

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH
FRERES MENTOURI UNIVERSITY, CONSTANTINE
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES
DEPARTMENT OF LETTERS AND ENGLISH

**Measuring the Effectiveness of Classroom Presentations
and their Impact on Students' Motivation for Fluent
Speaking Performance: The Case Study of Second Year
Students of English in Echahid Hamma Lakhdar University,
El-Oued**

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English in Candidacy for the
Degree of Doctorate in Methodology of Language Teaching

Supervisor: Prof. Abdelhak NEMOUCHI
Candidate: Ahmed ZELLOUMA

Board of Examiners

Chairwoman: Prof. Farida ABDERRAHIM Frères Mentouri University, Constantine
Supervisor: Prof. Abdelhak NEMOUCHI ... Larbi Ben M'hidi University, Oum El Bouaghi
Member: Prof. Said KESKES Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University, Setif
Member: Prof. Mohamed OUSKOURT El Emir Abdekader University, Constantine
Member: Prof. Riad BELOUAHEM Frères Mentouri University, Constantine
Member: Prof. Youcef BEGHOUL Frères Mentouri University, Constantine

Thesis defended on March 7th, 2019

Dedication

To my parents, siblings and true friends.

Acknowledgments

First of all, praise to Allah for giving me the strength to overcome all the obstacles and difficulties so as to, finally, reach my current level of education and fulfill my long-awaited goal in life.

Great thanks go to the board of examiners for kindly accepting to examine this thesis. I must extend special thanks to **Prof. Farida ABDERRAHIM**, the chairwoman of the jury, for her endless support, care and tremendous efforts from the day I met her to this moment. Also, words fail to express my deep and sincere gratitude and thanks to my supervisor, whom I consider a godfather indeed, **Prof. Abdelhak NEMOUCHI** for being extremely patient, supportive and helpful whenever I needed help or guidance in the course of writing this work. Besides, thanks to the critical eye and constructive comments and remarks given by the worthy and respected members of the jury **Prof. Said KESKES**, **Prof. Mouhamed OUSKOURT**, **Prof. Riad BELOUAHEM** and **Prof. Youcef BEGHOUL**, this work will be polished and will reach a perfect state.

There are many other people whose generous assistance, precious guidance and endless support made the completion of this thesis possible.

There is no way I can express how much I owe to my parents **Miloud** and **Yesmina** for their love, generous spirit and infinite encouragement throughout the many years of my life and education.

Thanks to my siblings and true friends (**Amine SAIFI**, **Ahmed BOULEMHAL**, **Ali AFESS**, **Sadok BAHA**, **Kamel Eddine NASRI** and **Boubaker MOHROM**) who pushed me further every time I felt exhausted, demotivated or thought of giving up halfway through this journey.

My profound thanks to my colleagues in university of Echahid Hamma Lakhdar - El-Oued (**Dr. Mohamed NAOUA, Mr. Mohammed CHOUCHANI ABIDI, Miss. Mebarka KHELEF and Mr. Tarek SEMARI**) and those in Chouia Djebari Secondary School - Ourmes who never hesitated to give me a hand whenever I needed it.

Also, I would like to extend my gratitude to my former students, those who gave a hand distributing and collecting the teachers' questionnaire around the different universities or those who participated with pleasure in this study and kindly answered the students' questionnaire, without whom this research would not have seen the light.

I would also like to express my tremendous gratitude to all my pupils in Karkoubia Khalifa Secondary School - Robah, namely **Boutaina KAHMAN, Souhir GHERBI, Aicha FETHIZA ALI, Fatima Zohra MENAIE and Abdelbasset HAFSI** whom I all miss dearly. Also, I am utterly thankful to all my pupils in Chouia Djebari Secondary School - Ourmes, especially the future doctor **Miss. Sabrina MAAMOUN** who considers me as her role model and whose trust pushes me to be a greater teacher and do better in life.

Undoubtedly, I will not forget to express my lifetime gratefulness to all my teachers who made me the educated person I am today. I am extremely thankful to **Mme. Kaltoum KKELEF** who was the first teacher to inspire me to pursue my studies in the English language. Besides, I am deeply grateful once again to **Prof. Abdelhak NEMOUCHI** for polishing my writing skill. Moreover, I must record my debt to **Dr. Karima LAKEHAL-AYAT - BENMATI** who was not just a teacher but also a pole and a pillar in the department of English. Last but not least, I extend special thanks to the soul of **Prof. Samir LARABA** who was the first person to tell me *"you will be a great teacher."* Rest in peace great man, we know you are in a better place.

Abstract

The present study has two major aims. First, it investigates the impact of students' classroom presentations on their motivation to achieve a fluent speaking performance. Second, it investigates the effectiveness of an alternative course of oral expression activities that aim at both increasing students' motivation to attend as well as their chances to participate in the speaking class, hence enhancing their speaking abilities. In this research, we hypothesize that oral presentations, and under the current conditions, demotivate students from active participation in the oral expression sessions. Not only that, but this practice also hinders the development of their speaking abilities. We also hypothesize that the alternative course of speaking activities is a better-suited solution to the problem, both to motivate students and enhance their speaking skill. Indeed, the three different means of research (a questionnaire for forty national oral expression teachers, and that of 105 second year students of English, besides their first test) reveal much information about the subject matter and strongly confirm these hypotheses. The students' questionnaire, on the one hand, shows that this course actually does what it is designed to achieve. Students' motivation increases remarkably during the application of the course. The students' second test, on the other hand, confirms that students' speaking performance develops thanks to the course. On the basis of the obtained results, the hypotheses we tested came to be confirmed, in that the oral presentations students perform demotivate them from taking part in the speaking class, also they do not improve their speaking performance. In contrast, the alternative course remarkably increases students' motivation and significantly improves their oral skills.

Key Words: speaking, public speaking, oral expression, oral presentations, motivation.

List of Tables

Table 01: Categories of Language Skills	10
Table 02: Nature of the Speaking Skill in Comparison with the Writing Skill	13-5
Table 03: Examples of Formal and Informal Speech	31
Table 04: Suggested Criteria for Assessing the Speaking Skill	40
Table 05: Teachers' Experience in Teaching Oral Expression at the University	116
Table 06: Average Number of Students in the Groups	117
Table 07: Teaching Oral Expression According to CLT Approach	118
Table 08: Teachers' Evaluation of Students' Speaking Skill	122
Table 09: Number of Students Who Participate Actively and Regularly in the Oral Expression Sessions	124
Table 10: Accurate Assessment Strategy of Students' Speaking Performance	126
Table 11: Truthfulness of Oral Presentations in Assessing Students' Speaking Skill	127
Table 12: Teachers' Instructions to their Students for Oral Presentations	129
Table 13: Teachers' Perception of the Students' Knowledge of Types of Oral Presentations	129
Table 14: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentation from Teachers' Observations	130
Table 15: Teachers' Instruction and Training to Students about Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations	132

Table 16: Teachers' Supposition about the Students' Knowledge of Methods of Delivering of Oral Presentations	133
Table 17: Students' Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids	133
Table 18: Teachers' Instruction and Training to their Students on Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids in Presentations	134
Table 19: Students' Knowledge of How to Use Body Language and Visual Aids on Stage	135
Table 20: Amount of Time Teachers Devote to Oral Presentations	136
Table 21: Correspondence of Oral Presentations to CLT Standards	137
Table 22: Number of Students Teachers Prefer to have in an Oral Presentation	138
Table 23: Amount of Time Teachers Give for Every Oral Presentation	139
Table 24: Number of Times per Year Each Group Present	140
Table 25: Amount of Time Each Student Gets to Present per Year	141
Table 26: Sufficiency of Time for Developing the Speaking Skill	143
Table 27: Similarity between Oral Presentations and Everyday Interaction	144
Table 28: Oral Presentations' Ability to Develop Students' Communicative Competence	145
Table 29: Students' Learnability of Language Functions from Oral Presentations	145
Table 30: Students' Level of Noise after Few Presentations	148
Table 31: Effectiveness of Oral Presentation in Improving Students' Speaking Skill	150

Table 32: Extent to which Oral Presentations can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction	151
Table 33: Speaking Activities for Potential Increase of Students' Motivation	152
Table 34: Other Speaking Activities to Improve Students' Speaking Skill in General and their Fluency in Particular	153
Table 35: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in Oral Presentations	154
Table 36: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in a Class where other Speaking Activities are Applied According to Teachers' Observations	155
Table 37: Period of Time Students Studied English in the University	158
Table 38: Students' Self-evaluation of their Speaking Skill	161
Table 39: Most Frequently Applied Classroom Speaking Activities in the Oral Expression Sessions	165
Table 40: Students' Frequency of Participation in the Oral Sessions (Previously)	166
Table 41: Main Reasons behind Students' Lack of Participation	167
Table 42: Amount of Time Students Got to Present per Year	168
Table 43: Students' Desires to Practice Different Activities instead of Oral Presentations ...	169
Table 44: Students' Desire to Work in Groups to Deliver Presentations	170
Table 45: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations	171

Table 46: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Received from their Teachers	172
Table 47: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Obtained from other Sources	173
Table 48: Teachers' Delivery of Model Oral Presentations for their Students	174
Table 49: Effects of Problems' on Students' Motivation after Delivering Presentations	177
Table 50: Students' Motivation towards the Session during Oral presentations	179
Table 51: Comparing Oral Presentations to Real-life Interactions	180
Table 52: Sufficiency of Time Oral Presentations Provide for Improving Students' Speaking Skill	181
Table 53: Extent to which Oral Presentations Improved Students' Speaking Skill	182
Table 54: Extent to which Oral Presentations Can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction	183
Table 55: Students' Motivation towards Studying and Learning English	184
Table 56: Students' Sources of Motivation to Study and Learn English	185
Table 57: Students' motivation towards Attending Oral Presentations	186
Table 58: Students' Motivation towards the Oral Expression Session in the Intermediate Phase	188
Table 59: Students' Self-assessment of their Speaking Skill after the Intermediate Phase ...	189

Table 60: Results of the Control Group of Students in the Pre-test and Post-test 196-9

Table 61: Results of the Experimental Group of Students in the Pre-test and Post-test
..... 216-8

Table 62: Results of the Control Group and Experimental Group of Students in the Post-test
..... 219-21

List of Figures

Figure 01: Maslow's Hierarchy of Basic Needs	87
Figure 02: Teachers' Experience in Teaching Oral Expression at the University	117
Figure 03: Average Number of Students in the Groups	118
Figure 04: Teaching Oral Expression According to CLT Approach	119
Figure 05: Degree of Effectiveness of CLT Activities in Developing Students' Speaking Skill	120
Figure 06: Frequency of Application of CLT Activities in Oral Expression Sessions	121
Figure 07: Teachers' Evaluation of Students' Speaking Skill	122
Figure 08: Teachers' Suppositions Concerning Students' Poor/Average Levels of Speaking Skill	123
Figure 09: Number of Students Who Participate Actively and Regularly in the Oral Expression Sessions	124
Figure 10: Reasons behind Students' Lack of Participation in Teachers' Opinion	125
Figure 11: Accurate Assessment Strategy of Students' Speaking Performance	126
Figure 12: Truthfulness of Oral Presentations in Assessing Students' Speaking Skill	127
Figure 13: Teachers' Aims behind Using Students' Oral Presentations	128
Figure 14: Teachers' Instructions to their Students for Oral Presentations	129

Figure 15: Teachers' Perception of Students' Knowledge of Types of Oral Presentations	130
Figure 16: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentation from Teachers' Observations	131
Figure 17: Teachers Instruction and Training to Students about Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations	132
Figure 18: Teachers' Supposition about Students' Knowledge of Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations	133
Figure 19: Students' Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids	134
Figure 20: Teachers' Instruction and Training to their Students on Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids in Presentations	135
Figure 21: Students' Knowledge of How to Use Body Language and Visual Aids on Stage	136
Figure 22: Amount of Time Teachers Devote Oral Presentations	137
Figure 23: Correspondence of Oral Presentations to CLT Standards	138
Figure 24: Number of Students Teachers Prefer to have in an Oral Presentation	139
Figure 25: Amount of Time Teachers Give for Every Oral Presentation	140
Figure 26: Number of Times per Year Each Group Present	141
Figure 27: Amount of Time Each Student Gets to Present per Year	142
Figure 28: Sufficiency of Time for Developing the Speaking Skill	143

Figure 29: Similarity between Oral Presentations and Everyday Interaction	144
Figure 30: Oral Presentations' Ability to Develop Students' Communicative Competence ...	145
Figure 31: Students' Learnability of Language Functions from Oral Presentations	146
Figure 32: Language Functions that Students Learn from Oral Presentations	147
Figure 33: Students' Level of Noise after Few Presentations	148
Figure 34: Most Noticed Problems in Students' Presentations	149
Figure 35: Effectiveness of Oral Presentation in Improving Students' Speaking Skill	150
Figure 36: Extent to which Oral Presentations can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction	151
Figure 37: Speaking Activities for Potential Increase of Students' Motivation	152
Figure 38: Other Speaking Activities to Improve Students' Speaking Skill in General and their Fluency in Particular	153
Figure 39: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in Oral Presentations	154
Figure 40: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in a Class where other Speaking Activities are Applied According to Teachers' Observations	155
Figure 41: Period of Time Students Studied English in the University	159
Figure 42: Importance of Language Skills According to Students	160
Figure 43: Most Difficult Language Skills According to Students	160
Figure 44: Students' Self-evaluation of their Speaking Skill	162

Figure 45: Students' Suppositions of the Reasons behind their Poor/ Average Speaking Skill	163
Figure 46: Students' Favorite Classroom Speaking Activity	164
Figure 47: Most Frequently Applied Classroom Speaking Activities in the Oral Expression Sessions	165
Figure 48: Students' frequency of Participation in the Oral Sessions (Previously)	166
Figure 49: Main Reasons behind Students' Lack of Participation	167
Figure 50: Amount of Time Students Got to Present per Year	168
Figure 51: Students' Desires to Practice Different Activities instead of Oral Presentations ..	169
Figure 52: Students' Desire to Work in Groups to Deliver Presentations	170
Figure 53: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations	171
Figure 54: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Received from their Teachers	172
Figure 55: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Obtained from other Sources	173
Figure 56: Teachers' Delivery of Model Oral Presentations for their Students	175
Figure 57: Problems Students Face-d When Working on Oral Presentations	176
Figure 58: Effects of Problems' on Students' Motivation after Delivering Presentations	177

