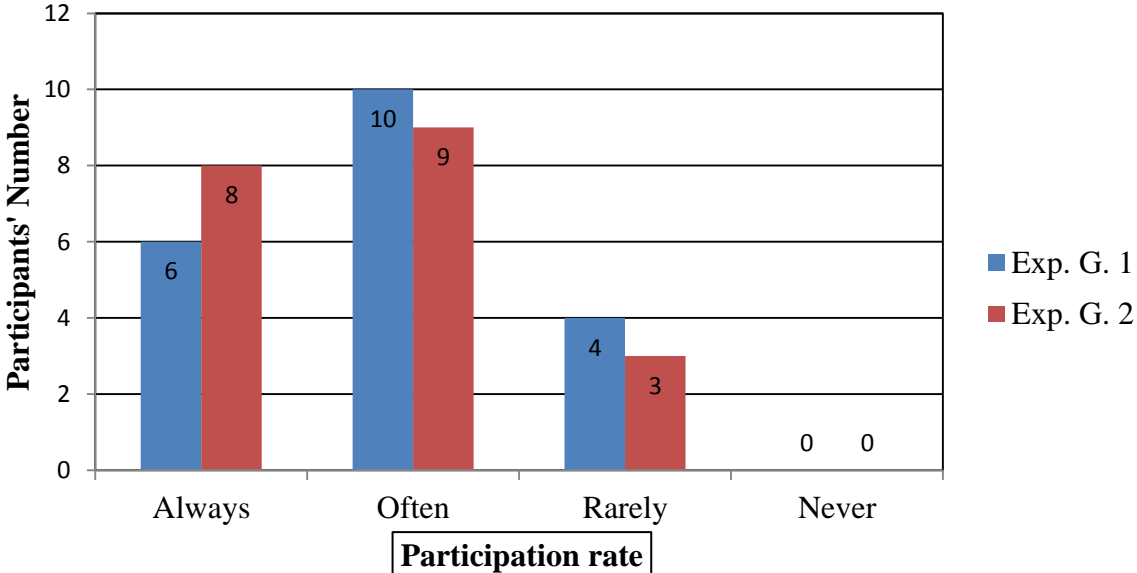
Figure 3: Students' participation rate

The half of the informants (10) in the Exp. G. 1 responded that they *often* participated in the classroom while unsatisfactory percentage (30%) represents those who participated *always*. Noteworthy, only 04 informants *rarely* participated in the classroom. The largest percentage (45%) represents those who participated *often*, (40%) with absolute frequency of 08 indicates those who participated *always*, while only 03 rarely participated, in Exp. G.2.The results save the researcher the effort to accustom learners to participation in the classroom and thus all the focus will be on the task itself rather than on how to make students participate in

the task. Besides, as simulations are based on the engagement of students, their application will be easier in both groups.

11. What kind of speaking activities did you have in the Oral Expression module last year?

    A. Commenting pictures   ☐

    B. Retelling a story   ☐

    C. presenting a research   ☐

    D. Listening to audio or video materials and then discussing them with partner/s ☐

    E. Playing games   ☐

If you had other activities, specify them please.

……………………………………………………………………………………………….

Options	A	B	C	D	E
Exp. G.1	06	03	02	17	03
Exp. G.2	11	11	13	06	10

Table 11: The most frequent speaking activities used in Oral Expression class

In experimental group 1, the largest proportion of the informants 17 (85%) said that they listened to audio or watched video materials and then discuss it with partner in the Oral Expression module last year, whereas only 06 participants (30%) reported that they commented pictures. Presenting a research and speaking games are in the bottom of the speaking activities list (10% and 15% respectively). The informants added no other activities. This result is due to the fact that the focus of teaching in Oral Expression in the previous year was on listening. In the experimental group 2, more than the half (65%), likewise, indicated that listening to audio or video materials and then discuss the content with a partner was the main activity used, commenting pictures and presenting a research had also an average use (according to 11 informants). It is worthy to note that 01 informant said that role play activity was used and one another informant put that discussion activity was used.

12. What kind of listening material(s) did you mainly have in the Oral Expression class last year?

a. Listening to the teacher ☐
b. Listening to audio materials ☐
c. Watching videos ☐

Options	A	b	c
Exp. G.1	11	18	02
Exp. G.2	16	02	07

Table 12: The most frequent listening materials used in Oral Expression class

Surprisingly, in experimental group 1, listening to audio materials and listening to the teacher were the main two sources of language input used in the OE class, represented in 18 responses (90%) and 11 frequencies (55%) respectively, while watching video was not most probably frequent in this class as only 02 respondents (10%) ticked it. The majority in experimental group 2 said that listening to the teacher was the main source of language input. Likewise, watching videos was used but not pervasively as reported by 07 informants (35%). Slight percentage (10%) was devoted to listening to audio materials as it had very limited use in the classroom. These results imply that learners, the few listening chances they had, were attuned only to the one-way listening. So, these groups are most required to acquaint with interactive listening which simulation consequently affords the opportunities to develop.

13. Were this/these material(s) helpful in improving your listening comprehension?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Exp. G.1	06	30	14	70
Exp. G.2	05	25	15	75

Table 13: Students' opinion about the efficacy of listening materials

The informants in both experimental groups (14 in Exp. G.1 and 15 in Exp. G.2) were not satisfied with the improvement of their listening comprehension ability as, most probably, listening to audio materials and listening to the teacher were not enough to boost their ability to listen, though unreliable percentages (30% in Exp. G.1 and 25% in Exp. G.2) represent the

positive opinion about listening improvement. The aforementioned interpretation in question 12 may, thereby, well be the reason for the students' evaluation.

Section Four: English Speaking and Listening Proficiency

14. According to you, being able to speak and listen is:

Very important ☐

Slightly important ☐
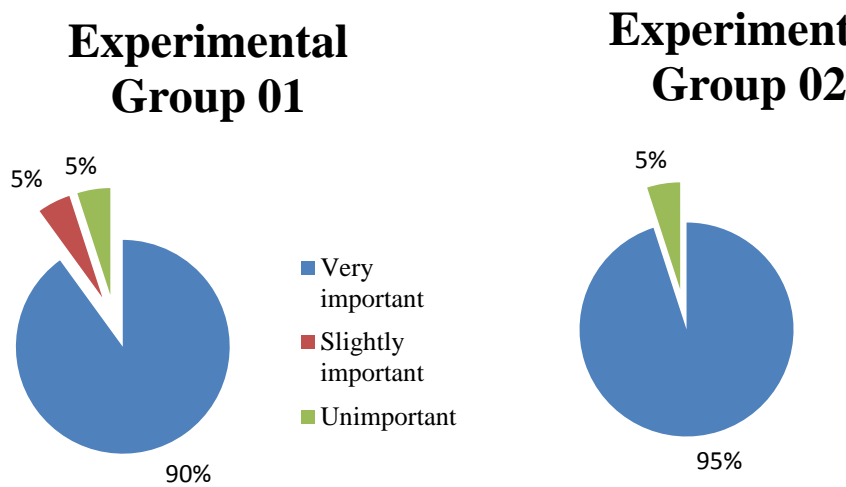
Unimportant ☐

Figure 4: The students' opinion about the importance of being able to speak and listen

Participants in both groups realized the importance of being able to speak and listen as the largest percentages 90% in Exp. G.1 and 95% in Exp. G. 2 opted for the option *very important*. It is surprising that one informant in Exp. G.1 saw the ability to speak and listen *unimportant* and very small proportion (01 informant in each group) believed that being able to speak and listen is slightly important.

15. Tick the best answer according to you for each statement.

Statement of Ability	I can	I cannot
a. Be interviewed in English.		
b. Express opinion to native speakers in English.		
c. Solve misunderstanding problems.		
d. Make enquiries about anything in English.		
e. Engage in spontaneous authentic conversation in English with native speakers.		
f. Ask for clarification in English.		
g. Complain in English.		
h. Ask for and give directions.		
i. Present an academic paper in English.		
j. Make decision in English.		
k. Make suggestions.		
l. Agree and disagree in English.		
m. Persuade others in English.		
n. Greet others and introduce yourself in formal situations.		

	Exp. G.1		Exp. G.2	
Options	I can	I cannot	I can	I cannot
a	17	03	17	03
b	09	11	14	06
c	13	07	15	05
d	05	15	07	13
e	10	10	06	14
f	17	03	15	05
g	15	05	12	08
h	12	08	16	04
i	13	07	08	12
g	17	03	19	01
k	18	02	19	01
l	17	03	19	01
m	10	10	14	06
n	14	06	15	05

Table 14: Students' listening and speaking abilities

Informants in Exp. G.1 were confident about statement (15.k) (frequency of 18 (90%)), statements (15.a), (15.f), (15.j), (15.l) (frequency of 17 (85%) representing each of the former abilities), statement (15.g) (the option 'I can' was chosen by 15 informants (75%)), statement (15.n) (14 students (70%) opted for 'I can'), Statement (15. c) (13 students (65%) ticked the option 'I can'), and statement (15.h) (12 respondents (60%) opted for 'I can'). But they also confirmed their disability concerning statement (15.d) (15 students (75%) said 'I cannot'), statement (15.i) (13 students (65%) chose 'I cannot'), statement (15.b) (collected 11 'I cannot' (55%) opted for 'I cannot'), statement (15.e), and statement (15.m) ('I cannot' was selected by half of the students (50%)).

In the same vein, almost all the informants in Exp. G. 2 expressed their ability to make decision (15.j), make suggestion (15.k), agree and disagree (15.l) (19 informants (95%) said 'I can'), ask for and give directions (15.h) (16 respondents (80% said 'I can'), solve misunderstanding problems (15.c), greet others (15.n), ask for clarification (15.f) (frequency of 15 (75%) representing each) and complain (15.g) (collected 12 positive responses (60%)). Unlike the informants of Exp. G.1, the majority of informants in this group seemed also to be able to express opinion (15.b) and persuade others (15.m) as reported by (70%). The remaining capabilities were the disabilities of the informants as 14 participants (70%) said that they cannot engage in spontaneous authentic conversation (15.e), 13 (65%) confessed their disability to make enquiries (15.d) and 12 informants (40%) were not able to present an academic paper (15.i). A clear and firm command over functional language use is interpreted through these results. The disabilities in both groups which denote weakness in dealing with the illocutionary act are tangible in this table and require absolute focus in the simulations.

16. If you have difficulties in speaking, what are the aspects that prevent you from speaking (Classify them according to the scale (1 to 5) of difficulty).

Speaking Aspect / Difficulty	Not difficult	Slightly difficult	Averagely difficult	Difficult	Very difficult
a. Fluency					
b. Pronunciation					
c. Fear of making mistakes					
d. Inability to express clear ideas					
e. Grammar					
f. Lack of vocabulary					
g. Class atmosphere (group size and noise)					
h. Time shortage					
Any other aspect? …………………………….					

Experimental Group 1Results

Speaking Aspect / Difficulty	Not Difficult	Slightly difficult	Averagely difficult	Difficult	Very difficult
a	0	05	12	03	0
b	02	05	06	04	03
c	02	04	06	05	03
d	03	05	07	04	01
e	02	05	09	03	01
f	02	05	05	03	05
g	08	05	01	03	03
h	06	02	04	07	01

Table 15: Students' speaking difficulties in experimental group 1

Fluency: all the students revealed a struggle with fluency as12 informants (60%) considered it *average difficult*, 03 informants (15%) found difficulties in fluency, while the remaining informants (25%) saw it *slightly difficult*.

Pronunciation: over than the half of informants (13) saw pronunciation *difficult* (raging from the adjective *average* to the adverb *very*), while 07 respondents (35%) considered it of alternative difficulty ranging from *not difficult* (frequency of 02) to *slightly difficult* (frequency of 05).

Fear of mistakes: basically, 06 participants (30%) experienced average fear of mistakes when approximate half (40%) considered fear of mistakes as causing difficulty in speaking. Only 06 respondents (30%) revealed their courage to face their mistakes (02 saw this fear as not difficult and 04 saw it slightly difficult).

Inability to express clear ideas: 08 informants (40%) reported that inability to express clear ideas does not have extreme difficulty in their speaking, 07 participants (35%) said that it has average influence and 05 others (25%) considered this problem *difficult* and even *very difficult*.

Grammar: over the half of the participants (65%) had difficulties in grammar (09 informants opted for the adjective 'averagely difficult', 03 selected 'difficult', and 01 chose 'very difficult'), while 07 informants (35%) considered it slightly (25%) and not difficult (10%).

Lack of vocabulary: more than the half (65%) have shortage of vocabulary (represented by sum frequency of 13= 05 opted for 'averagely difficult'+ 03 said 'difficult' + 05 chose 'very difficult'). The other 07 respondents (sum percentage of 35%) have an acceptable range of vocabulary.

Class atmosphere (group size and noise):13 participants (65%) feel that noise and group size have very small (slight) (or even zero i.e., not difficult) impact on their speaking, while (35%) see that noise and group size hindered their speaking as 01 participant reported that they cause average difficulty, 03 students put them as difficult and the remaining 03 informants chose the description 'very difficult'.

Time shortage: 12 informants (60%) declared that time shortage devalues their speaking. A slighter percentage (40%) saw that time shortage causes minimum difficulty.

- Worth noting, one student considered shyness a problem when speaking as s/he classified it as very difficult. Another respondent (05%) saw intonation (as distinctive feature of pronunciation) 'very difficult' too.

Experimental Group 2 Results

Speaking Aspect Difficulty	Not difficult	Slightly difficult	Averagely difficult	Difficult	Very difficult
a	05	02	10	02	01
b	05	11	02	01	01
c	03	03	07	01	06
d	03	09	06	01	01
e	05	08	03	03	01
f	04	02	04	07	03
g	06	02	05	05	02
h	03	06	06	0	05

Table 16: Students' speaking difficulties in experimental group 2

Fluency: 13 informants (65%) said that fluency is of alternative difficulty (half of the participants put it 'average difficult', 03 considered 'difficult 'and 01 'very difficult'), while the remaining (35%) is distributed between slightly difficult (02 informants (10%)) and not difficult (05 participants (25%)).

Pronunciation: very slighter percentage of informants (20%) reported that pronunciation causes difficulty to them (02 informants chose 'averagely difficult', 01 participants opted for 'difficult' and another chose 'very difficult'. It is also indicated that more than the half (80%) saw pronunciation of slight difficulty (11 informants) and even of no difficulty (05 informants).

Fear of mistakes: basically, 14 participants (sum percentage of 70%) experienced average to extreme fear of mistakes when less than a half (08 participants (40%)) considered fear of mistakes as causing slighter difficulty in speaking.

Inability to express clear ideas: 8 informants (40%) reported that inability to express clear ideas is 'averagely difficult' (06 informants), 'difficult' (frequency 01) and even 'very difficult' (frequency 01), and 60% said that it has slight difficulty (frequency of 09) and even some (frequency of 3) considered it as not difficult at all.

Grammar: Only 7informants (35%) reported their failure in grammar because they saw it as average (03 informants) to very difficult (01 participant). Basically over the half of the participants (65%) had no difficulties in grammar as it collected 08 'slightly difficult' and 05 'not difficulty'.

Lack of vocabulary: more than the half (70%) suffer from shortage of vocabulary (represented by sum frequency of 14). The other 6 respondents (sum percentage of 30%) have an acceptable range of vocabulary as they see it either slightly difficult or not difficult.

Class atmosphere (group size and noise): 12 participants (60%) put noise and group size in the classifications: 05 'averagely difficult', 05 'difficult', and 02 'very difficult', while 40% see that noise and group size do not disturb them.

Time shortage: 11 informants (55%) said that time shortage causes from average to extreme difficulty when speaking. A slighter percentage (45%) is devoted to the descriptions; 'slightly difficult' and 'not difficult'.

- No one has provided any other aspect that cases difficulty while speaking.

17. Do you think you need speaking reinforcement courses?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Exp. G.1	19	95	01	05
Exp. G.2	18	90	02	10

Table 17: Students' need for speaking reinforcement courses

Participants in both experimental groups expressed strong desire towards speaking reinforcement courses as the majority (95% in Exp. G.1 and 90% in Exp. G. 2) answered 'yes'. This is most probably due to the fact that students suffer from many linguistic-related issues as it was pointed out in the previous question. Whereas, only one informant (05%) in Exp. G.1 and 02 others in Exp. G. 2 feel no need for speaking reinforcement courses.

18. What kind of activities would you like to have in order to reinforce your speaking skill?(Order the following activities from 1 the least favourable to 5 the most desired)

Speaking Activity / Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a. Oral interview					
b. Picture description					
c. Information gap (one person has information and his partner does not, the information should be described in details via physical objects, and a linguistic command of colours, shape, sizes, directions and sequences)					
d. Story/text Retelling					
e. Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios)					
f. Oral reports					
g. Debates					

h. Discussion					
i. Presentation of a given topic					
Others please; specify					

Experimental Group 1 Results

Speaking Activity Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a	01	07	05	05	02
b	05	05	04	05	01
c	02	07	07	02	02
d	04	04	05	06	01
e	04	05	06	04	01
f	04	08	03	05	0
g	03	05	05	06	01
h	04	0	08	03	05
i	02	02	08	05	03

Table 18: Students' favourite activities (experimental group 1)

Oral interview: we cannot define oral interview as the most favourable activity as it collected 07 'slightly favourable' and 01 'least favourable', whereas, only 05 informants (25%) averagely favoured this activity. Less than a half (35%) desired and even strongly desired this activity. These results are possibly due to students' confidence about being able to be interviewed in English (85%) as assumed in question 15.

Picture description: The half of the participants (the sum frequency of 10) expressed from weak to very weak desire to describe picture or story, while the other half (04 students see this activity as average favourable, 05 see it desired, and only 01 subject sees it as most desired) considered this activity according to fluctuating desire.

Information gap: less than a half (45%) did not really favour this activity as 07 informants opted for 'slightly favourable' and 02 selected 'least favourable', but over the half (55%)

wanted this activity from averagely (collected 07 responses) to mostly desired (collected 02 responses).

Story/text Retelling: 12 subjects (60%) considered this activity as 'average favourable' as reported by 05 participants (25%) to 'desired' as declared by 06 participants (30%), but, worth noting, only 01 subject (05%)mostly desired this activity.

Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios): 11 wanted (55%) to have this activity (as 30% said they are 'average favourable', 20% said they are 'desired', and only (05%) put them as most 'desired'), but the remaining 09 informants (45%) considered them as least or slightly favourable.

Oral reports: over the half (sum of 08 'slight favourable' (40%) and 04 'least favourable' (20%)) did not really want to have oral reports about any subject. This is probably due to the fact that students feel unable to present any topic in front of others as it was pointed out by 65% of subjects in question 15. However, 08 informants (40%) liked this activity (represented by 3 informants who opted for 'average favourable' and 05 who said that these reports are 'desired').

Debates: over quarters of informants (07 participants (35%)) favoured and strongly desired this activity, while quarter (frequency of 05) averagely wanted this activity and 15% of informants (frequency of 03) put it in the bottom of their favourites. This result encouraged the implementation of *debate* in simulation (see simulation 6).

Discussion: very slight proportion of students disliked discussions (frequency of 04 collected to 'least favourable'), 08 participants (40%) said similarly that they are average favourable and most desired.

Presentation of a given topic: since students were afraid of presenting academic paper as represented by (65%) (see question 15), it is expected to find the majority of subjects (80%) averagely to mostly desire this kind of activity. We can confidently say that students are aware of the importance of this practice which will lead to developing their presentation skills later on in official academic presentation. In addition to the former results, among the (35%) of subjects who said (in question 15) they are able to present academic paper, 20% did not express their strong desire to have this activity.

- Worth mentioning, 01 informant (05%) declared his strong desire to narrate story of a movie in OE class.

Experimental Group 2Results

Speaking Activity / Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a	03	03	07	04	03
b	08	03	02	04	03
c	03	05	06	02	04
d	02	04	06	06	02
e	06	02	05	02	05
f	02	05	06	05	02
g	03	07	03	03	04
h	02	03	02	05	08
i	03	01	01	07	08

Table 19: Students' favourite activities (experimental group 2)

Oral interview: approximately the same proportion of informants split their views between two extremes; desired (07 students) and not desired (06 students); whereas 07 informants (35%) said that they averagely want this activity.

Picture description: this activity seems to have no preference among the participants; 11informants who represent more than the half (55%) liked it slightly or the least, in contrast

07 participants favoured this activity considerably (04 ticked the option 'desired' and 03 ticked 'most desired'). However, only 02 participants (10%) said they averagely favour it.

Information gap: less than a half (40%) put this activity in the bottom of their desire (03 'least desired' and 05 'slightly desired). Other 06 informants (30%) expressed medium appreciation of it while 6 subjects really would like to have this activity (02 'desired' and 04 'most desired').

Story/text Retelling: almost the majority (14 participants who represent 70%) of the group (the sum of 30% in average option, 10% of desired, and 20% in most desired option) put that they appreciate this activity. The remaining slighter proportion (the sum of 10% in least favourable option and 20% in slightly favourable option) claimed that this activity is not what they really would like to have in the classroom.

Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios): like Exp. G.1, there seems a polarization of informants' opinion as the 12 informants (60%) wanted to have this activity (as 25% said they are average favourable, 10% said they are desired, and only 25% put them as most desired), but the other 08 informants (40%) considered them as least or slightly favourable.

Oral reports: Except for 07 participants, all the other participants wanted to deal with this activity as 06 participants (30%) rated it as 'average favourable', 05 others (25%) put as 'desired' and only 10% that is to say 02 participants said it is the 'most desired' activity.

Debates: the participants views were divided into two opinions; 10 informants (50%) did not really favour this activity (07 favourite it slightly and 03 liked it the least), and the other 10 informed that they would like to have it (03 informants 'averagely' want it, other 03 'desire' it and 04 students said they 'most desire' it).

Discussion: the majority of the students (75%) seem to agree on approving discussion in their classroom (08 ticked 'most desired', 05 opted for 'desired' and 02 selected 'averagely desired'), while small proportion (25%) seem not interested in this activity (it collected 03 'slightly favourable' and 02 'least favourable').

Presentation of a given topic: 80% of informants would like to present academic paper while 20% disapproves it. We ca then say that the majority of the students, including the 08 students who confessed their disability to perform this activity (see question 15), liked to reinforce their presentation skills.

19. How can you assess your ability in listening to English? (tick off the right answer)

Very good ☐

Good ☐

Average ☐

Weak ☐

Very weak ☐

Options	Very good	Good	Average	Weak	Very weak
Exp. G.1	02	05	09	04	0
Exp. G.2	01	07	11	01	0

Table 20: Students' assessment of their listening ability

The results shown in this table support the results of table 05. Despite the fact that 75% of participants reported that listening was taught always in the previous year, less than the half of the students (45%) (Frequency of 09) think that they have *average* level in listening and 07 informants (35%) reported that they are *good* or *very good* in listening, while insufficient number of students (04) ticked the adjective 'weak', in the Exp. G. 1. Likewise, over the half (55%) believed also that they have *average* level in listening and 08 students (40%) think that they are *good* or *very good* in listening, whereas only 01 informant (05%) opted for 'weak'. the results imply the fact that informants in both groups were of a medium level in listening.

This is arguably due to that listening was taught only sometimes or what has been taught in listening did not satisfy students' needs and lacks.

20. Do you like watching videos and listening to audio recordings in the classroom to help you boost your listening proficiency?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Exp. G.1	04	20	16	80
Exp.G.2	16	80	04	20

Table 21: Students' opinion about watching videos and listening to audio recordings

Though listening was taught always in OE class in Exp. G.1 (see question 5), they expressed their weak desire to watch videos and listening to audio recordings as only 04 students 20% liked these materials, while 80% did not. This may well be the result of students' disappointment about the effectiveness of listening materials they had in the previous year in enhancing their listening. In the contrary, in exp. group 2, the majority (16 students (80%)) approved these materials and 04 participants (20%) disapproved them.

21. Inside the classroom, do you like to do activities:

Individually   ☐

In pairs   ☐

In small group   ☐

In large group   ☐

Options	Individually	In pairs	In small group	In large group
Exp. G.1	04	05	14	01
Exp. G.2	03	05	15	0

Table 22: Students' learning pattern in the classroom

Cooperative learning was desired by learners, in Exp. G.1, because 14 informants (70%) liked doing the activities in small group, 05 students (25%) like pair work, and 01 student wants working in large group, while individual work was desired by only 04 students (20%).

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The same conclusion is drawn from the results of Exp. G. 2, more than the half (75%) liked also small group work, 5 students supported pair work, whereas, 03 would like doing their activities individually.

22. In real-life situations, different problems may occur which need an immediate decision making to solve them. Sometimes problem solving or decision making may need interaction with others. Are you able to interact with others in English to solve real-life problems (e.g., disagreement in a panel) or make decisions (e.g., decide on the best way to improve the speaking skill with classmates)?

Yes ☐   **No**   ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Exp. G.1	16	80	04	20
Exp. G.2	18	90	02	10

Table 23: Students' ability to solve real-life problems and make decisions

Informants in both groups think that they are able to interact with others in English to solve real-life problems or make decisions (16 informants (80%) said 'Yes' and 04 said 'No' in Exp. G.1 and 18 informants (90%) put 'Yes' while 02 ticked 'No in Exp. G.2). The participants contradicted themselves when they said 'Yes' as they have already contended that they are unable to engage in spontaneous conversation, express opinion and persuade others (the abilities needed to solve problems and make decisions) (see table 13).

23. Do you like courses that prepare you for such situations?
Yes ☐   **No** ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Exp. G.1	18	90	02	10
Exp. G.2	19	95	01	05

Table 24: Students' desire to be prepared for real-life interactions

In spite of the fact that the majority of both groups said they are able to interact with others in English to solve real-life problems (e.g., disagreement in a panel) or make decisions

(e.g., decide on the best way to improve the speaking skill with classmates), almost the entire groups (80% of Exp. G.1 and 95% of Exp. G.2) showed enthusiasm for learning how to perform in real-life situations which will then prepare them for the real ones in the future, but only 03 students in both groups (02 in Exp. G.1 and 01 in Exp. G. 2) disliked whatever course that might prepare them for such situations. With regard to these results, students in both groups seem to be aware of the necessities of the edification of the real world communication needs and willing to invest their effort to acquaint themselves with its necessities.

5.3.2 Analysis and Discussion of Post-questionnaire Results

Section One: Learners' attitudes/participation

1. **Did the Oral Expression class in the last semester help you to improve your speaking skill?**

   Yes ☐   **No** ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Exp. G.1	19	95	01	05
Exp. G.2	18	90	02	10

Table 25: Students' opinion about their speaking improvement

According to the informants (19 in Exp. G. 1 and 18 in Exp. G.2), their speaking is enhanced. Unnoticeable percentages (05%) and (10%) represent the proportion (01 informant in Exp. G. 1 and 02 in Exp. G.2) which believed in no improvement in their speaking.

2. **Do you feel you had more chance to speak in the classroom during the simulations you had in the last semester, more than last year?**

   Yes ☐   **No** ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Exp. G.1	14	70	06	30
Exp. G.2	15	75	05	25

Table 26: Students' chance to speak in English in the classroom during the simulations

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Over the half of the informants, 14 (70%) in Exp. G. 1 and 15 (75%) in Exp. G. 2, said that they had more chance to speak in English more than the last year, while the remaining students believed the opposite. Considering the respondents' answers about this question in the pre-questions (the majority of the students had the chance to speak in the previous year), simulations then are proved to provide tangible and rich opportunities for speaking and do not hinder students' speaking time.

3. How often did you participate orally in English class in this semester?

Always ☐

Often ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐
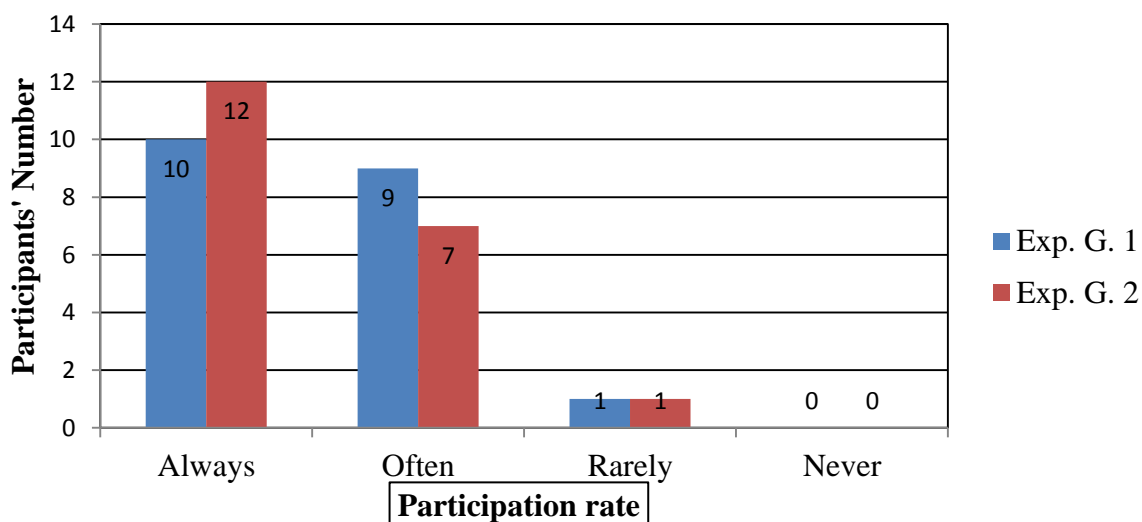
Figure 5: Students' participation rate after the intervention

Half of the participants (50%) (Frequency of 10 compared to 6 in the pre-questionnaire), in Exp. G.1, responded that they *always* participated in the classroom and 09 (compared to 10 in the pre-questionnaire) said they *often* participated, only 01 student (they were 04 students in the pre-questionnaire) *rarely* engaged in activities. It is noticed, in Exp. G. 2, that 08 participants who participated *always* (in the pre-questionnaire) became 12, and 9 who *often*

participated became 07 and only 01 instead of 3 (as mentioned in the pre-questionnaire) *rarely* involved in the activities.

4. Did you have simulation activities of the same kind last year?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Exp. G.1	1	05	19	95
Exp. G.2	06	30	14	70

Table 27: The presence of simulations in the classroom in the previous year

In the experimental group 1, nearly 95% of informants were unfamiliar with simulation activities with one exceptional case which opted for 'yes'. In the counterpart group, 06 respondents seemed familiar with simulations, whereas 14 (70%) participants seemed not. Thus, briefing of simulation is crucially needed at the beginning of the experiment.

5. How can judge the simulation activities you had in the first semester?

Highly interactive   ☐

Interactive   ☐

Not interactive at all   ☐

Options	Highly interactive	Interactive	Not interactive at all
Exp. G.1	03	17	0
Exp. G.2	05	14	01

Table 28: Students' view about the interactive nature of simulation activities

All the informants (20) in both groups confirmed the interactive nature of simulations. 17 students (85%) ticked *interactive* and 3 (15%) ticked *highly interactive*, in experimental group 1. In the other experimental group, 14 (70%) respondents claimed that simulations are *interactive* and 5 (25%) said they are *highly interactive* while Diminutive proportion (constitutes 1 student) considered them as *not interactive at all*.

6. What is your opinion about these activities? Are they:

Very useful ☐

Useful ☐

Useless ☐

Very useless ☐

Options	Very useful	Useful	Useless	Very useless
Exp. G.1	05	14	01	0
Exp. G.2	09	09	02	0

Table 29: Students' opinion about the usefulness of simulation activities

Informants in both groups appreciated the simulation activities as 19 informants (the sum of 14 informants (70%) who considered them *useful* and 05 informants (25%) who said they are *very useful*) confessed their usefulness, in Exp. G. 1 and 18 informants (90%) noticed their usefulness (the sum of equal responses (09 responses) representing those who considered them *useful* and *very useful*), in Exp. G. 2. A slighter proportion of the experimental group 2 (frequency of 2) saw simulation activities as useless.

7. **How much did you enjoy the simulation activities?**

Very much ☐

Much ☐

Not really ☐

Not at all ☐

Options	Very much	Much	Not really	Not at all
Exp. G.1	04	12	04	0
Exp. G.2	06	12	02	0

Table 30: Students' enjoyment in the simulation

In both groups, 12 informants (60%) enjoyed the simulation *much*. However, in experimental group 1, equivalent proportion of opinions (04 opinions (20%)) is devoted to *very much* and *not really*. Besides, in Exp. G. 2, 6 informants (30%) enjoyed *very much* the simulations, while 2 out of 20 subjects did *not really* enjoy them. This implies the good impact simulations leaves in OE class.

8. **Please choose which of the following claims is true or false for you? (tick off the right column)**

Claim	True	False
a. My self- confidence increased because I worked in pairs and small group during simulation activities.		
b. I feel less embarrassed, nervous and hesitant when I try to speak in English in front of the class.		
c. I am not afraid of making mistakes in front of the class.		
d. I feel motivated after simulation activities.		
e. Because of interaction during simulation activities, my speaking mistakes are reduced.		
f. My problem solving skills are developed after simulation activities.		
g. I liked the interaction with my classmates in different contexts during simulation activities.		
h. I am able to use different communication skills like journalism, making speech, chairmanship, analysis, and oratory.		
i. I am able to listen and understand whoever speaks in English.		
j. I can use the spoken grammar correctly (ellipsis, repetition, reduced forms…etc.).		
k. I can properly use the correct register (formal vs.; informal).		

	Exp. G.1		Exp. G.2	
Options	**True**	**False**	**True**	**False**
a	19	01	20	0
b	14	06	15	05
c	12	08	18	02
d	17	03	16	04
e	17	03	18	02
f	14	06	16	04
g	20	0	16	04
h	10	10	14	06
i	12	08	17	03
j	06	14	15	05
k	13	07	11	09

Table 31: True/False claims

According to this table, experimental group 1 informants confirmed the majority of the statements to be true for them; all of them (20 students (100%)) approved interaction through statement (8.g), almost all the group (19 informants (95%)) confessed that their self-confidence increased (8.a) because they worked in pairs and small group during simulation activities, 17 informants (85%) opted for 'true' for statements (8.d)and(8.c), and nearly three quarters (70%) agreed on validating statements (8.b) and (8.f). Moreover, over the half (12 informants (60%)) were able to listen and understand whoever speaks in English (8.i) and use the right register (8.k) as reported by 13 informants, while only the half of the students declared their ability for statement (8.h). Nevertheless, many students (14) ticked 'False' for statement (8.j).

In the experimental group 2, all the informants opted for 'true' for statement (8.a), 18 informant (90%) said that they were not afraid of making mistakes (statement 8.c), while 17 informants (85%) and 16 informants (80%) approved statements (8.i), (8.d), (8.f), and (8.g) respectively. In the same group, unlike Exp. G. 1, three quarters (75%) approved the statements (8.j) and (8.b).Similar to group 1, 14 participants (70%) ticked the option 'False' for statement (8. h). 09 participants (45%) think that they cannot properly use the correct register (formal vs.; informal) (statement 8.k) while over the half (11 informants (55%)) ticked the option 'true'.

Section Two: English Speaking and Listening Proficiency

9. **Tick the best answer according to you for each statement.**

Statement of ability	I can	I cannot
a. Be interviewed in English.		
b. Express opinion to native speakers in English.		
c. Solve misunderstanding problems.		

d. Make enquiries about anything in English.				
e. Engage in spontaneous authentic conversation in English with native speakers.				
f. Ask for clarification in English.				
g. Complain in English.				
h. Ask for and give directions in English speaking country.				
i. Present an academic paper in English.				
j. Make decision in English.				
k. Make suggestions.				
l. Agree and disagree in English.				
m. Persuade others in English.				
n. Greet others and introduce yourself in formal situations.				

	Exp.G.1		**Exp.G.2**	
Options	**I can**	**I cannot**	**I can**	**I cannot**
a	15	05	17	03
b	13	07	18	02
c	10	10	14	06
d	09	11	08	12
e	04	16	09	11
f	20	0	15	05
g	17	03	19	01
h	18	02	16	04
i	11	11	10	10
j	18	02	20	0
k	20	0	20	0
l	20	0	20	0
m	18	02	17	03
n	15	05	18	02

Table 32: Students' speaking and listening abilities

Most of the students seemed to have consensus about their abilities concerning the majority of the statements: statements (9.c), (9.i), (9.b), (9.a), (9.n), (9.g), (9.h), (9.j), and (9.m) collected 10, 11, 13, 15, 15, 17, 18, 18, and 18 'I can' responses respectively. Besides, statements (9.f), (9.k), (9.l) collected 20 'I can'. This high level of responses agreement shows

students' high command over speaking and listening. In the same group, 16 students (80%) ticked 'I cannot' to describe their ability about statement (9.e) and 11 informants (55%) opted for the same answer for statement (9.d)

Likewise, there seems that informants in experimental group 2 share the same abilities as Exp. G. 1. Most students cover the same abilities as the students in other group do, statements (9.i), (9.c), (9.f), (9.h), (9.a), (9.m), (9.b), (9.n), and (9.g) collected 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 17, 18, 18, and19 'I can' responses respectively. Additionally, statements (9.j), (9.k), (9.l) collected 20 'I can'.Many informants seem to agree on their inability about statements (9.d) and (9.e) (both collected 12 and 11 responses).

10. You have dealt with many oral activities during the years you have been learning English. What kind of activities would you like to have in order to reinforce your speaking and listening skills? (Order the following activities from 1 the least favourable to 5 the most desired)

Speaking Activity / Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a. Oral interview					
b. Picture description					
c. Information gap (one person has information and his partner does not, the information should be described in details via physical objects, and a linguistic command of colors, shape, sizes, directions and sequences)					
d. Story/text Retelling					
e. Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios)					
f. Oral reports					
g. Debates					

h. Discussion					
i. Presentation of a given topic					
Others please; specify ……………………………..					

Experimental Group 1 Results

Speaking Activity / Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a	01	04	12	01	02
b	01	05	08	05	01
c	01	10	06	03	0
d	0	04	08	04	04
e	0	03	03	07	07
f	03	07	06	04	0
g	05	04	05	03	03
h	03	07	07	02	01
i	05	07	06	0	02
Any other aspect	0	0	0	0	0

Table 33: Students' avourite activities (experimental group 1)

Oral interview: It appears in this table that over the half averagely favoured this activity as it collected 12 responses (60%), while 5 students put it as slightly or the least favourable. However, only 03 students expressed their desire to have this activity.

Picture description: Surprisingly, the informants' desires have been altered, the half (50%) who supported (put it as average favourable, desired and most desired) this activity became (70%) (Frequency of 14), and 30% sill have the same point of view, in spite of the fact that simulations used in this study did not include any picture or story description.

Information gap: The half (45%) did not really appreciate this activity, while 06 informants (30%) said it is *average favourable* and very slighter proportion (frequency of 3) was devoted to *desired* option.

Story/text Retelling: unlike the pre-questionnaire results: 08 subjects (40%) considered this activity as average favourable, the same proportion is provided in *desired* and *most desired* options, but worth noting, only 4 subjects (20%) slightly desired this activity.

Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios): these results are approximate to the pre-questionnaire ones as 16 students (80%) wanted to have these activities and after they have them, the majority of the students (17), except for 3 subjects, *desired* them. Worth mentioning, frequency of 14 is devoted to both *desired* and *most desired* options.

Oral reports: The half (sum of 35% and 15%) did not really want to have oral reports about any subject as 07 students considered them slightly favoured and other 03 put them in the least favoured list. It is also shown in this table that 06 students (30%) averagely wanted to have this activity and only few students (4) desired it.

Debates: only one student among 12 (60%) who determined this activity as *average desired* and *desired b*efore the intervention- seems to change his opinion to consider them 'average favourable'(5 responses) and 'desired' and 'most desired' (03 ticks in each)*,* while less than half (45%) put them either 'least favourable' (collected 05 responses) or 'slightly favourable' (collected 04 answers).

Discussion: unexpectedly 6 informants (30%) seem to change their desire as they said that this activity is not favourable to a large extent, that is to say the total number of those who disapproved discussion became 10. The other 10 informants reported their favour of this activity.

Presentation of a given topic: after the intervention less than the half (40%) desired discussion since 6 students put this activity under the *average favourable* option and only 2students strongly liked it. Thereby, 60% did not like this activity.

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Experimental Group 2 Results

Speaking Activity / Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a	01	04	10	03	02
b	03	01	08	07	01
c	02	04	08	05	01
d	03	03	08	06	0
e	0	0	03	09	08
f	01	08	05	04	02
g	04	06	06	01	03
h	01	05	07	05	02
i	04	02	06	05	03

Table 34: Students' favourite activities (experimental group 2)

Oral interview: the students kept the same point of view concerning this activity as over the half (75%) expressed their average desire (opted for by 10 informants), desire (opted for by 03 informants) and most desire (chosen by 02 participants) to have this activity, while only 25%, frequency of 5, is devoted to *slightly desired* and *least favourable* options.

Picture description: the informants, unexpectedly also, changed their opinion before the intervention as more than the half (55%) who said that they do not really favour this task, according to this table 80% really wanted to have it and 45% of informants, who did not desire it, became 20%.

Information gap: the proportion that favoured this activity seemed to be increased to reach frequency of 14 (70%) as 08 informants start liking it averagely, 04 slightly wanted it and 02 others considered it the least favourable, while the proportion that disproved it decreased to 06 frequencies (30%).

Story/text Retelling: almost the majority (70%) of the group (the sum of 08 responses (40%) *average favourable* and 06 responses (30%) for *desired*) put that they appreciate this activity.

The remaining slighter proportion (the sum of 03 ticks (15%) in least favourable option and 03 others in slightly favourable option) pointed out that this activity is not what they really would like to have in the classroom.

Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios): All the informants approved these activities (as 03 informants (15%) said they *averagely favour* them, 09 informants (45%) consider them *desired* and other 08 (40%) put them as *most desired*).

Oral reports: the 7 participants (35%) who did not really want to have this activity before the implementation of simulation activities became 9 (45%), while all the other participants (11) wanted to deal with this activity as 25% rated it as average favourable, 20% put as desired and only 10 percent said it is their most desired activity.

Debates: the participants, according to this table, have kept their views which were divided into two opinions –as revealed in the pre-questionnaire; 10 informants did not really favour this activity, and the other 10 informed that they would like to have it (6 informants *averagely* wanted it, other 01*desired* it and 03 students said they *most desired* it).

Discussion: almost similarly, these results match the pre-questionnaire results; the majority of the students (70%) seem to agree on approving discussion in their classroom as 07 responses were devoted to 'average favourable' and the largest number of ticks are distributed between the options 'desired' and 'most desired', while small proportion 06 students (30%), divided between 05 ticks in slightly favoured column and 01 in the least favourable column, seem not interested in this activity.

Presentation of a given topic: less than the results of the pre-questionnaire, 14 informants (70%) said they would like to present academic paper while more than the results obtained the re-questionnaire,06 informants (30%) disapproved it.

11. How can you assess your ability to speak in English after having the simulation activities?

Very good ☐

Good ☐

Average ☐

Weak ☐

Very weak ☐

Options	Very good	Good	Average	Weak	Very weak
Exp. G.1	01	11	07	01	0
Exp. G.2	02	12	06	0	0

Table 35: Students' assessment of their speaking

As the majority of students believed that their speaking is improved due to simulations as 11 informants (60% in Exp. G. 1) and 12 informants (70% in Exp. G. 2) see that their ability to speak is *good*. Slighter proportion of ticks (01 in Exp. G.1 and 02 in Exp. G.2) are found in the option *very good*. Noteworthy, 7 informants (35%) in experimental group 1 believed that their speaking is average and 1 (5%) said it is still *weak,* whereas 6 respondents (30%) had average ability in speaking, in the counterpart group.

12. What are the speaking difficulties you think simulation activities helped you to improve? (Classify them according to the scale (1 to 5) of improvement).

Speaking Aspect / Improvement	Not improved	Slightly improved	Averagely improved	Improved	Well improved
a. Fluency					
b. Pronunciation					
c. Fear of making mistakes					
d. Inability to express clear ideas					
e. Grammar					

	Not improved	Slightly improved	Averagely improved	Improved	Well improved
f. Lack of vocabulary					
g. Class atmosphere (group size and noise)					
h. Time shortage					
Any other aspect? ………………………….					

Experimental Group 1 Results

Speaking Aspect Improvement	Not improved	Slightly improved	Averagely improved	Improved	Well improved
a	02	03	05	08	02
b	0	04	10	05	01
c	01	02	02	10	05
d	0	02	06	08	04
e	0	03	05	11	01
f	0	01	06	11	02
g	03	08	05	02	02
h	01	05	08	06	0

Table 36: Students' opinion about the improvement of their speaking difficulties (experimental group 1)

Fluency: 15 informants (75%),who claimed that fluency is difficult, seem to confess its improvement as 05 respondents said it was averagely improved, 08 said it was improved while 02 said it was well improved , while the remaining 15% saw it as slightly improved and 02 informants (10%) declared that fluency did not improve.

Pronunciation: over than the half of informants (16) believe that pronunciation has improved (raging from average to well improve), while 04 respondents considered it slightly improved.

Fear of mistakes: informants are not any more afraid of their mistakes as 85% declared the diminution of this fear as it was either averagely improved, improved, or well improved. It is noticed that 02 informants (10%) said that this fear was slightly reduced and only 01 still have this fear.

Inability to express clear ideas: the majority of the sample population 18 informants (80%) reported that inability to express clear ideas has been improved, and 02 participants (10%) said they are slightly satisfied with its improvement.

Grammar: over the half of the participants (85%) experienced enhancement in grammar while 15% (frequency of 03) were not really convinced with its improvement as they all chose the option slightly improved.

Lack of vocabulary: 19 respondents (95%) enriched their vocabulary while the remaining 01 informant reported the same lack of vocabulary.

Class atmosphere (group size and noise): unexpectedly, even though 65% of participants said class atmosphere have non-threatening impact on their speaking, before they were enrolled in the experiment, notwithstanding more than the half (11 participants) think that the class atmosphere did not improve to a large extent, whereas 09 respondents (45%) feel secure about the class atmosphere as 05 opted 'averagely improved' and 02 opted equally for 'improved' and 'well improved'.

Time shortage: more than the half, 14 informants (70%) declared that time shortage has been boosted as they had more chance to speak in the simulation activities. A slighter percentage (30%) saw that time shortage did not really improve. noteworthy 01 informant still suffers from time shortage in speaking.

No student has reported any improvement in any other aspects that are related to speaking.

Experimental Group 2 Results

Speaking Aspect Improvement	Not improved	Slightly improved	Averagely improved	Improved	Well improved
a	0	03	09	05	03
b	0	03	04	10	03
c	0	02	05	09	04
d	0	02	07	07	04
e	0	01	08	09	02
f	0	05	05	06	04

g	0	04	08	03	05
h	01	04	08	05	02

Table 37: Students' opinion about the improvement of their speaking difficulties (experimental group 2)

Fluency: almost the majority of the group, 17 participants (85%), confessed the improvement of fluency, knowing that before the intervention 65% of informants considered fluency of alternative difficulty. The remaining 03 students (15%) think that fluency did *slightly improved*.

Pronunciation: a disproportionate percentage of informants (03) reported that pronunciation has been slightly improved after having the simulation activities. It is also indicated that more than the half (80%) think that pronunciation has been improved.

Fear of mistakes: basically, the majority of the participants (sum percentage of 90%) experienced average and well improvement of fear reduction and only 10% (frequency of 02) still suffer from the same problem.

Inability to express clear ideas: Similar to the results of Exp. G.1, 18 informants (90%) reported that inability to express clear ideas has been improved while some respondents (frequency of 02) considered it *slightly improved*.

Grammar: almost all the informants (95%) reported their enhancement in grammar as indicated by 08 'averagely improved', 09 'improved' and 02 'well improved', except for 1 (05%) who considered it *slightly improved*.

Lack of vocabulary: nearly the whole group (75%) felt satisfied with their vocabulary growth as 05 (25%) opted for 'averagely improved', 06 (30%) chose 'improved' and 02 (10%) ticked 'well improved', when only 05 informants were slightly satisfied.

 Class atmosphere (group size and noise): 16 participants (80%) (the sum of 08 'averagely improved', 03 'improved' and 05 'well improved') felt that noise and group size have been

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improved, while only 20% see that noise and group size still disturb them as they have been slightly improved.

Time shortage: three quarters of the group size (75%) believed that they had sufficient time to speak better than before. A slighter percentage (20%) saw that time shortage was slightly improved and (05%) that is to say 01 informant still has the same problem with the time shortage.

No one has provided any enhancement in other aspect while speaking.

13. How can you assess your ability in listening to English after having the simulation activities? (tick off the right answer)

Very good   ☐

Good   ☐

Average   ☐

Weak   ☐

Very weak   ☐

Options	Very good	Good	Average	Weak	Very weak
Exp. G.1	01	11	07	01	0
Exp. G.2	03	11	05	01	0

Table 38: Students' Assessment of their Listening

In Exp. G.1, There seems slight improvement in the students' listening ability as 12 (60%) subjects declared their *good* or *very good* level. This improvement is noticeable, especially in the light of the fact that only 07 students (35%) in the pre-questionnaire reported that their listening is either good or very good. The rest 08 participants remained with average and weak levels. The same findings are reported in Exp. G.2 as 08 informants (40%) said they were either *good* or *very good* in listening before implementing simulations, but after the intervention they became 14 informants (70%). The rest is still not satisfied with their level.

14. Did you like watching videos and listening to audio recordings (before the simulation) in the classroom in the last semester?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Exp. G.1	18	90	02	10
Exp. G.2	17	85	03	15

Table 39: Students' desire about listening materials used in OE classroom

Almost all the groups (90% of the experimental group 1 and 85% of the experimental group 2) responded positively to this question. This is probably due to the fact that students used what they listened to or watched in the simulation later on. Noticeably, 2 students in experimental group 1 and 3 students in its counterpart said they did not like these materials.

15. Were these/this material(s) helpful in making you perform better in the simulation?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Exp. G.1	20	100	0	0
Exp. G.2	19	95	01	05

Table 40: The Impact of listening materials on students' performance in the simulations

The whole experimental group1 and19 participants (95%) in experimental group 2 thought that these listening materials helped them to perform better in the simulations. This result indicates the necessity of using listening materials which better depict the real-life input which learners rely on in the simulations.

16. Did you like watching your performance in the simulation and be corrected by yourself and your classmates besides your teacher?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Exp. G.1	15	75	05	25
Exp. G.2	19	95	01	05

Table 41: Students' opinion about watching and correcting their own performance in the simulations

In both groups the largest proportion of answers, (15 'yes' in Exp. G. 1 and 19 'yes' in Exp. G.2), was devoted to positive feedback. This implies that students are confident to accept the peer and the teachers' evaluation of their mistakes, besides this procedure works better than the stereotyped way teachers follow when they give feedback (immediately or later on, directly or indirectly).

17. **Do you feel that simulation activities prepared you for real life communication? In other words, do you feel that simulation activities adequately prepared you to solving problems, making decisions, communicating, interacting and engaging in casual spontaneous conversation and formal speech with native or non-native speakers in the outside world?**

Yes ☐   No ☐

Options	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Exp. G.1	20	100	0	0
Exp. G.2	17	85	03	15

Table 42: Students' satisfaction of simulation

The entire experimental group1 and over three quarters (85%) of the experimental group 2 felt satisfied with the impact of simulations on the improvement of their ability to be engaged in social complex interactions. However, a slighter proportion of students (frequency of 03), in experimental group 2, felt the opposite.

➤ **Why or Why not?**

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………

Out of 20 students, who said that they liked simulations in experimental group 1, provided the following reasons; simulations raised their self-confidence (said by 07 informants), allowed them to speak about different topics (01 students said that) which developed his/her 'social skills' (another student put), improved fluency (pointed out by 03 students), helped them take real identities as they live the role of a native speaker(claimed by 01 respondent), reduced their mistakes (02 students put) and developed their listening (said by 01 student). Worth mentioning, 04 subjects remained silent and provided no justification for why they approved simulations.

 85% of informants in experimental group 2 shared some of the same reasons with their counterparts in experimental group 1.

- 05 students said that simulations increased their self-confidence.

- 01 student put that: simulations "allow us to see how we would speak if we are in real situation, speaking with native speaker."

- 01 student pointed out that: "simulation activities improved fluency and make us interested in different topics and fields for example politics."

- 02 students agreed on the fact that simulations improved their listening skill and make us to learn from our mistakes.

Noteworthy, 03 three students provided a rather different justification;

- 2 informants said that simulations give them freedom of the speech.

- 1 student contended that simulations "give them the chance to speak about real issues that are happening right now."

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03 students, who expressed negative attitude towards simulations, said that simulation did not improve our communication as we don't have the knowledge to talk about certain topics like economics and politics.

The remaining 5 students did not say why they were satisfied with simulation activities.

18. What would you change in the simulation activities to make them more effective for learning to speak and listen?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

The majority of the students (14 students), in experimental group 1, said that they would change 'nothing' in the simulations they had before and 11 students in the experimental group 2 said the same. 02 students, in experimental group 1, and 01 student in experimental group 2, wanted to change the sixth simulation which dealt with 'the debate'. This is probably due to what some informants in experimental groups two put: "we don't have the knowledge to talk about certain topics like economics and politics." 01 informant in experimental group 1 and 03 in Exp. G.2 complained about the environment as they wanted to provide more materials to make the environment look real. 01 student in each group desired to have funny topics. Only one exceptional case (in Exp. G.2) wanted to lengthen the simulation time.

5.4 Interpretation of the Pre-questionnaire Results

This questionnaire has stemmed its existence from Jordan's claim (1997) "needs analysis should be the starting point for devising syllabuses, courses, materials and the kind of teaching and learning that takes place" (p.22). Accordingly, needs analysis was employed for devising simulation activities to second year students in this study. Before the intervention, there were many factors (which were deduced from the pre-questionnaire results) shaped the simulation design. **Present situation analysis (PSA)** basically revealed, surprisingly, students' satisfaction about their level in speaking (as reported by 95% of students in Exp. G.

1 and 90% of Exp. G.2) when they declared their deficiencies in fluency, pronunciation, expressing ideas, grammar, vocabulary and fearing of mistakes (see question 16)

Besides, they were disappointed about their ability to listen as the materials (audio recording and videos), used in the previous year, failed to improve their listening (said by 70% of exp. group1 and 75% of exp. group 2). This deduction was acceptable for Exp. G. 2 as much as it was surprising for the Exp. G.1as listening was taught always in that group in the previous year (put by 75% of informants). This finding may imply the fact that teaching listening, which was based on testing students' listening comprehension, did not satisfy their needs. This implication is validated by the students' responses to question 20 in which they expressed their disapprobation of listening to audio or watching video in Oral Expression class (16 informants (80%) ticked the option 'no').

In spite of the listening difficulty, students in both groups (80% of Exp. G. 1 and 85% of Exp. G. 2) believed that their English was improved. Noteworthy, the majority of both groups (90% of Exp. G.1 and the entire Exp. G. 2) sought for reinforcing their speaking as they were aware of the **importance** and **necessity** of English (18 informants in Exp. G. 1 and 19 in Exp. G. 2). The last mentioned results have led to one main conclusion: students are already motivated and strong-willed to enhance their ability to speak and listen.

Learners' perceived wants cannot be neglected in order to maintain their motivation and desire in learning; consequently, the students' wants, which are known from the pre-questionnaire, were considered before the implementation of simulations. The first account was taken for is students' favorite way of doing the speaking tasks. The results have rewarded the cooperative learning, namely 70% of Exp. G. 1 and 75% of Exp. G. 2 supported small group work. Consequently, simulations, employed in this study, were designed around small group cooperation. **Target situation analysis (TSA),** on the other hand, shaped the design of simulations used in this study. Both groups highlighted approximately the same target needs;

however, mainly the target need (getting a future job) which was pointed out by 65% of Exp. G.1 and 80% of Exp. G.2, was taken into consideration while designing the simulation activities. Accordingly, we attempted to approximate the first and fifth simulations' content to this particular need in addition to the second, third, fourth, and the sixth simulations' themes which were selected on the basis of academic purposes.

Speaking about the communicative abilities, most of the informants revealed high command over them. From 60% to 95% in both Experimental groups agreed on the ability to manipulate a wide range of language functions: making suggestions, agreeing/disagreeing, complaining, greeting, asking for and giving directions and two listening strategies: solving misunderstanding, namely asking for clarification, besides they approved their ability to be interviewed and make decision. Making enquiries, presenting academic papers, expressing opinion, engaging in authentic conversation and persuading others received from (50%) to (70%) responses denoting disability. These findings have justified the implementation of simulation activities as they engage learners in authentic situations and provide the context for naturally occurring language functions.

Finally, the test of students' acceptability to simulation activities (see questions 22 and 23), especially, to prepare them for interactional situations that require problem-solving or decision making, came positive as both questions collected from 16 to 19 positive responses.

5.5 Interpretation of Post-questionnaire Results: A comparison of the Pre/Post Results

The post-questionnaire was designed to investigate any traceable change in students' capacities and attitudes. As a result of **strategy analysis**, students' lacks were spotted. After the intervention students deficiencies have been noticeably improved. The change is shown in the following table:

Before the intervention	After the intervention
- 75% in exp.1 and 65% in exp. group 2 suffered from fluency.	- 75% in exp. group 1 and 85% in exp. group 2 informed of fluency

- 65% in exp.1 and 20% had difficulties with pronunciation.	improvement.
	- 65% in exp.1 and 80% exp. group 2 reported improvement in pronunciation.
- 70% in both groups were afraid of their mistakes.	- 85% in exp.1 and 80% exp. group 2 said they are no more afraid of their mistakes.
- 60% of exp. group 1 had serious problem with expressing their ideas to partner.	- 90% of exp. group 1 have overcome this problem.
- 65% of exp. group 1 had difficulties in grammar.	- 85% think that grammar was improved.
- 65% in exp.1 and 70% in exp. group 2 complained about vocabulary shortage.	- 95% in exp. group 1 and 75% in exp. group 2 remedied averagely this difficulty.
- 60% of exp. group 2 saw classroom atmosphere as disturbing.	- 80% of exp. group 2 said classroom atmosphere was supportive.
- 60% in exp.1 and 55% in exp. group 2 suffered from time shortage while speaking.	- 70% in exp.1 and 75% in exp. group 2 learned how to deal with time shortage.

Students' communicative abilities have also witnessed a considerable reform. Students remained struggling mostly with making enquiries and presenting academic paper (said by 60% of informants in Exp. G1 and 50% of informants in Exp. G.2 after the intervention). This dissatisfaction is most probably due to that these two abilities were not stressed during the simulations. Thus, with regard to the functional use of language, students seem to control almost all the abilities mentioned in question 9 in the post questionnaire, such as expressing opinion, persuading others, complaining, agreeing and disagreeing and the reception strategies, for example, 60% of Exp. G. 1 and 80% of Exp. G. 2 said they are able to understand whoever speaks as 50% of Exp. G. 1 and 70% of Exp. G. 2 said they **can** solve misunderstanding problems. The improvement of students' difficulties and their abilities was also recognized by 60% of informants in Exp. G1 and 70% of subjects in Exp. G. 2 who said that their speaking and listening were enhanced after the simulations. It is then deduced that

students developed their communication skills as some lacks in their speaking and listening were improved.

Additionally, students' lacks were covered and their attitudes towards the impact of simulation on improving their communication were positive (as has been said by the entire Exp. G. 1 and 85% of Exp. G. 2). Moreover, students became more confident, more free in the speech, feel less embarrassed, nervous and hesitant, besides less afraid of making mistakes (as pointed out by over 80% of the both groups). These learning achievements are obtained owing to the technicalities of the simulations which encourage naturally-occurring communication and the appreciation of failure as it is considered a starting point for the next simulation. Simulations, then, could comfort students with shyness, lack of self-confidence, unwillingness to begin which Jordan (1997) considers them among the biggest problems students suffer from in a discussion.

The results revealed also that students were interested in simulation activities. This fact is supported by the change in students' perception of simulation activities as 09 informants (45%) in Exp. G. 1 and half of the Exp. G. 2 ranked them **least** or **slightly desired** - before the implementation of simulation activities - to become 13 informants (65%) in Exp. G.1 and 17 informants (85%) in Exp. G. 2 who **desired** or **most desired** these activities after the intervention (see question 10), besides 12 informants in both groups enjoyed them as they think they are useful or very useful activities (see questions 6 and 7). Additionally, the active engagement of participants ((95%) of informants in both groups who participated *often* or *always*) in simulations, expectedly, raised their interest as according to Jordan (1997) students "want to function actively in the English language environment around them" (p. 26). The positive change in students' interest is approved with regard to the fact that students' engagement exceeded their participation during the simulation, but it included their involvement in the assessment process as they accepted and even liked (as shown in question

16 in the post questionnaire) watching the video recordings of their simulations to correct them by themselves, their peers, or their teacher.

A special regard is also drawn towards students' opinion about language learning and teaching that took place during the simulations. The pre-questionnaire results revealed that students believed that listening to audio recording and watching videos were not helpful, however, this opinion was completely changed as the entire Exp. G. 1 and 95% Exp. G. 2 appreciated their use during the simulations. In essence, students liked these materials as comprehension was no longer an end-product but a stimulus to language input which they used in the simulations later on. Notwithstanding, students showed a weakness in assessing the efficacy of the simulations when they were asked about whatever aspect they want to change in the simulations (question 18 in the post-questionnaire). Although they admitted their usefulness, 04 students in Exp. G. 1 and 06 in Exp. G. 2 provided some changes they would like to import into the simulations. This shortcoming in the assessment of the classroom materials is a result of teachers' ignorance of their students' opinion about the tasks they do in the classroom and the students' lack of analysis of what they did in the tasks in relation to what they want, need and have to do.

Conclusion

Through the analysis of the EFL students' questionnaire findings, we have concluded that more than half of the students appreciated simulation activities as they had positive opinion about their effectiveness. The usability and the effectiveness of the simulations were approved through the noticeable improvements in students' speaking and listening abilities. Concerning the main gain of the simulations, the greatest part believed that they became able to engage in authentic communication with high self-confidence. The results obtained, therefore, validate the implementation of simulation activities in second year syllabus. We can say that the second hypothesis is completely confirmed as most of the students are satisfied

with their achievements, due to simulation activities. In short, students have shown a clear interest and thus form positive attitudes towards these activities.

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE ANALYSIS

Chapter Six: Teachers' Questionnaire Analysis

Introduction

The noticeable strong desire to have simulation techniques in second year classes, revealed by the results of students' pre/post questionnaires, has led to the design of the teachers' questionnaire. To complete the teacher/learner asymmetry, teachers at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1 were assigned a questionnaire to know their opinions and views about the implementation of simulations in second year syllabus. In a broader front, the aim of the questionnaire is whether and to what extent the teachers of OE use the simulation activities in second year classes, their opinion about their effectiveness to develop students speaking and listening skills, as well as their views about incorporating these activities in the syllabus. In essence, the teachers' questionnaire aims at answering two important questions of the present research:

- Do teachers at the department of Letters and English language use simulation activities in their oral expression classes?