Figure 59: Skills Developed from Delivering Oral Presentations	178
Figure 60: Students' Motivation towards the Session during Oral Presentations	179
Figure 61: Comparing Oral Presentations to Real-life Interactions	180
Figure 62: Sufficiency of Time Oral Presentations Provide for Improving Students' Speaking Skill	181
Figure 63: Extent to which Oral Presentations Improved Students' Speaking Skill	182
Figure 64: Extent to which Oral Presentations Can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction	183
Figure 65: Students' Motivation towards Studying and Learning English	184
Figure 66: Students' Sources of Motivation to Study and Learn English	185
Figure 67: Students' Motivation towards Attending Oral Presentations	187
Figure 68: Students' Motivation towards the Oral Expression Session in the Intermediate Phase	188
Figure 69: Students' Self-assessment of their Speaking Skill after the Intermediate Phase ..	189

List of Contents

Dedication	I
Acknowledgements	II
Abstract	IV
List of Tables	V
List of Figures	X

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study	01
2. Statement of the Problem	02
3. Aims of the Study	03
4. Research Questions	04
5. Hypotheses	04
6. Means of Research	05
7. Structure of the Study	06

Chapter One: The Speaking Skill

Introduction	08
1.1. Definition of the Speaking Skill	08
1.2. Importance of the Speaking Skill	09
1.3. Difficulty of the Speaking Skill	11
1.4. The Nature of the Speaking skill	13

1.5.	Characteristics of the Speaking Skill	15
1.5.1.	Speed	15
1.5.2.	Pausing	16
1.5.3.	Production vs. Recognition	16
1.5.4.	Other Characteristics	17
1.6.	The Place of the Speaking Skill in Language Teaching Approaches and Methods	17
1.7.	Approaches to the Speaking Skill	20
1.7.1.	The Environmentalist Approach	20
1.7.2.	The Innatist Approach	21
1.7.3.	The Interactionist Approach	22
1.7.4.	The Communicative Competence Approach	23
1.7.4.1.	Linguistic Competence	24
1.7.4.2.	Discourse Competence	25
1.7.4.3.	Pragmatic Competence	25
1.7.4.4.	Strategic Competence	25
1.8.	An Integrated Approach to Teaching the Speaking Skill	26
1.9.	Major Developmental Stages of Learners' Speaking Skill	29
1.9.1.	Beginning Stage	29
1.9.2.	Intermediate Stage	29
1.9.3.	Advanced Stage	30
1.10.	Formal and Informal Speech	30
1.11.	Classroom Speaking Activities	31
1.11.1.	Group Discussions	31
1.11.2.	Speeches	32

1.11.3.	Role Plays	34
1.11.4.	Language Games	35
1.11.5.	Dialogues	36
1.11.6.	Questionnaires	36
1.11.7.	Other Activities	36
1.12.	Assessment of the Speaking Skill	37
1.12.1.	Definition of Assessment	37
1.12.2.	Self-assessment	37
1.12.3.	Criteria of Assessment	38
1.12.4.	Techniques of Assessment	38
1.12.5.	Scoring Procedure of Assessment	39
1.12.6.	Difficulties of Assessment	40
1.12.7.	Guidelines for Better Assessment	42
1.13.	Correction of Learners' Speaking Mistakes	42
	Conclusion	46

Chapter Two: Public Speaking and Oral Presentations

	Introduction	47
2.1.	Definitions	48
2.1.1.	Public Speaking	48
2.1.2.	Oral Presentations	48
2.1.3.	Public Speeches vs. Oral Presentations	48
2.2.	Purposes of Students' Oral Presentations	49
2.2.1.	Training	49

2.2.2.	Teaching and Learning	49
2.2.3.	Persuasion	50
2.2.4.	Assessment	50
2.3.	Types of Public Speeches and Oral Presentations	50
2.3.1.	Informative Speeches	50
2.3.1.1.	Descriptive Speeches	51
2.3.1.2.	Explanatory Speeches	51
2.3.1.3.	Demonstrative Speeches	51
2.3.2.	Persuasive Speeches	52
2.3.3.	Special Occasion Speeches	53
2.4.	Methods of Delivering Public Speeches and Oral Presentations	54
2.4.1.	Reading from a Script	54
2.4.2.	Memorized Speeches	55
2.4.3.	Extemporaneous Speeches	56
2.4.4.	Impromptu Speeches	57
2.5.	Body Language	57
2.5.1.	Personal Appearance	58
2.5.2.	Posture	59
2.5.3.	Facial Expressions and Eye Contact	59
2.5.4.	Body Movements	60
2.5.5.	Gestures (Hands and Arms)	61
2.5.6.	Personal Space	61
2.6.	Visual Aids	62
2.6.1.	Definition of Visual Aids	62

2.6.2.	Types of Visual Aids	62
2.6.2.1.	Chalkboards and Whiteboards	62
2.6.2.2.	Overhead Projectors	63
2.6.2.3.	PowerPoint	63
2.6.2.4.	Handouts	64
2.6.2.5.	Graphics: Charts, Graphs, Maps and Diagrams	65
2.6.2.6.	Pictures and Drawings	66
2.6.2.7.	People, Objects and Models	67
2.6.2.8.	Audiovisuals	67
2.6.2.9.	Computers and the Internet	68
2.6.3.	Advantages of Using Visual Aids	68
2.6.4.	Disadvantages of Using Visual Aids	69
2.7.	Problems of Public Speeches and Oral Presentations	70
2.8.	Public Speaking Anxiety	71
2.8.1.	Symptoms of Public Speaking Anxiety	72
2.8.2.	Causes of Public Speaking Anxiety	72
2.9.	Pros and Cons of Students' Oral Presentations	74
2.9.1.	Pros	74
2.9.2.	Cons	75
	Conclusion	76

Chapter Three: Motivation in Language Learning

	Introduction	78
3.1.	Definitions	78

3.2.	History and Development of Motivation	82
3.3.	Theories of Motivation	83
3.3.1.	Early Theories	83
3.3.2.	Self-efficacy Theory	84
3.3.3.	Needs Theory	87
3.3.3.1.	Deficiency Needs	88
3.3.3.2.	Growth Needs	89
3.3.4.	Attribution Theory	90
3.3.5.	Goal Setting Theory	91
3.3.6.	Douglas McGregor's X and Y Theory	92
3.3.7.	Behaviorist Theory	93
3.3.8.	Expectancy-value Theory	94
3.3.9.	The Drive Theory	95
3.3.10.	Contemporary Theories	96
3.3.11.	Need Achievement Theory	96
3.4.	Types of Motivation	96
3.4.1.	Intrinsic Motivation	97
3.4.2.	Extrinsic Motivation	100
3.4.3.	Overlap between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation	102
3.4.4.	Instrumental Motivation	104
3.4.5.	Integrative Motivation	105
3.4.6.	Achievement Motivation	105
3.4.7.	Other Types	107
3.4.7.1.	Unconscious Motivation	107

3.4.7.2.	Autonomous and Controlled Motivation	107
3.4.7.3.	Resultative Motivation	108
3.5.	The Importance of Motivation in Language Learning	108
3.6.	Sources of Motivation	109
3.6.1.	Society	109
3.6.2.	Close People	110
3.6.3.	The Teacher	110
3.6.4.	The Method	110
3.7.	Assessment of Motivation	110
3.8.	Initiating, Sustaining and Losing Motivation	111
3.8.1.	Initiating and Sustaining Motivation	111
3.8.2.	Losing Motivation	112
	Conclusion	113
Chapter Four: The Teachers' and the Students' Opinions about the Impact of Classroom Presentations on the Students' Motivation for Fluent Speaking Performance		
	Introduction	114
4.1.	The Teachers' Questionnaire	115
4.1.1.	Description of the Research Population	115
4.1.2.	Description of the Questionnaire	116
4.1.3.	Discussion of the Results	116
4.1.4.	Synthesis of the Results	155
4.2.	The Students' Questionnaire	157
4.2.1.	Description of the Research Population	157

4.2.2.	Description of the Questionnaire	158
4.2.3.	Discussion of the Results	158
4.2.4.	Synthesis of the Results	190
4.3.	Synthesis of the Results of the Questionnaires	191
	Conclusion	192

Chapter Five: The Students' Performance in the Test Measuring the Impact of Classroom Presentations and the Alternative Course on their Motivation for Fluent Speaking Performance

	Introduction	194
5.1.	The Students' Tests	194
5.1.1.	Test One: Measuring the Effectiveness of Oral Presentations in Developing Students' Speaking Skill	194
5.1.1.1.	Description of the Test Population	194
5.1.1.2.	Description of the Test	195
5.1.1.3.	Discussion and Analysis of the Results	196
5.1.2.	Test Two: Measuring the Effectiveness of the Alternative Course in Developing Students' Speaking Skill	200
5.1.2.1.	The Students' Pre-Test	200
5.1.2.1.1.	Description of the Test Population	200
5.1.2.1.2.	Description of the Pre-test	200
5.1.2.1.3.	Discussion of the Results	201
5.1.2.2.	The Intermediate Phase	204
5.1.2.2.1.	Tell Me More	205
5.1.2.2.2.	Story Telling	206

5.1.2.2.3.	Develop, Act and Impress	207
5.1.2.2.4.	Vocabulary Expansion	207
5.1.2.2.5.	It's Hard for Everyone	208
5.1.2.2.6.	Act it Out	209
5.1.2.2.7.	Discussion Games	210
5.1.2.2.8.	Match it Up	211
5.1.2.2.9.	Free Role-plays	212
5.1.2.3.	The Students' Post-Test	213
5.1.2.3.1.	Description of the Post-test	213
5.1.2.3.2.	Discussion and Analysis of the Results	213
5.1.3.	Synthesis of the Two Tests' Results	223
5.2.	Final Discussion	224
	Pedagogical Recommendations	225
	Conclusion	228
	General Conclusion	229
	References	231-43
	Appendices	
	ملخص	
	Résumé	

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Language is believed to be the most significant means of communication in human life. Without language, life would be next to impossible. That is to say, how exchanging ideas, negotiating thoughts, teaching others and learning from them, apologizing, telling jokes, saying prayers, expressing affection or hatred, and communication - starting with its simplest forms and ending with its most sophisticated ones - in general would have existed if we had had no language to help us accomplish such different linguistic tasks? In short, one tends to believe that all these tasks mentioned above and many others would have been extremely difficult without this highly sophisticated means of communication called language.

In order to assure the role of an effective agent amongst members of the speech community with whom we live, one must be fluent in at least one language. But being competent in only one's mother tongue is not sufficient to ensure effective communication with the rest of the world. In fact, it highly demands the mastery of more than one language, especially English, because it is the language which is the most commonly used and needed all over the planet. One cannot escape admitting the fact that English discourse is found everywhere around us. It is literally dominating most of people's social interactions as well as most of the different fields of life. Therefore, one has no choice but to learn how to write and speak in at least one foreign language, English in this case, so as to be recognized as an active participant in any communicative event wherever and whenever it happens to take place.

In order to effectively communicate using a given language, one has to make sure they master the four known language skills which shape most of our human communicative events: speaking, listening, writing and reading. Speaking, which is often believed to be the

most paramount productive skill in everyday communication, is also believed to be the most difficult to learn and the hardest to teach as well. Unlike writing where linguistic competence is primarily needed, in speaking, one must have a high level both in that aspect like to possess sufficient lexis, accurate grammar, and so forth, and he/she also needs to acquire communicative competence too so as to be able to use language both fluently and appropriately.

2. Statement of the Problem

Teaching accuracy, fluency and context-appropriateness in spoken language are what makes teaching speaking hard. Here, the teacher has to pay a great deal of attention as to how to bring the best of a student's both linguistic and communicative competence at the same time. In simpler words, an oral expression tutor's role is to help students speak correct language in appropriate contexts.

Indeed, oral expression teachers' ultimate goal is to enable students to say correct utterances in their suitable contexts. However, the simplicity of this idea should not deceive anyone to underestimate the tremendous effort it takes to achieve such a goal. In fact, the mission is very difficult as it covers a diversity of complicated topics related to both linguistic and communicative competence. Teaching vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and phrasal verbs, explaining the background of different culture-related issues such as idioms, proverbs and idiomatic expressions are just few aspects that teachers of oral expression have to pay attention to while teaching speaking.

One of the most commonly used techniques by Algerian teachers of oral expression in teaching speaking is oral presentations. It is believed that such a technique prepares students

to effectively and fluently communicate in a given real-life context. It is thought that it does equip students with the necessary tools and techniques to successfully perform in any oral interaction. Nevertheless, on the basis of our five-year, or so, learning experience in Frères Mentouri University - Constantine, and based on our observation of what has long been taking place at this particular institution and others, one tends to form a solid belief that this strategy is not functioning well, if at all. One tends to believe so because most students seem to fail in achieving the objectives set by their teachers. They seem not to achieve accurate, fluent and context-appropriate speaking performance. Moreover, students clearly seem to gradually lose motivation and interest in the subject of oral expression throughout the period of their studies. The ineffectiveness of the strategy applied by most, if not all, oral expression teachers might be due to the false application of the standards of public speaking while making oral presentations, or it might be due to teachers' as well as students' misunderstanding or, sometimes, ignorance of the proper delivery of oral presentations. As it could be due to the difficulty of proper application of this strategy especially with large groups of students like the ones which are usually found in most Algerian universities.

3. Aims of the Study

Based on the observations cited above, one is aiming through this research at:

- analyzing the literature to find out how public speeches and oral presentations are supposed to be done. Then, we will compare those standards with the analysis of the results of our investigation of how they are being done in the chosen institution(s). Analyzing the discrepancies between the two findings enlightens us as where the problem lies, thus, suggesting effective solutions to it.

- measuring the extent to which the oral presentations which are currently being done motivate students to the subject of oral expression. Once again, we will compare the results with those of the communicative course we suggest as an alternative strategy.
- identifying the degree to which the oral presentations which are currently being done help students achieve a fluent speaking performance. Then, again, we compare the obtained results with those of the communicative course we suggest as an alternative solution.

4. Research Questions

1. What are the standards of a good oral presentation according to the literature?
2. Do the oral presentations, which are currently being applied, respect the common standards of public speaking and oral presentations?
3. To what degree do they arouse students' motivation towards the subject of oral expression?
4. To what extent do they help students improve their speaking skill in general, and achieve a fluent speaking performance in particular?
5. Would teaching students an innovative oral expression course following the communicative approach further increase students' motivation to the subject of oral expression? In addition, would it improve their speaking skill in general and enhance their fluency in particular?