- What are the teachers' views about implementing simulation activities in oral expression syllabus?

6.1 The Sample

The total number of our sample is 20 teachers of OE at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1. The reason why the number of teachers enrolled in this study is quite small is that the sample population is restricted only to teachers who are teaching or taught Oral Expression module to second year students as the aim of the present research is to prove the efficacy of simulation activities in second year OE classes.

6.2 Description of the Questionnaire

The aim of the Teachers' Questionnaire is clearly explained in the introduction of the questionnaire (see Appendix: Teachers' Questionnaire) with a particular emphasis on that this questionnaire is designed to know the usability and the pedagogical effectiveness of simulation activities in Oral Expression, particularly in second year classrooms. The questionnaire consists of twenty questions presented in four sections. **Section One, General Information** (Question 1 ─ 2), aims at obtaining general information about the teachers; their degree (Question 1), and experience in teaching OE to second year students (Question 2). In **Section Two, Oral Expression Teaching** (Question 3 ─ Question 5), the teachers are asked about whether they had any teaching materials for the Oral Expression module, then they are requested to explain the way they design their own materials if the answer is 'No' (Question 3), the time of instruction they devote to both oral/aural skills was also required to be specified (Question 4) and their estimation about how often their students participated in Oral Expression classes as well (Question 5). **Section Three, Teacher Methodology** (Question 6 ─ Question 9), seeks to know the activities teachers use/used in the Oral Expression Module (Question 6), whether they used video instruction (Question 7) and teach listening comprehension in laboratories or not(Question 8), afterwards this section inquires the way teachers give feedback to their students (Question 9). **Section Four: Students Problems in Oral Expression (Question 10 ─ Question 13)**, provides a diagnosis of students challenges in speaking and listening from teachers perspective, accordingly teachers are asked to describe their students level in speaking (Question 10) and listening (Question 11), besides they are required to select the difficulties -among many- students suffer from in speaking (Question 12) and listening (Question 13). **Section Five: Teachers Attitudes towards Simulation Activities** (Question 14 ─ Question 19), deals with whether they used simulation activities in Oral Expression Classroom (Question 14), and if they would like to use

simulation, role play or both and they justify their choice (Question 15). Teachers also estimate the effectiveness of simulation activities in developing the speaking skill (Question 16) and the listening skill (Question 17). Moreover, this section tries to investigate the teachers' opinions about the implementation of simulation activities in second year syllabus (Question 18) and about the relation between the improvement of aspects like communication effectiveness, attitudes, participation, problem solving ability, knowledge retention…etc. and simulation activities (Question 19). **Section Six: Further Suggestions**, is a space provided for the teachers to add any suggestions or comments (Question 20).

The teachers' questionnaire is basically designed to include items of different types which Dornyei (2007) mentions: dichotomous questions (yes/no), numerical rating scales where participants have to tick a choice among a series of ordered categories, 'Excellent' to 'Poor' (Questions 10 and 11), semantic deferential scale where respondents have to mark with a tick between two bipolar adjectives at the extremes, 'Very effective' to 'Infective' (Questions 16 and 17) and Likert scale in which respondents indicate the extent to which they 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' (Questions 18 and 19).

6.3 Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Descriptive statistics is used mainly in the analysis of the questionnaires results. Measures of frequency are applied, in most of the questions (from question 1 to question 17), where how often particular answers occur. The frequency results are represented in tables or bar graphs. However, for questions 18 and 19, since they were designed on a Likert Scale, a different analysis approach is used. Firstly, each response option is assigned a number for scoring purposes as follows:

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

Afterwards, central tendency, **the median** ("the score at the center of the distribution—that is, the score that splits the group in half" according Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 254)) and **interquartile range (IQR)** ("the difference of range between 3rd and 1st quartile" that is (Q3 – Q1), according to Singh (2006, p. 297) are measured. The quartile can be found when line of scores given to one item is divided into four equal parts; the 'cut-off' points between the four parts represent the quartiles. Interquartile range is meant to measure the degree of variability or dispersion by the use of a single number, in other words, it shows whether the responses are clustered together or scattered across the range of possible responses, Singh (ibid) puts. The data is reported using the median and the IQR; when the IQR is small, there is then an indication of consensus and the focus will be on the median which refers to the general accepted opinion among the respondents. Whereas, if the IQR is large, there will be a polarized opinion and a consideration of the dissonance of the opinions, that is how opinions are divided between the two bipolar responses agreement and disagreement have to be taken into account.

Section One: General information

1. What is the degree you hold?

a. **Master**
b. **Magister**
c. **Ph. D.**

Degree	N	%
Master	11	55%
Magister	03	15%
Ph. D.	06	30%
Total	**20**	**100%**

Table 43: Teachers' degree

The results show that slightly over the half of the teachers (55%) have a 'Master' degree, while six teachers out of 20 have a 'doctorate' degree. However, very slight

proportion constitutes those who have 'Magister' degree. The conclusion which can be drawn from these results is that all the teachers enrolled in this study are qualified to be OE teachers and thus their answers are considered reliable and feasible to decide on approving or disapproving the simulation activities in OE module.

2. **For how many years have you been teaching Oral Expression to second year students?**

   ……………..years

Years	N	%
1 – 5	12	60%
6 – 10	05	25%
11 – 15	02	10%
16 – 20	0	00%
21 – 25	0	00%
26 – 30	0	00%
31 – 35	1	5%
Total	**20**	**100%**

Table 44: Teaching experience

Table 42 indicates that 60% of teachers have an OE teaching experience which ranges between 01 and 05 years. Quarter proportion of teachers (25%) reveals to have an experience which ranges between 06 and 10 years. The rest 2 teachers have spent from 11 to 15 years teaching OE and only 1 teacher has from 31 to 35 years of teaching OE to second year students. This entails that the teachers have enough experience to analyze and judge the efficacy of whatever is adequate to be included in second year Oral Expression syllabus. Consequently, this contribution to the study can be relied on.

Section Two: Oral Expression Teaching

3. **Is/was there any provision of teaching materials for Oral Expression instruction?**

   a- Yes ☐   b- No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	08	40%
No	12	60%
Total	**20**	**100%**

Table 45: The provision of teaching materials

According to table 43, the majority of the teachers responded negatively to question 3, that is, 12 teachers out of 20 have taught or presently teach OE without any syllabus provided, while 08 teachers said that they had some teaching materials that they used in teaching OE. This result entails the fact that most of the teachers design their own materials. Thus they are qualified to assess the usability, relevance and efficacy of any new materials suggested, based on their experience in choosing, adopting and designing OE teaching materials.

a- If yes, what were they?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………

Out of 8 teachers who responded 'yes' to the previous question, 07 teachers have provided the following materials; 5 teachers have been provided with tapes, audio lessons and cassettes, noteworthy, 1 teachers among the former 5 teachers mentioned authentic materials. The rest 2 respondents relied on textbooks and videos. Apparently, only 1 teacher did not mention what materials s/he has been provided with.

 b- If no, how do/did you design your Oral Expression lessons?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………

The majority of teachers (60%), who relied on themselves to design, select or adopt their own materials. Interestingly, 1 teachers among 12 teachers said that s/he interviews the students to guess their needs and accordingly s/he develops the OE courses, while another one tended to choose topics for the discussions from "books, magazines, and everyday life" and the rest, who said that hey organise discussions, debates and presentations in the OE class, did

not mention how they choose the topics, except for one teacher who said that s/he asks her/his students to choose the topic of their presentations and write their own role-plays. The same teacher mentioned that s/he uses games, movies and songs. Additionally, another teacher collected materials from internet or based on suggestions of colleagues. 3 teachers out 7 who ticked the option '*Yes*' in this question (section a), seemed not to be satisfied with the materials they were provided with, thus they added their own; using activities mostly taken from the internet, designing activities based on personal perspective, or using movies, radio programs, and songs to provide input about oral skills, IPA pronunciation, and public speaking.

4. In typical Oral Expression sessions per year, what percentage of your time in class with students do/did you devote to the following skills?

Speaking   …………..%
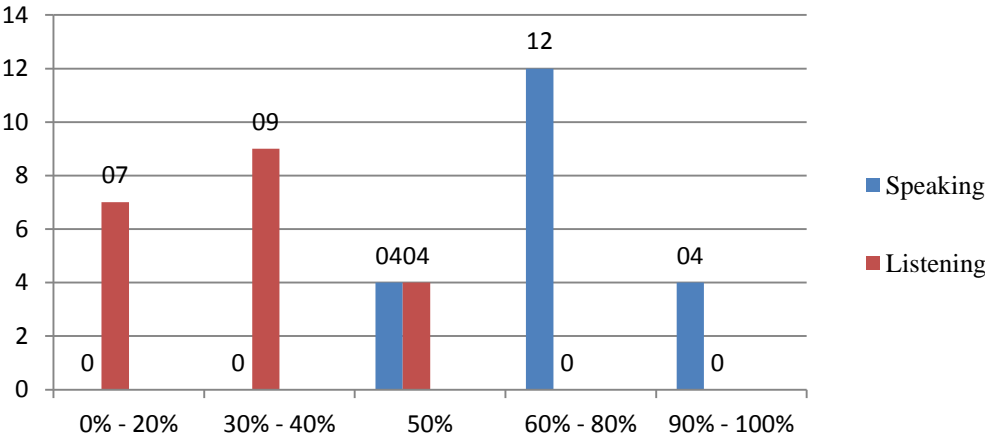
Listening   …………..%

Figure 6: Speaking and listening teaching frequency

The speaking skill was the focal axis of the OE session as over the half of teachers (12 teachers spent approximately from (60%) to (80%) of their time focusing on the speaking skill, and another 04 teachers taught only speaking for the majority or all their time. Concerning the listening skill, it is quite the opposite. 09 teachers (45%) focus more on speaking as they devote little time represented from (30%) to (40%) for teaching listening;

however, only 04 teachers (20%) divide their teaching time equally (50%) between the speaking and listening skills.

5. How often do/did your students participate in Oral Expression classes?

Always ⬜   **Often** ⬜   **Sometimes** ⬜   **Rarely** ⬜
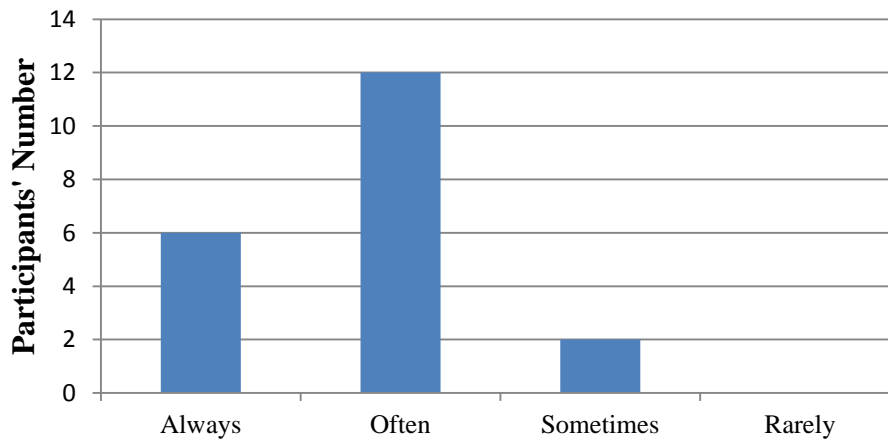
Figure 7: Participation rate

The results, showed in figure 8, reveal a consistent view about the students' participation in OE classes as slightly over the half (60%) of teachers agreed on the fact that their students *often* participated in the classroom. However, only 06 teachers ticked the option *always* to describe students' participation rate. Noteworthy, only 02 respondents saw that their students *sometimes* participate, while no teacher opted for the adverb '*rarely*'.

Section Three: Teacher Methodology

6. What kind of language activities do/did you use to teach the oral/aural skills to second year students?

1…………………………………   2……………………………………
3……………………………………   4……………………………………
5………………………………………..

Language Activities	N	%
Listening to radio program, speeches, and lectures	1	05%
Discussion	8	40%
Debating over a topic	4	20%
Watching movies and discussing the theme	1	05%
Presentations	6	30%

Reading transcribed text and answering some questions about the IPA	1	05%
Contrasting materials	1	05%
Role-play	10	50%
Simulation	1	05%
Games	8	40%
Vocabulary-building activities	4	20%
Free talk	3	15%
Problem-solving task	2	10%
Audio/video listening and watching	1	05%
Storytelling	3	15%
Describing a scene	2	10%
Commenting a photo	1	05%
Read a text and discuss it	1	05%
Speeches	1	05%
Structured dialogues	2	10%
No answer	4	20%

Table 46: The language activities used in OE class

When teachers were asked about the language activities they use in OE classes, they gave lists of varied activities which are gathered in the table above. As table 44 reveals, there are common activities OE teachers tend to use in second year classes. For example, half of the teachers (10 teachers) used *role-play* activities, approximate to the half (08 teachers) – representing (40%) – use *discussion* and *games*. *Presentation* took place in only 06 teachers' (30%) classes. Other activities were also employed in some OE classes, but had not much popularity as the previous mentioned activities; *vocabulary-building* activities and *debating aver a topic* were used only by 04 teachers (20%) each, while *Free talk* and *storytelling* took place in 03 teachers' OE classes respectively, and *problem-solving* tasks, *describing a scene*, as well as *structured dialogues* were the least popular activities as only 02 teachers (10%), for each, used them. Surprisingly, *simulation* activities could not rise to fame as only 01 teacher – representing (05%) of the whole sample population – implemented them in OE classes. In the same vein, *listening to radio program*, *speeches*, and *lectures*, *watching movies and*

discussing their theme, *reading transcribed text and answering some questions about the IPA*, *contrasting materials*, *audio/video listening and watching*, *commenting a photo*, *read a text and discuss it*, and *speeches* were used by only 01 teacher (05%). Notwithstanding, 04 teachers (20%) did not write any activity they used in their OE classes without mentioning any justification.

7. **When you have oral activities with the students, do/did you use video as a supplementing tool for teaching?**

     a- Yes ☐   **b- No** ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	09	45%
No	11	55%
Total	**20**	**100%**

Table 47: Video use in Oral Expression teaching

In table 45, the results are fairly close. Multimedia, namely video, seems to play a disproportionate role in the OE classes as over the half of respondents (11 teachers) do/did not use video to develop both oral/aural skills. The remaining proportion (09 teachers), which is approximately the half (45%), said they used video in OE teaching. Nevertheless, the number of teachers (09) who use/used video is not compatible with the number of teachers (01) who said they use video or movie watching as oral activities (see question 06). This may well be due to that teachers focus on tasks that come after the watching rather the watching per se, or maybe the short time students spend in watching in relation to the time they spend in speaking led teachers to not consider video watching as a complete aural activity.

8. **Do/did you <u>regularly</u> teach listening comprehension in laboratories?**

     a- Yes ☐   **b- No** ☐

If no, why?

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

………………………………

Options	N	%
Yes	08	40%
No	12	60%
Total	**20**	**100%**

Table 48: Teaching listening comprehension in laboratories

As figure 46 shows, slightly over the half (60%) of respondents replied positively to question 08, whereas, the rest (40%) said they do/did not regularly teach listening comprehension in laboratories. This implies that despite the fact that 12 teachers did not teach listening comprehension in laboratories, only 11 teachers said that they did not use video to teach listening comprehension (see question 07). Thus, only 01 teacher made extra effort and tried to use video outside the laboratories, which means that this teacher might have used his/her own computer or data show to use video in bare classroom.

The 12 teachers, who opted for the option '*No*', were asked to justify their answer. 03 teachers (15%) share the same argument 'the number of students outweigh the laboratory borders, to put it another way, the laboratories are small, as a result, students do not have equal chance to listen or watch. Another 3 teachers complained about the lack of equipment, while 05 teachers (25%) said that most of the time laboratories are not available because there only few ones. Only 01 teacher (05%) reported that s/he needs laboratory if s/he wants 'to show students a video'.

9. When do/did you give feedback to students making oral mistakes in the classroom?
   □ **Directly, e.g. 'feedback when the error is made, in front of the whole class'.**
   □ **Indirectly, e.g. 'feedback later on to that single student'.**
   □ **Indirectly in a full class activity.**
   □ **Not at all.**
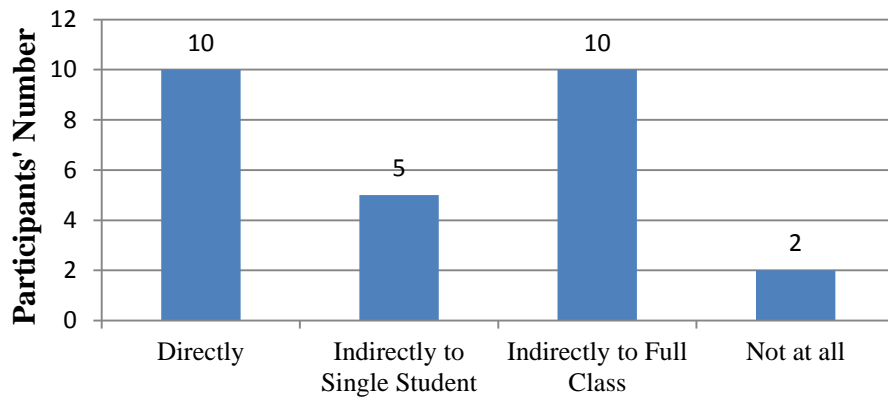
Figure 8: The teachers' way of giving feedback

According to figure 9, a quite similar proportion of teachers, (10 teachers), is divided between the two options *Directly* and *Indirectly to Full Class*, which basically means that half of the teachers prefer immediate feedback, while the other half prefer not to break the students' participation in a task and delay the feedback until the end. They also prefer to give feedback in full class, that is to say, they avoid embarrassing students. Apparently from figure 9, it seems that some teachers tend to use two or three different methods as it is declared by 05 teachers who said they give feedback after the task is finished but to single students who did the mistake, while a very disproportionate number of teachers (02 teachers) do not give any feedback claiming that it depends on time available, weight of the mistake and the number of students.

Section Four: Students Problems in Oral Expression

10.   According to your experience, how would you describe the actual level of your students in speaking?

Excellent ☐   **Good** ☐   **Average** ☐   **Poor** ☐

210
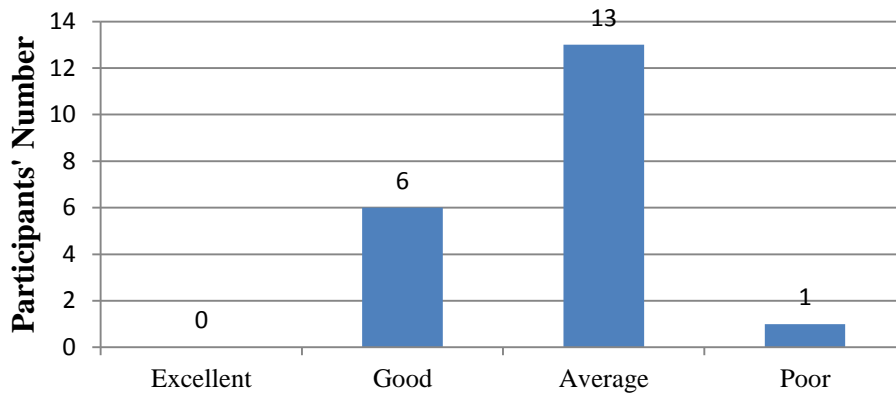
Figure 9: Students' speaking Level

The results in figure 10 reveal a divergent and discrepant teachers' estimation of students level in speaking as more than the half (65%) of informants reported that their students have average level in speaking. However, 06 teachers opted for the adjective *Good* to describe their students speaking level, while no one has *Excellent* speaking level in their OE classes and only one teacher, who represents (05%) of the sample population enrolled in this study, said that his/her students have *poor* level in speaking.

11. According to your experience, how would you describe the actual level of your students in listening?

Excellent ☐   Good ☐   Average ☐   Poor ☐
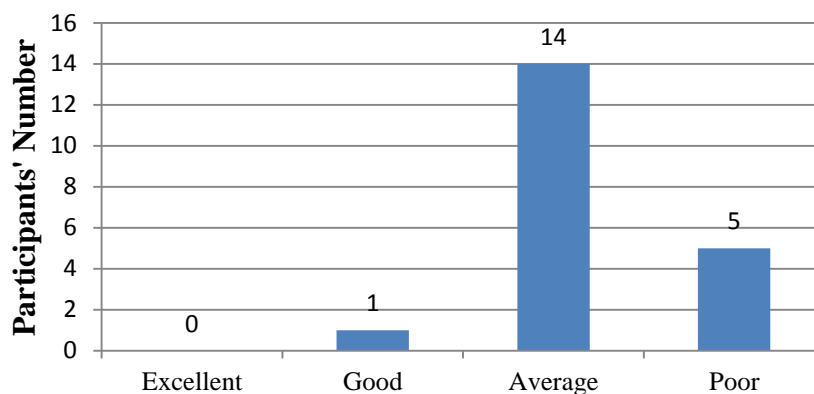
Figure 10: Students' listening level

Likewise, over the half of teachers (70%) agreed on the fact that their students have *average* level in listening. Differently from the results shown in Figure 11, only 01 teacher (05%) reported that his/her students have *Good* level in listening and 05 teachers (25%) agreed on the adjective *Poor* which suits the evaluation of their students' listening level,

Similarly, (0%) stands for the adjective *Excellent*, which implies the fact that all the teachers had no excellent listener in English.

12.   What are the main difficulties your students suffer from in speaking?

Accuracy ☐   **Fluency** ☐   **Interacting with others**   ☐
Solving communication breakdowns ☐   **Self-confidence (shyness)** ☐
Lack of vocabulary ☐
Others……………………………………………………………………………….
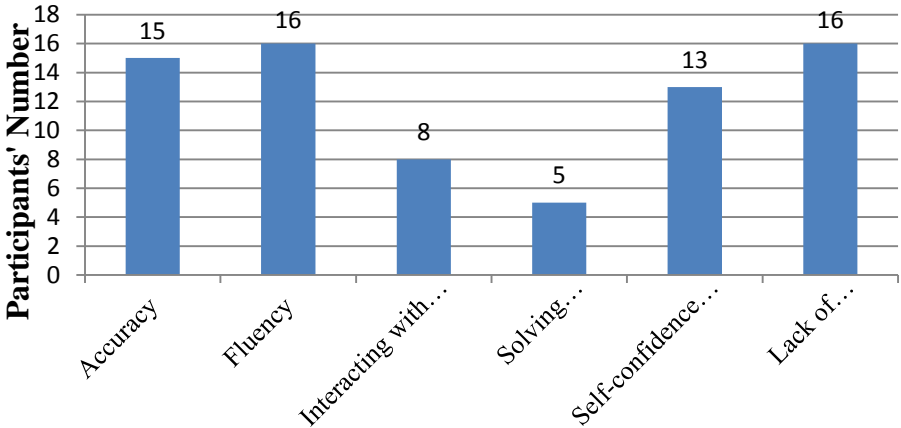
Figure 11: Teachers' views about their students' speaking difficulties

The greatest part of teachers have opted for the same difficulties of speaking, thus students most likely suffer from problems in *fluency*, and *lack of vocabulary* (as reported by 16 teachers (80%)), *accuracy* (as reported by 15 teachers (75%)) and lack of confidence (as reported by 65% of teachers). Noticeably, students seem to moderately suffer while *interacting with others* as only 08 teachers (40%) opted for this difficulty. Besides, students said to be struggling while *solving communication breakdowns* as 05 teachers put. Noteworthy, only 01 teacher (05%) provided another difficulty students suffer from in speaking, which is the *influence of the mother tongue.*

13.   What are the main difficulties your students suffer from in listening?

Accent ☐   **Informal speech** ☐   **Long listening** ☐
Speed of the speech ☐   **Authentic language** ☐
Others……………………………………………………………………………
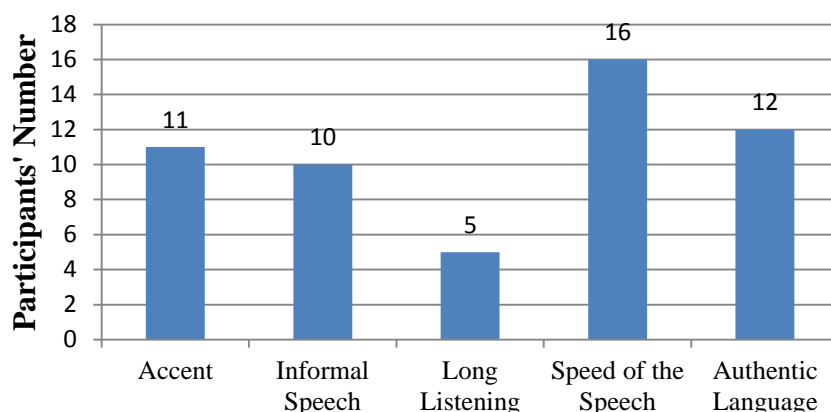
Figure 12: Teachers' views about their students' listening difficulties

Out of 20 teachers who were asked to report the listening difficulties students mostly suffer from, 16 teachers (80%) reported, on the one hand, that *speed of the speech* causes the most problems to students; *authentic language, accent, and informal speech,* on the other hand, seem to cause a considerable difficulty while listening as reported by 12 teachers (60%), 11 teachers (55%), and 10 teachers (50%) respectively. However, *long listening* is classified as the least difficulty students suffer from while listening, (opted for by 05 teachers (25%)). Worth mentioning, only 01 teacher (05%) declared that *lack of motivation* might be another difficulty, students encounter when listening.

Section Five: Teachers attitudes towards Simulation activities

14. Do you use or have you used simulation activities in Oral Expression classroom before?

    a- Yes ☐   **b- No** ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	12	60%
No	08	40%
Total	**20**	**100%**

Table 49: The use of simulation activities in OE classroom

Very strikingly, 12 teachers (60%) out of 20 said they use or have used simulation activities, that is to say over the half are acquainted with this technique. The 12 teachers contradicted themselves because only 01 teacher wrote simulation activity when asked about

the language activities s/he used in second year OE classes (see question 06). In contrast to previous result – as table 47 shows – 08 teachers which represent (40%) of respondents are not familiar with this technique as they have not used it in OE classroom. This might well mean that a considerable average of second year students was not engaged in simulation activities.

15. Would you like to use role-play or simulation activities in Oral Expression classroom, or both?

Role-play ☐   Simulation activities ☐   Both☐
Specify why?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………….
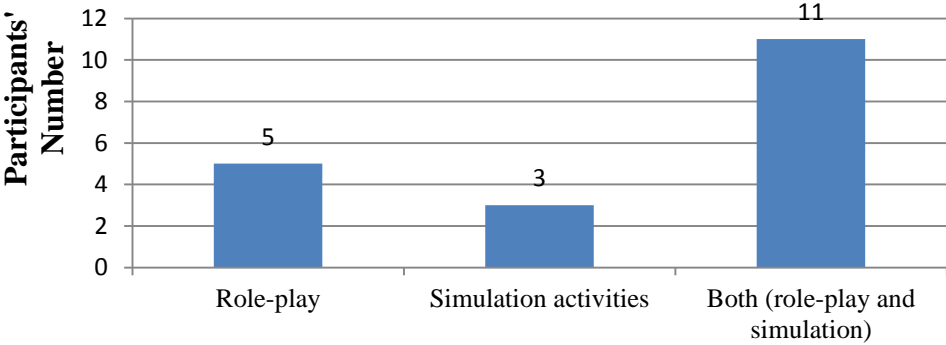
Figure 13: Teachers preference for role-play or simulation activity

Figure 14, indicates that slightly over the half of teachers (55%) want to use both activities – *role-play* and *simulation* – in their OE classes, whereas, 05 teachers (25%) reported that they would like to use only role-play activity and the rest 03 teachers (15%) opted for simulation activities as their favorite choice. In short, role-play seems slightly more favorable than simulation as indicated by 11 teachers who chose both activities and 05 other teachers who selected only role play. As the figure shows that 01 teachers' response is missing, this is due to the fact that this teacher reported that these two activities are NOT useful.

16. How effective do you think simulation can help your students develop their speaking skills?

Very effective ☐   Effective ☐   Slightly effective ☐   Ineffective ☐
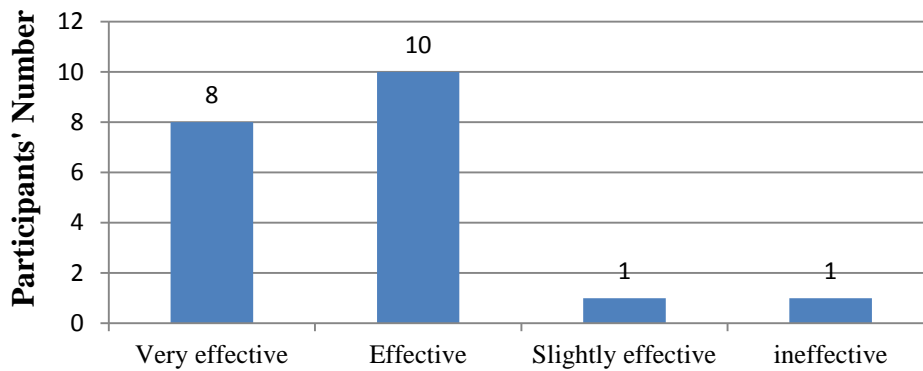
Figure 14: The effectiveness of simulation activities in developing students' speaking skill

Half of the teachers (50%) think that simulation activities are *effective* to develop students' speaking. Additionally, a considerable number of teachers (08) – fairly close to the half – see simulation *very effective* in improving speaking. An equal small percentage of teachers (05%) consider simulation either *slightly effective* or *ineffective*, represented by 01 teacher for each.

17.   How effective do you think simulation can help your students develop their listening skills?

Very effective ☐   **Effective** ☐   **Slightly effective** ☐   **Ineffective** ☐
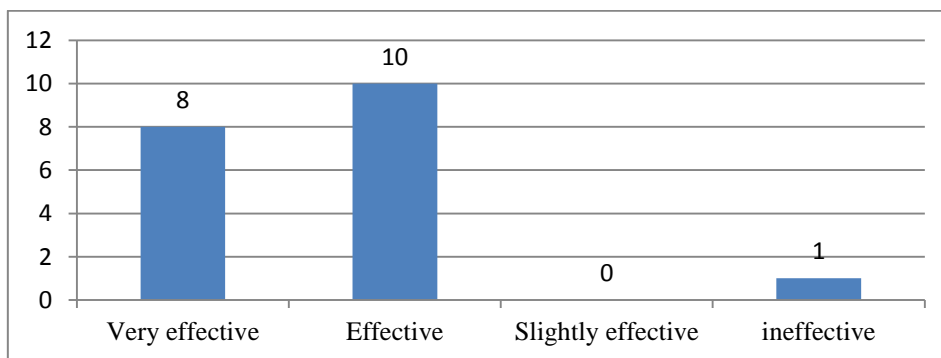
Figure 15: The effectiveness of simulation activities in developing students' Listening skill

Figure 16 indicates similar results as figure 15, with a slight difference. As has been already mentioned, only 01 teacher thinks that simulation is *slightly effective* when developing speaking; no teacher has opted for the same expression when developing listening. However, by calculation, a teachers' response is not included in this figure as this teacher has not

selected any option. It is then deduced from these results that teachers agree on the fact that simulations are useful and effective to be used to develop listening proficiency.

18. What is your opinion about the following statements?

A. Strongly agree	B. Agree	C. Neither agree nor disagree	D. disagree	E. strongly disagree

Statements	A	B	C	D	E
a. Second year students should be actively engaged in Oral Expression class through the use of active learning techniques.					
b. Second year students should be provided with activities that facilitate their development to be innovative and creative thinkers.					
c. Second year students should develop their interactive learning style.					
d. Second year students should know how to use language to achieve functional meaning.					
e. Second year students should be able to reflect their comprehension of the theoretical concepts in communication.					
f. Simulation activities should be implemented in the second year Oral Expression syllabus.					
g. Simulation activities should be implemented to improve EFL students speaking proficiency?					
h. Simulation activities should be implemented to improve EFL students listening proficiency?					
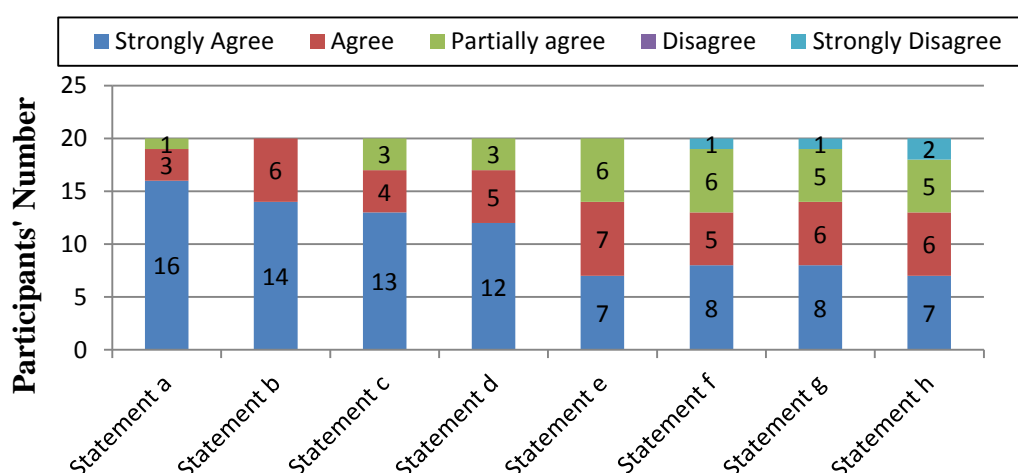
Figure 16: Teachers' opinion about the implementation of simulation activities in second year Oral Expression syllabus

The provided statements in question 18, are represented by small letters of the alphabet, thus they are coded (18.a), (18.b), and (18.c)…etc. in the order presented in the questionnaire.

Most of respondents indicated *strong agreement* with statement (18.a) which supports the use of active learning techniques (*Mdn=5, IQR=0*). There seems also a consensus concerning statements (18.b), (18.c), and (18.d) with a strong agreement, in other words the majority of respondents *strongly agree* with the idea that second year students should be provided with activities that facilitate their development to be innovative and creative thinkers, develop their interactive learning style and help them know how to use language to achieve functional meaning (*Mdn=5, IQR=1*). Another consensus appears in statements (18.e), (18.f), (18.g), and (18.h). Most of the teachers *agreed* with the ideas: second year students should be able to reflect their comprehension of the theoretical concepts in communication, and simulation activities should be implemented in the second year Oral Expression syllabus to improve EFL students' speaking and listening skills (*Mdn=4, IQR=2*).

19. Again, what is your opinion about the following statements?

A. Strongly agree   **B. Agree**   **C. Neither agree nor disagree**   **D. disagree**   **E. strongly disagree**

Statements	A	B	C	D	E
a. Students' oral skills are improved when they are engaged in enjoyable and exciting experience in the classroom.					
b. Students' communication skills would be improved when they feel responsible for solving problems and making decisions during the communication.					
c. Students can better develop their speaking and listening skills through cooperative work in the classroom.					
d. Students listening skills are better developed through interactive activities.					
e. Functional language like agreeing, clarifying, expressing misunderstanding, requesting, etc. is better taught when students are engaged in complex social processes.					
f. Students speaking skills are best developed through immersing students in reasonable representation of a real environment.					
g. Students' listening skills will improve when students are able to solve understanding problems in communicative realistic environment.					
h. The true assessment of students speaking proficiency should					

	focus on their ability to convey authentic purposes in real-life interactive situations.				
i.	Simulations foster an increase in the levels of student preparation and participation.				
j.	Simulations help develop students' knowledge retention.				
k.	Simulations allow good deal of listening and understanding of how the other people are feeling and a good knowledge of how linguistically to take turns or allow others to do so.				
l.	Simulations enhance the use of a number of common lexis, especially to perform language functions such agreeing, disagreeing, clarifying, expressing misunderstanding, etc.				
m.	Simulations allow students to use different communication skills like journalism, making speech, analysis, oratory, etc.				
n.	Students' communication would be improved when their failure is as desirable as success.				
o.	Students' fear of mistakes will be reduced due to simulation activities.				
p.	Simulation activities allow self-assessment and peer feedback.				
q.	Simulations raise students' self-confidence and motivation.				
r.	Simulations provide invisibility to the teacher to monitor the progress of the students.				
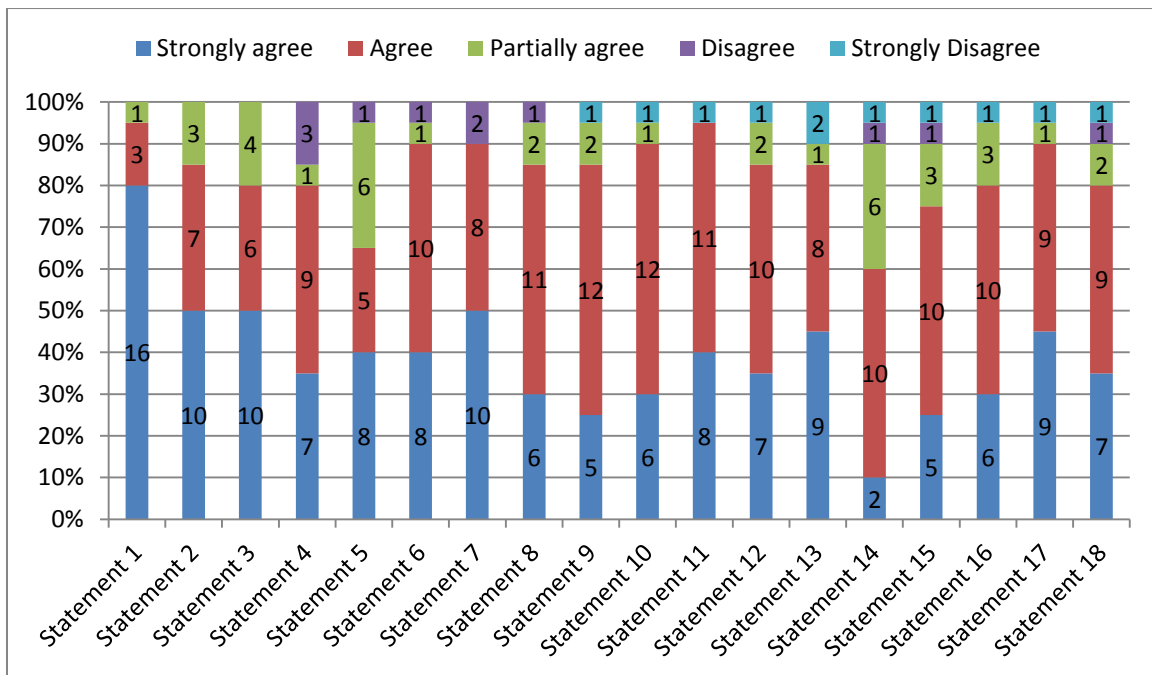
Figure 17: Teachers' opinion about the usefulness of the simulation activities in OE classes

The same coded scheme, used in question 18, is applied in question 19, that is, small alphabet letters are used to represent the 18 statements (e.g., (19.a), (19.b)) in the same order they are mentioned in the table.

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The interquartile range (IQR) for all the statements is relatively small (0, 1 or 2); consequently, no polarization of views among the sample of teachers appears. The opinions' dispersion was oriented to only one polar rather than the other. To report the data, the median is emphasized. Most teachers reveal *strong agreement* on statements (19.a) which supports the idea of enjoyable and exciting learning experience (*Mdn=5, IQR=0*), (19.b) which advocates the concept of responsible learning through solving problems and making decisions, (19.c) that endorses the role of cooperative work in the classroom, and (19.g) which holds the idea that communicative realistic environment will lead to listening improvement (*Mdn=4.5, IQR=1*). Almost all the respondents indicated *agreement* with the rest of the statements; (19.d) which highlights the importance of interactive activities to develop the listening skill, (19.f) that supports the role of immersing students in reasonable representation of a real environment to develop speaking, (19.h) which conveys the idea of assessing speaking proficiency in real-life interactive situations, (19.j) which espouses the importance of simulation in knowledge retention, (19.k) that endorses the concept of teaching listening in interaction through simulations, (19.l) which stresses that simulations help develop language functions, (19.m) which approves the idea of developing communication skills through simulations, (19.n) which deals with the idea of treating failures and success equally, (19.o) which favours the idea that simulations reduce anxiety, (19.p) which holds the idea that simulation activities allow self-assessment and peer feedback, (19.q) which argues over the role of simulations in boosting self-confidence and motivation, (19.r) which speaks about the influence of simulations on the role of the teacher (*Mdn=4, IQR=1*), (19.e) which underpins teaching functional language when engaged in complex social processes (*Mdn=4, IQR=2*), and (19.i) which advocates the opinion that simulations foster student's preparation and participation' (*Mdn= 4, IQR=0*).

Section Six: Further Suggestions

20. Please, add any further suggestions or comments.

Only 03 teachers added their own suggestions or comments. 02 teachers have accentuated the **role of the classroom** in deciding what best fits learning and teaching:

— One teacher considered the reasonability of the group size to decide on the effectiveness of simulations.

— Another teacher suggested focusing on two important points in the language classroom to decide on the effectiveness of any activity; firstly any language activity should take into consideration students' oral/aural ability, motivation and interest. Secondly, the experience of the teaching and learning that happens in the classroom should be the basis for the selection, adaptation, or the design of the activities, the teacher said: "Not to delve into much detail, there is no guarantee for effectiveness in learning and teaching a foreign language. The teacher must reflect on whatever her or his students do in the classroom to develop and be more creative and add his personal teaching/learning tasks tailored to his students."

— The third teacher has **criticized the communicative approach** saying that it was originally created to suit the European people communicative needs. S/he said: "When using it in academic settings, it ended up teaching learners a hybrid version of English which is neither the spoken variety nor the academic one producing in most cases very poor learners of Academic English." Moreover the same teacher suggested focusing on how **learners perceive learning** as s/he puts: "as long as the learner believes that learning happens only inside the walls of a classroom, laboratory or amphitheater, they will never learn more than 25% of what they are expected to, in the best of cases."

6.4 Interpretation of the Results

The analysis of the findings revealed that, expectedly, the majority of teachers' experience can be adequately relied on to decide whether to implement simulation activities or not in the second year syllabus. This conclusion is drawn because of the fact that 60% of teachers are responsible for the design of OE materials; in addition the remaining 40%

adopted the existing materials and brought their own modifications. The teachers' experience of selecting, creating and designing the appropriate materials that satisfy second year students' needs, interests, and abilities has given an extra impulse to the credibility of the attitudes and opinions expressed by the teachers.

Although, the majority of teachers – more than (60%) – are responsible for the selection of the OE activities, surprisingly, simulation activity is not one of their favourite choices as the findings reveal that it was implemented by (05%) of the teachers, whereas, strikingly, 50% of teachers reported that they use simulation-like activity which is role-play. This tendency towards role play might be due to that teachers perceive simulation and role play as one activity, especially because of the close nature they both have, thus the implementation of one according to them is sufficient. Another striking result is when 60% of teachers said that simulations are frequent in their OE classes (question 14). This contradiction may well be due to the aforementioned interpretation which credits the over-dependability of teachers on role play. To reinforce this interpretation, 25% wanted to have role-play activities and 55% preferred to use simulations and role play, but only 15% of the whole sample population wanted to use simulation.

In addition to role play, teachers provided a diversity of activities which hinge upon interaction-based activities like discussions, debates, free talk, problem-solving tasks, and structured dialogues which seem efficient as they focus on communication; however, they lack the authentic context which gives credibility to the language use. Drills and presentations, with their transactional nature, are also employed by many teachers in spite of their deficiency to prepare students for real-life communication.

In spite of the clear preference for role play activities, the majority of OE teachers 80% said that simulations are either effective or very effective in speaking and listening

development, especially, knowing that second year students have average level in speaking and listening as reported by 65% and 70% of teachers respectively. As one of the teachers stressed the need to consider students abilities when choosing the activities (see question 20); this implies that simulations are most probably the recommended activities to improve students' speaking and listening level. This insufficiency in speaking and listening level may well be due to the discrepant focus, teachers gave to the development of both skills which announces clearly the underestimation of listening in second year OE classes because teachers devote from (60%) to (80%) of the session's time constraint to teaching speaking, while from 30% to 40% of that time is devoted to teaching listening. only a disproportionate percentage of time (20%) is devoted to teaching both speaking and listening equally. This finding reports two important interpretations; it confirmed what has been already stated in the statement of the problem of the present study which alerts to the negligence of teaching listening in OE classes, and highlights the fact that teachers may consider their students' needs but fail to recognise and satisfy their lacks as almost all second year students (95%), in both experimental groups, expressed their need to reinforce their speaking (see Chapter Five: Students' Questionnaire Analysis, sub-subsection: Analysis and discussion of the Pre-questionnaire Results, question 17), particularly, fluency, lack of vocabulary which 80% of teachers and beyond the half of students (from (65%) to (75%)) in both experimental groups agreed on. Additionally, 45% of students in exp. G. 1 and 55% in exp. G.2 expressed weakness in listening as they said that they are moderately suffering while listening (see Chapter Five: Students' Questionnaire Analysis, subsection: Analysis and discussion of the Pre-questionnaire Results, question19).

Furthermore, the negligence of listening is clearly demonstrated in the activities used by teachers in the OE classes as small percentage (10%) appears to represent the activities with the nature of listening (e.g. audio/video watching and listening to radio program). Video, as a

result, it is not popular in OE classes, as declared by 55% of teachers. This is due to the few sessions which take place in laboratories, therefore over the half of teachers (60%) found difficulties to teach listening in the right atmosphere. Nevertheless, it is undeniable that it is beneficial for learners to listen to or watch native speakers using English in authentic way, as a result, they can easily replicate the genuine use of English in the real situation presented in simulations.

Feedback provision is also investigated, thorough question 9, as it has direct relation with the students achievements. Students suffer from the lack of self-confidence, according to 65% of teachers, and face extreme fear of mistakes when speaking as reported by 70% of students in both experimental groups (see Chapter Five: Students' Questionnaire Analysis, subsection: Analysis and discussion of the Pre-questionnaire Results, question 5). This implies that the teachers' method of giving feedback did not encourage learners to take risks in speaking; however, it inhibited them from challenging their fears. Thus, when teachers correct their students' mistakes in front of the whole class whether directly (immediately when the error occurs) or indirectly (after students finish the task), this may lead to students' fear of embarrassment or over thinking about the mistake and thus lose focus on the goal of the task.

The participation rate is obviously one of the crucial criteria teachers rely on when choosing the aural/oral activities. In second year population, the participation rate is acceptable as students participate **often** as reported by 60% of teachers and confirmed by 50% of students in Exp. G.1 and 45% in Exp.G.2 (see Chapter Five: Students' Questionnaire Analysis, subsection: Analysis and discussion of the Pre-questionnaire Results, question 16). This implies that simulations, which require high engagement of students, work better in second year classes as students are acquainted with the participation in the different communicative events in the classroom.

With regard to teachers' positive opinion about the effectiveness of simulation activities (question 18), its implementation became highly recommended as most of the teachers approved implicitly the most effective practices and benefits which simulation may bring to the language classroom; active engagement of learners, innovative thinking, ability to adhere to the functional meaning of the language, and the reflection of the theoretical knowledge, with absolute median of teachers' responses (05) and Interquartile range (IQR) (0). In addition to that, the majority of teachers agreed explicitly on the recommendation of using simulations in second year syllabus to develop both the speaking and listening skills, with median of responses (04) and a small (IQR) (2).

Additionally, an appeal was made to teachers through question 19 to find out the influence of simulations on the language teaching and learning. A general consensus about the positive impact of simulation in the language classroom has been reached by most of the teachers as in most cases the median was (04), (4.5), and (05) while the IQR was small (0, 1, and 2). In short, most of the teachers either **strongly agree** or **agree** on the fact that simulations create responsible learning by putting learners in real-life situations which resemble the real language duties learners have to do (e.g. solving real problems and making decisions). Besides, its long-term effect helps learners to keep possessing the theoretical knowledge they acquired, as said by the majority of teachers. As far as the learner achievements are concerned, learners' speaking and listening skills are improved because of the real conditions of language use simulations provide, which give students the chance to listen and respond and adhere to turn-taking, the cooperative and interactive nature, and the opportunity simulations grant to use the functional and lexical knowledge. Learners' anxiety and fear of mistakes are automatically reduced due to the exciting experience of simulation which is pressure-free as failure is no more than another step learner should consider in the next simulation and the teachers' assessment no longer dominates as self-assessment and

peer-feedback take place. Moreover, self-confidence and motivation are boosted owing to simulation, according to teachers as well as students who mentioned self-confidence as one of the benefits they gained after they had the simulations (see Chapter Five: Students' Questionnaire Analysis, subsection: Analysis and discussion of the Post-questionnaire Results, question 17).

Conclusion

The interpretation of the Teachers' Questionnaire findings has revealed a highly appreciated teachers' creed and attitudes towards the simulation activities. This conclusion has given more credibility to the aim of the thesis as most of teachers supported clearly the implementation of simulation activities in the second year syllabus. This assumption has been drawn from the belief of the majority of the teachers who approved the effectiveness of simulation activities in developing both speaking and listening proficiency and agreed on the multiplicity of the positive habits simulations bring to the language classroom. The experience of second year teachers in materials design made their responses highly reliable, consequently their views and attitudes, which encouraged the use of these activities in second year Oral Expression classes, have been taken into consideration. In short, the questions stated in the introduction have been answered through the analysis of the questionnaires' results.

Chapter Seven: Interpretation of Results and Research Findings

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to cover the experiment of this study. Particularly, the rational and purpose behind this chapter is to foreground the use and the effectiveness of simulation techniques to improve second year students' speaking and listening proficiency. To pave the way for foregrounding the simulation effectiveness, two experimental groups were taught by using integrated simulation activities in their Oral Expression class and the pre-intervention and post-intervention scores have been, then, analysed to report the changing aspects in students' speaking and listening skills and thus in their oral communication. Hence, the aim of this part of the study is to test two hypotheses: when teachers apply simulation techniques in EFL classrooms, this would develop students' listening and speaking proficiency and if teachers focus on developing the listening and speaking skills in EFL courses, students' communicative language proficiency would improve.

7.1 Brief Explanation of the Experiment

As has been mentioned in chapter four, the experimental design for the present study is of quasi nature. More specifically, related-sample tests are the kind of test used. This orientation to this particular type of tests is due to the fact that this research's aim is to prove that the possible difference between the pre and post-tests is owing to the independent variable. However, knowing that subjects vary on some variables, which lead to unequal subjects and which may impact the results obtained, related-sample tests are then used to lay out the equilibrium between subjects of the experimental groups enrolled in the experiment. The results, then, are certainly derived from the independent variable as any possible difference between subjects is diminished and hence subjects became related by the matching procedure, which is explained thoroughly in Chapter Four, Sub-section 4.2.3 Sampling p. 121).

7.2 Validity, Reliability, and Generalizability in the Present Study

As validity is "the touchstone of all types of educational research" (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 106), the present research places validity and reliability among the necessities to give credence to the experiment. Among the types of validity, internal and external validity caught the most attention of this research.

7.2.1   Validity of the Present Study

Validity is the extent to which a measurement instrument measures what it is intended to measure, and measures it accurately (Mackey and Gass, 2005). There are many types of validity, including content, face, construct, criterion-related, and predictive validity, according to Mackey and Gass (ibid). We deal with internal and external validity, which are the most common areas of concern in quasi-experimental designs.

This study was conducted using internal validity as quasi-experimental design faces criticism about its internal validity. It refers to what extent are the differences that have been found for the dependent variable directly related to the independent variable. The researcher should eliminate threaten of factors such as participant characteristics, participant mortality (dropout rate), inattention and attitude, maturation, data collection (location and collector), instrumentation and test effects, Mackey and Gass (2005) note. In this study, both experimental groups were homogenous in terms of exposure to the English language as the analysis of the students' questionnaire revealed. To determine the shorter- and longer-term effects of a treatment and increase the internal validity, delayed post-test was carried out, as proposed by Mackey and Gass (ibid, p. 149) and two groups pre/post-test design was implemented instead of one group pre/post-test design.

External validity which also known as generalizability is concerned with "the extent to which the findings of the study are relevant not only to the research population, but also to the

wider population of language learners", Mackey and Gass (ibid, p. 119) put. As the internal validity has increased in this study, besides the sample chosen for this study was selected randomly as both experimental groups were given to the researcher randomly by the department of Letters and English Language, each participant in both groups has the same chance of being selected as does any other individual. Furthermore, the size of the sample was representative; thus, generalization is more appropriate in this study and the results obtained could be applied to the target population: EFL second year students.

7.2.2 Reliability

In order to verify the reliability of the research instrument, we have used multiple traits to define the research reliability. We ensured first the reliability of the experiment manipulation (the six simulations used in the experiment) by conducting the pilot study which gave a deep insight about the most efficient practices and the required refrains for the main experiment. Besides, all the simulations were given to another teacher for scrutiny and approval purposes before use then they were revised and finalised after the pilot study. Concerning the test reliability, Brown (2001) distinguishes between the reliability of the test itself and the scorer reliability. Test-retest reliability, which Mackey and Gass (2005) recommend to prove the intrarater reliability, is a procedure used in this study to determine the consistency of the results to ensure the test reliability. We have administered equivalent test forms multiple times by asking the same matched subjects to do the same thing and following the same research procedures. Consequently three tests (pre, post and delayed tests) were employed in this study purporting the same results. Noteworthy the delayed post-test was conducted one month later following the first post-test.

The scorer reliability has been achieved through specifications employed in the scoring of the test as Brown (ibid) requests. Brown adds that an analytic scoring system is required for

the increase of scorer reliability. For more elicitation of the scoring specifications see the following subsection.

7.3 Description of the Test

The basic consideration in the design of the test is its ability to provide inferences about students' ability as "the primary concern in designing a test task is to elicit enough speech to allow a rating to take place" (Fulcher, 2003, p. 50). This test in the present study aims at assessing both speaking and listening proficiency. The format of this proficiency test does not involve one-on-one tester/test-taker relationship, but involves interaction-based task and it is linked to the tenets of communicative language teaching as it encourages cooperative learning in the classroom. This inspiration brought the test format into line with the paired interactive exchange that resembled real-life ones. Based on the recommendation made by Vandergrift (1997, p. 503), for testing interactive listening: "participants should share equal role relationships (e.g., student and student)", paired test seems then the appropriate test format to assess listening. The students' paired test came to replace the oral proficiency interview because the latter has been criticised for the inequality of two participants (usually the teacher is the test taker) (Fulcher, ibid, p. 186) and for its limited scope of language testing as Fulcher assumes that there is a doubt about whether this test format can really test other competencies rather than merely language competence. Hence, paired test was applied as oral/aural test format. Consequently, discussion about a given topic is done in pairs. Although this format is non asymmetrical as it gives the same chances to equal students to speak in a discussion and elicit natural discourse, it received criticism as to "how a score can be given to an individual when the interaction is co-constructed" (Fulcher, ibid, p. 86). However, knowing students will be language users in the real world where they have to manage discourse, maintain its coherence, accuracy and appropriateness, and negotiate meaning in a homogenous or heterogeneous turn taking, it gives more credence to the discussion test which stimulates

students' ability to handle real-life speaking and listening as interaction may not resemble 'test-like' discourse (Underhill, 1987). Furthermore, as the treatment used in this research is simulations, it is logically accepted that the discussion format is most suitable especially, considering that simulations "involve a substantial amount of interaction between the participants" (Jones, 1982, p.7).The framework for the speaking test format is described according to Fulcher's (2003) framework (p. 85):

Task Orientation: Guided. The students are asked to discuss a given topic. The discussion is driven by the topic itself. While turn-taking is open. The treatment and outcome of the discussion is guided (giving and evaluating opinion).

Interactional Relationship: Two-way, between two test takers.

Goal Orientation: convergent or divergent as the students may have similar or different opinions.

Interlocutor Status and Familiarity: same status, variable familiarity.

Topic: topic chosen according to its familiarity and authenticity. The students discuss an up-to-date topic.
Situations: conversation

The same format has been used in the pre/post tests and the delayed post-test (see appendixes VI, VII, and VIII).

7.4 Procedure

Second year students were given a set of instructions which include random pairing of students prior to the actual performance of the task. Time needed for the task has not been limited. Ellis (2003) claims: this option "can influence the nature of the language students produce" (p. 249). This choice, then, was deliberately elected to free learners from time pressure and to release their concentration solely on their performance as Yuan and Ellis (2003) found that students who were asked to perform the task in unlimited time produced

more complex and accurate language in comparison to the group who performed the same task under the pressure of limited time (as cited in Ellis, ibid, p. 149). During the test, students were told that the test's mark will not be counted. By doing this, we wanted to deviate the students' attention from proving their proficiency and rather to engage spontaneously in the conversation without paying attention to the consequences.

Weir (2005, p.192) claimed that "the assessment of spoken language is potentially more problematic than the rating of written scripts." As a result, video recordings of students' test' were collected (see appendix XII), and then converted into written scripts. Afterwards, the transcripts (see appendix XIV, XV, XVI) were encoded into ordinal scores.

7.4.1 Spoken Assessment Procedure: Marking System

Learners' video recordings are assessed according to the tape marking as the first scoring procedure (Underhill, 1987, p. 93). Some oral tests tend to assess the overall proficiency through impression marking. This procedure is known as the holistic approach to language testing. According to Underhill (ibid), "impression marking is used for the kind of categories that are very hard to define but everybody agrees are important: fluency, ability to communicate, style, naturalness of speech, and so on" (p.101). But the problem raised with this analysis method is that judging oral effectiveness on the basis of impression may doubt objectivity and produce different measuring scales for one aspect. Moreover, as pointed out by Underhill (ibid), "making accurate impression-based assessments requires a lot of experience … Even experienced assessors find it difficult to make consistent impression-based judgments" (p. 101).

An analytic or the atomistic judgment is required then for speaking assessment. The atomistic approach to language testing provide a detailed marking scheme, in other words, the overall proficiency is divided into specific aspects of the learner's performance and then evaluated separately. The separate marks are combined to produce the overall score. This

method of language testing is claimed to be more objective than the holistic approach. The atomistic test techniques are used as a strategy to elicit the information in this paper in favor of the holistic approach for two reasons; the marker is not well experienced in grading system or impression-based assessment, besides evaluating separate units of oral performance gives more detailed diagnosis of the learner's problems and achievements.

Speaking proficiency comprise different speaking sub skills or language components. Thus, in order to evaluate the speaking proficiency, language components or categories should be defined. Consequently, the assessor or marker marks each category alone. Underhill (1987) says that "The use of mark categories makes the marking of oral tests easier and more consistent" (p. 97). This test has put together the traditional model of language components (focus on the accurate use of a language) and the recent model of performance criteria (focus on assessing learners' communication) (Underhill, ibid, p.96) to generate a clear defined speaking proficiency. "Since it is also important that the analytic criteria are conceptually independent, at least to some extent, five to six criteria may be close to the maximum" (Luoma, 2004, p.80). Starting from this assertion, an analytic rubric was applied in this research, particularly, we have adapted it from Weir (1993) (as cited in Weir, 2005, pp.195-196). In Weir's (ibid) rubric, there are five criteria: fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy, and interactional strategies. A detailed construct definition of these criteria, considered in this study, is as follows:

- Fluency depends in this study, on the speed of students' speech (how long does the participant speak), hesitation (how much does the speaker hesitate before and while speaking) which is measured according to the unfilled pauses. Repetition of syllabus or words, changing words or structures and cohesion (Fulcher, 2003) are also covered in the assessment process.

- Pronunciation includes single word pronunciation which is according to Fulcher (ibid) of disproportionate concern as testing pronunciation depends on general intelligibility; however,

we have included word pronunciation in the testing as second year students are taught the distinction between sounds in English. Stress and intonation are also included in the assessment as they have great impact on the understanding of meaning at the level of the utterance.

- Vocabulary centrally focuses on vocabulary production and comprehension. Thus, it is assessed according to different dimensions; decide whether students can use a word properly in context and register, they are able to supply derived forms of base words, infer the meaning of unknown words; use collocations correctly, use vocabulary with full flexibility and precision and use idiomatic expression naturally.

- Grammatical accuracy in which Fulcher (2003) distinguished between high and low gravity errors. As far as this study is concerned, the assessment focused mostly on high gravity errors as the low gravity errors do not hinder communication as long as they are "unlikely to cause misunderstanding" (p.27). The errors being focused on in the assessment are: word order, omission, pronouns, the construction of relative clauses, and tense. Despite the fact that tense is of a low gravity, it is unavoidable in the assessment as it is mainly emphasized in the second year grammar syllabus.

- Interactional strategies deal with production strategies rather than reception ones. Particularly, in this criterion, the term 'interactional strategies' means using strategies such as initiating the discussion, expanding the topic, turn taking and concluding the discussion as announced by Weir (1993) (as cited in Weir, 2005, p.196). Besides, a special attention is drawn towards students' ability to express a range of functions to achieve social needs, such as agreeing/disagreeing, expressing opinion, explaining, raising objection…etc. Furthermore, The marking scale is explained in the following table as follows:

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Criteria	Marks
Fluency	4 out of 20
Pronunciation	4 out of 20
Vocabulary	4 out of 20
Grammatical accuracy	4 out of 20
Interactional strategies	4 out of 20
Total score	20 out of 20

Table 50: Numerical rating of the speaking proficiency rubric

To reach the score, each student gets in each criteria, the following procedure was followed: counting the row scores (i.e., the total number of correct items (row score) =the total score possible - the cumulative penalties due to errors) (Henning, 1987) for each criterion, summing them and then dividing them by the number of errors and language items that second year students might encounter in their spoken language. The final row score for each criterion is transformed to percentage according to a linear transformation format (Henning, ibid, p.28):

$Y = X100/C$

Y: the percentage score

X: the raw score

C: the total number of items (i.e., the highest possible score)

The percentage score is matched with the 4 marks of each criterion as follows: (0%- 25%) = 1/ (26%-50%) = 2/ (51%- 75%) = 3/ (76%-100%) =4. Finally, the obtained marks for each criterion are summed to form the final speaking test score of each participant.