5. Hypotheses

In the light of the questions cited above, we hypothesize that:

1. Oral presentations, which are being currently done in most Algerian universities, do not respect the standards of public speaking and oral presentations.
2. These oral presentations have a negative impact on students' motivation to the subject of oral expression.

3. Such oral presentations do not help much in the development of students' speaking skill, especially their performance in real-life situations.
4. If students in Echahid Hamma Lakhdar University were taught an innovative course of oral expression sessions following the Communicative Approach to language teaching; then their motivation to the subject would increase significantly, their speaking skill would improve in general, and their performance in real-life contexts would develop in particular.

6. Means of Research

In this study, data is collected using the following means:

A questionnaire is submitted to a sample of fifty (50) teachers of oral expression in the chosen institutions which aims, mainly, at identifying and analyzing the current prevailing strategy(ies) used to teach the subject of oral expression. The questionnaire also provides us with information of how such oral presentations are being done in addition to few other points in relation.

Another questionnaire is submitted to 105 second year students of English in Echahid Hamma Lakhdar University, El-Oued. Among the major issues which students are asked about in this questionnaire are the influence of oral presentations on their motivation, speaking skill and fluency. It also aims at knowing the extent to which their motivation increases to the subject of oral expression during and after the suggested course is applied.

A pre-test is used to evaluate the students' current speaking abilities, especially when they are put in real-life speaking contexts. This pre-test aims at measuring the students' actual speaking skill before subjecting them to an intermediate phase where the suggested course is applied.

By the end of the course, a second test of the same form is used to analyze how effective the course we suggest and apply is in developing the students' speaking skill in general and their fluency in particular. These results are compared to a control group of students who are not taught this special course, but oral presentations instead, to see which method makes a significant difference in the level of the students' speaking skill.

7. Structure of the Study

Our thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter one discusses a number of topics concerning the speaking skill, namely its definition, importance, difficulty, nature, characteristics, how it is taught and improved, and how it is assessed. Few other speaking-related issues are discussed in this chapter as well.

Chapter two tackles many issues concerning public speaking and oral presentations: their definitions, purposes, types, methods of delivery, problematic concerns such as public speaking anxiety, their advantages, disadvantages and potential impact on the students' motivation and speaking skill.

Chapter three deals with an important psychological topic; motivation. Here, motivation is defined; its major theories and types are discussed; its types are tackled, its importance in language learning is explained; and its development, sources and assessment are tackled.

Chapters four and five of this study are of an empirical nature. In these two chapters, the aim is analyzing the pros, if any, and the cons of the current prevailing technique used to teach oral expression in the chosen institutions. Needless to say, the analysis is based on the findings of what the literature review suggests an oral presentation should be like. Moreover, the results of the different questionnaires and tests used in our research are analyzed and

compared to verify the truth of the hypotheses set at the beginning of this research and determine the effectiveness of the suggested course.

Chapter One: The Speaking Skill

Introduction	08
1.1. Definition of the Speaking Skill	08
1.2. Importance of the Speaking Skill	09
1.3. Difficulty of the Speaking Skill	11
1.4. The Nature of the Speaking skill	13
1.5. Characteristics of the Speaking Skill	15
1.5.1. Speed	15
1.5.2. Pausing	16
1.5.3. Production vs. Recognition	16
1.5.4. Other Characteristics	17
1.6. The Place of the Speaking Skill in Language Teaching Approaches and Methods	17
1.7. Approaches to the Speaking Skill	20
1.7.1. The Environmentalist Approach	20
1.7.2. The Innatist Approach	21
1.7.3. The Interactionist Approach	22
1.7.4. The Communicative Competence Approach	23
1.7.4.1. Linguistic Competence	24
1.7.4.2. Discourse Competence	25
1.7.4.3. Pragmatic Competence	25
1.7.4.4. Strategic Competence	25
1.8. An Integrated Approach to Teaching the Speaking Skill	26
1.9. Major Developmental Stages of Learners' Speaking Skill	29

1.9.1.	Beginning Stage	29
1.9.2.	Intermediate Stage	29
1.9.3.	Advanced Stage	30
1.10.	Formal and Informal Speech	30
1.11.	Classroom Speaking Activities	31
1.11.1.	Group Discussions	31
1.11.2.	Speeches	32
1.11.3.	Role Plays	34
1.11.4.	Language Games	35
1.11.5.	Dialogues	36
1.11.6.	Questionnaires	36
1.11.7.	Other Activities	36
1.12.	Assessment of the Speaking Skill	37
1.12.1.	Definition of Assessment	37
1.12.2.	Self-assessment	37
1.12.3.	Criteria of Assessment	38
1.12.4.	Techniques of Assessment	38
1.12.5.	Scoring Procedure of Assessment	39
1.12.6.	Difficulties of Assessment	40
1.12.7.	Guidelines for Better Assessment	42
1.13.	Correction of Learners' Speaking Mistakes	42
	Conclusion	46

Introduction

Among all the special powers that mankind have been given, language remains the most fascinating one of them all. Language can be spoken, can be written, can be sung, and can save someone's thoughts for almost an endless period of time in order to be shared in very distant places and completely different times. It can also accurately depict a person's ideas and emotions so that he/she can educate, inspire or entertain other people worldwide. Language is such an important human characteristic that there were/are hundreds and hundreds of languages spoken by different nations from the beginning of life until now. They can all fulfill the functions mentioned above, and many more.

The chapter in hand attempts to tackle different points regarding the speaking skill. It first starts by defining the skill. Then, it moves to discuss its importance, difficulty, nature, characteristics and place throughout the known language teaching approaches and methods. This chapter also tackles the approaches and major developmental stages of speaking. It also includes descriptions of the main classroom speaking activities, and information about the procedure of assessing the skill. It ends with an important point concerning the method and timing of correction of learners' speaking mistakes.

1.1. Definition of the Speaking Skill

The word *speech* comes from Middle English "*speche*" - Old English "*spate*" which is a variant of "*sprxc*", from "*sprecan*" that cognates with the German word "*Sprache*" and which originates from "*sprechen*" - that means: (1) the primary form of language (oral communication in general used on any particular occasion); or (2) usually a formal occasion when a person addresses an audience, often with the help of notes or a prepared text; or (3)

the field of study associated with speaking and listening like we say: the science of speech (McArthur, 1992, p. 965).

According to Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2008), the verb *to speak* means "*to say words, to use the voice, or to have a conversation with someone.*" The verb is also defined as the ability to talk in a given language.

1.2. Importance of the Speaking Skill

Obviously, human language is the most distinguishing feature of mankind from all other creatures on the planet. Despite the fact that almost every specie has its unique "*signaling system*¹" or language, that of humans remains the most fascinating system of them all (Trask, 1999, p. 1). A major part of its fascination lies in the fact that - unlike all other systems - it has four distinctive modes. In language arts², these four modes are compared and contrasted in many ways. One way is that listening and speaking, called "*primary modes*", involve the oral-aural form of language and are acquired naturally before schooling years; while reading and writing involve the written/visual form of language and are, in general, formally learned in school. A second way of representing these skills is by the activity of the user. Thus, speaking and writing are productive skills in which the user constructs and conveys meaning via messages to others; whereas listening and reading are receptive skills where the listener or reader decodes and comprehends meaning from those sent messages (Wood, 2003, p. 1393; Shastri, 2002, p. 5; Richards et al., 2002). These words can be better summarized and shown in the following table:

¹ For instance, crickets chirp, birds sing, monkeys squawk, fireflies flash, and even ants leave smelly trails for their co-workers to follow. Not only that, but also certain species of whales are now known to sing songs, or that honeybees perform elaborate dances to announce the location of nectar to the hive (Trask, 1999).

² Typically, educators use the term to describe the curriculum area that includes four modes of language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Wood, 2003, p. 1393).

	Productive Skills	Receptive Skills
Oral-Aural	Speaking	Listening
Written-Visual	Writing	Reading

Table 01: Categories of Language Skills (Widdowson, 1978, p. 57)

Needless to say, people use different language modes in their everyday communication which are all very important. One should be "*well-versed*" in all the four skills of language - listening, speaking, reading and writing - so as to ensure effective use of language (Shastri, 2002, p. 63). However, speaking is believed to be the skill of the most paramount importance required for effective communication in any language (Boonkit, 2010). The notes below summarize why the speaking skill is of such high significance:

- ❖ In everyday life, people talk more than they read or write (Wright, 2009) and most of their talk is either face-to-face or telephonic. Therefore, learners need to develop this skill for their existence (Shastri, 2002).
- ❖ People learn a foreign language with an objective which is to communicate with the speakers of that language (Tavil, 2010). Communication, here, does not necessarily have to be for materialistic goals, but even to establish or maintain social relationships with others (Puffer, 2006, p. 187). Another important benefit of bilingualism is the ability to be exposed to two cultures, two bodies of literature and two worldviews. Not only that, but it also has economic advantages, as there is an increasing demand for bilinguals in the new global economy (Snow & Freedson-Gonzalez, 2003, p. 183). Boonkit (2010) mentioned that the speaking skill or communication skills were usually placed ahead of work experience, motivation, and academic credentials as criteria for new recruitment for employment.
- ❖ Last, but not least, Maxom (2009, p. 183) stated that "*speaking is the most important skill in English language teaching [because] it is almost impossible to have true mastery of a language without actually speaking it.*"

A quotation which perfectly sums up the importance of the speaking skill is that of Rogova (1975, p. 150) who says, "*Language came into life as a means of communication. It exists and is alive only through speech.*"

1.3. Difficulty of the Speaking Skill

For most people, knowing a language is synonymous to speaking it because speech is the most basic means of human communication. "*Speaking in a second or foreign language has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills*" (Bailey and Savage 1994 qu.in. Lazaraton, 2001, p. 103; Scott & Ytreberg, 1990). People may read and write quite effectively, but when it comes to speaking, they tend to face serious difficulties, because speaking involves different kinds of learning activities which are not found in listening, reading or writing (Bygate, 2009). For instance,

in written production, each writer can get on by himself, without disturbing the rest of the class, at his own speed [...]. In the production of speech, however, each speaker needs to speak. He needs to speak individually and, ideally, he needs someone to listen to him speaking and to respond to him (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 1).

Among the reasons why developing the speaking skill is considered to be the hardest are:

- ❖ **The grammatical and phonological systems of the target language:** speaking in the target language is difficult, sometimes "*daunting*", because the learner needs to use unfamiliar vocabulary, grammatical and phonetic systems that are much less automatically known than their first language (Puffer, 2006, p. 187). That is to say, learners need to master vocabulary, grammar, phonology, prosodic and non-verbal features of the target language,

etc. (Nicholls & Hees, 2008) especially that some sounds are completely new for the learner as they are not found in his/her first language (Harmer, 2001); or they listen to phrases containing reduced forms such as contractions, vowel reductions, and elision; or even more difficult aspects like slang, idioms, idiomatic expressions, proverbs, rhythm, stress and intonation (Shastri, 2002). The level of difficulty increases because learners *"should discriminate sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, phrase, or a sentence and recognize this as a sense whole."* Pupils can easily do so with their native language, but they cannot do it with a language they are still learning. As a result, they are very slow in grasping the sounds they hear and, hence, misunderstand or completely fail in understanding meaning (Rogova, 1975, p. 151).

- ❖ **Learners' fear of making mistakes:** students' poor grammar and vocabulary skills - explained above - often create a psychological barrier in them (Shastri, 2002). As it is commonly known, speaking is the only language mode which involves public display of abilities. This increases learners' anxiety and discourages them from speaking in front of more proficient peers (Léger, 2009). Their silence is an attempt to avoid making mistakes because of which they can be ridiculed (Boonkit, 2010).
- ❖ **Exposure to the target language:** it is almost a general fact that most learners have little chance at practicing the target language outside the classroom (Scott & Ytreberg, 1990; Léger, 2009). This is one of the reasons why developing the speaking skill is difficult. However, in some unfortunate classes it is even harder for learners to work on their speaking abilities inside the classroom. According to Lazaraton (2001), among the major reasons why students find speaking hard to learn is the overcrowded classes which limit their chances of participation as there is no time for all learners to speak.

❖ **Other reasons:** include lack of models except for the teacher who might sometimes be ill-trained, and lack of language laboratories (Shastri, 2002).

For the causes cited above *"oral communication [...] is usually the weakest point students have [...] [even] at university [level]"*, says Coloma (2014, p. 10).

1.4. The Nature of the Speaking Skill

In almost all the resource books we have checked, the nature of the speaking skill was presented in terms of comparison between speaking and writing. And this is believed to be an ideal way of doing it. Therefore, the table below explains the criteria of speech mirrored to that of writing for extra clarity and simplicity.

Criterion	Speaking vs. Writing
Form	According to Crystal (1995, p. 291), <i>"The grammar and vocabulary of speech is by no means the same as that of writing, nor do the contrasts available in phonology correspond to those available in graphology."</i> For example, in writing, sentences are well-formed and integrated into highly structured paragraphs. Speech, however, consists of shorter fragments of utterances in varied articulations. Speaking involves much repetition and overlap between the speakers. In addition, speech is characterized by loosely organized syntax, non-specific words and phrases, and the use of fillers like 'well', 'oh' and 'uhuh' that tend to make it less conceptually dense than writing (Nunan, 1989). In addition, speech, especially informal, is characterized by certain vocabulary (slang, taboo, etc.) and contractions; but writing has its own lexis which is not spoken like scientific names of substances; and it also has its special structures (Crystal,

	1995). Last, writing is often more coherent and cohesive than speech. It is easy to follow the structure, ideas and points of a written text thanks to certain features like pronouns, linkers, conjunctions, etc. (Harmer, 2001).
Use	Generally speaking, whenever two people meet, they speak. This makes speaking an interactional activity. That is, speech is usually used for interactional purposes like maintaining social relationships and passing the time, even though it has what are called transactional purposes such as holding a meeting, selling products, and so forth. Writing, however, is generally used for aims like literacy, recording information and facts and ideas, and to make agreements legal (Brown & Yule, 1983; Crystal, 1995).
Other	<p>Among the most significant differences are in the physical form. Speech uses the medium of phonic substance. That is, <i>"air-pressure movements produced by the vocal cords."</i> However, writing uses the medium of graphic substance which take the form of <i>"marks on a surface made by hand using an implement"</i> (Crystal, 1995, p. 291)</p> <p>Extra linguistic cues (facial expressions, gestures and body language) help deliver meaning while speaking; but in writing the lack of visual contact disenables participants from relying on context (deictic expressions like this, here, now, etc.) (Crystal, 1995).</p> <p>Speaking and writing differ in lexical density, syntactic integration (vs. fragmentation), and personal involvement. For instance, interruptions are known to be a feature of spoken language. Fragmentation, too, is closely related to speech (Bygate, 2009).</p>

	In speech, errors cannot be withdrawn. Interruption, overlapping and slips of the tongue are also normal; but in writing, mistakes can be corrected and eliminated in the final version (Crystal, 1995)
	Speech is a spontaneous activity which makes it hard to plan and expect; but writing allows for repeated analysis and corrections before giving the final version (Crystal, 1995)
	In speech, both participants are usually present and the speaker has particular addressee(s) in mind; but in writing the addressee is usually absent or distant (Crystal, 1995)
	Children acquire the ability to speak before they learn to write and read (Nicholls & Hees, 2008).