7.4.2 Listening Assessment Procedure

As interactive listening is the main concern of this study rather than transactional one, its assessment takes place in this part of the study; however, there has been much debate about the real meaning of interactive listening and more research on how to judge this type of listening. Accordingly, the present research depended heavily on a reliable study conducted

by Vandergrift in 1997. Vandergrift investigated his students' interactive listening proficiency. Based on Rost and Ross (1991) study findings which correlate the choice of strategy and the language proficiency of the listeners, Vandergrift (ibid) conducted his study in which he correlated the use of reception strategies Rost and Ross (ibid) found (see Chapter One, subsection 1.2.1 Definition of Interactive Listening, p.25) to students' language proficiency. Firstly, he ascertained his students' proficiency level using ACTFL/ETS Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). Afterwards, he used a checklist to record any reception strategy use. Finally, the researcher correlated the observed strategies with the students' proficiency level.

In the present study, the same procedure was applied. We have recorded the students reception strategy use according to the same checklist (see appendix IX) as it was reliable (it was reviewed by a trainer assistant) and proved to be efficient to detect any observable reception strategies (according to Vandergrift study results). Afterwards, the mean number of the reception strategies observed in both experimental groups in pre/post and delayed post tests are correlated with Vandergrift's findings:

Strategy	Novice	Intermediate
	Total Mean Number	Total Mean Number
Global reprise	1.77	1.14
Specific reprise	0.54	0.43
Hypothesis testing	1.31	2.43
Uptakes	10.77	41.0
Faking	2.35	1.28
Kinesics	29.85	6.43

Table 51: Mean number of reception strategies observed by ACTFL Oral Proficiency Level (Adapted from Vandergrift, 1997, p. 499)

Noteworthy, this checklist ensured the detection of verbal as well as nonverbal reception strategies listeners used to prompt further input or solicit clarification of meaning,

thus this checklist aims at checking the nature and frequency of reception strategy use. All the strategies checked in Vandergrift's study are grouped in table 49, each investigates different pattern of strategy (for their explanation of these patterns, see Chapter One, subsection 1.2.1 Definition of Interactive Listening, p.25). In the present study, forward inference is included in the categories of analysis as some observable uses of this strategy were detected, unlike Vandergrift's study in which no instances of forward inferencing were noticed. According to Vandergrift (1997), the use forward inferencing in his study was merely indirect through nonverbal messages.

7.5 Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

7.5.1   Listening Pre-test Results

Reception Strategies	Exp. G. 1	Exp. G. 2
	Mean number	Mean number
Global Reprise	0.55	0.3
Specific Reprise	0.15	0.0
Hypothesis testing	0.1	0.05
Forward Inference	0.85	0.7
Uptakes	10.95	11.35
Faking	3.5	2.95
Kinesics	3.7	3

Table 52: Mean number of reception strategies observed in both experimental groups in the pre-test

Table 50 presents the average number of times each strategy was observed in each experimental group. Participants in Exp. G.1 used largely uptakes (10.95 times) to prompt further input from the interlocutors in the form of continuation signals such as **node**s and

verbal paralinguistic signals 'yes' with a tone which indicates the interest in what is being said. The observation of the reception strategies, listeners in Exp. G. 1 used revealed the very rare use of the backchannels such mmm and uh-huh. This observation signals participants' lack of management of the communication and the over reliability on words to maintain interpersonal interactions, thus participants are not cooperative listeners in this point of time. The second ranking reception strategy, listeners in the Exp. G.1 used, is the Kinesics (3.7 times), mostly **cocked head**, **glazed eyes**, **furrowed eyebrows**, and infrequently **confused looks** and **gazed hands**. Faking understanding was also observed in a high number of times (3.5) which signals the difficulties listeners face to understand and hence to interact. Forward inferencing was observed with mean number (0.85). The use of this strategy was partly direct and partly imperceptible as it was ascertained through the interlocutors' response 'yes' to confirm the assumption indirectly. Global reprise is the fifth strategy used by listeners in this group according to (0.55) number of use observed, notably, participants in this group asked for repetition or rephrasing in direct or indirect way such as 'could you please repeat' or 'I did not hear what you said'. (0.1) is the number of times participants checked their understanding, likewise asking for repetition of specific word or information (specific reprise) has been also used by very few participants in this group (0.15 times) covertly. One of the interesting examples is when one of the participants asked for repetition indirectly saying: "a lot?" waiting to complete the utterance and clarify the meaning and the interlocutor replied: "a large increase in social media".

Similar to the Exp. G. 1 results, the uptakes were mostly used (11.35 times) by the participants in Exp. G. 2. Noticeably in this group, listeners encouraged the interlocutor to continue speaking by signalling continuation though **nods**, **verbal 'yes'** as well as through the **backchannel 'uh huh'**. Kinesics (3 times) was also the pattern strategy listeners used to seek clarification through the same strategies observed in exp. g.1, however, participants in this

group resorted another kinesics which is **raising eyebrows** which indicated a disproval with the interlocutors' ideas. Worth to mention, participants in this group did not find it easy, as well, to interact, obviously as they faked understanding in (2.95) times. Whereas, (0.7 times) represent the use of forward inferencing which was more direct than in exp. g. 1as most of the time forward inferencing was used as a continuation of the interlocutors' turns, especially when they feel confused about what to say. Global reprise was used infrequently (0.3 times), however, in the few times participants sought clarification through asking for repetition or rephrasing, no clear indication of the use of this strategy has been observed as listeners used it imperceptibly. As a result it was noticed through the interlocutors' response that tended to rephrase or repeat what they said whenever they felt they need to. This result is probably due to the fact that participants in this group are approximately of the same level or participants do not know the proper way to request for repetition or rephrasing. A slighter mean number (0.05) which represent the use of the strategy 'hypothesis testing' has been observed as the listeners most probably focus more on their turn in the interaction over the exchange of meaning with the interlocutor. We can say that listeners before the intervention could not be part of collaborative exchange of meaning. Surprisingly, all the participants did not request for repetition or rephrasing of a specific part of an utterance. This may well be due to the familiarity and the clarity of the ideas participants used, to discuss the topic.

7.5.1.1 Comparison of the Results Obtained by the Experimental Group 01 and the Experimental Group 02 in the Listening Pre-test

When comparing both experimental groups in terms of the most frequent strategy used, it is clear that uptakes are the most popular strategies used before the intervention by frequency of use (10.95 and 11.35 in exp. g.1 and exp. g.2 respectively). However, this mean number matches approximately the uptakes' mean number observed in 'Novice' level in Vandergrift study (10.77).

Kinesics use which is also reported by participants in exp. g.1 and exp. g.2 to seek clarification by the average use (3.7 and 3 respectively) is far more the mean number observed in the novice level in Vandergrift (1997) (29.85) and intermediate level (6.43). This result may well be explained by participants' familiarity with the topic so they rarely expressed confusion about what they listened to.

Students in exp. g. 1 and exp. g. 2 confirmed understanding in very rare occasions (0.1 and 0.05 respectively) even less than novice students (Vandergrift, 1997) who used it (1.31 times). Similarly, the faking strategy use in both experimental groups (3.5 and 2.95 times in exp. g.1 and exp. g.2 respectively) is close to its use in the novice level which exhibited the same strategy use by (2.38 times) according to Vandergrift (ibid) study. Global reprise and specific reprise were occasionally used in both experimental groups, the same way they were observed in the novice level in Vandergrift study (1.77 and 0.45 times respectively)

The Comparison of the mean number of the strategies used in both experimental groups with participants' proficiency level Vandergrift (ibid) found in his study, allowed clear estimation of the students' listening proficiency level before the intervention. To interpret the comparison results in the most straightforward way possible, especially in the light of some discriminatory results, the focus is rather on the most appearing reception strategies in both groups in relation with the proficiency level. To put it simply, the most frequent strategy used, 'uptakes', matches the mean number normally used by novice level, while all the other strategies are little beyond or beneath the average use in the novice level too. By conclusion, it is then estimated that participants in both experimental groups are more **novice-oriented** in listening.

7.5.2 Listening Post-test Results

Reception Strategies	Exp. G. 1	Exp. G. 2
	Mean number	Mean number
Global Reprise	0.30	0.5
Specific Reprise	0.05	0.45
Hypothesis testing	0.2	0.7
Forward Inference	1.5	1.7
Uptakes	21.5	24
Faking	2	1.75
Kinesics	0.6	0.8

Table 53: Mean number of reception strategies observed in both experimental groups in the post-test

Uptakes remained the most frequent strategy (21.5) used by the participants of exp. g. 1, more precisely; there seems an increase in number of use of **nods** and **verbal 'yes'** as continuation signals, but paralinguistic, namely **backchannels** are never observed whenever listeners want to signal to their interlocutors to continue speaking. Faking remained in the second place of the frequency use scale as represented by (2 mean number of times) which indicates participants' continual difficulty in maintaining the interaction. A slight increase found in forward inference (1.5 mean number) however this time with more verbal messages which indicates a sign cognitive control of the language to display clarification need during communication. Kinesics also rested in use, however, with slight number of times (0.6) in which **cocked head** was less used by participants whenever they show interest in what the interlocutor is saying. This result may well be due to the students' exposure to more interactions (during the simulations) which allow them to convey their lack of understanding and interest covertly, and thus became hard to observe their use of this strategy. In the same

manner, global reprise remained in use by frequency of use (0.30). This small mean number of times indicates participants increased level of understanding as they relied infrequently on seeking clarification by asking for repetition or rephrasing. An approximate number of times to pre-test results (0.2) were observed when participants in exp. g.1 tended to confirm their hypothesis. This slight number of times attests the fact that participants encounter very few occasions when they have doubt of their understanding. Specific reprise was hardly observed in this group as (0.05) was the number of times this strategy used. This may be explained by participants' total reliance on the global understanding or they were overwhelmed by the flow of the interaction, thus they felt no need to break its flow by asking for specific information clarification.

In Exp. G.2 the uptakes have increased to reach (24 times) which demonstrate the fact that listeners relied heavily on the nonverbal messages to breed more input. Faking comprehension is also observed in this group, thus participants still use this strategy but with less frequency (1.75). Participants still avoid admitting inability to understand or do not listen inattentively to what the interlocutors' speech, so they fake understanding without determination. Forward inference, in contrast witnessed very slight increase (1.7 times). Participants in this group overtly indicate current understanding by asking question such as 'but if you have money you'll be happy?' and sometimes used this strategy covertly as it was observed through the interlocutors response e.g., 'this is what I wanted to say', 'yes something like that' or simply 'yes' implying approving the understanding estimation. Kinesics use has decreased (0.8 times), while global reprise, specific reprise and hypothesis check use elevated (0.5, 0.45, and 0.7 times respectively). In one hand, for global reprise, students tended to seek clarification covertly as well as overtly by using certain expressions such as 'I'm afraid I did not catch your point', 'I misunderstood you, what do you mean' or 'why do you say that?' These examples confirmed the aforementioned justification that

participants did not know how to seek clarification before the experiment as after they have taught how to ask for repetition and rephrasing during the simulations, they felt more confident to prompt further clarification verbally. Hypothesis testing also was partly overt as it is elicited by the following interesting examples: 'another person you mean?', 'because of money?' (with falling intonation), and 'what I can understand from what you say that money can't buy happiness'. While, in the other hand specific reprise was totally imperceptible.

7.5.2.1 Comparison of the Results Obtained by the Experimental Group 01 and the Experimental Group 02 in the Listening Pre/Post-test

All the strategies observed in the pre-test are present in the post-test, however, with changes in frequency of use. Some strategies' use was increased such as uptakes which elevated considerably from (10.95 and 11.35 to 21.5 and 24 times) in exp. g.1 and exp.g.2 respectively. Despite the fact that this mean number of use could not reach the total mean number of this strategy as used by intermediate students in Vandergrift (1997) study, but its closeness to mean number of uptakes observed in high intermediate (27. 67 times) is clear. Hypothesis testing and forward inferencing also are quantitatively as well as qualitatively different. Although hypothesis testing strategy use elevated, it falls in the novice category as its use matches the low novice level ascertained by Vandergrift (ibid, p.499) (0.75 times) when it was slightly beneath this average number in the pre-test.

The other strategies which decreased in frequency of use are kinesics, global reprise, and faking. As far as kinesics are concerned, a quantitative difference of about (3.1) in exp. g.1 and (2.2) in exp. g.2 was recorded. Consequently, listeners in both groups felt less need to seek clarification either nonverbally or verbally as global reprise decreased by a difference of (0.22) in exp. g.1 and slightly increased by (0.2) in exp.g.2. The reason behind this increase is probably due to that participants sought clarification overtly besides covertly owing to the

explicit instruction followed in the simulation activities especially when students needed to express inability to comprehend. Faking has also achieved slight attenuation in terms of the average number of strategy use of about (1.5) decrease in exp.g.1 and (1.2) in exp. g.2.

In the post-test, kinesics (0.6 times in exp. g.1 and 0.8 in exp. g.2) in comparison with Vandergrift's study results, fall under the category 'high intermediate' (0.67times) (p.499). Furthermore, both means numbers achieved in faking in the post-test fall between the mean numbers found in mid and high intermediate levels (2 and 0.33 respectively) as found by Vandergrift (ibid, p.499). Important to mention, all the prior comparisons are done in light of the fact that the aforementioned strategies use has decreased. Consequently, the post-test results revealed the fact participants in both experimental groups developed their listening proficiency as they became **intermediate-oriented** in listening.

7.5.3 Listening Delayed Post-test Results

Reception Strategies	Exp. G. 1	Exp. G. 2
	Mean number	**Mean number**
Global Reprise	0.25	0.2
Specific Reprise	0.1	0.1
Hypothesis testing	0.2	0.85
Forward Inference	1.4	1.3
Uptakes	20	22.8
Faking	1.7	1.5
Kinesics	0.7	0.9

Table 54: Mean number of reception strategies observed in both experimental groups in the delayed post-test

Likewise, exp.g.1 showed high frequency of uptakes use (20 times), so participants in this group kept relying on continuation signals which indicated full understanding and listeners' intention to continue having interpersonal relationship which their interlocutors in the interaction. Faking, as usual, is the second strategy, participants resorted (1.7) whenever they try to solve misunderstanding problem. However, it is observed that the number of times of use of this strategy decreased which may evince the fact that listeners' rate of understanding increased and they are no longer afraid of signalling their inability to understand through for example forward inference which slightly declined to (1.4 times) . Surprisingly, kinesics has slightly increased by (0.1) which may be owing to the attenuation of continuous interaction in the activities students have after the intervention (simulation activities). The use the global reprise is kept gradually diminishing after the intervention, whereas specific reprise and hypothesis testing revealed slight increase, however not remarkable one. This may be explained by the nature of the topic the interlocutors discuss in this test.

The uptakes revealed a slight decrease in number of use in exp. g. 2, one month after they had simulation activities with the observation of using the same strategies noticed in the post-test, **nods, 'yes'**, and paralinguistic features mainly **'uh huh'**. This decrease might well be due to the increased confidence in using both verbal and non-verbal signals to solve misunderstanding problems. This orientation in seeking clarification is confirmed by the slight mean number (0.9) which represents the use of body language through kinesics to request clarification. The attenuation of body language and facial expressions is accompanied with global reprise decline which achieved (0.2 times) only. Surprisingly, forward inference revealed to be depleted to reach (1.3 times), likewise faking which reached (1.5 times). This means that participants had fewer comprehension problems in an interactional setting and they resolved any comprehension difficulties by signalling them directly to the interlocutor

through global reprise and hypothesis testing which increased to (0.85) in this group, or forward inference strategies instead of avoiding mentioning their inability to understand.

7.5.3.1 Comparison of the Results Obtained by the Experimental Group 01 and the Experimental Group 02 in the Listening Delayed Post-test

The overall assessment of listeners' behaviour one month after the experiment revealed a slight decline in most of the strategies. This is attributed to the absence of long interactions students used to have during the simulations. In spite of the deflation of uptakes (20 times in exp. 1 and 22.8 in exp. g.2), the slight increase in kinesics' use (0.7 times in exp. g.1 and 0.9 in exp. g.2) and forward inference (1.4 times in exp. g.1 and 1.3 times in exp. g.2), we can estimate the same level of the participants as the deflation was too small to recognise, besides it may be due to the nature of the topic discussed in the delayed post-test.

Furthermore, the deflation of global reprise (0.25 times in exp. g.1 and 0.2 times in exp. g.2) and faking (1.7 times in exp. g.1 and 1.5 times in exp. g.2) has been seen qualitatively positive. These results confirmed the long term impact of simulations especially in terms of confidence in expressing misunderstanding and the involvement nature of these activities which allow listeners to be fully immersed in any interactional setting.

Hypothesis testing mean number was steady in exp. g.1 and little raised in exp. g. 2 (0.85). This increase is an indication of moving towards an advanced level in listening according to Vandergrift's study (1997) results although the mean numbers achieved by both groups are near to the one achieved by low novice learners (0.75) (Vandergrift, ibid, p.499).

In short, the high levels of uptake, hypothesis testing and forward inference strategies and the low levels in kinesics and faking strategies, in comparison with the results obtained in the pre-test drive us to make the following assumption: students in the delayed post-test exhibited intermediate-oriented listening level.

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7.5.4 Speaking Pre-test Results

The t-test was applied to detect any significant difference between the scores in both experimental groups. Particularly, the dependent t-test was employed and "within subject" statistical test was applied to determine any significant difference in the proficiency level between both groups before and after the intervention.

Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Exp. G. 1: Pre-test Score	9.65	2.02	0.46	0.08	2.09 P<0.05
Exp. G. 2: Pre-test Score	9.85	2.27	0.52	0.01	2.09 P<0.05

Table 55: Descriptive statistics of the pre-test speaking skill mean score

The findings, in table 53, show that the average mean of the experimental group1 was (9.65) and its standard deviation was (2.02). This low value of standard deviation indicates that participants' pre-test scores are clustered around the mean average (9.65); consequently, participants in this group had few differences in their speaking proficiency. After deduction we reached the following result: exp. g.1 was not a highly mixed-ability group. The average mean score of the experimental group 2, as indicated in the same table, was calculated as (9.85) and standard deviation for this group was (2.27). The value of the standard deviation in this group yielded the same interpretation reached for exp. g.1, that is to say participants in exp. g. 2 had also small gap in their speaking skill levels. This interpretation is logically true as both experimental groups were matched in their pre-test results as a crucial condition of quasi-experimental design. In spite of the fact that the mean number of the exp. g.2 signals that this group had better range of scores than exp. g.1, the statistical interpretation did not show any significant difference in their proficiency level as the **t** value was much less than the 2-tailed p value (2.093 < 0.05).

7.5.5 Speaking Post-test Results

Experimental group 1	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Exp. G. 1: Post-test score	10.9	1.85	0.42
Exp. G.2: Post-test score	11.35	1.66	0.38

Table 56: Descriptive statistics of the post-test speaking skill mean score

Table 54 indicates the fairly big difference between the pre-test mean and post-test mean of both experimental groups. These results clearly reveal that students speaking competence has positively changed as their post average means (10.9) and (11.35) are higher than the initial means (9.65) and (9.85) in both groups respectively. It has also been shown in this table the decrease in the standard deviation value as in exp.g.1 the standard deviation was (1.85) and in exp. g.2 the standard deviation became (1.66). This decrease has deeply offered an insight on the improvement of the range of scores in both experimental groups after the intervention, as a result it can be deduced that the small diversity in the participants' speaking skills in both groups has been bridged, in other words the students' speaking abilities became much closer to each other.

7.5.5.1 Comparison of the Results Obtained by the Experimental Group 01 and the Experimental Group 02 in the Speaking Pre/Post-tests

Groups	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	t	df	Sig.
Experimental group 1	20	1.25	1.88	0.43	2.90	19	2.093 $P<0.05$
Experimental group 2	20	1.5	1.83	0.42	3.57	19	2.093 $P< 0.05$

Table 57: The dependent t-test for speaking pre/post-test

To determine whether these differences between pre and post-tests scores are statistically significant, the paired scores for each participant in both experimental groups were analysed for any statistical difference using dependent t-test:

Paired sample test was applied to the scores of both groups to see any statistical difference in their oral proficiency level. The t value obtained in both experimental groups are (2.90) and (3.57) and both are higher than the critical value of t (2.093) in the t- table with the degree of freedom of 19 and the level of significance of 0.05 for the two-tailed hypothesis. Consequently, the alternative hypotheses stated at the beginning of this research are confirmed. It has been proved through these results that simulation activities have led to an improvement in the participants speaking proficiency and thus to an enhancement of their communication oral proficiency.

7.5.6 Speaking Delayed Post-test

Experimental group 1	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Delayed Post-test score	11.9	2.22	0.51
Delayed Post-test score	12	2.17	0.49

Table 58: Descriptive statistics of the delayed post-test speaking skill mean score

At the end of this research project, both groups have shown reasonable steady progress in their oral communication proficiency. The exp. g. 1 has achieved the average score of (11.9) as compared to the post-test mean value (10.9) and exp. g.2 has achieved the mean score (12) compared to the post average score (11.35). A slight increase in the mean score of both experimental groups in comparison with the post-test results has revealed the consistent change which was detected in the post intervention. The standard deviation values of both groups have revealed another significant change. The standard deviation values have unexpectedly slightly increased in comparison to the post-test standard deviation values (1.85) and (1.66) in exp. g.1 and exp. g.2 respectively. The standard deviation values which were

achieved in the delayed post-test, (2.22 in exp. g.1) and (2.17 in exp. g.2), were very close to their counterpart values achieved by the same groups in the pre-test (2.02 in exp. g.1) and (2.27 in exp. g.2). Thus, the 40 subjects in both groups have shown slight dispersion in the participants' oral communicative proficiency level, closer to one they started with in this experiment. These results have suggested that the internal differences among the subjects have been expanded one month after having the simulation activities.

7.5.6.1 Comparison of the Results Obtained by the Experimental Group 01 and the Experimental Group 02 in the Speaking Post-test and Delayed Post-test

Groups	N	Mean Difference	Std. deviation	Std. Error	t	df	Sig.
Experimental group 1	20	0.45	1.12	0.25	1.8	19	2.093 P<0.05
Experimental group 2	20	0.55	0.95	0.22	2.5	19	2.093 P< 0.05

Table 59: The dependent t-test for speaking post/delayed post-test

According to Table 57, the mean of communicative testing scores in the delayed post-test of total 40 subjects was significantly less than in the post-test (0.45) in exp. g. 1 and (0.55) in exp. g.2. In one hand, the t value obtained in exp. g.1 (1.8) is less than the critical t value (2.093) at .05 level significance and indicates no significant difference in the proficiency level. In the other hand, the t value achieved in exp. g. 2 (2.5) is slightly higher than the critical value (2.093) and reveals marginally improvement in their speaking proficiency level. The results can be attributed to students' ability to retain the long term effects of simulations.

7.6 Discussion of the Results

7.6.1 Listening Proficiency Results

This section of the study will discuss first the analysis of the reception strategies observed in both experimental groups in different points of time during the experiment in relation to the proficiency level change due to simulation activities. Second, a discussion of the reception strategies in relation to the cognitive and social constraints will follow.

Vandergrift's (1997) checklist proved to be useful tool to detect any observable reception strategies participants use in interactional setting. No modifications have been imported to this checklist, except for the inclusion of forward inferencing as a category of analysis as it was clear that listeners were verbally checking understanding assumptions. The analysis of the tests' results revealed that listeners use verbal as well as non-verbal messages to maintain interpersonal relationship in the interaction.

In the pre-test, students expressed their ability to solve misunderstanding problems like they indicated in their questionnaire when 65% of exp. g.1 students and 75% of exp.g.2 students opted for the choice 'I can'. However, their ability was different in manner, variability and frequency. Participants in both experimental groups relied heavily on uptakes that prompted further input from the interlocutor; however, its average use in this test replicates the same mean number observed in the novice level as found by Vandergrift (ibid). This strategy has witnessed gradual increase in the post-test and steady development in the delayed post-test. The linguistic knowledge enlargement and the command over its use which result in more comfort during interaction in the target language, as Vandergrift (ibid) puts, seem to be conducive to the increase in the use of this particular strategy. Another evidenced improvement was found in forward inferencing throughout the pre/post and delayed post-test, confirmed advanced level the participants in both experimental groups attained especially when considering Rost and Ross (1991) study which proved that forward inference strategy is

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used only by the more advanced listeners (as cited in Vandergrift, ibid, p.500). Likewise, Hypothesis testing gradually increased with each test. The last two strategies revealed a qualitative difference at each successive test, that is to say instead of overtly seeking clarification or verifying comprehension, more subtle ways to signal these communication needs were observed. This is according to Vandergrift (1997) is a sign of becoming more proficient as there was "less need to … verify comprehension" (Vandergrift, ibid, p.500) as a result of the internalisation of the language.

The internalisation of the linguistic knowledge is believed to be due to the simulation activities which overlapped the pre/post-tests in this study as this type of activities is considered as untaught events (Jones, 1982, p. 2), as a result participants acquire how to communicate and thus use reception strategies, adhering as an implicit need during simulation activities. When a communication breakdown occurs, participants will be automatically involved in negotiating meaning to find the way to understand each other, besides they use verbal and nonverbal messages to clarify meaning. Accordingly, the participants became more comfortable with the language use in interactional setting. This comfort led some listeners to seek clarification or further input covertly/imperceptibly, while those who solved misunderstanding problems overtly revealed high and good command over the linguistic knowledge they used to fulfil this need. The successful overt verbal behaviour of listeners observed in the post-test and the delayed post-test is believed to be due to the instructional framework followed in the briefing stage for the simulations in which students were provided with lists of expressions they were recommended to use whenever a need to clarify, verify or prompt further meaning is urged.

The real-time aspect, simulations brought to language use, freed the students from the cognitive constrains that might prevent them to perform better in real-life situations especially as simulation involve high proportion of realism. Specific reprise strategy, unlike

Vandergrift's study results, was either absent or very rare in use in the pre-test, as observed in both experimental groups; however, after implementing the research treatment, some traces of this strategy use, have been noticed. The appearance of this strategy, in spite of its little use, signals the fact that simulations stimulate the clarification of specific information at local use. The growth or the appearance of uptakes, hypothesis testing, forward inference and specific reprise signals the intermediate level of the listeners, Vandergrift (1997) notes.

A marked decline in kinesics, global reprise and faking was also observed throughout the three tests employed in this study. Overt kinesics, global reprise and faking, in the pre-test, were all signs of novice level. However with their decline, students move to be more proficient according Vandergrift (ibid) who says that the more these strategies disappear, the more the listener becomes proficient. The advanced proficiency level is accompanied with empowering the students cognitive ability as the more they understand, the less they encounter doubt in understanding and thus urge to ask repetition or rephrasing.

In short, the successive exposure to consistent real-like interactions during simulations, helped second year students to develop automatic internalised response and controlled feedback whenever a communication breakdown appears. This has been proved by Vandergrift' saying (ibid): "with prolonged language exposure … learners internalized more language. This exposure allowed them process groups of words ("chunking"), leaving attentional energy for giving feedback to the speaker, continually advancing the conversation" (p.501). The cognitive maturation, hence, helped EFL students, in this study, to identify the problem and treat it. The prolonged language exposure, students in this study benefited from through simulations, involved students more in the language use and thus they became cooperative partners in the communication. This is what real social interaction requires according to Vandergrift (ibid), joint incorporation from all involved interlocutors to advance the conversation. The research hypothesis stated at the beginning of this study ' when teachers

apply simulation activities in second year EFL classrooms, this would develop listening proficiency' has been partly confirmed as the increase or the decrease in the reception strategies use, which have direct influence on culminating the advanced proficiency levels, was conservatively considerable. To enlarge the reception strategies use in interactional setting upon shortly, some implications about simulations' implementation have to be made.

7.6.2   Speaking Proficiency Results: A Qualitative Analysis

Despite the fact that a considerable amount of participants (over the half) in exp. g. 1 confessed their grammatical weakness and the same proportion in exp. g. 2 claimed the opposite, as has been revealed in the questionnaire, the pre-test results show a severe deficiency in students' grammar in both experimental groups. The test before the intervention has detected the most problematic areas students suffer from: the past tense, subject-verb agreement and prepositions. On the post-test, the results show students' effective command over the grammatical structures for example students tend to use more subordinate clauses. The correctness and variance of the grammatical structures is attributed to students' self-evaluation of their simulations in the debriefing session which allowed them to spot their mistakes. Besides the pre-task employed before the use of simulations gave the students a deep insight into the genre they were required to communicate. This procedure allowed the students more flexibility and comfort when they use the language and thus resulted in complex correct grammar. Furthermore, students seem to distinguish between standard grammar and spoken grammar as they used ellipsis, contractions, and tag questions in more occasion than they used them in the pre-test. Another significant grammar improvement has been revealed which is the manipulation of language functions. Before the intervention, the results show the students' ability to signal the right language function, however, they were unable to use the appropriate lexical phrases and expressions to signal them. Due to the naturalistic use of language and variable situations provided in the simulations, students

succeeded to retrieve the expressions, they learned in the pre-task whenever they needed to convey language functions.

Vocabulary has witnessed an average improvement in the post-test. Before intervention students revealed a limited vocabulary use. Students' vocabulary was characterised by its simplicity, weak collocations, and narrow variety. On the post-test, some students could use a greater variety of vocabulary and correct grammatical collocation, however lexical collocation seem to be problematic to students. This fact is attributed to the nature of the topic being discussed in the test. With respect to the humble improvement of vocabulary, which was most probably due to the explicit focus on vocabulary use while evaluating the simulations, students seem to recognise and use the words in terms of their suitability to the topic being discussed. Furthermore, students' negotiation of meaning during the simulations helped the students supply the appropriate lexis in the social context. Another helping strategy helped the students to use vocabulary effectively is providing the students with ready-made expressions they can use to convey the language functions. This strategy helped formalize and vary the students' vocabulary in the limited time vocabulary was used effectively in the post-test.

Over the half of the students in both experimental groups opted for the option slightly difficult in exp. g. 1 and the option difficult in exp. g. 2 in the students' questionnaire results, when they were asked about pronunciation. These results have been proved by the pre-test results as the main problems noticed in students' pronunciation is stress and intonation. The results reveal also good ability in the articulation of English sounds; however, these findings show that students seem unaware of the assimilation of words phonetically. On the post-test a considerable but not deep improvement has been realised in intonation, stress and no improvement has been seen in students' ability to assimilate sounds. On one hand, this unsatisfactory development of pronunciation is most probably owing to the long training students need to develop their pronunciation. The slight progress noticed in the post-test, is on

the other hand, due to exposing the students to authentic samples of spoken language in the preparatory stage for the simulations which facilitated the use of pronunciation features during the simulated performance. Besides, the self and peer evaluation, students were engaged in the post-task (follow up session), helped the learners identify their own and their peers pronunciation errors through competing together to look for mistakes and provide alternative realizations of the errors or check their dictionaries.

Before the experiment, students' spoken performance was incoherent in general. When speaking about fluency, pauses are one of the important speech characteristics that are counted to judge students' fluency. Students' speech delivery was in general slow and utterances were characterized by few pauses, hesitations that impeded communication Students had many incomplete sentences which required very often the interruption of their peers. Even when the students' spoken discourse did not contain many pauses, nevertheless, it was characterized by illogic sequences of thoughts as students used approximately no cohesive devices. The aforementioned deficiency of students' discourse before the experiment can be attributed to the students' over-thinking about their ideas and how they can get them across to the listener rather than organise them in well-structured discourse. After the experiment, students' discourse was moderately organised coherently and cohesively. It contained grammatical and lexical references to combine the stretches of utterances logically. Besides, exposing students to samples of authentic spoken discourse, the teachers' role in drawing the students' attention to how speakers organise their utterances and plan their thoughts, and the memorised expressions they learned in the pre-task stage espoused the students thinking about how to organise their ideas and utterances. Planning discourse was improved as students became more aware of the importance of introducing, concluding and changing the topic. The enhancement of the discourse overall structure is because of different factors, among them drawing the students' attention to the absence of the cohesive devices

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and discourse markers in their discourse in the simulations and their effect on the spontaneity and clarity of their performance when they analysed, with the teacher, their recorded simulations in the debriefing stage. Moreover, as students became more motivated because of the simulation activities, they indulged in the conversation without hesitation.

Students' interactional competence has remarkably developed. On the pre-test students could manage their interaction, but no properly; turn-taking was not respected, some of adjacency pairs were not achieved, for example in question-answer adjacency pair listeners ignored the question and move on in the conversation. The pre-task stage helped students to organise their conversation and manage turn-taking by raising their consciousness towards the role of the listener in the interaction. Thus, students were encouraged to be involved through checking their understanding, encouraging the use of backchannels, showing interest and asking for clarification. It goes without saying that watching video recordings of students' simulations sheds some light on particular conversation features that help students to keep the conversation going as students get authentic evaluation of their speaking-hearer communicative act.

Related to the analysis above, the statistical measurement proved the aforementioned improvement of the speaking skill components. In other words, it has been proved that the implementation of simulation technique improved the student's speaking skill. Worth mentioning, both experimental groups started with the same conditions; they had no differences in their speaking proficiency level and the internal differences in each group were slightly noticeable. After the treatment, the result of the students' speaking performance showed that communication oral performance has improved in both experimental groups. This interpretation was supported by the paired sample t-test which highlighted the decrease in the students' speaking proficiency discrepancy which was revealed in the pre-test. The conclusion which can be drawn from these results is that simulation activities could manage

mixed ability groups by attenuating the differences among the individuals. Students' learning styles, lack of commitment, personal conflicts, shyness and students working primarily for the final mark which lead to speaking proficiency level internal individual distinction could be treated through simulation activities as this kind of activities is interactive, immersive, enjoyable, and naturalistic. Besides it requires full cooperation between all the individuals which in turn help create a relaxed and friendly atmosphere for sharing learning in the classroom. The alternative habits students acquired after having simulation activities have been revealed in the results of the questionnaire which showed that students' involvement in teaching and learning process improved as before the intervention, students tended to be passive when they joined speaking class. They felt shy and reluctant to speak up and to express their idea orally. Gradually the data showed the activation of more students. Therefore, it can be concluded that simulation is completely pertinent to teach speaking. The delayed test proved the validity of experimental design as any significant improvement in speaking proficiency level was only due to simulation activities. Students in both experimental groups could capture the effects of the simulation activities for longer time (one month after the post intervention), but hardly achieve any significant difference in their proficiency level when they are no longer engaged in the simulations. All the former interpretations lead us to confirm the hypothesis: when teachers apply simulation activities, this would improve second year EFL students' speaking proficiency. In short, when students' speaking and listening proficiency have been developed, their communication proficiency has been enhanced as well.

All the results reached so far, out of all the experimental tools used in this study (questionnaires and tests), promote the implementation of simulation activities in second year OE classes. Furthermore, this conclusion is supported by the teachers who, despite the fact that most of them favour role-play than simulations, 90% of them believe that the simulations

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are 'effective' and 'very effective' to develop students' oral/aural communication. Additionally, the students' positive attitudes and high interest towards the simulation activities confirm the conclusion stated above.

7.7 Pedagogical Implications

7.7.1 The Advantage and the Effectiveness of Simulation Activities

Simulation activities are proved to be applicable to second year students as they showed, like any other EFL students, more interest in authentic and spontaneous language use which they found in the simulation activities (see Chapter Two, Sub-section 2.4 Simulation in ELT Context, p.65). According to the students' questionnaire, the entire exp. g.1 and 85% of exp. g. 2 held positive attitudes towards simulation activities after experimenting them (see Chapter Five, p.196) as according to them due to the simulations, they became more motivated, confident, free, active, and interested and less hesitant, anxious, and embarrassed. Additionally, the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire (see Chapter Six, p. 217) reveals that the majority of the teachers agreed on the necessity to consider and implement this technique in the second year syllabus. Despite the fact that the plausibility of bringing complex authentic spoken language to the language classroom is hardly attainable as it has been believed that authenticity cannot be recreated in the classroom, simulation activities seem not to conform with this belief because they yielded many technicalities that approach the student's first language role or new foreign language role and thus produce the language that the learner most probably needs in real-life situation (Herbert and Sturtridge, 1979, p. 59) (See Chapter Two, Sub-section 2.1.6 Simulation vs. Real-life Task, p.57). Therefore simulation can be an effective platform to teach different aspects of real speaking which students are going to use when they communicate in real-life situations, including short ideas units, spoken grammar, fillers and repeats, etc. as seen in Chapter One, Sub-section 1.1.4 Speaking in Real Time, p. 17. Interactional strategies, reception strategies, problem-solving

and decision making abilities, and confidence are few among many of the gains students had in this study due to the interactions in the simulations.

The adequacy and applicability of the simulation activities in OE classes, in particular, is of paramount importance. Brown (2001) announces the spectrum of learner needs, from language-based focus on accuracy to message-based focus on interaction, meaning, and fluency as principles for designing speaking techniques. As has been discussed in Chapter Two, Sub-section Benefits of Simulation (p. 58), simulation activity helps develop fluency and interpersonal relationships which promote meaning negotiation. Based on these assertions, simulation activities seem to be adequate at an earlier stage: first and second years where the instruction is based primarily on psychological priorities as students want first to break the bearer that hinders their speech rather than formalize or articulate their English. In addition, the fact that cannot be ignored is that students in a simulation are going to acquire the communication behaviors that real conversations necessitate.

Many activities demand effective speakers of the target language to be conducted successfully, but not in simulation because students are encouraged to operate in real-life situations which may require adhering to complex linguistic level but not necessary native like language. All that students have to do in simulations is to immerse themselves in group work where they share the amount of body of knowledge they learned. The teacher's role then is to be careful when forming the groups because operating within the same level in long-term simulations might be demotivating and less challenging. In this case, the teacher's management strategies in designing cooperative work are of paramount importance to ensure the benefit of the maximum number of students.

7.7.2 The Pedagogical Principles of Teaching Speaking and Listening through Simulation Activities

To help students adhere to the function they should perform in the simulation, every participant should understand that simulation is not about pretending/acting like a chef executive officer, but rather doing the job of a chef executive officer. Role play activities seem to be a good starting point to the explanation of this simulation feature and it might be followed by a clear briefing about the function being addressed in the simulation. This briefing can be done in the form of project where participants investigate the function they will take on deeply, by making research or interviewing real people functioning in the same job, students supposed to perform during the simulation. The good briefing in this point would help participants change their internal properties to match the perceived ones found in the person meant to be replicated in the simulation. In opposition, the biggest challenge for teachers is to adhere to the right role during the simulation. In the theoretical part for this thesis, there has been a discussion about the role the teacher s/he should assume during this type of activity (see Chapter Two, Sub-section 2.4.1 Simulation in the Language Classroom, p.66). It has been agreed that the teacher's role in simulations is to be a controller. Jones (1982, p. 40) clarifies the teacher's role as follows "a person who controls the flow of traffic, tries to avoid bottlenecks, but does not tell individual motorists the direction of their journeys." This explanation clearly demonstrates the teacher's role in terms of what he should not do, that is to say avoiding interference during the task, for example the teacher should not suggest ideas to participants to solve problems or make decisions because participants are responsible for solving assigned problems and making decisions in the simulation. Assuming the controller role could be a hard task for teachers, first some teachers could not prevent themselves from interfering in students' learning to ensure better learning, while others are obliged to interfere because of the students' overwhelming need for step-by-step guidance.

Accordingly, a good explanation and understanding of the simulation activities would ease the assumption of the students' role and thus the teachers' role as well.

The strategy instructional framework would be better if it includes explicit focused-impetus. Apparently giving learners a list of ready-made expressions they can use in order to solve communication problems and then provide them with the authentic situation to train themselves for their use seem not to be enough, the instructional sequence provided by Vandergrift (1997, p. 502) seem to be properly a systematic way of teaching the reception strategies in the briefing stage in the simulations. It would include the following three steps: "(a) provide students with expressions to clarify meaning and confirm comprehension, (b) develop and present training videos where listeners engaged in interactive listening demonstrate the use of a number of different reception strategies, and (c) model and practice the use of the different expressions and strategies in class." Step (c) would be better achieved through the simulation activities as has been proved by the results achieved in this study, while in step (b) it would more efficient to stop the video whenever the listener in the video is having a communication breakdown and then ask the students to solve it as if they were in his place. This procedure may give the learners the chance to know their ability to solve misunderstanding problems and identify what strategy they lack in order to enhance the communication.

Related to the text above, another pedagogical principle of equal significance appeared to be important to speak about. The role of audio-visual materials in providing the comprehensible input which will students' later on use to produce an effective comprehensible output is prerequisite in the interaction (simulations) (see Chapter One, Sub-section 1.1.2 Speaking Paradigm: Comprehension, Production, and Interaction, p. 13). We noticed that using a variety of materials that are based mainly on listening and watching are more likely to achieve better teaching and learning results. These materials play great role in

eliciting the conversational behaviours students need to perform in the simulation as has been discussed in Chapter Two, Subsection 2.4.5 The Use of Authentic Video in Simulation, p.72). In other words, how interlocutors encode meaning, provide feedback, the relationship between interlocutors and the contextual influence, etc. is clearly explained through the video Thus, the rationality and the urge to use these multimedia tools is because of the need to hear and see the native speakers communication behavior in real-life situations rather than only read about them. This important implication leads us to earnestly demand equipped language laboratories with the necessary tools, such as tapes and audio-visual means in order to vividly activate students' oral communication and help teachers to pragmatically achieve the aforementioned purpose.

Debriefing is the most critical stage of the simulation process. When there is no evaluation of what students' did during the simulation, students will not be able to trace their language development that is why Jones (1982, p. 47) suggests that it would be a good idea to start the debriefing by asking each participant to explain briefly what s/he did and why. Debriefing is about how much students were successful in communication, that is to say tracing the aspects of the communicative behaviours the teachers concentrated on. This stage is meant to keep learners involved in the event of the simulation even after they finished it. In short, the debriefing of the students' experience of success and failure in the simulation, may create an ample amount of learning and acquisition which is unsurprisingly, cognitively undemanding during the simulations. Due to the comprehensible and real nature of the simulations, students had to focus more on communication rather than the effectiveness and the manifestation of their language (see Chapter Two, Sub-section Simulation: Acquisition vs. Learning, p.67).

Finally, a crucial implication is drawn from the experiment results which revealed a slow change in the reception strategies throughout the three tests employed in this study.

Worth to say, this result sheds light on important implication about the use of simulation activities. The three months students spent in the simulation appeared not to be enough to trigger more strategy use, thus the reception strategies' use in the post-test and delayed post-test was moderately noticeable. This result implied the fact that the simulation's use can be prolonged to give the students more times to internalize the linguistic knowledge and thus the language use.

7.8 Pedagogical Recommendations

This experimental study branches a number of further research lines. First, more time and effort should be devoted to the enhancement of simulation use in EFL classrooms by paying more attention to the simulated environment which was the Achilles heel in the classroom practice due to the shortage of equipment that may help to resemble the real environment being simulated. There was a total reliance on chairs and tables to resemble the simulated environment which was conducive to a description of the environment to help the students to accept the perceived environment. Second, briefing can be one of the important facets of the future research, especially when it is coined with persuading learners to take on a function in the simulation. We suggest, in the light of the experience we gained about simulations through this study, a thorough discussion about the function of the characters participants would take on in the briefing.

Another recommendation for the future research might focus on the reception strategies use in relation to unequal relationship in the interaction through the simulation activities. In other words, students might have been engaged in communication with their teachers, nonnative speakers with advanced levels and native speakers. This procedure would first enlarge the students' perception of the language use in real-life situation where they can meet interlocutors who have high command over the communication and second give more chances to encounter and produce variety of reception skills they could not use in peer-to-peer

interaction, especially specific reprise and hypothesis testing. Speaking about the reception strategies which are the motor of interactive listening, more attentional effort should be devoted to explicitly teach the reception strategies, learners can use during the interaction. Precisely, students should be explicitly taught to abandon the use of kinesics and faking and should be encouraged to use more specific reprise and hypothesis testing instead. Within the same vein, learners can be provided with topics that motivate more negotiation of meaning. The teacher should apply conscious-raising strategy before and after the simulation in order to draw the intentional work towards improving the strategy use to enhance the communication.

When speaking about the themes being treated in the simulations, for the Algerian students it seems hard to adopt others' (foreign) simulations because of the cultural background they might be based on. Therefore, it is preferable to design simulations that fit the students' social requirements and cultural tendency. However, teaching intercultural competence through simulations is possible because this type of activities can clearly illustrate FL culture. When the learner takes part in different simulations, this will give them a chance to experience temporarily the target language culture. This experience can be considered as conscious-raising activity towards the differences that exist between his own culture and the target language culture. Therefore, simulations provide ample opportunities to deal with the problems of "real" intercultural situations. These simulations would be the first step towards preparing the students to be integrated in more complex and original simulations that are designed and implemented in the FL classrooms. Based on the above results and conclusions, it is then recommended to investigate the effect and the practicability of this technique especially in the light of the fact that the cultural competence is easy to be explained but difficult to be performed. Another line of research can trace the effect of simulation activities on the way students introspect their own performance in relation to the

cognitive and social factors that may have impact on strategy use and choice in listening and communication behaviours in speaking.

Taken in isolation, the results of this study are not restricted to OE classes, but can be achieved in other classes. Therefore, we can argue that simulation activities should be experimented with other aspects of English language teaching such as reading skills, writing skills, grammar, pragmatics, civilization etc. All that is needed is then having the students expressed an interest in the topic of the proposed simulation which is supposed to answer the needed criteria, mainly the plausibility in terms of naturalness and practicality. Thereby, students will desire the simulation activity for the sake of originality as they express themselves via the target language, not like in role-play activity where they have to pretend other character and thus feel they are artificially learning.

Being a controller in the simulation activities might be challenging for some teachers, however staying in the classroom while the simulation takes place is necessary for the teachers especially to ensure that students translate teacher's explanations into practice rather than relying on the teacher to model the different situations under study in his presence. Perhaps the teacher's being in the classroom will not distract students, but it is still really difficult to monitor the students' performance instantly; nevertheless, the teacher should take notes on the errors out of sight of the students. Thus, in this case recording equipment may be necessary to detect the physical and verbal behavior during the simulations.

The innovative and pragmatic nature of the simulations breeds sense of fulfillment and satisfaction in students' learning. In this study, simulations were used as a pedagogical learning tool; however, simulations are widely used in the assessment procedure nowadays when it was only a suggestion several years ago. Jones (1982, p. 77) puts what seems to be a forthcoming statement about the usefulness of simulations in language testing: "The time

seems to be ripe for extending their use . . . particularly in the field of language assessment." Investigating the technicalities of the simulations and the right procedures that should be implemented in the assessment process is a good starting point for future research. Another area which can be investigated is the construct simulations intend to measure and to what extent the results can be reliable and accurate. When testing the language per se construct is clear (see Chapter Two, Sub-section 2.5 Simulation Discourse Analysis, p.74); however, in other fields, where non-linguistic behavior is investigated, the assessment through simulation is discriminated so far.

7.9 Limitations of the Study

Although careful procedures were taken soberly to ensure a feasible study, there were still some limitations due to different factors. Firstly, the first obstacle we faced in the experiment was due to the sample itself as it was hard to match all the participants in both experimental groups. The problem was caused by the random assignment of both groups to the researcher by the department. Besides both groups have small size of approximately 20 students. In fact, this criterion was of minor influence on the experiment results as simulations are best manageable when implementing in small groups; however, the matching procedure was difficult as there was a slight chance to find the match of all the students in a very narrow spectrum of speaking level. Secondly, in regard to the treatment process, there was another obstacle as due to the fact that students did not know that they were enrolled in an experiment, the presence of some students was fluctuating. Therefore, some students did not get the full benefit of all the simulations we had during the experimental period. Another restriction appeared when dealing with the questionnaire data which was at best suggestive. The questionnaire's data reliability was uncertain because of the sincerity of the students' responses when completing the questionnaire. In spite of the sample deficiencies, the researcher managed to control the experiment conditions, collect and analyse the findings.

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When speaking about the treatment, the first restriction faced the researcher was the unfamiliarity of both experimental groups with the simulation technique, however, this problem could have been managed as well. Having the former problem solved, we have encountered another challenge, especially with some students who were shy and reluctant to speak because of worrying to make mistakes in front of the teacher and their classmates and others who did not want to be involved in expressing opinion or arguing others opinions. But again due to the immersive nature of the simulations those students could break these fears and deficiencies cumulatively by time they got involved in more simulations. In spite of the fact that time was not a clear constraint in this experiment as OE class was scheduled in two separate sessions per week, it would have been better if there was a third session in the same week which was devoted to the debriefing stage. It would be better if this condition has been achieved as students will still be involved in the simulation events and remember what they exactly did in the simulation. Along with time constraints, place constraint is of high importance to satisfy all the conditions for the simulation. First there was lack of equipment which may help create the simulated environment for the simulations. Second, laboratories, where the largest part of the preparation for the simulations takes place, were not fully equipped and sometimes unavailable.

Conclusion

As for conclusion, the results of this study which are reported out of an experiment have strong evidenced conclusions. In particular, the results validated the two study hypotheses stated: simulation enhances the students' speaking and listening proficiency, and it boosts their communication. The pre-test results revealed very weak command over the reception strategies. Students relied heavily on paralinguistic features of language due to their weak language package. The post-test results showed positive effect of the simulation activities on students' communication as their speaking and listening have improved. Students were much

closer to the native listener's behaviour when they start using explicit and direct requests for clarification of meaning. Simulations also helped students enhance their fluency, vocabulary and interactional competence. The instructional treatment succeeded in improving the classroom atmosphere which was reflected in the positive attitudes, high interest and confidence. In short, simulation's linguistic and non-linguistic benefits, the teacher and students have derived, were much pervasive throughout the whole study.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Over the past few decades, innovative language teaching has assumed significant place in second/foreign language instruction. There has been a shift from explicit focus on the linguistic properties of a language to an emphasis on the production and comprehension of meaning. This shift has clearly put extra demands on active learning techniques in which recent research has proved the efficacy of simulation technique which is commonly believed as the most active learning technique. Thus, the simulation literature has grown solid roots in the foreign language pedagogy. The realm of reality and flexible interaction are viewed as the most crucial elements which give practicality, feasibility and viability to this technique in the foreign language class, particularly in the Oral Expression class. Nevertheless, there was a weak research effort made to highlight the existence and effectiveness of the simulation activities in the foreign Oral Expression classes. Thereby, this exploratory work aims at proving the positive effects simulations yield to the Oral Expression class at the Department of Letters and the English Language, University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1. This thesis considers the speaking skill and the listening skill together and provides an overview about the integration of both skills in communicative interactive tasks. It also discusses all the issues related to the nature of the simulation activities and the technicalities which pertain to its implementation in the language classroom, and then gives considerable account to how simulation engenders and strengthens the communication in academic context (Chapter One, Chapter Two, and Chapter Three). These chapters serve to elicit background information on which the practical work is designed.

All the information described in the literature review has been clearly demonstrated in the description of the simulation instruction (Chapter Four). As whatever would be implemented in the foreign language classroom has to guarantee the approval of the students

and teachers, this study investigated the students' attitudes and opinions (Chapter Five) and teachers' views (Chapter Six) about the simulation activities. The students' questionnaire has been employed to check the second hypothesis: if the simulation teaching technique is applied, it would stimulate second year students' interests and positive attitudes. In the light of the analysis of students' questionnaire, the hypothesis has been confirmed. This confirmation gave credence to the aim stated for this study. Moreover, teachers' views support the idea of implementing this technique. In spite of the fact that over the half of teachers were oriented towards the use of role-play activities over the simulation activities, most of the teachers realised the positive effects of simulation on students themselves and classroom environment and thus approved the viability of this technique in the Oral Expression class. Additionally, although the teachers were not fully familiar with the technique, they expressed a welcome opinion to implement it.

On the basis of data collected from the pre/post-test and delayed post-test (Chapter Seven), we have tested the two first hypotheses: when teachers apply simulation technique in EFL classroom, this would develop students' listening and speaking proficiency, and if teachers focus on developing listening and speaking proficiency in Oral Expression class, students communicative competence would improve. The analysis of the pre-test has proved the variability of the students speaking and listening levels. Students in both experimental groups started with weak speaking level and listening proficiency hinges between novice and intermediate level. The post-test results have revealed a positive change in students speaking and listening proficiency; however, students could bridge their speaking proficiency gap, whereas their listening proficiency remained variable and unmatched. We have come to the conclusion that the first half of the first hypothesis was confirmed, but the second was partially validated. Indeed, simulation activities have remarkably illustrated the concrete relationship between comprehensible input and output through the naturalistic interaction they

create in the classroom. Experimental group1exhibited stabilised improvement in the delayed post-test, whereas, experimental group 2 showed slight improvement in the speaking and listening levels. The analysis signalled the fact that simulation helps students approximate more natural output which might be produced in real contexts in a long term basis. The conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data collected throughout the study have grown clear incidence of the students' communicative competence growth by equipping them with more linguistic resources and strategic choices. Besides it embedded pragmatic and sociolinguistic manipulation of the language.

We highlight then, as far as the simulation activities conformed to the students' needs and attitudes as well as teachers' perspectives on teaching, thereby they are efficient. The variability of the linguistic and non-linguistic benefits of the simulation made us recommend to widely applying this technique in Oral Expression class in the long run to enable students experiment reality in safe environment. To put it another way, students can only interact naturally and spontaneously when they are immersed in a wider variety of real-life spoken contexts where they activate their language resources. All the conservative opinions of using simulations in foreign classrooms are recommended to be discussed in the forthcoming further research.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX I:

The pilot Pre-Questionnaire

Dear students

This questionnaire is a part of a research on English language teaching methodologies and techniques used by teachers at the department of letters and English language. It aims at collecting data about the current level of students' language proficiency and proves the efficacy of simulation-based instruction in enhancing students' speaking and listening proficiency.

I would be thankful if you complete this questionnaire. Try to provide sincere answers; I am waiting for credible and confidential responses. Your contribution will be of a great importance for the completion of this research.

I really appreciate your cooperation.

Personal profile

24. Age:……   sex: male ☐   female ☐

Academic Profile

25. Field of study: …………………..

26. Degree obtained: License ☐   Master ☐   Ph. D. ☐

English Education

1. How many years did you study English? ……
2. Do you consider English: important ☐   unimportant ☐   optional ☐   necessary ☐
3. For what reason/s do you think you need to learn English?

   Future job   ☐

   Further studies   ☐

   Going abroad   ☐

   Writing e-mail or any academic paper   ☐

   Communicating with foreigners via social media (facebook, twitter, skype, etc.) ☐

   Other reasons (specify please)

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

Classroom Focus/Materials/Participation

1. At what frequency the following language skills were taught last year?

Language skill	Always	Sometimes	Never
Reading			
Listening			
Writing			
Speaking			

2. According to you, which language skill/s that should have more focus?

…………………………………………………………………………………………...

3. What are the kinds of materials were used in the English class last year?

Textbook ☐   Handouts ☐   Videos ☐   Audio recordings ☐

4. Did the English class help you to improve your English?   Yes ☐   No ☐

   ❖ If No, have you ever felt the need for a better learning in English?

   Yes ☐   No ☐

5. Did you have any chance to speak in English in the classroom in the year?

   Yes ☐   No ☐

   ❖ If yes can you give a percentage % of the speaking opportunities you had, what would it be? (0% to 20% rarely, 20% to 50% sometimes, 50% to70% often, and 70% to 90% often)   …………………….

6. What kind of speaking activities were used in English class last year?

   Describing pictures   ☐

   Oral presentation of a research   ☐

   Listening to audio or video materials and then discuss it with partner/s   ☐

   Playing a game like solving puzzles orally   ☐

   Never have speaking activities   ☐

   ❖ If you had other activities, specify them please.

   …………………………………………………………………………………………..

7. What kind of listening material(s) you had in the English class last year?

   Listening to the teacher   ☐

   Listening to audio materials   ☐

   Watching videos   ☐

8. Were these/this material(s) helpful in improving your Listening comprehension?

Yes ☐   No ☐

9. How much did you participate orally in English class?

Always   ☐

Often   ☐

Rarely   ☐

Never   ☐

English Speaking and Listening Proficiency

10. Are you able to speak English confidently?
       Yes ☐   No ☐

11. If you have difficulties in speaking, what are the aspects that prevent you from speaking (Classify them, giving 1for the most difficult, 2 to the less difficult and 3 to the least difficult and so on)

Speaking Aspect	**Classification**
Fluency	
Pronunciation	
Fear of mistakes	
Inability to express clear ideas	
Grammar	
Lack of vocabulary	

12. According to you, being able to speak and listen is:
    Very important ☐

    Unimportant   ☐

    Slightly needed   ☐

13. Do you think you need speaking reinforcement courses?
       Yes ☐   No ☐

14. What kind of activities would you like to have in order to reinforce your speaking skill? Order the following activities from 1 the most favorable to 7 the least desired)

Speaking Activity	Classification
Oral interview	
Picture/story description	
Information gap (one person has information and his partner does not, the information should be described in details via physical objects, and a linguistic command of colors, shape, sizes, directions and sequences)	
Story/text Retelling	
Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios)	
Oral reports	
Debates	

15. How can you assess your ability in listening to English (tick off the right answer)

Very good   ☐

Good   ☐

Average   ☐

Weak   ☐

Very weak   ☐

16. Which aspect/s constitute(s) the problem for you in listening?

Speed of speech   ☐

The accent   ☐

The vocabulary used in the speech   ☐

Ungrammatical sentences (informal speech)   ☐

17. Do you like watching videos and listening to recordings in the classroom to help you boost your listening proficiency?

     Yes   ☐   No   ☐

18. Inside the classroom, do you like to do activities:

Individually   ☐

In pairs ☐

In small group ☐

In large group ☐

19. If you have a chance to go abroad in a non-Arabic country can you communicate in English
    (as the international language) with the people of that country (e.g., when ask for direction,
    book a room in hotel, make a phone call, present a paper, make an academic discussion)?
    Yes ☐   No ☐

20. Do you like courses that prepare you for such situations?
    Yes ☐   No ☐

APPENDIX II:

The Pilot Post-questionnaire

Dear students

  This questionnaire is a part of a research on English language teaching techniques and tasks used by teachers at the department of letters and English language to teach Oral Expression module. It aims at collecting data about the current level of students' language proficiency and proves the efficacy of Role play activities in enhancing students' speaking and listening proficiency.

I would be thankful if you complete this questionnaire. Try to provide sincere answers; I am waiting for credible and confidential responses. Your contribution will be of a great importance for the completion of this research.

I really appreciate your cooperation.

Learners' attitudes/participation

1. Did the Oral Expression class in this semester help you to improve your speaking skill?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

  ❖ If No, do you feel the need for a better learning in English?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

2. Do you feel you had more chance to speak in English in the classroom in this semester, because you did role play activities?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

3. How much did you participate orally in English class in this semester?

Always   ☐

Often   ☐

Rarely   ☐

Never   ☐

4. Did you have activities of the same kind in the past?

    Yes   ☐   No ☐

1. You have dealt with many oral activities during the years you have been learning English. In this semester, you dealt with role play activities. Would you order the following activities

according to how much they developed your speaking and listening skills? (Order the following activities from 1 the most effective to 7 the least efficient)

Speaking Activity	Classification
Oral interview	
Picture/story description	
Information gap (one person has information and his partner does not, the information should be described in details via physical objects, and a linguistic command of colors, shape, sizes, directions and sequences)	
Story/text Retelling	
Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios)	
Oral reports	
Debates	

5. Did you enjoy the role play activities?

Very much ☐

Much ☐

Not really ☐

Not at all ☐

6. Do you think that these activities are useful?

Very useful ☐

Useful ☐

Useless ☐

Very useless ☐

7. How can judge the role play activities?
Highly interactive ☐

Interactive ☐

Not interactive at all ☐

English Speaking and Listening Proficiency

8. How is your speaking ability now as a result of role play activities?
Very good ☐

Good   ☐

Average   ☐

Never improved   ☐

9. Please rate the following aspects of speaking proficiency according to how much role play activities were helpful in improving them

   1. Very helpful   2. Somewhat helpful   3. Not at all helpful

Speaking Aspect	1. Very helpful	2. Somewhat helpful	3. Not at all helpful
Fluency			
Pronunciation			
Fear of mistakes			
express clear ideas			
Grammar			
Vocabulary			

10. Please choose which of the following claims is true for you? (tick off the right column)

Claim	True	False
My self- confidence increased because I worked in pairs and small group during role play activities.		
I feel less embarrassed and hesitant when I try to speak in English in front of the class.		
I am not afraid of making mistakes in front of the class.		
If I do not understand something in English, I can ask the other person to slow down or say it again.		
I am able to rephrase properly any point if there is a misunderstanding.		
I can interact freely with others in English. I like the interaction with my classmates during role play activities.		

I can properly use the correct register (formal vs; informal).		
I can use the spoken grammar correctly (ellipsis, repetition, reduced forms…etc.)		
My linguistic skills are developed as a result of role play activities.		
Because of interaction during role play activities, my speaking mistakes are reduced.		

11. What kind of listening material(s) you had in the Oral Expression class in this semester?

Listening to the teacher ☐

Listening to audio materials ☐

Watching videos ☐

12. According to you, which of the forgoing materials is helpful in improving your Listening comprehension?

………………………………………………………………………………….

13. How can you assess your ability in listening to English after you had role play activities? (tick off the right answer)

Very good ☐

Good ☐

Average ☐

Weak ☐

Very weak ☐

14. Which aspect/s of spoken language you feel you became acquainted with in listening?

Speed of speech ☐

The accent ☐

The vocabulary used in the speech ☐

Understanding spoken grammar (the use ellipsis, reduced forms ☐

Understanding different registers (formal vs. informal) ☐

15. Inside the classroom, did you do role play activities?

Individually ☐

In pairs ☐

In small group ☐

In large group ☐

➢ Which of the performance patterns mentioned in question 15 do you prefer?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

16. How do you prefer to be corrected?

A.

By your teacher ☐

By yourself ☐

By your classmates ☐

B.

During the activity ☐

After the activity ☐

17. If you have a chance to go abroad in a non-Arabic country can you communicate in English (as the international language) with the people of that country (e.g., when asking for direction, booking a room in hotel, making a phone call, presenting a paper, and make an academic discussion)?

Yes ☐   No ☐

18. Do you feel that role play activities prepared you for such situations? In other words, do you feel that role play activities are adequately preparing you to engage in casual spontaneous conversation and formal speech with native or non-native speakers?

Yes ☐   No ☐

➢ Why or Why not?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………

19. What would you change in the role play activities to make them more effective for learning to speak and listen?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………..

I really appreciate your contribution.

EFL Students' Pre-questionnaire

Dear students

This questionnaire is a part of a research on English language teaching methodologies and techniques used by teachers at the department of letters and English language. It aims at collecting data about the perceived level of students' language proficiency and the efficacy of simulation-based instruction in enhancing students' speaking and listening proficiency.

I would be thankful if you complete this questionnaire. Please tick (√) or complete the answers where necessary. Your answers will be treated anonymously. I am waiting for credible and confidential responses. Your contribution will be of a great importance for the completion of this research.