Table 02: Nature of the Speaking Skill in Comparison with the Writing Skill

1.5. Characteristics of the Speaking Skill

Speaking has various characteristics that make it a unique skill. The following are some of its most important ones:

1.5.1. Speed

According to Bygate (2009), fluency is defined as *"an ability in the second [or foreign] language to produce or comprehend utterances smoothly, rapidly, and accurately"* (p. 409). From this definition, we can understand that one of the main characteristics of fluent speech is speed and smoothness. According to Leaver, Ehrman and Shekhtman (2005), a fluent speaker needs to be quick because slowness may make the speaker sound uncertain or even foreigner. However, two important questions need to be asked: how is speed of speech

measured? And how fast should a language learner speak? Speed of speech is often measured by the number of syllables uttered per minute (Bygate, 2009). In normal states, we make around fifteen speech sounds per second which make about two or three words (Malmkjær, 1991).

Concerning the second question, there are many theories to it, but the most convincing one, according to Rogova (1975), is that of N.V. Elukhina who believes that in teaching speaking, the speed should be slower than that of a native speaker. At first, the teacher may start with a speed of 90 words per minute, and then he/she can accelerate to utter 120 words per minute until he/she reaches 150 words per minute.

1.5.2. Pausing

A point in relation with speed of speech is pausing. It is commonly known that beginner language learners speak with many pauses in their speech. But, according to Bygate (2009) proficiency increases as the speaker becomes able to produce utterances without having to pause in order to select the next word or phrase of the utterance.

1.5.3. Production vs. Recognition

Generating a word can take over five times longer than recognizing it. Production is logically divided into three major steps. First, there is conceptualization. This means deciding what meaning is desired to be expressed and conveyed. Second, there is formulation: determining how to express it. That is, in what manner this meaning is going to be phrased; for example, formal or informal, dialogue or monologue, etc. Last, there is articulation which is the actual expression through the selection of the most appropriate words and actually uttering them (Griffin & Ferreira, 2006).

1.5.4. Other Characteristics

The intention to produce a word activates a family of meaning-related Words. In the articulation phase explained above, not only one word comes to mind when speaking, a group of meaning-related words do. The speaker, then, selects one word to be said. Selection of a word on favor of the other(s) is subject to long-term repetition. The more a speaker uses a given word, the quicker it will come to mind when speaking. The rest of its synonyms tend to take longer time (Griffin & Ferreira, 2006).

1.6. The Place of the Speaking Skill in Language Teaching Approaches and Methods

Throughout the history of language teaching approaches and methods, the centrality of speaking has changed radically from an item in a syllabus to a skill to be developed in its own right (Johnson & Johnson, 1998). At first, the speaking skill was "*invisible*" and received little conscious attention despite the fact that lessons were conducted orally (Dean, 2004). Language teaching, then, had been concerned with writing and the study of written language because it was the language of literature and scholarship. The teaching of speaking, especially pronunciation, started to receive noticeable attention only after World War 2 (Patel & Jain, 2008) when speaking started to be finally recognized (Pachler & Gaffney, 2001).

The following lines discuss the place of the speaking skill throughout the history of language teaching approaches and methods, starting with the Grammar-Translation Method and ending with the Communicative Language Teaching approach.

First, in the Grammar-Translation Method, reading and writing received "*overwhelming*" importance (Bahatia, 2006, p. 20). The method focused primarily on the teaching of written texts, accuracy, grammar, vocabulary and translation, but it paid very little attention to speaking, listening and pronunciation (Richards & Rogers, 1986; Brown, 2000;

Larsen-Freeman, 2000). For instance, speaking activities were often limited to first language or second language sentences or texts, and sometimes, fluency and meaning-focused activities were completely excluded from the syllabus (Rogers, 2007).

Then, the Direct Method was created. Its major aim was developing students' effective oral communication in the target language (Brown, 2000; Patel & Jain, 2008; Richards et al., 2002). Therefore, the speaking and listening skills were a priority (Rogova, 1975; Bahatia, 2006) and they were started with and worked on right from the very beginning with special attention to correct pronunciation (Wilkins, 1990; Patel & Jain, 2008; Brown, 2000; Hall, 2011) whereas writing and reading skills received a back seat and were delayed till after the speaking skill is acquired (Howatt, 2006; Richards et al., 2002).

Similar to the Direct Approach, the Audiolingual Method gave priority to speaking and listening instead of reading and writing (Richards & Rogers, 1986) and, again, it attached a great deal of importance and attention to correct pronunciation (Bygate, 2009, p. 15; Hall, 2011). It did so because language was essentially seen as aural-oral. Thus, listening and *"speech [...] [were] primary and [were believed to] constitute the very basis of language"* learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 226).

Later on, the Oral Approach and its offshoot Situational Language Teaching method gave, once again, priority to the spoken form of language. The method encouraged language teachers to begin their teaching materials orally before presenting them in the written form. Situational Language Teaching differed from the Direct Method and Audiolingual Method in the sense that it gave equal attention to both accurate pronunciation and grammar and considered both of them as very essential in language learning (Richards & Rogers, 1986).

After that, the Silent Way was created and which aim was to develop learners' oral/aural proficiency and near-native pronunciation and fluency for self-expression of

thoughts and feelings in the target language. It is true that the four skills were worked on right from the beginning, because they were seen to reinforce one another and, hence, develop students' learning, but pronunciation was given the most of attention from the start (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Then, Community Language Learning came into existence. The method aimed exclusively at developing learners' oral proficiency (Richards & Rogers, 1986). A group of learners were seen as a community who should interact with one another in order to accomplish a common goal. They were also expected to listen attentively, freely express their feelings of joy and frustration, and speak out their ideas and thoughts (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

In the Natural Approach and Total Physical Response, language was viewed as communication (Richards & Rogers, 1986) and its spoken form was prior to its written one (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). A Total Physical Response course, then, was designed for beginning learners so as to enable them to have an intelligible speaking proficiency with native speakers of the target language (Richards & Rogers, 1986). The spoken form of language was, indeed, prior to its written form, but learners should not be forced and not even encouraged to speak until they feel completely ready to do so (Brown, 2000).

In a Suggestopedic classroom, too, speaking and classroom interaction were considered essential. The teacher was advised to initiate interaction with the whole group as well as individual learners right from the start of the course. At first, learners respond to yes-no questions, but at more advanced levels, they can respond *"more appropriately and even initiate interaction themselves"* (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 73).

In the Communicative Language Teaching approach, the speaking skill went back to take its privileged position, and more. The ultimate objective of the approach is to develop

learners' communicative competence via involving them in real and meaningful communication situations with one another, with the teacher and with users of the target language in order to promote and support language learning (Richards & Rogers, 1986). The teacher is required to activate and expose learners to the target language as much as possible which can be done, optimally, through initiating interaction with them and encouraging them to interact with one another (Benati, 2009.).

Learners, on the other hand, are expected/encouraged to speak and express their ideas and opinions freely, negotiate meaning with one another, try to understand others and make themselves understood even when their knowledge of the target language is incomplete (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Communicative Language Teaching places such high importance on the creation of communicative environment inside the classroom because it believes that doing as such helps learners build a bridge to use the language outside the walls of their classrooms (Patel & Jain, 2008).

1.7. Approaches to the Speaking Skill

Similar to language, speaking is approached differently by scholars. Each sees its nature and method of teaching differently from others. The following are the most prevailing approaches to this skill.

1.7.1. The Environmentalist Approach

Until the 1960s, the language teaching profession was influenced by environmental ideologies which focused on external factors of learning rather than the internal human processes. These ideologies concentrated primarily on the mastery of a linear series of structures. Speaking, here, was considered essential as language was seen as an oral

phenomenon. Teaching speaking followed a stimulus-response-reinforcement path which involved lots of practice and drilling so as to help in *"the formation of good habits"* (Juan, Flor & Soler, 2006, p. 140). Firstly, learners were exposed to external oral stimuli which they imitated and repeated. If this was done correctly, positive reinforcement was provided to them. Continuous practice was believed to result in habit-formation and, thus, the ability to speak. As a result, speaking was believed to be nothing more than imitation, repetition and memorization of the input learners received (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

The type of speaking activities within this approach (drills and substitution activities) were designed to make learners repeat certain grammatical structures and patterns in an intensive way. Consequently, learners mastered pronunciation skills and accuracy instead of verbal interaction (Bygate, 2009; Juan et al., 2006).

Because *"speaking was mainly associated with the development of good pronunciation since the mastery of individual sounds and the discrimination of minimal pairs was necessary in order to properly imitate and repeat the incoming oral input"* (Brown & Yule, 1983; Juan et al., 2006, p. 141), it can be said that speaking was a medium for imitation and repetition of oral input rather than an interactive skill by itself (Bygate, 2009; Juan et al., 2006).

1.7.2. The Innatist Approach

By the end of 1960s, the environmental approach was opposed by Chomsky's revolution in language development. His belief that children are born with innate capacities for acquiring language formed the basis of this approach. Therefore, by joining Chomsky's assumption with the field of psycholinguistics which supported his views, the cognitive and mental processes of language learning started to receive increasing attention and importance (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

Unlike the environmental views, Innatists believe that the environment has little or no effects on language acquisition and production. Rather, the internal faculty³ is what enables people to comprehend an endless amount of discourse (Juan et al., 2006). The new beliefs of the Innatists revolutionized learner's role from imitating and repeating oral input to active thinking about language production (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

This approach did not yield any particular teaching methodologies. Nevertheless, it made emphasis shift from drilling grammatical structures to the cognitive methods of teaching (Juan et al., 2006) where more active and important roles were played by learners as they used language in creative and innovative ways (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

Despite the innovative thinking of this approach, the process of speaking was still abstract. For instance, it did not take into account the functions of language (i.e. the relationship between language and meaning), or the social context of language. These aspects were not taken into consideration until several subsequent years (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

1.7.3. The Interactionist Approach

During the late 1970s and the 1980s, this approach made significant changes in the field of language learning as it emphasized the role of social contexts in language development. This led to increasing interest in the complex cognitive processes involved in speaking from a more interactive angle (Flor & Juan, 2006).

According to Levelt (1989), language production is planned. In other words, in order for people to speak, they have to plan their utterances or messages first. Levelt suggests a model of four major steps which are: conceptualization (i.e. deciding on the message or meaning to

³ According to Chomsky, the technical term for internal faculty is *competence* (Juan et al., 2006)

convey), formulation (i.e. selecting and sequencing words appropriately to express the desired meaning), articulation (i.e. actually uttering those words), and monitoring (i.e. identifying and correcting mistakes while or after speaking) (as cited in Flor & Juan, 2006).

This model suggested by Levelt was in harmony with both functional (Halliday 1985) and pragmatic (Levinson 1983) views of language. In addition, with the emergence of the field of discourse analysis, the idea of imitating and repeating oral production was abandoned. The new view of elaborating contextualized utterances was adopted instead (Flor & Juan, 2006).

Under the assumptions of this approach, language teaching was concerned with the preparation of learners for appropriate production of language in different real-life contexts. Speaking, here, was seen as an interactive, social and contextualized communicative event. This approach to the speaking skill was believed to form the theoretical background of another approach, the Communicative Competence Approach (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006). This approach is discussed and presented in-detail in the following sub-section.

1.7.4. The Communicative Competence Approach

According to Dell Hymes (1972), communicative competence is a speaker's knowledge of syntactic, phonological, morphological and social rules which enable him/her to communicate effectively with others. In other words, it is a set of rules needed for the appropriate and effective use of language in a variety of social situations (Bloome, 2003).

According to Hymes, the coiner of the term communicative competence, someone's ability to speak and comprehend language goes beyond mastery of grammatical rules. It is not only knowledge of whether something is formally possible in a language, but also the knowledge of whether it is feasible, appropriate, or done in a particular speech community (Richards et al., 2002). Here, Hymes is sometimes said to stand in "*sharp contrast*" with Noam

Chomsky's linguistic competence which is necessary for the production of grammatically well-formed utterances. In fact, it is believed that Hymes did not deny Chomsky's notion, but he added other competences necessary for effective communication. *"Hymes argued that in order to communicate effectively, speakers had to know not only what was grammatically correct/incorrect, but [also] what was communicatively [acceptable]"* (Lillis, 2006, p. 666).

Hymes advocates for his notion by drawing attention to the narrowness and inability of Chomskyan concepts competence⁴ and performance⁵ in many aspects of language (Johnson & Johnson, 1998). Hymes argues that Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance did not take into consideration the pragmatic use of language and relevant issues of language appropriateness (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006). Hence, Hymes proposed the concept of communicative competence with four components which are:

1.7.4.1. Linguistic Competence

Linguistic competence (also called grammatical competence) refers to the speaker's knowledge about language elements such as phonology, grammar, vocabulary, word formation, and sentence formation that enable him/her to produce linguistically acceptable utterances (Juan et al., 2006; Lazaraton, 2001; Richards et al., 2002).

Firstly, concerning the phonological aspect, it refers to speaker's knowledge about suprasegmental or prosodic features of language. Take for example, rhythm, stress and intonation which shape speaker's pronunciation (Juan et al., 2006) and which can help distinguish the native speakers of the language from the non-native ones (Juan et al., 2006). Secondly, regarding grammatical competence, this refers to the speaker's ability to produce grammatically correct utterances in terms of the order of words. Thirdly, speaker's

⁴ Competence is the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his/her language.