I really appreciate your cooperation.

Section One: Personal profile

1. Age:……   sex: male   ☐   female ☐
2. How long have you been study English? ……

Section Two: English Education

3. Do you consider English: important   ☐unimportant   ☐optional   ☐necessary

4. For what reason/s do you think you need to learn English? ☐

a. Future job   ☐

b. Further studies   ☐

c. Going abroad   ☐

d. Writing e-mail or any academic paper   ☐

e. Communicating with foreigners via social media (facebook, twitter, skype, etc.)   ☐

f. Tourism (travelling)   ☐

   Other reasons (specify please……………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………

Section Three: Classroom Focus/Materials/Participation

5. At what frequency the following language skills were taught last year?

Language Skill	Always	Sometimes	Never
Reading			
Listening			
Writing			
Speaking			

6. According to you, which language skill/s that should have more focus?
………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. What kinds of materials were used in the Oral Expression class last year?

Textbook ☐   Handouts ☐   Videos ☐   Audio recordings ☐

8. Did the Oral Expression module help you to improve your English?

Yes ☐   No ☐

9. Did you have any chance to speak in English in the classroom last year?

Yes ☐   No ☐

10. How often did you participate orally in English class?

Always ☐

Often ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐

11. What kind of speaking activities did you have in the Oral Expression module last year?
a. Commenting pictures   ☐

b. Retelling a story   ☐

c. Presenting a research   ☐

d. Listening to audio or video materials and then discussing them with partner ☐

e. Playing games   ☐

❖ If you had other activities, specify them please.
………………………………………………………………………………………………..

12. What kind of listening material(s) did you mainly have in the Oral Expression class last year?
a. Listening to the teacher   ☐

b. Listening to audio materials   ☐

c. Watching videos ☐

13. Were these/this material(s) helpful in improving your listening comprehension?

        Yes ☐   No ☐

Section Four: English Speaking and Listening Proficiency

14. According to you, being able to speak and listen is:
Very important ☐

Slightly important ☐

Unimportant ☐

15. Tick the best answer, according to you, for each statement.

Statement of Ability	**I can**	**I cannot**
a. Be interviewed in English.		
b. Express opinion to native speakers in English.		
c. Solve misunderstanding problems.		
d. Make enquiries about anything in English.		
e. Engage in spontaneous authentic conversation in English with native speakers.		
f. Ask for clarification in English.		
g. Complain in English.		
h. Ask for and give directions.		
i. Present an academic paper in English.		
j. Make decision in English.		
k. Make suggestions.		
l. Agree and disagree in English.		
m. Persuade others in English.		
n. Greet others and introduce yourself in formal situations.		

16. If you have difficulties in speaking, what are the aspects that prevent you from speaking (Classify them according to the scale (1 to 5) of difficulty).

Speaking Aspect / Difficulty	Not difficult	Slightly difficult	Averagely difficult	Difficult	Very difficult
a. Fluency					
b. Pronunciation					
c. Fear of making mistakes					
d. Inability to express clear ideas					
e. Grammar					
f. Lack of vocabulary					
g. Class atmosphere (group size and noise)					
h. Time shortage					
Any other aspect? ……………………… ….					

17. Do you think you need speaking reinforcement courses?

Yes ☐   No ☐

18. What kind of activities would you like to have in order to reinforce your speaking skill?
(Order the following activities from 1 the least favourable to 5 the most desired)

Speaking Activity / Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a. Oral interview					
b. Picture description					
c. Information gap (one person has information and his partner does not, the information should be described in details via physical objects, and a linguistic command of colours,					

shape, sizes, directions and sequences)					
d. Story/text Retelling					
e. Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios)					
f. Oral reports					
g. Debates					
h. Discussion					
i. Presentation of a given topic					
Others please; specify ……………………… ……..					

19. How can you assess your ability in listening to English spoken language? (tick off (√) the right answer)

Very good ☐

Good ☐

Average ☐

Weak ☐

Very weak ☐

20. Do you like watching videos and listening to audio recordings in the classroom to help you boost your listening proficiency?

Yes ☐ No ☐

21. Inside the classroom, do you like to do activities:

Individually ☐

In pairs ☐

In small group ☐

In large group ☐

22. In real-life situations, different problems may occur which need an immediate decision making to solve them. Sometimes problem solving or decision making may need

interaction with others. Are you able to interact with others in English to solve real-life problems (e.g., disagreement in a panel) or make decisions (e.g., decide on the best way to improve the speaking skill with classmates)?

Yes ☐   No ☐

23. Do you like to promote your communicative efficiency when solving problems, making decisions, communicating and interacting with others in English?

Yes ☐   No ☐

I really appreciate your contribution.

APPENDIX IV:

EFL Students' Post-questionnaire

Dear students

    This questionnaire is a part of a research on English language teaching methodologies and techniques used by teachers at the department of letters and English language. It aims at collecting data about the current level of students' language proficiency and proves the efficacy of simulation-based instruction in enhancing students' speaking and listening proficiency.

    I would be thankful if you complete this questionnaire. Please tick (√) or complete the answers where necessary. Your answers will be treated anonymously. I am waiting for credible and confidential responses. Your contribution will be of a great importance for the completion of this research.

I really appreciate your cooperation.

Section One: Learners' attitudes/participation

1. Did the Oral Expression class in the last semester help you to improve your speaking skill?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

2. Do you feel you had more chance to speak in the classroom during the simulations you had in the last semester, more than last year?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

3. How often did you participate orally in English class in this semester?

Always   ☐

Often   ☐

Rarely   ☐

Never   ☐

4. Did you have simulation activities last year?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

5. How can you judge the simulation activities you had in the last semester?
  Highly interactive   ☐

Interactive ☐

Not interactive at all ☐

6. What is your opinion about these activities? Are they:

Very useful ☐

Useful ☐

Useless ☐

Very useless ☐

7. How much did you enjoy the simulation activities?

Very much ☐

Much ☐

Not really ☐

Not at all ☐

8. Please choose which of the following claims is true or false for you? (tick off the right column)

Claim	True	False
a. My self- confidence increased because I worked in pairs and small group during simulation activities.		
b. I feel less embarrassed, nervous and hesitant when I try to speak in English in front of the class.		
c. I am not afraid of making mistakes in front of the class.		
d. I feel motivated after simulation activities.		
e. Because of interaction during simulation activities, my speaking mistakes are reduced.		
f. My problem solving skills are developed after simulation activities.		
g. I liked the interaction with my classmates in different contexts during simulation activities.		
h. I am able to use different communication		

skills like journalism, making speech, chairmanship, analysis, and oratory.		
i. I am able to listen and understand whoever speaks in English.		
j. I can use the spoken grammar correctly (ellipsis, repetition, reduced forms…etc.).		
k. I can properly use the correct register (formal vs; informal).		

Section Two: English Speaking and Listening Proficiency

9. Tick the best answer according to you for each statement.

Statement of ability	I can	I cannot
a. Be interviewed in English.		
b. Express opinion to native speakers in English.		
c. Solve misunderstanding problems.		
d. Make enquiries about anything in English.		
e. Engage in spontaneous authentic conversation in English with native speakers.		
f. Ask for clarification in English.		
g. Complain in English.		
h. Ask for and give directions.		
i. Present an academic paper in English.		
j. Make decision in English.		
k. Make suggestions.		
l. Agree and disagree in English.		
m. Persuade others in English.		
n. Greet others and introduce yourself in formal situations.		

10. You have dealt with many oral activities during the years you have been learning English. What kind of activities would you like to have in order to reinforce your speaking and listening skills? (Order the following activities from 1 the least favourable to 5 the most desired)

Speaking Activity Students' Desire	Least favourable	Slightly favourable	Averagely favourable	Desired	Most desired
a. Oral interview					

b. Picture description					
c. Information gap (one person has information and his partner does not, the information should be described in details via physical objects, and a linguistic command of colors, shape, sizes, directions and sequences)					
d. Story/text Retelling					
e. Improvisation/Role play/simulation (playing out scenarios)					
f. Oral reports					
g. Debates					
h. Discussion					
i. Presentation of a given topic					
Others please; specify ……………………………..					

11. How can you assess your ability to speak in English after having the simulation activities?

Very good ☐

Good ☐

Average ☐

Weak ☐

Very weak ☐

12. What are the speaking difficulties you think simulation activities helped you to improve? (Classify them according to the scale (1 to 5) of improvement).

Speaking Aspect ╱ Difficulty	Not improved	Slightly improved	Averagely improved	Improved	Well improved
a. Fluency					
b. Pronunciation					
c. Fear of making mistakes					

d. Inability to express clear ideas					
e. Grammar					
f. Lack of vocabulary					
g. Class atmosphere (group size and noise)					
h. Time shortage					
Any other aspect? …………………………….					

13. How can you assess your ability in listening to English after having the simulation activities? (tick off the right answer)

Very good ☐

Good ☐

Average ☐

Weak ☐

Very weak ☐

14. Did you like watching videos and listening to audio recordings (before the simulation) in the classroom in the last semester?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

15. Were these/this material(s) helpful in making you perform better in the simulation?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

16. Did you like watching your performance in the simulation and be corrected by yourself and your classmates besides your teacher?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

17. Do you feel that simulation activities prepared you for real life communication? In other words, do you feel that simulation activities adequately prepared you to solving problems, making decision, communicating, interacting and engaging in casual spontaneous conversation and formal speech with native or non-native speakers in the outside world?

    Yes ☐   No ☐

➢ Why or Why not?

……….

………………………………………………………………………………

18. What would you change in the simulation activities to make them more effective for learning to speak and listen?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………………..

I really appreciate your contribution.

APPENDIX V:

EFL Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This Questionnaire is part of a study being conducted to explore the efficacy of simulation activities in enhancing the EFL students' speaking and listening proficiency. It aims at collecting information about the usability and the pedagogical effectiveness of simulation activities in oral expression, particularly in second year classrooms. It also seeks to explore the teachers' attitudes towards implementing the simulation-based instruction in order to improve students' oral skills and stimulate their positive attitudes and interest. The study relies on your invaluable feedback which will contribute significantly to the development of this research. Your responses will be kept anonymous and confidential.

Thank you in advance for your collaboration.

Miss Karima CHERGUI

Department of Letters and the English Language, Faculty of Letters and Languages

University of Mentouri, Constantine 1

Section One: General information

21. What is the degree you hold?

        d. Master   ▭

        e. Magister   ▭

        f. Ph.D.   ▭

22. For how many years have you been teaching Oral Expression to second year students?

……………..years

Section Two: Oral Expression Teaching

23. Is/was there any provision of teaching materials for Oral Expression instruction?

  b- Yes ▭   b- No ▭

a- If Yes, what were they?

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

………………………………………………………………

b- If no, how do/did you design your Oral Expression lessons?

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

………………………………………………………………

24. In typical Oral Expression sessions per year, what percentage of your time in class with students do/did you devote to the following skills?

Speaking …………..%

Listening …………..%

25. How often do/did your students participate in Oral Expression classes?

Always ☐   Often ☐   Sometimes ☐   Rarely ☐

Section Three: Teacher Methodology

26. What kind of language activities do/did you use to teach the oral/aural skills to second year students?

1………………………………   2……………………………………

3………………………………   4……………………………………

5…………………………………….

27. When you have oral activities with the students, do/did you use video as a supplementing tool for teaching?

    a- Yes ☐   b- No ☐

28. Do/did you **<u>regularly</u>** teach listening comprehension in laboratories?

    a- Yes ☐   b- No ☐

If **no,** why?

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

…………………………………

29. When do/did you give feedback to students making oral mistakes in the classroom?

☐ Directly, e.g. 'feedback when the error is made, in front of the whole class'.

☐ Indirectly, e.g. 'feedback later on to that single student'.

☐ Indirectly in a full class activity.

☐ Not at all.

Section Four: Students Problems in Oral Expression

30. According to your experience, how would you describe the actual level of your students in speaking?

Excellent ☐   Good ☐   Average ☐   Poor ☐

31. According to your experience, how would you describe the actual level of your students in listening?

Excellent ☐   Good ☐   Average ☐ Poor ☐

32. What are the main difficulties your students suffer from in speaking?

Accuracy ☐   Fluency ☐   Interacting with others ☐

Solving communication breakdowns ☐   Self-confidence (shyness)☐

Lack of vocabulary ☐

Others…………………………………………………………………………………….

33. What are the main difficulties your students suffer from in listening?

Accent ☐   Informal speech☐   Long listening ☐

Speed of the speech☐   Authentic language ☐

Others…………………………………………………………………………………

Section Five: Teachers attitudes towards Simulation activities

34. Do you use or have you used simulation activities in Oral Expression classroom before?

a- Yes ☐   b- No ☐

35. Would you like to use role-play or simulation activities in Oral Expression classroom, or both?

Role-play ☐   Simulation activities ☐Both☐

Specify why?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………….

36. How effective do you think simulation can help your students develop their speaking skills?

Very effective ☐   Effective ☐   Slightly effective ☐

Ineffective ☐

37. How effective do you think simulation can help your students develop their listening skills?

Very effective ☐   Effective ☐   Slightly effective ☐

Ineffective ☐

38. What is your opinion about the following statements?

A. Strongly agree   B. Agree   C. Neither agree nor disagree   D. disagree   E. strongly disagree

Statements	A	B	C	D	E
i. Second year students should be actively engaged in Oral Expression class through the use of active learning techniques.					
j. Second year students should be provided with activities that facilitate their development to be innovative and creative thinkers.					
k. Second year students should develop their interactive learning style.					
l. Second year students should know how to use language to					

Statements					
achieve Functional meaning.					
m. Second year students should be able to reflect their comprehension of the theoretical concepts in communication.					
n. Simulation activities should be implemented in the second year Oral Expression syllabus.					
o. Simulation activities should be implemented to improve EFL students speaking proficiency?					
p. Simulation activities should be implemented to improve EFL students listening proficiency?					

19. Again, what is your opinion about the following statements?

A. Strongly   B. Agree   C. Neither agree   D. disagree   E. strongly
agree nor disagree   disagree

Statements	A	B	C	D	E
s. Students' oral skills are improved when they are engaged in enjoyable and exciting experience in the classroom.					
t. Students' communication skills would be improved when they feel responsible for solving problems and making decisions during the communication.					
u. Students can better develop their speaking and listening skills through cooperative work in the classroom.					
v. Students' listening skills are better developed through interactive activities.					
w. Functional language like agreeing, clarifying, expressing misunderstanding, requesting, etc. is better taught when students are engaged in complex social processes.					
x. Students speaking skills are best developed through immersing students in reasonable representation of a real environment.					
y. Students' listening skills will improve when students are able to solve understanding problems in communicative realistic environment.					
z. The true assessment of students speaking proficiency should focus on their ability to convey authentic purposes in real-life interactive situations.					
aa. Simulations foster an increase in the levels of student preparation and participation.					
bb. Simulations help develop students' knowledge retention.					
cc. Simulations allow good deal of listening and understanding of how the other people are feeling and a good knowledge of how linguistically to take turns or allow others to do so.					
dd. Simulations enhance the use of a number of common lexis, especially to perform language functions such agreeing, disagreeing, clarifying, expressing misunderstanding, etc.					
ee. Simulations allow students to use different communication skills like journalism, making speech, analysis, oratory, etc.					
ff. Students' communication would be improved when their failure is as desirable as success.					
gg. Students' fear of mistakes will be reduced due to simulation activities.					

hh. Simulation activities allow self-assessment and peer feedback.					
ii. Simulations raise students' self-confidence and motivation.					
jj. Simulations provide invisibility to the teacher to monitor the progress of the students.					

Section Six: Further Suggestions

20**.** Please, add any further suggestions or comments (use additional page if necessary.)

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APPENDIX VI:

Experimental Groups' Pre-test Framework of Speaking

<u>**Candidate's Task Sheet**</u>

In recent years, many people become more addicted to social networking since its emergence in 2004-2005. To what degree social networking affected people's behaviour, language, privacy…etc.

Consider the following quotes; people have different views about social media. What is your stance about using social media? Think about other reasons that make you approve or disapprove social networking.

- *"The PC has improved the world in just about every area you can think of. Amazing developments in communications, collaboration and efficiencies. New kinds of entertainment and social media. Access to information and the ability to give a voice people who would never have been heard."* (Bill Gates)
- *"Social media is an amazing tool, but it's really the face-to-face interaction that makes a long-term impact."* (Felicia Day)

Discuss the impact of social media in your life and other's life with your partner.

Bill Gates: an American businessman, one of the founders of Microsoft.
Felicia Day: an American actress, comedian, and writer.

APPENDIX VII:

Experimental Groups' Post-test Framework of Speaking

Candidate's Task Sheet

Some people think that if they only have more money, all their problems will be solved. However, what remains unclear so far is the place of money in opposition to family, truth, humanity, environment, and health.

Consider the following quotes; people have different views about the value of money. What is your stance about money in your life? Think about other reasons that make you approve or disapprove the importance of money in opposition to comfort and happy life.

Consider the following statements:

- "Money has never made man happy, nor will it, there is nothing in its nature to produce happiness. The more of it one has the more one wants". **Benjamin Franklin**

- "When I was young I thought that money was the most important thing in life; now that I am old I know that it is".**Oscar Wilde**

Discuss the value and role of money in making people happy. Are with or against the saying that money is more important than happiness because it can buy happiness?

*Benjamin Franklin:*one of the Founding Fathers of the United States. Franklin was a leading author, printer, political theorist, politician, freemason, postmaster, scientist, inventor, civic activist, statesman, and diplomat. An American businessman.
*Oscar Wilde:*an Irish playwright, novelist, essayist, and poet.

APPENDIX VIII:

Experimental Groups' Delayed Post-test Framework of Speaking

Candidate's Task Sheet

Of all of the new jobs now being created and the huge demand over well-paid jobs, a heated debate about whether or not having a degree would guarantee having a well-paid job?takes place. To what extent attaining a good well-paid job only by virtue of university qualification is true.

Consider the following opinions; people have different views about the necessity of college degree to get a good job. What is your stance about whether having a degree does or does not guarantee a job.

Some people believe in the guarantee university degree give to people to have well paid job, arguing that it's a sign that the worker is serious about the job, knows how to learn, and can achieve goals. Besides, employers often see worker with college degree as more motivated, able to learn tasks more quickly, better able to meet deadlines, better at communicating and problem-solving.

Whereas, some other people believe that a degree doesn't necessarily guarantee a job. They claim that if people work hard enough they can have a decent job, make a good amount of money, and be successful without having gone to college.

Discuss your own opinion about the value of university qualification to get well-paid job, which stance you take

APPENDIX IX:

Interactional Strategy Checklist (Vandergrift, 1997)

Strategy	Strategy Count (tokens)	Interesting examples
Global Reprise		
Specific Reprise		
Hypothesis Testing		
Forward Inference		
Kinesics	lean forward? cocked head? glazed eyes? hands? eyebrows furrowed? confused look? other?	
Uptakes, Continuation Signals	nods? verbal (yes)? paralinguistics (mmm) ?	
Faking	expression/gestureused?	

APPENDIX X:

Analytic Speaking Rubric (Weir 1993)

Fluency
4. Generally natural delivery, only occasional halting when searching for appropriateWords/expressions.
3. The student hesitates and repeats himself at times but can generally maintain aflow of speech, although s/he may need an occasional prompt.
2. Speech is slow and hesitant. Maintains speech in a passive manner and needs regular prompts.
1. The student speaks so little that no 'fluent' speech can be said to occur.

Pronunciation
4. Occasional errors of pronunciation a few inconsistencies of rhythm, intonation and pronunciation but comprehension is not impeded.
3. Rhythm, intonation and pronunciation require more careful listening; some errors of pronunciation which may occasionally lead to incomprehension.
2. Comprehension suffers due to frequent errors in rhythm, intonation and pronunciation.
1. Words are unintelligible.

Vocabulary
4. Effective use of vocabulary for the task with few inappropriacies.
3. For the most part, effective use of vocabulary for the task with some examples of inappropriacy.
2. Limited use of vocabulary with frequent inappropriacies.
1. Inappropriate and inadequate vocabulary.

Grammatical accuracy
4. Very few grammatical errors evident.
3. Some errors in use of sentence structures and grammatical forms but these do not interfere with comprehension.
2. Speech is broken and distorted by frequent errors.
1. Unable to construct comprehensible sentences.

Interactional strategies
4. Interacts effectively and readily participates and follows the discussion.
3. Use of interactive strategies is generally adequate but at times experiences some difficulty in maintaining interaction consistently.
2. Interaction ineffective. Can seldom develop an interaction.
1. Understanding and interaction minimal.

APPENDIX XI:

Simulation Lesson Plans

Simulation One

Role play

Duration: 90 minutes for preparation/ 90 minutes for the simulation/ 90 minutes for the follow-up.

Topic: getting a job/ part one

Description:

This simulation contains two halves; the first half deals with the job interview role play followed by the second half which simulates company board meeting to decide on the best fit for the job. The meeting includes interviewer from the role play, human resources manager, chief executive officer, and president of the company.

The first half of the simulation is a role play. Students' aim in the role play is to answer appropriately the interview questions and a profile that includes each student's qualifications is created for later use in the simulation. This task also stimulates interaction under pressure which students might be confronted with in the future.

There are five interviewers interviewing fifteen applicants three for each. The students will watch a video modelling job interview in the preparation stage. The applicants will receive role cards, job advertisement and a homework sheet.

Before the role play students are required to prepare a CV.

Aims

Enable students to answer questions in a job interview.

Enable students to communicate with interviewer, especially describing oneself capacities and talking about qualifications and experiences.

- The aim of this role play is to prepare for the next simulation which will be based on the data collected from this task.

Preparation Stage

*Duration:*1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* describing personal qualities, weaknesses, ambition, and achievements.
> *Vocabulary:* personality adjectives, interview questions and answers and expressions used to ask for repetition.

Teaching aids

A job interview animated video taken from www.liguahouse.com, and a homework sheet included job advertisement downloaded from www.careerfaqs.com.

Presentation

> ➤ The students watch a job interview downloaded from www.liguahouse.com that shows an applicant being interviewed for project coordinator position and then do the following tasks:

A. *Watch the video and put* **true** *or* **false** *to the following statements.*

1. Andrea has always been interested in the British/American language and culture.

2. His current job mainly involves preparing budgets for projects.

3. He has worked as part of a team.

4. He had to replace one of the speakers at a British Council event.

5. He believes the job he is being interviewed for is tailored to his skills and qualifications.

6. His most rewarding achievement has been successfully completing his university degree.

7. His main weakness is handling pressure.

8. His long-term ambition is to start his own business. (This activity is taken

fromwww.linguahouse.com/ex)

The students negotiate and compare their answers with each other.

B. W*atch again, in groups of four and answer the following questions(students negotiate their interpretation through paraphrasing, asking or answering questions, add contextual clarification, verification or repetition):*

  - **To help students advance their negotiation they were provided with the expression they can use to ask for repetition if there is a misunderstanding:**

I'm afraid I'm not quite clear what you mean by that.
I'm sorry; I didn't quite follow what you said about …

I'm afraid I don't understand what you mean.

I'm afraid I didn't get your last point. Could you go over it again please?

1. What is the first question the interviewer asked in the job interview? And how did the interviewee answer it?

2. What is the major weakness for the applicant? What can you say about it?

3. How did the applicant turn his weakness to a positive quality?

4. What are the long term goals for the applicant? How can you evaluate them?

5. What are the adjectives the interviewee used to describe his personality traits, qualifications, abilities and skills?

   ➢ The teacher goes around monitor the discussion and correct when necessary. When finishing the discussion. Finally students answer the questions with the whole class.

   ➢ The teacher corrects the answers and explains some of the questions asked in job interviews and how job seekers can effectively answer them.

   ➢ While explaining how to answer interview questions, the teacher emphasizes the importance of using the right adjectives to impress the interviewer. S/he then adds some other adjectives: communicative, flexible, organised, committed, competent, diligent, recognised, Impactful, loyal, methodical, and conscientious.

   Here are some job interview questions:

   Tell me about yourself?
   How do you handle pressure?
   Why do you want to work for this company?
   What do you feel you have to offer this company?
   What personal weakness has caused you the greatest difficulty on the job?
   What would you say has been your most rewarding accomplishment?
   What are your goals for the future?
   What do you think you'll be doing in five years' time?
   What were your previous jobs?
   What experience did you gain from your previous jobs?
   What qualifications do you have?
   What can you bring to this role?
   Can you tell me of a time when you solved an important problem?
   Can you give me an example of when you have motivated yourself to do something you didn't want to do?
   What is your greatest achievement?
   What are your strengths?

   ➢ At the end of the session, students are assigned to do homework. They are asked to read a job advertisement (about personal assistant job in Sharpfield insurance company) and prepare a CV accordingly. To help students, the teacher explains the job advertisement and gives a CV model taken from www.linguahouse.com to help leaners write their own CVs.

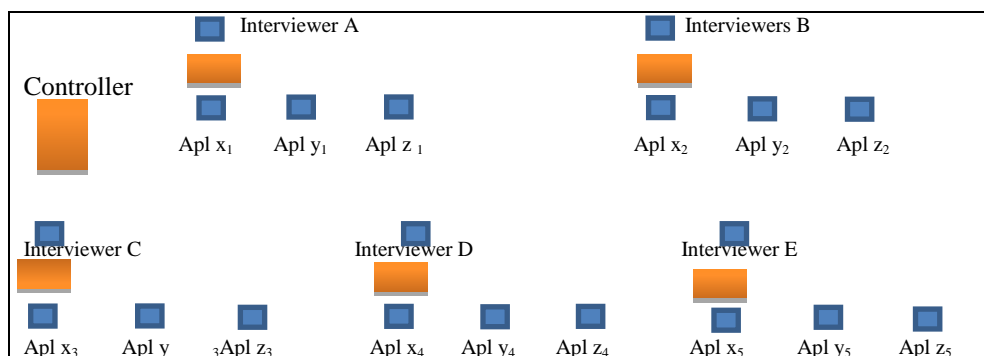**Role Play Phase**

*Duration:*1hour and a half

Language Focus

Function: describing personal qualities, weaknesses, ambition, and achievements.
Vocabulary: personality adjectives, interview questions and answers

Teaching aids

Job advertisement, CV prepared by students, interview evaluation form downloaded from
https://www.smu.edu/~/media/Site/BusinessFinance/HR/pdf/Recruitment/CandidateInterview
EvaluationForm.ashx?la=en and role cards.

- **Timing**: The time of the role play is one hour and a half; the teacher explains briefly what will happen in the role play, role cards are then distributed. The teacher ensures that every student knows his/her role and what he/she has to do. All the former steps are assumed to be done in 15minutes. One hour and ten minutes are devoted to the role play itself.
- **Classroom arrangement:** students reshape the classroom furniture according to the following diagram. This step may take 2 minutes.

Interviewer A   Interviewers B

Controller

Apl x_1 Apl y_1 Apl z_1 Apl x_2 Apl y_2 Apl z_2

Interviewer C   Interviewer D   Interviewer E

Apl x_3 Apl y $_3$Apl z_3 Apl x_4 Apl y_4 Apl z_4 Apl x_5 Apl y_5 Apl z_5

- Students will be divided into five groups including one interviewer and three applicants as shown in the diagram. They take their position.

Production

1. The teacher should ensure that his students understand what they are supposed to do (answer the interviewer question in the appropriate way so as to leave the desired impact on the interviewer).

2. Students start the interviews. The interviewer reads carefully the applicants CVs and starts asking questions. Each interview takes from 7 to 10 minutes.

3. The interviewers fill in the interview evaluation form for each interviewee while interviewing them.

4. The teacher will monitor the role play without any interference and write down the noticeable mistakes.

Some Models of Role Cards

You are ……………..

You have experience; you had difficult president in you last job. You are running of money and you are in a desperate need for the job.

You are…………………….

You had three had interviews before this interview. You have to overcome this failure by succeeding in this one.

You are …………………..

Before you enter to the interview you have hear that the selection of the candidates after the interview is not credible and appearance is what matters.

You are………………..

You have heard that he president who you are going to work for, if you pass the interview, is nervous, not easy to deal with.

You are…………………….

Your turn is about to came, you noticed that you forget your CV at home. It is a prerequisite to attend the interview. They call you to entre.

You are……………………

You have heard from applicants who have been interviewed before you that working under pressure is the most required qualification. You quit your last job because you could not handle the pressure of workload.

You are the interviewer	You are the interviewer
You have to ask many questions about personal, professional, language qualifications. Focus on the team work, handling pressure, multitask abilities.	You have to ask many questions about personal, professional, language qualifications. Focus on the team work, handling pressure, multitask abilities.
You accept no delays or incomplete documents.	You accept no delays or incomplete documents.
You did not want to interview anyone but your superiors asked to do that.	You wanted to take a day off from work but instead they assigned you to interview the new applicants.
You have to write down description of applicants' answers while interviewing.	*You have to write down description of applicants' answers while interviewing*.

Simulation

Duration: 90 minutes for preparation/ 90 minutes for the simulation/ 90 minutes for the follow-up.

Topic: **Getting a job/ part Two**

Description:

This simulation is the second part of 'getting a job' simulation. In this simulation interviewers from the first part (role play), human resource manager, president of Sharpfields Insurance office in Brisbane, and chief executive officer CEO meet in order to select the best fit for the job.

The students will listen to an audio explains how to make an effective decision. Each participant will receive role card that includes all the information of what s/he should do.

Preparation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

    Function: making decision

Vocabulary: expressions used for announcing decision. Expressions used to give opinion, disagree, present counter argument, raise objection and announce a decision.

Teaching aids

Job advertisement downloaded for www.careerfaqs.com , a maze activity cards downloaded from www.teachingenglish.org.uk, and a homework sheet.

*P*resentation

➢ The teacher introduces what the simulation is about, by asking them to decide what to do in these situations.

- Your teacher has given you an assignment to do, but you are busy these days. Your classmates insist on arranging a meeting as soon as possible. What would do?

    a. Convince your classmates to delay it a few days.

    b. Surrender to your classmates' insistence.

    c. Take back you partnership in the assignment.

- A company that sells shampoo is running out of money and is about of bankruptcy. What should the board of the company do?

    a. Decrease the price of the shampoo to increase the sales.

    b. Try to get a loan.

    c. Release some workers.

➢ Students provide different solutions for each situation and discuss them in groups of four. The teacher tells students that they are engaged in decision making process.

➢ The students will listen to an audio about making decision. They have to answer the following questions:

What are the steps to make decision?

What are the methods of making decision? (Decision by authority, decision by majority, decision by negative minority, decision by ranking, decision be unanimity, and decision by consensus)

➢ The teacher then tells students that sometimes decision is made by a group of people like in the second and third situation above. Hence, when the discussion is raised, there might be some disagreements. Here are some expressions used to state a point of view, disagree, present a counter argument, and raise an objection (taken from Jones, 1983, p. 16)

Presenting a point of view	*I firmly believe that …* *Don't you agree that ……?* *As I see it …* *It's quite clear to me that …*
Disagreeing	*Do you really think so? Why's that?* *No, I'm afraid I don't agree, because…* *The main reason I disagree is…*
Presenting counter-argument	*Yes, but you must admit that…* *well, yes, but isn't it also true to say that…* *That' true but don't forget that…*
Raising objections	*That's an interesting point, but you don't seem realize that…* *surely, it depends on …* *I agree on the whole, but I just can't accept that point you* *Made about…*
If you are undecided	*I haven't made up my mind about it because…* *I'm in two minds about it because…* *I'd rather not commit myself on that because…* *I can see both sides of the argument.*

➢ The teacher gives also some expressions used to announce decision (Jones, 1983, p. 5):

We've come to the conclusion that…

We consider that…
We have a proposal to make…
Our decision is as follows…
In our view the best option is…
This is what we think the best decision.