⁵ Performance is the actual use of language rules in concrete situations.

appropriate choice of relevant lexis to use is as essential as good pronunciation and correct grammar (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

1.7.4.2. Discourse Competence

Discourse competence includes rules of cohesion (how sentence elements are tied together using reference, repetition, synonyms, etc.) and coherence (how texts are constructed) (Lazaraton, 2001; Richards et al., 2002). This component also refers to speaker's ability to use a diversity of language features like discourse markers (e.g., well, oh, I see, okay), the management of various conversational rules (e.g., turn-taking mechanisms, how to open, maintain and close a conversation), production of cohesive and coherent speech, and selection of speech genre (i.e. formal, informal, etc.) (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

1.7.4.3. Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence, also referred to as sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence, involves knowledge about what is socially appropriate and acceptable to be said in different contexts (Lazaraton, 2001). This involves knowledge of the relationship between language and its nonlinguistic context; knowing how to use and respond appropriately to different types of speech acts such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations; knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to in different situations; and so forth (Richards et al., 2002; Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

1.7.4.4. Strategic Competence

This competence involves speaker's knowledge of both learning and communication abilities. The former refers to his/her capacity to successfully generate utterances (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006). The latter refers to their ability to avoid or overcome possible

breakdowns or fails in oral exchanges (Lazaraton, 2001) and to help keep the conversation alive (Johnson & Johnson, 1998), or their knowledge of communication strategies that can compensate for weakness in other areas (Richards et al., 2002).

In conclusion, it can be said that these different types of competences are the reason why teaching speaking is, indeed, difficult and challenging. Therefore, it has been strongly argued that teaching speaking under a communicative competence framework is the optimal way, because it develops learners' general speaking skill in the target language (Juan et al., 2006; Flor & Juan, 2006).

1.8. An Integrated Approach to Teaching the Speaking Skill

For a long time, language teaching professionals have separated and identified four language skills. One or two skills were often given the priority while others were subordinated or even sometimes excluded from the syllabus design (Brown, 2000). For example, most traditional textbooks and course books seem to adhere segregation rather than integration. They contain divided sections based on grammar, writing, etc. *"Indeed, there is often a considerable disparity between the different sections"* (Widdowson, 1978, p. 144). However, in today's word, developing proficiency in the four skills is one of the primary goals of current foreign-language instruction (Bussmann, Trauth, & Kazzazi, 1996). Nowadays, there are many voices advocating the integration of the four skills of language in order to achieve such a goal of effective communication. For instance, Bygate (2009, p. 404) stated that *"despite the various developments sketched out [...] [in language teaching methods], we have yet to see the emergence of an integrated methodology for the development of oral language skills."* Tavil (2010, p. 766) explained that

in real life, listening and speaking are always in integration, so teachers should teach these two skills in an interacted way. Although the students may know how to listen and speak in the language, they may still not be able to communicate in this language mainly because these skills are not used in integration.

Before we carry on discussing this point and present the arguments of integration advocates, we should ask/know what is exactly meant by integration. In language teaching, integration is the act of teaching the historically separated language skills - speaking, listening, reading and writing - in conjunction with each other, as for instance when a lesson involves activities that relate listening and speaking to reading and writing (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Richards et al., 2002).

More often than not, integration is used to mean reinforcement of language skills and linking them in such a way that the exercise under one skill extends to another skill. It is done as such because it is believed that *"the use of any skill may quite naturally lead to the use of another"* (Tavil, 2010, p. 765). Therefore, language skills *"should not be taught independently of one another."* Thus, successful lessons ought to integrate a number of activities and exercises so as to develop different skills and build on previous knowledge and understanding (Pachler & Gaffney, 2001, p. 103). Not only that, but also *"the interrelationship between the language modes, in good classroom practice, [...] will necessarily and rightly be integrated"* (Brindley, 1994, p. 27).

One way of how language skills are integrated is done with reading and listening. Reading and listening are two receptive skills. Hence, they can/should be integrated together for the development of effective communication. The same thing applies for the other two productive skills: speaking and writing (Boonkit, 2010). Another way of integration is listening with speaking. According to Tavil (2010), *"listening is usually an interactive process. The*

listener does not always just listen to, but she or he also reacts to the speaker or asks questions for clarification". In addition, it is believed that teachers of speaking should always connect speaking, listening and pronunciation. Not only that, but also they can use reading and writing as the basis or follow up for speaking activities (Lazaraton, 2001).

Despite the tremendous amount of advocacy integration gets, Brown (2000, p. 233), stated that *"some may argue that the integration of the four skills may diminish the importance of the rules of listening, speaking, reading and writing that are unique to each separate skill."* But, Brown himself believes that instead of being limited by a course which constrains learners with one skill, integration enables them to use a diversity of efforts in more meaningful tasks.

Other reasons and benefits of integration are:

- ✓ Integration means sending and receiving messages at the same time.
- ✓ Reception and production are two sides of the same coin. Therefore, one cannot be split from the other.
- ✓ It has been shown that in the real world, we tend to integrate skills of the language so as to communicate.
- ✓ Written and spoken forms of language bear a relationship to each other, and to ignore that relationship is to ignore the richness of language.
- ✓ Often, one skill will reinforce another. We learn to speak, for example, in part by modeling what we hear, and we learn to write by examining what we can read.

(Brown, 2000).

- ✓ *"Integration of skills exposes English language learners to [...] [real-life] language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language"* (Tavil, 2010, p. 766).

In conclusion, one finds the following quotation to be a perfect summary of this section: "[language skills should be integrated because] *it may be said that the more the skills are taught individually, the less communication will take place in the classroom*" (Tavil, 2010, p. 766).

1.9. Major Developmental Stages of Learners' Speaking Skill

Development of a learner's speaking skill usually follows three major stages:

1.9.1. Beginning Stage

One of the main characteristics of this phase is the silent period. It has been noticed that most beginners experience a period of time where they feel uncomfortable speaking the target language. Firstly, they tend to express their thoughts, ideas and feelings nonverbally. Then, they gradually move to speak using short responses of one-, two- and three-word utterances (Dunlap & Weisman, 2006).

At this stage, learners may understand the general meaning of an utterance, but they may not get the exact meaning of every word of it. Here, they rely on contextual clues for understanding key words (Dunlap & Weisman, 2006).

1.9.2. Intermediate Stage

The second stage is characterized by:

- ❖ Learners' errors are usually frequent-accruing and are often grammatical mistakes (Dunlap & Weisman, 2006).
- ❖ Learners are able to relate details of an event or story, identify main ideas, and summarize a plot (Dunlap & Weisman, 2006).

❖ Learners at this stage can engage in oral exchanges using short utterances. These utterances are often everyday expressions that they memorized via repetition (Dunlap & Weisman, 2006).

1.9.3. Advanced Stage

Learners at this stage give an instant impression of fluency or that they are no longer learners. They have the ability to narrate events in detail. They speak with very few grammatical mistakes. Nevertheless, they still need much support with academic subjects so as to do well at school. The type of activities advised for this stage are meaningful communicative ones. Drilling should be avoided at all cost because it does not serve any good at this advanced point (Dunlap & Weisman, 2006).

1.10. Formal and Informal Speech

In all languages, people use two forms when speaking: formal and informal. The former is a careful, impersonal and often public mode of speaking (Richards et al., 2002) which is used with strangers and people of higher status. The latter, however, is used with family members, friends and colleagues. Students must be made aware of the differences and reasons of using each style depending on the situation. Informal speech is characterized by omission, elision, reduction and sometimes a faster rate of speaking. Formal speech is characterized by embedding and a tendency to use complete sentences as opposed to fragments (Tillitt & Bruder, 1985). The table below contains examples of formal and informal speech.

	Formal Speech	Informal Speech
A	I'm afraid I've got to be going now.	Sorry, gotta go
B	He has not been easy to deal with.	He's a pain in the neck

Table 03: Examples of Formal and Informal Speech

1.11. Classroom Speaking Activities

The speaking skill can be taught following an endless number of strategies. However, the following classroom activities are only a few of the most commonly used ones:

1.11.1. Group Discussions

Group discussions are probably the most commonly used strategy to teach speaking. In this activity, learners are exposed to a given topic and asked to discuss it in pairs or groups to come up with solutions, a response, and so forth. Learners are often grouped according to background, ethnicity, talkativeness, friendship, etc. Sometimes certain responsibilities like note taker, time watcher, etc. are given to learners (Lazaraton, 2001).

In comparison with other speaking activities, group discussions appear to have more advantages. For instance,

- ✓ they are very fruitful, motivating and ensure participation of most, if not all, members of the group.
- ✓ they integrate several skills at once and train learners on exemplification, analysis, comparison and contrast, expressing and proving their points of view, and other skills.
- ✓ they are actually good for the development of learners' speaking skill as they involve natural interaction and turn taking.
- ✓ they can be prepared according to learners' needs and level.

(Shastri, 2002)

Nevertheless, they have few negative points which are:

- ☒ They sometimes fail because students are asked to express or justify an opinion in front of their classmates when they lack self-confidence or the needed vocabulary to express their thoughts (Harmer, 2001). But, Harmer (1998, p. 87) justified saying that *"the ability to give spontaneous and articulate opinions is challenging in our own language, let alone the language we are struggling to learn."*
- ☒ Only few students report having either the opportunity or confidence to engage in unplanned conversations with native speakers (Lazaraton, 2001).

In order to get the best out of every group discussion, teachers are advised to (a) make the topic of discussion specific and not vague (Shastri, 2002). That is, students should be made clear what to discuss exactly; and (b) they should be informed why and what outcome is expected from them (Lazaraton, 2001) so as to see the objective behind the activity they are doing.

1.11.2. Speeches⁶

Speeches are also a very common speaking classroom activity. Speeches are usually uninterrupted talks on a given topic presented in front of a group of speakers (Nunan, 1989).

According to Nunan (1989), even native speakers find speeches hard to perform. They can easily engage in conversations, but when it comes to presentations, they fail in performing them. Among the advantages of speeches are:

⁶ They are also called oral presentations, prepared talks, or monologues.

- ✓ Unlike normal speaking, learners have the enough time to think of a topic for their speech, work on its form and content, and rehearse it. Therefore, their production is often fluent and contains very few mistakes because it depends exclusively on memory (Rogova, 1975).
- ✓ They are considered ideal for cooperative learning (Colomar, 2014) and can be extremely interesting both for speaker and listeners if done properly (using only notes and not a script) (Harmer, 2001).
- ✓ In the same vein, because speeches are prepared about a topic of the learner's choice, they are more writing-like than spontaneous speaking (Harmer, 2001)

However, among the negative criticisms of speeches are that

- ☒ they are, indeed, a good classroom activity in the early stages of mastery, but with advanced learners, unprepared speeches should be encouraged instead (Rogova, 1975).
- ☒ they often become boring for listeners after a while. Thus, a strategy can be used to make things better is to give listeners a responsibility during the speeches such as peer evaluation by few of the listeners assigned beforehand. They are expected to summarize the speech, give its points of strength and weakness. They can also videotape speeches to allow for more in-depth evaluation both by listeners and speakers themselves later on. They can see their own points of weakness and thus work on them. In the meanwhile, the teacher may assess the speech in terms of delivery (e.g.: loudness, speed, etc.) non-verbal interaction (e.g.: eye-contact, posture, gestures, nervousness, etc.) content and organization (e.g.: clarity, introduction, conclusion, etc.) language skills (e.g.: grammar, fluency, vocabulary and pronunciation.) (Lazaraton, 2001).

1.11.3. Role-Plays

Role-plays are a common classroom activity where students present real-life situations in which they take on new identities and imagine themselves at another time and place depending on the context (Harmer, 1998; Harmer, 2001). Usually, students perform these role-plays from a script (Lazaraton, 2001). However, in free role-plays, which are a more challenging type of role-plays, students are given the freedom and time to think of a situation, plan a role-play in terms of characters and language and act it out in front of the class (Lavery, 2001).

Role-plays are an activity of many advantages. First, learners can improvise the use of language. Some learners may also find freedom of self-expression in the new "*persona*" while others might find it embarrassing. Anyway, role-plays improve students' fluency and maximize their talking time. In addition, they appeal even for timid and introvert learners as they provide "*relative privacy*" when acting out with a group (Lavery, 2001, p. 44). Moreover, in addition to allowing students to use natural language, role-plays help teaching learners to work together, listen to and correct one another (Shastri, 2002). Furthermore, they are fun and thus motivating. They provide opportunities for language use from outside the classroom (Harmer, 2001).

For optimal results out of role-plays, Lavery (2001, p. 45) suggests to language teaching professionals to bear in mind the following:

- ✚ Instructions should be crystal-clear because "*if it takes an age to explain, it is too complicated.*"
- ✚ Teachers are advised to "*keep a low profile*" when learners are performing a role-play. That is, they should give students enough space and freedom to act out. They can intervene

only when asked by the students or when there is a breakdown in communication. Instead, they are advised to listen carefully and secretly⁷ note down students' major mistakes and points of weakness for correction and reinforcement, and their points of strength for praising and encouragement.

✚ Shy students should not be forced to participate in role-plays. Rather, they need encouragement and patience to be able to join their classmates.

✚ Role-plays should be open-ended to let space for learners' imagination and creativity.

1.11.4. Language Games

Language games are a classroom speaking activity that provides diversity from the routine of other types of activities. Their basic distinction is that they are based on competition and challenge between learners (Shastri, 2002).

One common type of games is called communication games. These games are often called information gap activities where a student has a part of the information while the other has the remaining part and they have to work together to accomplish the task. Examples of these games are 'describe and draw', 'describe and arrange', 'twenty questions', 'just a minute', 'call my bluff', etc. (Harmer, 2001).

Language games, of all types, have many advantages. For instance, they ensure the participation of all learners regardless of their level and abilities. They also provide a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom that helps learners to express themselves freely and spontaneously. Moreover, the rules of the games enhance discipline in the classroom. In addition, the aims of games can be varied as there are vocabulary games, grammar games and games based on all different aspects of the language (Shastri, 2002).

⁷ Taking notes in an obvious and explicit detective-like manner may put students off.

1.11.5. Dialogues

One of the most common speaking classroom activities are dialogues. Dialogues are defined as oral exchanges of short utterances between two or more speakers (Nunan, 1989). They are characterized by ellipsis (i.e. the use of incomplete sentences); the use of contracted forms; the use of abbreviations such as lab. for laboratory, mike. for microphone, maths. for mathematics, etc.; the use of conversational tags such as 'well', 'you know', 'of course', 'look', 'you see', and others (Rogova, 1975).

Despite their popularity, dialogues have a serious disadvantage. Learners are often asked to act out, publicly, written dialogues that are already made and which they have rehearsed several times in advance (Harmer, 2001). Dialogues done this way do not train them for the unpredictability of real-life communication (Lavery, 2001).

1.11.6. Questionnaires

One of less common, yet useful, classroom strategies is the use of questionnaires. Among their many benefits are that they are often pre-planned and ensure that both the questioner and respondent have something to say. They may also encourage the natural use of the language and perfectly suit the speaking class (Harmer, 2001). In addition, the teacher can use them to focus on a given structure and/or vocabulary area (Lavery, 2001).

1.11.7. Other Activities

Audiotaped Oral Dialogue Journals are activities that benefit both the teacher and learners, and can give equal attention to accuracy as well as fluency. Here, the student gives an audiocassette to the teacher who tapes the directions for the journal like *"tell me about your first day in the USA."* Then, the tape is returned to the learner who tapes his/her

response. Then, the tape recorder is given once again to the teacher to listen and tape his/her feedback (Lazaraton, 2001, p. 103).

1.12. Assessment of the Speaking Skill

An important part of teaching is assessment. Assessment of the speaking skill is believed to be the hardest type. Here, we present the definition, types, criteria, techniques, procedure and difficulties of assessment of the speaking skill.

1.12.1. Definition of Assessment

A shared objective of most language teachers is to enable their learners to communicate effectively using the spoken form of language. In achieving this aim, they often tend to regularly check students' progress so as to find out about their areas of weakness where they might need support the most (Brown & Yule, 1983). Technically speaking, this is called assessment. Assessment of the speaking skill is the process of evaluating learners' use of spoken language in a given situation or context (Brindley, 1994).

1.12.2. Self-assessment

Usually, the teacher is the person who conducts the assessment procedure. However, at many times even learners themselves can assess their own performance. Here, it is called self-assessment⁸. In general, self-assessment is an individual's own evaluation of their language ability at particular language skills (e.g. reading, speaking); how well they are able to use the language in different domains or situations (e.g. at the office, at school); or how well they can use different styles of the language (e.g. a formal style or an informal style) (Richards

⁸ It is believed that self-assessment helps learners develop self-regulation, autonomy, motivation and goal-setting (Léger, 2009).

et al., 2002). Self-assessment of the speaking skill is an activity that requires learners to grade their own oral performance based on clear and predefined task requirements (Léger, 2009).

1.12.3. Criteria of Assessment

In order to conduct an assessment of learners' speaking skill, a great deal of time and effort is devoted to creating good tests, but there is no such a thing as the perfect test. An ideal test, however, is described by Hughes (1989) as the one *"which will consistently provide accurate measures of precisely the abilities in which we are interested; have a beneficial effect on teaching [...]; be economical in terms of time and money"* (Colomar, 2014, p. 11). This was concerning the criteria of a test in general. However, in language teaching, most scholars agree on two criteria of a good test: validity and reliability. Certain researchers like Weir (1990), and Bachman and Palmer (1996) added efficiency, practicality, accountability, authenticity, instructiveness and impact (Colomar, 2014).

1.12.4. Techniques of Assessment

Assessment using role-plays and oral presentations are two of the most useful and professional ways of testing oral skills. On the one hand, we have role-plays. One of the major pros of role-plays is that they are an excellent way to test interaction as well as acting abilities (Colomar, 2014). Nevertheless, one of their cons is that teste's familiarity with the assigned role may affect his/her performance (Colomar, 2014.). Heaton and Harmer (1988) say that group activities like role-plays and group discussions are good for exposing students' ways of thinking, language use, and involvement. Concerning oral presentations, it is pointed out that they give the tester enough time to assess learners' performance. However, their major

disadvantages are that there is no interaction, and that they have a high stress factor (Colomar, 2014).

Another common testing technique is the assessment of learners' performance in class. However, it is unclear and controversial what factors to assess. Is it classroom participation, attendance, attitude or personal conduct? Most teachers are unable to give exact definition of it as well as the standards they follow in the conduction of their assessment (Duncan, 1987).

A further means of assessment is based on a tape-recorder which helps, at later stages, to check the correctness of the initial impression, check the progress made by students, as an evidence for the teacher's judgement, draw students' attention to their own mistakes and help overcome them (Brown & Yule, 1983).

1.12.5. Scoring Procedure of Assessment

In order to ensure valid and reliable tests, scoring is an aspect that needs close attention. There are different methods of scoring, but the most common ones are holistic and analytic scoring (Colomar, 2014). Holistic scoring, on the one hand, is a method of assessment and scoring where a single score is assigned to samples of written or spoken production on the basis of the overall impression of the test taker's performance on a task as a whole. On the other hand, analytic scoring is a testing method of speaking as well as writing which evaluates and scores different features separately. The most commonly analyzed features in written production are content, organization, cohesion, style, register, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and mechanics. Whereas those assessed in spoken production include pronunciation, fluency, accuracy, appropriateness (Richards et al., 2002), presentation, tone, register, responsiveness, interpersonal skills, and others (Brindley, 1994).

Amongst these many assessed features in analytic scoring, a standard test usually *pays attention to aspects such as accent, grammar, vocabulary, and fluency in the student's speech, [then] the overall score is often expressed as a point on a scale which has a definition such as able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements* (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 104)

The following chart suggested by Brown and Yule (1983, p. 104) is an example which can be followed in assessing students' spoken language:

Date	Type of speech required	Grammatical correctness	Appropriate vocabulary	Fluency/ pronunciation	Information transfer score	Other

Table 04: Suggested Criteria for Assessing the Speaking Skill

In addition to these two 'modern' common methods of assessment, there was a popular scoring procedure used in traditional language teaching methods by teachers of writing. This procedure is characterized by an error-based form of assessment. Simply, one point is taken out of the overall score each time the student makes a grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary error (Brown & Yule, 1983).

1.12.6. Difficulties of Assessment

The issue of oral assessment is believed to be *"extremely difficult."* According to Heaton and Harmer (1988), it is *"too complex to achieve reliable objective testing"* (p. 11).

Among the major problems and difficulties faced when assessing learners' speaking performance are:

- ✚ It is sometimes hard to assess learners' speaking skill because it is like an iceberg, *"the greater proportion remains hidden"* especially when learners know that the assessor is more expert than they are. Therefore, teachers may *"discount"* their assessment of their

learners' performances "because it would not stand as valid evidence of pupils' achievements." Similarly, teachers found that any method of assessment which depends on predetermined criteria has serious limitations and is inaccurate. Consequently, they were obliged

to develop models of assessment which involved collecting information about children's oral work over a wide range of contexts and over a period of time, and which involved the pupils and teachers, and on occasion the parents, in discussing and reflecting on the information collected. The assessment process needed particularly to focus on the children's best, most interesting or most noteworthy oral work, often described as catching them peaking (Brindley, 1994, p. 37).

✚ According to (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 104),

There is a tendency to treat assessment as a once-a-term or once-a-year activity. The student takes the test [...] on a particular day, and his performance in that test, in that day, is taken to be a standard measure of the student's ability. This seems a particularly inappropriate method of assessing a student's spoken language skills. It would be more informative to the teacher and fairer to the student to have some continuous record of the student's spoken performance on different occasions and for different purposes.

Other difficulties of assessment are that speaking cannot be separated from other skills, mainly, listening. The assessor also has to work under tremendous pressure and is expected to make subjective judgements as quickly as possible. Difficulty, in this case, increases if the number of students is large (Colomar, 2014).

1.12.7. Guidelines for Better Assessment

As mentioned above, there is no such a thing as the perfect test. Nevertheless, language teaching professionals suggest a number of tips so as to help conduct an ideal test.

- ✚ Most testers should incorporate tasks which approximate as closely as possible to those faced by students in real life (Colomar, 2014).
- ✚ The instructions of the task should be brief and clear.
- ✚ The speaker should not see what the listener (examiner) is doing⁹.
- ✚ The speaker should know that he is being assessed so as to take the task seriously.
- ✚ The listener should not be the dominant participant but rather let the speaker take over the discussion.

(Brown & Yule, 1983).

1.13. Correction of Learners' Speaking Mistakes

Mistakes are a natural part of language learning. Speaking is not an exception. Speakers may mispronounce a word, misuse a preposition or an article, wrongly use intonation, etc. These mistakes fall, according to Edge (1989), into three types: (a) slips which the students themselves can correct once being pointed out; (b) errors which they cannot correct by themselves and need teacher's assistance; and (c) attempts which clearly indicate that the learner tries to say something without knowing exactly how to say it. These mistakes are caused either by first language interference or are developmental (Harmer, 2001).

⁹ One believes that seeing the examiner's scoring procedure increases stress and thus distracts the test taker's attention from accomplishing the task.

Needless to say, teachers want from their learners to speak flawlessly, but they will certainly make mistakes. And it is important for teachers to correct these mistakes. But when should teachers intervene to correct a mistake? And what method of correction is the best?

Concerning the first inquiry as when to correct learners' mistakes, the almost-a-rule says that during communicative and content-based activities when students are engaged in a *"passionate discussion,"* it is desirable if teachers abandon or at least postponed instant and explicit correction of grammar and/or pronunciation mistakes because this is believed to interrupt the delivery of meaning (Harmer, 1998; Lazaraton, 2001, p. 103). Error correction, here, is preferred to take place after a student's talk not during it. Constant correction of students' mistakes can bring the discussion to a standstill (Harmer, 2001). Not only that, but it can also raise the level of stress in learners. *"When teachers intervene, not only to correct but also to supply alternative modes of expression to help students, they remove the need to negotiate meaning, and thus they may deny students a learning opportunity"* no matter how gentle the correction was. In the words of Lynch (1997) *"the best answer to the question of when to intervene in learner talk [is] as late as possible."* Lynch also says that *"a good teacher should be able to correct people without offending them"* (as cited in Harmer, 2001, p. 99). However, there are cases where instant correction is permitted: when the message is no longer understood; when students ask for correction (Scott & Ytreberg, 1990); and if students are struggling to get to the correct pronunciation of a certain word, the teacher is expected to save the time, effort and embarrassment and give the correct pronunciation (Harmer, 1998).

As discussed above, the best time to correct a student's speech is after he/she finishes speaking. According to Rogova (1975), this can/should be done in the form of a summary or report of the mistakes done by the learner. Nevertheless, Harmer (2001, p. 99) stated that *"one of the problems of giving feedback after the event is that it is easy to forget what*

students have said." Therefore, most teachers use a chart on which they take notes of the students' performance either things they find particularly good or especially incorrect.

Regarding the second question as how to correct learners' mistakes, Harmer (2001) suggests several techniques for doing it.

- ✓ Directly saying that there is a mistake.
- ✓ Repetition of the mistaken part in the utterance.
- ✓ Asking for repetition using questioning intonation.
- ✓ Reformulation of the student's mistaken utterance (i.e. recasting).
- ✓ Gestures and facial expressions, but with classes we know well and with maximum care.
- ✓ Hinting: giving hints like saying 'tense' to make them rethink the tense used, or 'countable' to use singular or plural form of nouns.
- ✓ Students correct one another, but it should not lead to belittling the student to think that he/she is the only ignorant or less able one in the group.
- ✓ The teacher may write the students' mistakes on the board, without signaling the doer(s), alongside with the correct forms and ask students to decide which is which.

The following pieces of advice are also suggested to improve the procedure of error correction.

- ✚ Teachers should completely avoid the negative habit of asking pupils to note the mistakes of their classmate who has been called in front of the class to speak. Firstly, learners will focus on how their classmate is talking rather on what he/she is saying. The focus is also on the form instead of the content. Therefore, when they concentrate on detecting errors, they will not be able to ask questions based on the understanding of the content of the speech. On the other hand, the speaker himself thinks of the manner he is speaking rather than what he is saying. The more he/she focuses on the errors he/she might make, the

more will be made. Moreover, his/her motivation to speak will vanish after he/she sees his classmates raise their hands to signal his/her mistakes. Therefore, it is advised that when someone is speaking, learners follow his speech and comment or ask questions only when he/she finishes speaking. If a student makes a mistake they know, the teacher may correct it on the spot. If the learner makes a mistake he/she has not learned yet, it is preferred to be corrected afterwards. If the whole class commits a common mistake, the teacher may use a drill exercise for the whole class. However, at all times, the teacher must not repeat or emphasize incorrect patterns for any reason, not even for correction, because they may be confused for the correct ones and memorized as such (Rogova, 1975).

✚ Most teachers watch, listen and take notes while students talk. Then, when they finish, students are asked how they think the discussion went, and then the teacher starts commenting and giving his feedback. *"As with any kind of correction, it is important not to single students out for particular criticism."* Despite the fact that there is not hard rule for correcting learners' speaking mistakes, it is a much-appreciated general principle of watching and listening and then giving notes and remarks about students' performance (Harmer, 1998, p. 87).

✚ What else should teachers do during speaking activities? *"Some teachers get very involved with their students during a speaking activity and want to join in too! They may argue forcefully in a discussion or get fascinated by a role-play and start playing themselves."* There is nothing wrong with the teacher getting involved, but it should not reach the extent where he/she dominates the discussion. Students, too, appreciate teachers' participation until it becomes *"too much."* The extent to which a teacher may intervene is decided by the smoothness of the activity being done. For instance, if students seem to

struggle with what to say, or if the activity takes too long or runs out of steam; then the teacher is expected to get involved in the activity (Harmer, 2001, p. 87).

Conclusion

Language is such a fascinating human characteristic. A great proportion of its fascination lies in one of its four skills: Speaking. We tried in this chapter to shed some light on different aspects of speech. First, we began by defining speaking. Then, we discussed its importance in everyday communication and difficulty of learning/teaching. After that, we tackled the nature of the skill in terms of a comparison with the writing one alongside with its characteristics. Then, we presented a historical overview of the place of the speaking skill in the major language teaching approaches and methods. This chapter also includes the main approaches to speaking and its major developmental stages. In this chapter, then, we moved to discuss two important types of speech: formal and informal. We also presented a description of the most commonly used classroom speaking activities before we moved to discuss an important classroom procedure which is assessment of the speaking skill. This chapter ends with a controversial point that concerns the time and manner of correcting learners' speaking mistakes.