Practice

Students are grouped in groups of four to discuss some situations and thus apply the different steps of making decision they learnt.

➢ The teacher asks students to make decision about the following situation: you have won one million euros and want to spend it in the best possible way. The teacher explains the situation to the students.

Students are grouped in groups of five; they receive cards one by one. They will read the first card, discuss different options and come up with a decision. Teacher will take the card and give them the next card to discuss its options and decide whether their first decision was

correct. They do the same thing with card two (make decision and then read its implications in the next card).

> ➤ The teacher prompts students to discuss and evaluate their options until they come up with a decision by using the expressions mentioned above in the discussion.

Simulation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* making decision
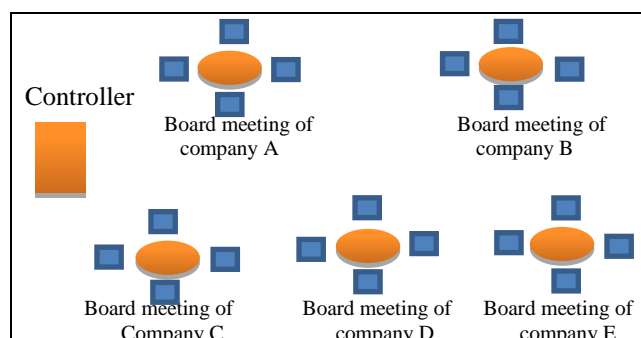> *Vocabulary:* expressions used for announcing decision and evaluating opinion.

Teaching aids

Four copies of each student CV used in job interview, homework sheet from the role play, the evaluation form of each interviewee competed by interviewers in the role play and role cards.

The briefing

- **Timing**: The time of the simulation is one hour and a half. The teacher explains what students should do in the simulation in ten minutes and then distributes the role cards in order to leave students the chance to step inside the function they supposed to do and the rest one hour and fifteen minutes are devoted to the simulation per se.

- **Classroom arrangement:** The students reshape the classroom furniture according to the following diagram.

  Each board meeting contains interviewers from the role play session, human resources manager, chief executive officer, and president of the company. Thus, their distribution will be as follows: the teacher should make sure not to put the interviewer with his/her interviewees from the role play to avoid subjective decision.

Controller

Board meeting of company A

Board meeting of company B

Board meeting of Company C

Board meeting of company D

Board meeting of company E

*P*roduction

1. The teacher first should explain the aim of the simulation which is deciding on the best fit for personal assistant job. Besides drawing students' attention to how they should negotiate ideas, change mind, and make decision. The teacher provides some expressions that they might need in order to solve misunderstanding problems:

   I'm afraid I am not quite clear what you mean by that.

   I'm sorry; I didn't quite follow what you said about…

   I'm afraid I don't understand what you mean.

   I'm afraid I didn't get your last point. Could you go over it again please?

2. Before students start the simulation, they revise with the teacher all the steps of making decision. They form groups as shown in the diagram, take their positions and follow the steps (identify the decision to be made, examine data and resources in hand (applicants' CV, and interviewers' evaluation sheet of each applicant), establish criteria(already established in the job advertisement and finally make the decision)

3. At this stage, students are given the role cards. They read carefully the role cards.

4. In the meeting (simulation), participants should read the CV of each applicant and the human resources manager will ask the interviewer to report the interview outcomes to the other participants. The participants will discuss their opinion about the applicant who fulfils the job criteria. Each participant will give a mark out of ten to the candidate, the HR writes the scores on the board, and then they move to the next applicant. At the end scores will be calculated and the one, who has high score, win the job. Then the CEO announces the decision about the identity of the applicant X to be hired.

5. The teacher watches the simulation without participation and note down the occurring errors for the follow-up session.

6. All the procedures are videotaped.

Follow-up Session

Duration: one hour and a half

Teaching aids:

Video recording of the simulation

Procedure:

The students are asked to explain briefly what they did and why.

The students will watch a video recording of the simulation and then are asked to evaluate the simulation discourse by asking these questions:

How participants interact together?

Did they make the decision successfully?

What are the language mistakes you notice?

Did they make the right decision?

What was their method for making the decision?

Did they weigh up their options successfully before making decision?

If you could do this simulation over again, what would do differently?

What do you think you have learnt from this simulation? (Adopted from Jones book 'eight simulations' (1983)).

The students discuss these questions in pairs, listen to each other opinion and evaluate the decision making process they watched in the video, at the end each group chooses two students to report their evaluation to the whole class while the other students listen and make comments. This task helps encourage students to interact and evaluate ideas; consequently the behavioural performance will be addressed. The teacher will be engaged also in the whole group discussion. (This task may take 30 minutes)

Since the simulation is undertaken in the language class thus more focus will be on the language errors. The errors are collected by teacher from the simulation session and by students after watching the simulation video. Besides, the teacher focuses on the language for successful communication to not inhibit the students from participating in the future simulation by focusing only on their failure.

Model Role Cards

Bell: Human resources manager HR
There is an urgent need for new personal assistant for the president.
You want experienced, organised and hard worker.

Davis: Human resources manager HR
Three applicants are qualified for the final selection
Open the meeting and explain the purpose of the meeting.

Robinson: the chief executive officer CEO

Your personal assistant is a hard worker but needs always a lot of time to solve problems. Flexibility is required.

Anderson: President of Sharpfieds insurance office in Brisbane.

You had several personal assistants worked with you but they quit because of the heavy workload they have to do, hence you need someone who can handle pressure and patient. But the interviewer did not report if the candidates are patient or not.

Carter: interviewer

The interviews went good but you are not sure which prioritize which; organisational and time management skills or the ability to multitask daily workload.

Dean: President of Sharpfieds insurance office in Brisbane.

The previous personal assistant attended meeting with you, but she could not manage appointment with CEO of other company neither communicate with other people in English. English proficiency and management skills are so important.

Donald/ interviewer

You worked as PA before with low salary. You are not with Burns (CEO) suggestion to decrease the personal assistant salary. The most important characteristic of personal assistant should be discretion and confidentiality.

Burns: the chief executive officer CEO

There is solvency; hence a new employee will make the situation worse. Decide on the salary of the candidate who wins the job. (35 Australian dollars per year).

Simulation Two

(Inspired by Jones (1983) Simulation 'Anglebury')

Duration: 90 minutes for preparation/ 90 minutes for the simulation/ 90 minutes for the follow-up.

Topic: Teachers' meeting

Teaching aids

Meeting agenda

Description:

In this simulation there are two groups of participants each including ten participants; students play the role of teachers of different modules and the head of the department. The students will get the knowledge needed to perform in the simulation by watching a video illustrating the teachers' meeting.

A week before the simulation, students are asked to interview other students to find out the problems are suffering from.

Aims

Enable students to make decisions after discussing opinions.

Enable students to communicate with others in order to reach an agreement about a decision

Preparation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* discussion and problem solving.
> *Vocabulary:* discussion expressions.

P*resentation*

> ➢ The teacher asks students about their problems in their studies at the university. The questions will help students to understand what the simulation is about.

Do you have problems at the university? What are they?

Can you solve these problems alone? If no who is responsible for solving them?

What can you do in order to make the staff of the university take an action towards solving these problems?

> ➢ Teacher explains to students that generally before solving any problem, a discussion would be a good idea to reach an effective consensus. When discussion takes place, these expressions are used:

It'd be a good idea to….
Why don't they….
I wonder if anyone's thought of…
What they ought to do in this: …
It'd be much better to …
*Wouldn't be better idea to… (*Taken from Jones, 1983, p.5)

The teacher asks students to put these expressions in meaningful sentences.

Practice

Students in groups discuss the following problems in order to reach a decision about the best solution. Group's members exchange their places with other and report their groups' discussion ideas and decision.

Problem 1: you and your friends are suffering from weak pronunciation; think about what to do in order to enhance it.

Problem 2: students outside the classroom are making noise, you cannot concentrate on your lessons; how would reduce the noise?

Problem 3: your teachers do not notice you even if you do your assignments on time and try to participate always. You might have a bad mark for your TD mark. How could you make your teachers notice you?

Problem 4: you find yourself spending a lot of money these days. What economies in your living costs can you make? How much can you manage to save per week? (Adopted from Jones book (1983))

Students are asked before the simulation to make an informal interview with students from other groups and organise them in a list. Then the teacher announces the meeting agenda.

Simulation phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

*Language Focus*

> *Function:* discussion/ problem solving
>
> *Vocabulary:* discussion expressions

Teaching aids

Students' lists of students' problems at the university and students list of possible solutions for the problems.

The briefing

- **Timing**: The time of the simulation is one hour and a half; the teacher explains briefly what will happen in the simulation. Students will be given time for video (used in the previous session) watching if requested to remind students of how teachers discuss problems and options reach a decision. The teacher ensures that every student knows his/her role and what he/she has to do. All the former steps are assumed to be done in 15 minutes. One hour and ten minutes are devoted to the simulation itself.

- **Classroom arrangement:** students reshape the classroom furniture according to the following diagram. This step may take 3minutes.
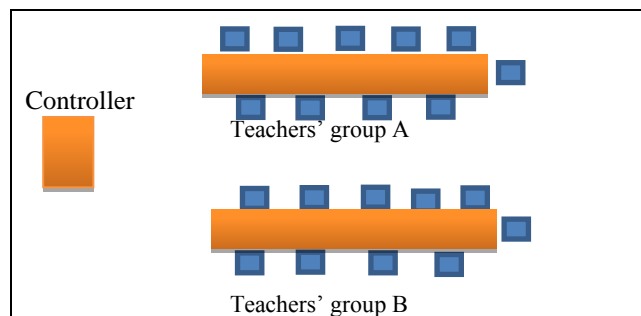
Production

1. The teacher first should explain the aim of the simulation which is solving the students' problems. Besides using the expressions they learned to discuss their option and suggestions and to announce the final decision to the rest of the group.

2. Before students start the simulation, they should read carefully the problems they find after the interviews and revise the possible solutions they come up with in the last session.

3. The teacher watches the simulation without interfering and takes notes of students' mistakes.

4. All the procedures are videotaped.

Follow-up discussion

The students discuss their answers to these questions:

What difficulties did you have in expressing yourself?

Did you get involved in what you are doing or just it was just a language exercise?

Follow-up Session

Duration: one hour and a half

Teaching aids:

Video recording of the simulation

Procedure:

The same procedure, as in simulation 01, is applied.

Simulation Three (this simulation is included in Chapter Four in sub section 4.2.8 Simulation Lesson Plan, p.139)

Simulation Four

(Inspired by Jones (1983) Simulation 'The Language Centre')

Duration: 90 minutes for preparation/ 90 minutes for the simulation/ 90 minutes for the follow-up.

Topic: University Repair (building of letters repair) plenary meeting

Description:

This simulation is about university repair prepared by students. The participants are involved in repairing their faculty. It includes five groups. Each group represents a different function and makes decision about different issues starting from classroom design to university facilities. The decisions made by participants are similar to real-life ones.

Aims

Enable students to talk about issues they observe at the university.

Enable students to make a decision about the possible repair they may apply to solve the university problems.

Preparation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* agreeing disagreeing, and asking for clarifying opinion.
>
> *Vocabulary:* university facilities.

Teaching aids

List of expressions of agreement and disagreement;

Presentation

> ➢ The teacher draws his students' attention to problems that are going to be dealt with in the simulation. She introduces the topic by asking them:

How can you describe your university? Is it modern, purpose-built, or traditional old building?

Which do you prefer to work in, study in, stay in for a while and live in permanently? Do you like modern or old buildings?

Describe the worst possible building you can imagine to work in, study in, stay in and live in (this question is Adopted from Jones, 1983, p. 23)

> ➢ The students should be grouped. The teacher then asks students to discuss what they want to change in their university, how they want it to be, and what are the solutions to each problem? Afterwards, the students exchange the groups and report their ideas and opinions to the new group. The aim of this task is to allow students to express their opinion about their university from their own perspective as in the simulation they will express their opinion from the teachers, administrators, and faculty members perspective and to assess students' ability to agree, disagree, and ask for clarification in case there is a misunderstanding. (the idea of the task is taken from Jones, ibid, p.25)

When they finish, the teacher draws the learners' attention to the function of language that they have to use which is agreeing, disagreeing, and asking for clarification. At this stage, the teacher gives a list of expressions used to state an opinion, express agreement, disagreement, and a need for clarification. (Adopted from Jones, ibid, p.24)

Stating an opinion   *As I see it…*
                     The point is …
                     As far as I'm concerned …

Finding out other   *How do you feel about that point?*
people's views   *What are your views on this point?*
                     Have you got any further points to make on this item?
                     Do you agree with what's been said so far?
                     Anything to add?

Agreeing   *I absolutely agree.*
completely   *I think so, too.*
                     I'm with you all the way
                     Yes, I think you're absolutely right.
                     I agree up to a considerable extent.

Agreeing   *I agree up to a point, but …*
partly   *I see what you mean, but …*
                     That's true in a way, but …
                     Most of what you say is true, but …
                     Apart from/except for the last point, I agree with you.

Disagreeing   *I don't really agree.*

I think you're wrong.
I'm afraid I can't accept that.
I don't really think that's right.
I beg to differ, I see that (it may work if we…)

| Needing clarification | *I'm afraid I don't follow why…*
but that's the point of …?
I don't quite see why…
Could you tell us why…? |

Practice

> ➢ And then the teacher asks the students to repeat the task using expressions they learned.

Simulation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* agreeing disagreeing, and asking for clarifying opinion.

> *Vocabulary:* university facilities, classroom design vocabulary.

Teaching aids

A slip of paper, a badge for each participant, committee meeting agenda

The briefing

- **Timing**: The time of the simulation is one hour and a half; the teacher explains briefly what will happen in the simulation and that each committee will have committee meeting, informal consultation sessions, and a plenary meeting. There are slips of paper that include each participant's role and agenda items that they have to discuss. Students will be given deadline for each meeting. The teacher ensures that every student knows his/her role and what he/she has to do. All the former steps are assumed to be done in 10 minutes. One hour and twenty minutes are devoted to the simulation itself.

- **Classroom arrangement:** the classroom will be arranged like the following diagram for the committee meeting and the informal consultation sessions. The five committees are:

  Group A department Administration (represented by the head of the department)

  Group B faculty Administration (represented by the Dean)

  Group C teachers of English language (representative selected by all the teachers)

 *Group D* teachers of Arabic language (representative selected by all the teachers)

Group E   teachers of French language (representative selected by all the teachers)

Group F   students from the three departments (representative selected by all the students of each faculty)

The groups of teachers are grouped together because they have the same interest and experience the same difficulties.
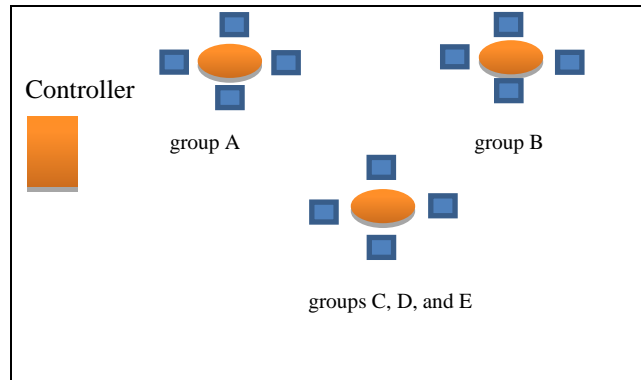
However when it comes to the plenary meeting, the classroom arrangement changes to look like 'an assembly hall' as mentioned by Jones (1983, p. 72)
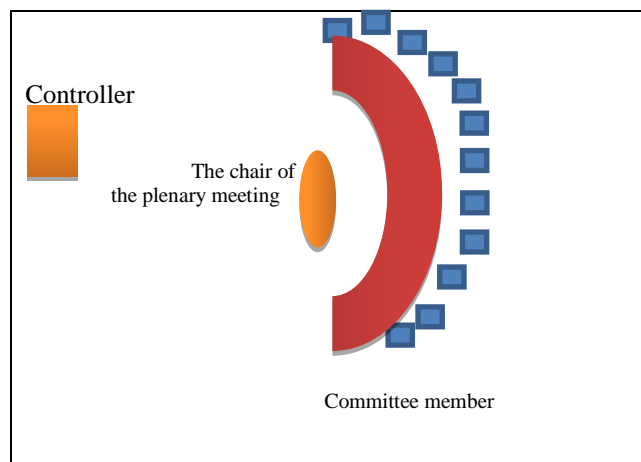
Production

1. The teacher gives the slip of paper that explains each committee member's role and the agenda items each committee is concerned with. She makes sure that the participants know the deadline for each meeting.
2. Allows 15 minute reading agenda items carefully and asks participants to think about their views on each agenda item before starting the committee discussion.
3. Asks participants to fill in the badge and stick it on their clothes and explains what to do in the committee meeting (make decisions about the agenda items allotted to them and discuss opinions).

4. Once the 30 minutes of the committee meeting finish, the consultation session begins. The teacher explains to the participants that they are allowed to move from one committee to other and in order to ask for advice and information concerning their decisions. The participants are allowed to return to their original committee and report their findings after the discussions with the other committees. Then each committee makes its own recommendation.

5. The consultations finish in about 15 minutes and the plenary meeting starts. The classroom should be arranged according to diagram two. The teacher chooses a participant who wants to chair the meeting.

6. The teacher makes sure that all the agenda items are discussed.

7. The Plenary meeting is videotaped.

Follow-up Session

Duration: one hour and a half

Teaching aids:

Audio recording of the simulation

Procedure:

The same procedure as simulation one is followed.

Simulation Five

(Similar to Jones (1983) Simulation 'world news magazine')

Duration: 90 minutes for preparation/ 90 minutes for the simulation/ 90 minutes for the follow-up.

Topic: News programme

Description:

This simulation is a straightforward simulation that deals with news programme. Each group of participants work separately to prepare for the program.

This simulation needs a thorough preparation in advance.

Preparation Phase

*Duration :*1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* broadcasting news

> *Vocabulary:* opening news programme and signing off the news expressions.

Teaching aids

BBC news programme downloaded from http://youtube.com/watch?v=q7ZBnNu_iAI, list of expressions for starting and signing off the news, and articles from different websites (see Appendix VIII, CD)

Presentation

> ➢ Do you watch news programmes in English? Can you describe them?
What makes you like watching the news?

What kind of news you like to hear?

> ➢ The students watch the BBC news programme and answer the following questions:
How did the presenter start the news programme?

How did she present the headlines?

How can you describe her language?

> ➢ The teacher gives a list of phrases the news anchor can use in the news:
> > *Tonight on the … news,*
Presenters start the news like this: This is the … news, I am (anchor's name), the headlines at
> > *8 o'clock:…*
> > *Good evening and welcome to the … news at six. Here the*
> > *headlines:*

Then;   *hello, good evening/ good morning, thanks for joining us on (name of news agency) news. start reading the first news script.*

And in other news
News anchors move from one   *Also tonight*
news to another: *Also on tonight's programme*

                                                         ... and that's all from us, good night.
News anchors sign off   *That's the nightly news for this Wednesday night.*
the news   *... and that's part of our world tonight.*
                                                         Thank you for watching/ thank you for staying with us.

Tips for writing news script are:

It should be no longer than five sentences.
It should answer the following questions: who, what, when, where, and how?
Use simple language that listeners can understand.
Use the right tense: present or past, active voice and the reported speech.
*P*ractice

➢ The teacher asks students in groups:

1. To read news articles, summarize key points; report the key points in their own words following the tips above (write a report in no more than 50 words).

2. Exchange reports with other groups to criticise.

3. Prepare a related report from the news location.

4. Rehearse and broadcast the news using the phrases above. (if this task is not completed in the session, it is assigned as homework for the next session)

Simulation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

   Function: broadcasting news

   Vocabulary: opening news programme and signing off the news expressions.

Teaching aids

BBC news programme downloaded from http://youtube.com/watch?v=q7ZBnNu_iAI, list of expression for starting and signing off the news.

Teaching aids

Microphone and background picture for the news.

The briefing

- **Timing**: The time of the simulation is one hour and a half; the teacher explains briefly what will happen in the simulation. The teacher ensures that every student knows his/her role and what s/he has to do. All the former steps are assumed to be done in 10 minutes.
- **Classroom arrangement:** the classroom will be arranged like news studio.
- **Assigning roles:** each team should consist of four participants. One is the director, two participants are reporters and the last is news anchor.

Production

1. Each group go to its place in the classroom receives the first two news articles. In 20 minutes, they read, summarize, rephrase key points, and rehearse the news.
2. Then, they receive the next two news articles repeat the same process.
3. Each team prepares a report for four news items.
4. The news programmes start and they are videotaped.
5. To add a surprising factor to the simulation and challenge participants to use the language creatively and naturally, a slip of paper added to the news items as a breaking news without informing the participants before the simulation.

Follow-up Session

Duration: One hour and a half

Teaching aids:

Audio recording of the simulation

Procedure:

The students are asked to explain briefly what they did and why.

The students listen to an audio recording of the simulation and then are asked to evaluate the simulation discourse by asking these questions:

How successful the broadcasts were?

What makes you say this simulation is successful?

Did presenters do what they have to do?

What are the language mistakes you notice?

How you simulation is different from real news programme.

Students behavioural and language mistakes are addressed.

Duration: 90 minutes for preparation/ 90 minutes for the simulation/ 90 minutes for the follow-up.

Topic: Leaders debate

Description:

This simulation is more complex because it deals with a political debate (we tried to keep it simple as it is dealt with from students' perspectives and from politicians). It involves more participants than the former simulations. Five participants played the role of leaders competing in the elections and one host of the TV channel. Other students played the role of the audience and they are allowed to participate in the debate by asking questions to the candidates. This simulation aims at developing learners skills of presenting their policies, opinions, and criticising other candidates' arguments on hot-seated issues in the country.

This simulation needs a thorough preparation in advance.

Preparation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

> *Function:* convincing, persuading and rephrasing
> *Vocabulary:* expressions to convince, expressions to rephrase, and vocabulary related to politics and economy; deficit, tax, invest, poverty, policies, debt, labour…etc.

Teaching aids

Leaders debate in UK on Sky News downloaded from
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7Sv2AOQBd_s.

Presentation

> ➢ The teacher starts the lesson with small talk about the following questions:
How do you usually elect your president?

Did you attend his election campaign?

What makes you convinced that he is the right person to vote for?

Have you ever watched, on TV, leaders' debate?

If yes, what happens in these debates?

> Then, the students watch the leaders' debate downloaded from Sky News (from minute 4 to minute 24 to see how this kind of debate starts, and from minute 52 after one hour to 59 minute to see how leaders close their statements in the debate) and answer the following questions:

What are the main parts of the debate?

What did the candidates say at the beginning?

What happened after the student had asked the question? How did each candidate reinforce his arguments and defeat others?

What are the main language expressions each candidate used to convince the audience in the opening and closing statement? (students negotiate their understanding and interpretations about these questions in groups after the first, second and third watching)

The teacher gives list of expressions; learners can use to convince people to vote for them:

Expressions to be persuasive:

If I am…,…
This is not a matter of opinion. I am saying this because it is a fact.
I think …, I promise…, support me.

Expression to criticize others' plans:

(the opponent's plan) will not work because, it has not worked in the past.
(the opponent's plan) will lead to undesirable consequences for everyone. We can solve this by simply going with (your view point) in the first place.
I am sure (my opponent) has convinced some of you that their plan is working, but they have not been honest with you.

Expressions to rephrase and explain unclear words:

In other words …
To put it another way…
That is to say…
To put simply…
What I am trying to say is …
…Which basically/ simply means…
Practice

➢ The students perform a task in groups of three in which they prepare themselves to debate to win the position of *delegate of the group*.

1. They prepare in 15 minutes opening statement and rehearse it in front of their groups. The teacher helps learners to use the expressions they learned to persuade their classmates. Then they try to prepare themselves for any question they expect that their classmates would ask in the debate. Finally they write and rehearse the closing statement.

2. The candidates chosen, one from each group, take their places in front of their classmates, and start presenting their policies and plans and the rest of the class perform the role of the audience. The teacher controls the debate and allows two questions to be asked, at the end candidates close the debate by their statements. The teacher corrects the candidates' mistakes and gives them advice for better performance in the simulation.

Simulation Phase

Duration: 1hour and a half

Language Focus

   *Function:* convincing, persuading and rephrasing

    Vocabulary: expressions to convince, and expressions to rephrase, expressions related to politics and economy; deficit, tax, invest, poverty, policies, debt, labour…etc.

Teaching aids

Leaders debate in UK on Sky News downloaded from
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7Sv2AOQBd_s.

The briefing

- **Timing**: The time of the simulation is one hour and a half; the teacher explains briefly what will happen in the simulation. The teacher ensures that every student knows his/her role and what s/he has to do. All the former steps are assumed to be done in 10 minutes.

- **Classroom arrangement:** the classroom will be arranged as follows:

- **Assigning roles:** each team should consist of four participants. One candidate is selected to represent the group (party).
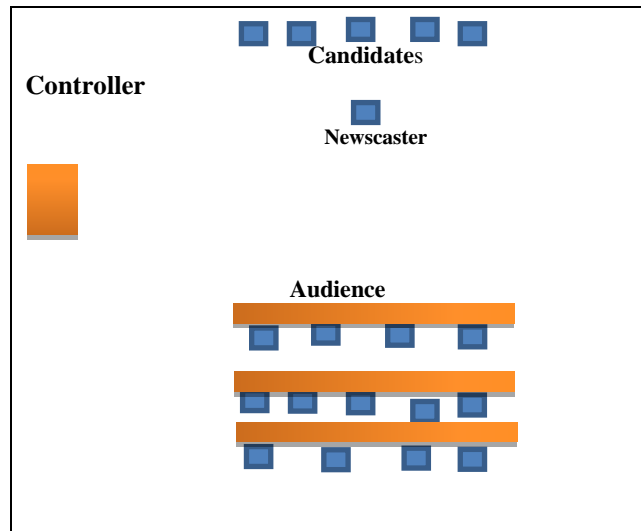
Production

1. Each group of participants prepare, in 15 minutes, opening statement and rehearse it in front of their groups' members. Then they negotiate about their party's principles and plans. The teacher helps learners to use the expressions they learned to persuade their classmates. Then they try to prepare themselves for any question they expect that their classmates would ask in the debate. Finally they write and rehearse the closing statement.

2. The candidates chosen, one from each group, take their places in front of their classmates, and start presenting their policies and plans and the rest of the class perform the role of the audience. The teacher (as a director) controls the debate and allows two questions to be asked, at the end candidates close the debate by their statements. All the former steps are videotaped.

Follow-up Session

Duration: one hour and a half

Teaching aids:

Audio recording of the simulation

Procedure:

The same procedure, applied in the former simulations is followed.

الملخص

على ضوء الطلب المتزايد على التواصل، محرك الاندماج الدولي، أصبح التواصل الشفوي على وجه الخصوص الاهتمام الأول لمعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية. تعتبر المحاكاة واحدة من أكثر الأنشطة المحتملة التي يستعملها الاساتذة لتفعيل مهارة التحدث والاستماع للمتعلمين خلال عملية التفاعل. البحث الحالي يحقق في تأثير أنشطة المحاكاة على تدريس وتعلم مهارة التحدث والاستماع في قسم الآداب واللغة الإنجليزية، جامعة الاخوة منتوري قسنطينة 1. في الواقع، يسلط هذا البحث الضوء على كل من تصور الطلاب للفوائد والتحديات التي يواجهونها من خلال المحاكاة وكذلك آراء المعلمين وتوصياتهم لاستخدام هذا النشاط في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. نفترض إذا أنه عندما يقوم المعلمون بتطبيق تقنية المحاكاة في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، سنة ثانية، فإن هذا من شأنه أن يطور كفاءة الاستماع والتحدث لدى طلاب السنة الثانية. ونفترض أيضا أن تطبيق تقنية المحاكاة التعليمية في صفوف اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية من شأنه أن يحفز مواقف الطلاب الايجابية و اهتمامهم. استخدمت دراسة المقارنة لعينة قبل وبعد الاختبار كمنهجية بحث. كما تعتمد هذه الدراسة على استبيان وزع على 40 طالب لغة انجليزية سنة ثانية. تظهر النتائج ان متوسط درجات اختبار التحدث التواصلي بعد الاختبار أعلى بكثير مما كان عليه قبل الاختبار عند مستوى دلالة 0.05 ب($t = 2.90$) في المجموعة التجريبية 1 و ($t = 3.57$) في المجموعة التجريبية 2. بالتالي قد تم تأكيد الفرضيتين الأولى مع تحفظ طفيف على تطور مهارة الاستماع الذي لا يسمح بتأكيد الفرضية الأولى بشكل كامل. أما الفرضية الثانية فقد تم التحقق منها أيضا حيث أن أكثر من (80٪) من الطلاب في كلتا المجموعتين التجريبيتين كانوا متحمسين للغاية بعد تعاملهم مع المحاكاة. إلى جانب ذلك، أقر معظم المعلمين بأثرها الايجابي على أداء الطلبة وبيئة الصف. وقد قدمت اقتراحات وتوصيات بشأن كيفية تحسين وزيادة منافع التعليم والتعلم باستخدام تقنية المحاكاة.

الكلمات المفتاحية : أنشطة المحاكاة، كفاءة التحدث، كفاءة الاستماع.

RESUME

À la lumière de la demande accrue en matière de communication, le moteur de l'intégration international, la communication orale est devenue la préoccupation principale des enseignants de la langue anglaise. La simulation est donc considérée comme l'activité primordiale que les enseignants appliquent pour activer le langage et l'écoute des apprenants dans le processus d'interaction. La présente recherche étudie l'impact des activités de simulation sur l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de la parole et de l'écoute de la Langue Anglaise à l'Université des Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1. L'étude met en lumière à la fois la perception des étudiants sur les avantages et les défis qu'ils rencontrent par la simulation ainsi que les opinions et les recommandations des enseignants pour exploiter cette activité en classe de deuxième année d'anglais. Nous formulons les hypothèses que, lorsque les enseignants appliquent la technique de simulation, cela permettrait d'améliorer la compétence des étudiants de deuxième année en matière d'écoute et de parole; et, que l'application de la technique d'enseignement de simulation dans les classes d'anglais stimulerait les attitudes positives et l'intérêt des étudiants. Un échantillon d'étude de comparaison pré et post-test a été utilisé comme méthode de recherche. De plus, cette étude est basée sur un questionnaire qui a été distribué à 40 étudiants de deuxième année d'anglais. Les résultats démontrent que le score des tests de discours communicatifs dans le post-test était significativement plus élevée que dans le pré-test au niveau significatif de 0,05 avec ($t = 2,90$) dans le groupe expérimental 1 et ($t = 3,57$) dans le groupe expérimental 2. La première hypothèse est partiellement confirmée. La deuxième hypothèse est validée puisque plus de (80%) des étudiants dans les deux groupes expérimentaux étaient fortement motivés. En outre, la plupart des enseignants ont reconnu leur impact positif sur la performance des étudiants et l'environnement de la classe. Enfin, des suggestions et des recommandations sont également formulées pour sur améliorer et maximiser les avantages de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage en utilisant la technique de simulation.

Mots Clés : Les activités de simulation, la compétence d'écoute, la compétence de la parole.