Chapter Two: Public Speaking and Oral Presentations

- Introduction 47

- 2.1. Definitions 48
 - 2.1.1. Public Speaking 48
 - 2.1.2. Oral Presentations 48
 - 2.1.3. Public Speeches vs. Oral Presentations 48

- 2.2. Purposes of Students' Oral Presentations 49
 - 2.2.1. Training 49
 - 2.2.2. Teaching and Learning 49
 - 2.2.3. Persuasion 50
 - 2.2.4. Assessment 50

- 2.3. Types of Public Speeches and Oral Presentations 50
 - 2.3.1. Informative Speeches 50
 - 2.3.1.1. Descriptive Speeches 51
 - 2.3.1.2. Explanatory Speeches 51
 - 2.3.1.3. Demonstrative Speeches 51
 - 2.3.2. Persuasive Speeches 52
 - 2.3.3. Special Occasion Speeches 53

- 2.4. Methods of Delivering Public Speeches and Oral Presentations 54
 - 2.4.1. Reading from a Script 54
 - 2.4.2. Memorized Speeches 55
 - 2.4.3. Extemporaneous Speeches 56
 - 2.4.4. Impromptu Speeches 57

2.5.	Body Language	57
2.5.1.	Personal Appearance	58
2.5.2.	Posture	59
2.5.3.	Facial Expressions and Eye Contact	59
2.5.4.	Body Movements	60
2.5.5.	Gestures (Hands and Arms)	61
2.5.6.	Personal Space	61
2.6.	Visual Aids	62
2.6.1.	Definition of Visual Aids	62
2.6.2.	Types of Visual Aids	62
2.6.2.1.	Chalkboards and Whiteboards	62
2.6.2.2.	Overhead Projectors	63
2.6.2.3.	PowerPoint	63
2.6.2.4.	Handouts	64
2.6.2.5.	Graphics: Charts, Graphs, Maps and Diagrams	65
2.6.2.6.	Pictures and Drawings	66
2.6.2.7.	People, Objects and Models	67
2.6.2.8.	Audiovisuals	67
2.6.2.9.	Computers and the Internet	68
2.6.3.	Advantages of Using Visual Aids	68
2.6.4.	Disadvantages of Using Visual Aids	69
2.7.	Problems of Public Speeches and Oral Presentations	70
2.8.	Public Speaking Anxiety	71
2.8.1.	Symptoms of Public Speaking Anxiety	72

2.8.2.	Causes of Public Speaking Anxiety	72
2.9.	Pros and Cons of Students' Oral Presentations	74
2.9.1.	Pros	74
2.9.2.	Cons	75
	Conclusion	76

Introduction

In everyday life, people are often required to make speeches. These speeches differ in types and aims according to the contexts where they are made. The nature of these speeches often depend on the social role of the speaker. A teacher explaining a lesson, an imam giving a preach, a salesperson persuading potential clients, a TV or radio host speaking to an audience, a comedian telling jokes, a chef demonstrating a recipe, or even a parent speaking to his or her sons and daughters are all forms of public speaking. In these, the speaker's ultimate aim is to make an impact on the listeners. For instance, he/she may want to teach them, guide them, attract them, inform them or simply entertain them.

In academic life too, it often happens that students are asked to make oral presentations, which are a form of public speaking, about different topics in relation to their studies. The objective behind such a classroom activity differs according to the teacher's will. In general, oral presentations are used to assess learners' comprehension or knowledge about a given lesson or subject they study (-ied). Another very common use of oral presentations is in the subject of oral expression. Here, students' presentations usually aim at assessing their speaking abilities in terms of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency, and appropriateness.

In both cases mentioned above, the speaker's aim is to influence the listeners. In order to do so, the presenters of speeches or presentations have to be competent and skillful speakers/interactors. They must possess certain techniques and strategies that can make their speech or presentation effective, and make them, in turn, influential public speakers.

The chapter in hand discusses, in general, public speaking skills. First, it defines public speaking and oral presentations. Then, it presents the different purposes of speeches and

presentations. After that, it discusses the most common types of speeches. Next, it tackles the various methods of delivering speeches and presentations. After that, it presents the use of visual aids in the art of public speaking. It also discusses a point of paramount significance in public speaking: body language. Then, it moves to the discussion of the most common problems and complaints in public speeches and oral presentations. The heading before the last in this chapter concerns public speaking anxiety. Finally, this chapter ends with a presentation of the advantages and disadvantages of public speeches and oral presentations.

2.1. Definitions

2.1.1. Public Speaking

Public speaking is the act, art, or process of making "*effective*" speeches in public, i.e. before an audience (The American Heritage, 1992). It refers to both the formal and informal contexts. In ancient times, the Latin term *oratory* and Greek word *rhetoric* which mean "*the art of persuasion, both in speech and writing*" were used to refer to the activity of public speaking (McArthur, 1992, p. 821).

2.1.2. Oral Presentations

An oral presentation is any type of prepared oral communication where one needs to speak about a given topic for some time before a group of people (Caplin, 2008).

2.1.3. Public Speeches vs. Oral Presentations

Based on the definitions cited above, it might seem that a public speech is the same as an oral presentation as long as they both involve the act of speaking in front of an audience. However, there are some major differences between the two. First, in public speaking, the audience is the public (i.e. everyone). In oral presentations, however, the audience is usually a group of colleagues, partners, associates, bosses, customers, etc. In addition, in public

speaking, the audience does not know the topic of the speech. That is why they come to hear it. Nevertheless, in presentations, the topic is often known to the listeners. In addition, a public speech takes place in public in contrast to presentations that take place indoors (Caplin, 2008).

2.2. Purposes of Student's Oral Presentations

There are many reasons why students are asked to deliver oral presentations. These presentations are primarily influenced by the subject being taught which determines their style, content and structure. The most common purposes behind assigning learners to this type of activity are:

2.2.1. Training

In these presentations, a learner needs to demonstrate his/her skills and abilities which they have acquired as a trainee. The teacher or trainer uses these presentations to assess the level of progress of the trainees. For instance, a learner/trainee may be asked to demonstrate the use of a piece of equipment or a medical procedure; use of a software package or a piece of first aid equipment; demonstrate his/her communication skills, etc. (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007)

2.2.2. Teaching and Learning

It can be said that all types of presentations involve some teaching and learning. However, this type aims exclusively at developing a deeper understanding of a given topic by covering specific parts in detail. The topic can be entirely new, as it can be recycled (the teacher could have previously taught it). For instance, explaining a scientific experiment or cooking a recipe belong to this type of presentations (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007).

2.2.3. Persuasion

The aim behind such a type of presentations is to develop learners' persuasive skills. In these, they are required to push or convince others to take action or make a decision. Here, learners need to present data, facts and statistics in a convincing manner to leave the greatest influence on listeners. Enthusiasm and passion are also important factors in the delivery of persuasive presentations (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007).

2.2.4. Assessment

It is often the norm that students' presentations are assessed, marked and rewarded. This type is particularly used to give learners grades which contribute to their overall module mark or credits. This is why they need a great deal of preparation and involve much anxiety on the part of students (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007).

2.3. Types of Public Speeches and Oral Presentations

There are many types of public speeches and oral presentation depending on the purpose of the speaker and context where the speech/presentation is delivered. The following are the most significant types:

2.3.1. Informative Speeches

When we speak about people we know, places we have visited, things we have done, or topics of concern, we actually practice informative speaking. We use it knowingly as well as spontaneously. Indeed, informative speaking is very common in everyday interaction. However, it is much more commonly used in educational settings. Teachers often use it to deliver the content of their lessons and lectures.

An informative speech aims at sharing new ideas, information, facts, examples and details about a topic or event with the audience (Hamilton, 2012; Rozakis, 1995). It also seeks

to create mutual understanding between the speaker and listeners through enabling them to understand a given topic in the same way the speaker does (Sellnow, 2005) and, thus, broaden their knowledge and understanding about it (Beebe & Beebe, 2013; Laskowski, 2001; Beebe & Beebe, 2015). In other words, it aims at reducing the listeners' ignorance about a topic through providing valuable and new information about it (Osborn, Osborn & Osborn, 2007).

Informative speeches are, in turn, of three sub-types: descriptive, explanatory and demonstrative. They all share the same aim discussed above, but each has its distinctive characteristics and sub-objectives.

2.3.1.1. Descriptive Speeches

This type aims at creating a clear picture of people, places, things or events in the minds of listeners (Sellnow, 2005). A descriptive speech tends to use lots of adjectives and concrete vocabulary so as to precisely depict the element(s) being described and, hence, convey the desired message in an accurate manner (Osborn et al., 2007).

2.3.1.2. Explanatory Speeches

These speeches aim at generating a clear interpretation of issues, concepts or beliefs in the minds of listeners through answering a main question: why (Sellnow, 2005). These speeches try to satisfy audience's desires to know about abstract or complicated subjects using justifications and examples (Osborn et al., 2007).

2.3.1.3. Demonstrative Speeches

The objective behind using a demonstrative speech is to clarify a process or procedure through answering the 'how' question (Sellnow, 2005). It tries to show or demonstrate, step by step, how things work or how they are done using real objects (Hamilton, 2012) in a

practical manner in order to help the audience develop new skills and be able to perform them on their own. Here, the speaker attempts to show how something is done not explain what it is. Therefore, visual aids play a crucial role in the presentation of such speeches because they help the audience visualize the practical steps of procedures (Public Speaking Success, 2010; Laskowski, 2001) which may be difficult to be brought into a classroom.

A major disadvantage of informative speeches, including all its sub-types, is that they contain lots of information, facts and statistics which can make them sound "*boring*" or "*dull*" and lead the audience to be distracted and lose interest easily (Public Speaking Success, 2010; Sellnow, 2005, p. 329). Therefore, presenters of such speeches have been often observed to be anxious because they fear that listeners will be uninterested, already know the content of the speech (i.e. information) or simply will not care about the topic (Sellnow, 2005).

2.3.2. Persuasive Speeches

Persuasion is defined as "*the process of changing or reinforcing attitudes, beliefs, values, or behaviors.*" According to this definition, persuasion does not necessarily mean changing others' ideas, but it also aims at reinforcing them. The audience might already like or believe in something and the speaker simply strengthens their perspective (Beebe & Beebe, 2013, p. 336). Therefore, it can be said that persuasive speeches seek to influence listeners' beliefs, opinions, attitudes, behaviors and choices and convince them so that they hold a particular belief or take a certain action (Hamilton, 2012).

Persuasive speeches, too, are of different types. Some persuasive speeches focus on facts, either in the past, present or even the future (i.e. what is believed to happen). Others concentrate on changing audience's attitudes and beliefs, while others work on encouraging it to take action towards a given case (Osborn et al., 2007).

The difference between informative and persuasive speeches should be made clear because only a thin line separates the two. In fact, they both give information, facts and statistics, but one stops at that point while the other continues to make an impact on listeners (Hamilton, 2012).

Persuasive speeches differ from informative ones in these basic points:

- ✚ Informative speeches ask for less commitment than persuasive ones.
- ✚ Informative speakers own less leadership on listeners than persuasive ones.
- ✚ Informative speeches do not appeal to listeners emotions. Persuasive speeches do.
- ✚ Informative speeches give many options. However, persuasive speeches give only one choice and encourage listeners to adopt it.
- ✚ Informative speeches teach and expand audience's knowledge through promoting understanding. Persuasive speeches advocate, change or reinforce their attitudes, opinions and choices. Thus, it can be said that informative speeches give listeners knowledge while persuasive presentations ask them to do something or change a behavior.

(Osborn et al., 2007; Public Speaking Success, 2010).

2.3.3. Special Occasion Speeches

These speeches are quite different from all the other types as they take place on a regular basis in our everyday lives. They are given in occasions such as weddings, birthdays, graduations, religious observances, extended family gatherings, award ceremonies, funerals, etc. They do not require much talk to be said because the audience is there to honor the occasion, not to hear someone speak about irrelevant topics (Hamilton, 2012; Public Speaking Success, 2010).

This type of speeches is also called entertainment speeches because they are aimed at bringing people together and promoting feelings of social unity in them (Rozakis, 1995). Sometimes, they are referred to as ceremonial speeches since they often involve honoring others for things they have done or accomplished (Laskowski, 2001).

2.4. Methods of Delivering Public Speeches and Oral Presentations

Often, the success of a speech or a presentation depends on opting for the right method of delivery. Thus, speakers need to develop versatility in presentation skills and master the use of the four known methods discussed below:

2.4.1. Reading from a Script

Many people, especially students, feel tempted to write a script of their entire speech or presentation, and then come to read it aloud in front of the audience. They feel that doing so increases self-confidence as it reduces chances of forgetting utterances to zero (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007). When reading a manuscript of their presentation, students know exactly where they are and what they are going to say next. They do not need to improvise anything (Lamerton, 2001). Another advantage of scripted speeches is that speakers can carefully choose their expressions in advance. This is particularly useful for sensitive issues and critical topics (Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

It is true that reading from a script reduces the chances of forgetting parts or committing many mistakes (Arredondo, 2007). Nevertheless, the disadvantages of this method outnumber its advantages:

- ☒ Verbal and non-verbal communication with the audience is limited (Axtell, 1992).
- ☒ Trying to get back on track is difficult, embarrassing and frustrating when papers get mixed up (Axtell, 1992).

- ☒ Reading a speech gives the impression that the speaker knows little, if at all, about his/her topic (Axtell, 1992).
- ☒ Unless the speaker is experienced, reading aloud often sounds "*monotonous*," seems rigid and remote from listeners (Axtell, 1992, p. 52).
- ☒ As discussed in chapter one, speech and writing vary a lot in style and lexis. "*The text being read is usually not written in the manner and style of spoken language. Too often speakers write their speeches in business language that is often very difficult to read*". This makes the presenter sound as if they are reading from an encyclopedia (Laskoweski, 2001, p. 71).
- ☒ It is argued that reading a speech verbatim is equal to insulting the audience. It is claimed that if one does not know the subject well to stand up and speak to the audience "*right from the shoulder*," then he/she should not be up on platform in the first place. "*Others argue that the speaker who feels he or she must read an entire speech might be better advised to simply hand out the written text and let the audience read it quietly and at their leisure*" (Axtell, 1992, p. 54).

Indeed, reading a manuscript of a speech has many cons. However, it is sometimes acceptable and necessary to read it. For instance, when "*words must be absolutely correct or accurate, and [...] [one] cannot possibly risk an accidental misstatement*," or when time is insufficient to rehearse or make advanced preparations, or when there are several speeches which need to be given in one day (Axtell, 1992, p. 54).

2.4.2. Memorized Speeches

Memorized speaking or speaking from memory is also a very common method used in the delivery of public speeches and presentations. Similar to the previous method, the entire speech is written and then it is "*committed to memory, and delivered word for word*." Here, the only advantage of the strategy is that the speaker can have maximum eye contact with

the audience. Nonetheless, this strategy is believed to have more serious drawbacks than the previous one. First, this is the most difficult method because it takes a great deal of time and effort to write and mesmerize a speech. Second, performance does not sound natural, spontaneous and relaxed. Rather, it often sounds stiff, "*sing-songy*" and too rapid due to speaker's nervousness. Finally yet importantly, it inhibits interacting with the audience and reacting to its feedback. For instance, the speaker becomes unable to clarify points that the audience does not understand. Even if he/she tries to answer their questions, he/she will forget the next sentence, part or even the rest of the speech (Osborn et al., 2007, p. 327; Hamilton, 2012; Laskowski, 2001; Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

2.4.3. Extemporaneous Speeches

Extemporaneous speech or speaking from notes is another common, yet more advanced, method of delivery. In this, the speech is not written out word for word and memorized like in scripted or memorized speeches. Instead, it is developed from brief notes that are written or typed on small note cards or visual aids such as posters, PowerPoint slides, etc. (Hamilton, 2012; Beebe & Beebe, 2015) and which are practiced and internalized. In the process of preparation, focus is on the sequence of ideas instead of the production of exact words and expressions (Osborn et al., 2007).

This type of speeches has some advantages:

- ✓ Unlike other styles of delivery, the presenter is not imprisoned by a document or text. Freedom from scripts enables him/her to enjoy many privileges such as a confident and ready appearance, good engagement with the audience (Arredondo, 2007; Public Speaking Success, 2010) in terms of eye contact and response to its feedback, which all lead to a natural and spontaneous conversational tone of speaking (Hamilton, 2012; Laskowski, 2001).

- ✓ It combines the pros of other modes of speeches. For example, it has the careful preparation of scripted and memorized speeches and the spontaneous speaking of impromptu speeches (yet to be explained) (Osborn et al., 2007) which all give the impression that the speech is being created at the moment of speaking. This ensures the continuous interest and excitement of the audience throughout the speech (Beebe & Beebe, 2015).
- ✓ Cards are easier to handle, less likely to get damaged and smaller than normal papers. Therefore, it is less noticeable if the speaker is shaking due to anxiety (Lamerton, 2001).

2.4.4. Impromptu Speeches

An impromptu speech is given by someone "*on the spur of the moment*" or "*off the cuff*" i.e. without his or her prior preparation or notice (Public Speaking Success, 2010; Osborn et al., 2007, p. 325; Hamilton, 2012; Laskowski, 2001). For instance, commenting on someone's idea in a meeting, responding to a teacher's question in class, proposing a toast in a party or wedding, and other unexpected speeches all fall in this category (Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

It is safe to say that this last method of delivery is the hardest and most challenging one of them all. Its difficulty lies in the fact that there is no time to gather information and get prepared. Due to extreme anxiety, speakers often start rumbling and mumbling or even become speechless (Monarth & Kase, 2007). However, impromptu speaking allows the presenter to speak informally and to have maximum interaction with the listeners (Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

2.5. Body Language

Two famous English proverbs say, '*do not judge a book by its cover*' and '*appearances can be deceptive*'. These sayings are true, indeed, or are they? Well, just like many rules, there are exceptions. When it comes to public speaking, appearances are extremely important.

They are even more important than the words someone has to say. However many aspiring public speakers often fail in performing well because they ignore this fact. They believe that if their words are powerful, their presentations will be convincing. This is not true. No matter how effective the words are, one is not likely to succeed without good and appropriate body language (Davidson, 2003). According to Gabor and Power (2011, p. 21) and Laskowski (2001), *"one of our most important conversational skills does not come from our tongue, but from our body."* Osborn et al. (2007, p. 321) confirms by stating, *"Communication with your audience begins before you ever open your mouth."* This means that people very often make initial judgements about others depending on their physical appearance and body language even before they start to speak (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007).

According to studies, our body language conveys about 60% to 90% of our communication (Axtell, 1992; Monarth & Kase, 2007). This means that the greatest proportion of our messages are conveyed nonverbally. These results were further strengthened by another research that suggested that poor and non-receptive body language causes short and unstained conversations (Gabor & Power, 2011; Laskowski, 2001).

But what is meant by body language exactly? Body language is a set of visual cues which are seen by people. This includes overall appearance, clothing, grooming, posture, facial expressions, gestures and eye contact. These seen cues have greater impact than spoken words (Arredondo, 2007; Hamilton, 2012; Monarth & Kase, 2007).

2.5.1. Personal Appearance

This includes clothing and grooming because those are the first things an audience sees is one's appearance and from which they will get a strong and long-lasting first impression. Wearing appropriate clothes for the occasion is necessary to give listeners a good first impression of the speaker. For instance, *"a police officer out of uniform may not act as*

authoritatively as when dressed in blue. A doctor without a white jacket may [...] [seem] like just another person." This means that appropriate clothing reflects the idea that the person respects oneself, the audience and appreciates the occasion. However, the presenter should not be overdressed because it will be a distraction (Osborn et al., 2007, p. 324; Hamilton, 2012; Public Speaking Success, 2010). Generally, it is advised to dress just a little bit better than the audience (Templeton, 2010).

2.5.2. Posture

The way someone stands communicates a great amount of information about his/her gender, class, attitudes, personality and even moods (Danesti, 2006). Standing straight and slumping are perceived quite differently by the audience. A straight posture makes the speaker seem confident, friendly and energetic. However, slumping and hunching often indicate shyness, nervousness and discomfort (Hamilton, 2012; Templeton, 2010). Not only that, standing straight also helps the speaker breathe more comfortably, allows him/her to make eye contact with the audience and helps their voice project better (i.e. clearer) (Public Speaking Success, 2010; Laskowski, 2001). In contrast, holding oneself down restricts the lungs from working naturally. Consequently, many body movements become restricted too (Davidson, 2003). Eye contact also becomes very limited, voice projects poorly, and appearance gives a negative impression.

2.5.3. Facial Expressions and Eye Contact

Facial expressions reveal a lot about people's true character and feelings. According to studies, it is estimated that about 80% of nonverbal communication takes place with the face and eyes (Laskowski, 2001). Here, eyes play the most important role because they are the most noticeable feature in the face. Probably this is why they are called "*windows into the self.*" In many cultures, frequent and sustained eye contact suggests respect, openness, trust,

confidence and honesty. In contrast, avoiding it is seen as a sign of carelessness, deception and fear (Osborn et al., 2007, p. 321). In public speaking, presenters who appear tense, do not smile and rarely make eye contact are perceived to be either inexperienced or that they are liars and manipulators. In both cases, the audience will tune out because it will think that the speech or presentation is not worth its time (Hamilton, 2012; Templeton, 2010).

Other benefits of eye contact are that it allows the speaker to react with the audience and determine which parts of the speech are clear and which parts are less so (Public Speaking Success, 2010). It also shows the listeners that the speaker is interested in them and wants to speak to them (Beebe & Beebe, 2015). However, eye contact should not be exaggerated because continuous staring may be interpreted into many negative ways, the least of which will make the listener uncomfortable (Templeton, 2010).

2.5.4. Body Movements

The human body is an effective tool in communication. It can add a lot of emphasis and clarity to one's words (Laskowski, 2001). In fact, very often, our physical movements can attract more attention than our utterances (Osborn et al., 2007). Their greatest role is that they can hold listeners' attention throughout the entire speech because, generally speaking, people are naturally attracted to and interested in moving objects, but they quickly lose interest in stationary ones (Public Speaking Success, 2010).

However, once again, bodily movements should be in the normal range. Too often, inexperienced speakers start to dance due to adrenaline increase while others stand still, stiff and completely motionless due to stress. In both cases, this can prevent messages from being properly conveyed to the audience (Templeton, 2010).

2.5.5. Gestures¹ (Hands and Arms)

Very often, when students make speeches or oral presentations, they become self-conscious as what to do with their hands and arms so that they barely speak or move (Templeton, 2010). This is due to their ignorance of their types and functions. They can clarify and support the speech, dramatize ideas, function as visual aids, stimulate audience participation, dissipate nervous tension (Laskowski, 2001), replace² a word or an idea, illustrate³ it, regulate⁴ the flow of the conversation, among many other functions (Hamilton, 2012).

2.5.6. Personal Space

Personal space refers to each person's comfort zone. This is generally estimated to be about four feet from others. For instance, when a stranger enters someone's personal or intimate zone, he/she will naturally back away. This is used as a signal that this intruder has violated their personal space (Templeton, 2010).

What is the relationship between the notion of personal space and public speaking? Well, distance is believed to affect both speaker's and listeners' sense of closeness and immediacy. That is, the greater the distance between those two, the harder it will be to achieve identification. The same thing happens when the speaker moves too close to the audience which makes it feel uncomfortable. *"The lesson should be clear: To increase [...] effectiveness, [...] [the speaker] should seek the ideal zone of physical distance not too far and not too close"* to listeners (Osborn et al., 2007, p. 324).

¹ Gestures are defined as body movements made with the hands and arms.

² These are called emblems. They easily replace a word or idea. For example, putting the index finger to the lips means that the listener(s) needs to be quiet (Hamilton, 2012).

³ These are called illustrators. They are intended to expand or clarify a word or an idea. For example, one could show the size of something with a wide gesture (Hamilton, 2012).

⁴ These are called regulators. They control the flow of a conversation in small groups. For example, breaking off eye contact is sometimes used to signal that the conversation is over (Hamilton, 2012).

2.6. Visual Aids

A well-known English proverb says, '*a picture is worth a thousand words*'. This saying is absolutely true. Very often one picture can effectively convey the meaning better than a thousand words. Not only that, it can also remain vivid in people's minds for a very long time, much longer than words, indeed.

This section tackles the definition, types, advantages and disadvantages of using visual aids in public speeches and oral presentations.

2.6.1. Definition of Visual Aids

An aid is any object, image or sound used to reinforce the speech and help the audience better understand the words (Beebe & Beebe, 2013; Beebe & Beebe, 2015; Public Speaking Success, 2010).

2.6.2. Types of Visual Aids

Visual aids play a crucial role in the delivery of a public speech or an oral presentation. Here, we present the various types a speaker can use in their speech/presentation:

1.6.2.1. Chalkboards and Whiteboards

A chalk- or marker- board is a presentation aid that is available in almost every classroom or conference room (Osborn et al., 2007). In fact, this is an old-fashioned aid, yet it has many advantages. It enables the speaker to create visual aids while speaking (Public Speaking Success, 2010). It is also inexpensive, simple to use and do not need special training because it is low-tech (Beebe & Beebe, 2013). In addition, as the speaker's hands are busy writing, this is likely to reduce his/her anxiety (Rozakis, 1995).

However, it has its disadvantages too. For example, writing (or drawing) and speaking can be difficult and distracting because the speaker and the audience have to concentrate on

two tasks at one (Rozakis, 1995). The speaker also has to turn their back to the audience to write or draw (Beebe & Beebe, 2015) and, thus, loses eye contact with the listeners. And if he/she writes or draws beforehand, the audience may concentrate on the board and neglect the speaker. In addition, a chalkboard is the least innovative aid, so it is ineffective in holding and maintaining listeners' attention (Beebe & Beebe, 2013). Furthermore, not all people write or draw well on black and white boards (Hall, 2001). Besides, they give the impression that the speaker is ill-prepared and unprofessional (Hamilton, 2012).

2.6.2.2. Overhead Projectors

An overhead projector projects images drawn or printed on clear plastic sheets called slides or transparencies onto a screen in order to be seen by a large group (Beebe & Beebe, 2013).

Slides are in fact easy to prepare, save, carry and use. However, their disadvantages are many. First, they require a completely dark room to get maximum effect. This makes it very difficult, if not impossible, for the audience to take notes. Besides, focus moves from the speaker to the slides (Rozakis, 1995; Osborn et al., 2007). In addition, because of darkness, listeners *"are poised to go to sleep [...]. Even among those who do not doze, many participants go into a lower energy mode"* (Davidson, 2003, p. 82). Furthermore, slides need to be properly inserted or they could be projected upside down. Nowadays, people have abandoned using slides and embraced the advantages of using PowerPoint (Beebe & Beebe, 2013; Hall, 2001).

2.6.2.3. PowerPoint

PowerPoint has become the most commonly used visual aid in making speeches and presentations. It is estimated that more than 90% of presentations are done using this aid. This is because it is the most widely available software of its kind. It is also rather easy to use,

edit and does not need much talent to design a slide (Osborn et al., 2007). In addition, it adds a professional look to speeches (Beebe & Beebe, 2013). Furthermore, it is very flexible and allows its user to present information in endless kinds of formats (Public Speaking Success, 2010).

Ironically, advantages of PowerPoint are its disadvantages. It is very easy to use that speakers often forget that it is like any other visual aid: it should only exist to further enhance the speech, not vice versa. That is, they tend to depend heavily on it so that they forget to develop their speeches properly. This leads speeches to be slide shows instead (Public Speaking Success, 2010).

2.6.2.4. Handouts

Handouts are a very effective form of aids as they literally enable the audience to take information with them to their homes, especially with complex topics (Public Speaking Success, 2010). Besides, they are cheap and can be prepared in advance (Rozakis, 1995). But, speakers need to pay attention because handouts can either assist or destroy a speech. It all depends on when they are distributed (Hamilton, 2012). Distributing them before or during the speech will make them compete for attention with the words being said (Osborn et al., 2007). That is, listeners will automatically start flipping pages and scanning the handouts (Axtell, 1992). This way, the speaker loses two important things: listeners' attention and valuable time (Beebe & Beebe, 2013). Therefore, it is preferable to distribute them at the conclusion of the speech, unless the audience has to do something with the material during the speech (Hamilton, 2012). When the audience takes handouts with them, it will have material to refer to later on to remember the speech, but it will remain attracted to the speech as well (Rozakis, 1995).

2.6.2.5. Graphics: Charts, Graphs, Maps and Diagrams

Graphics are a type of visual aids that include maps, charts, graphs, diagrams, sketches, and others (Osborn et al., 2007). These types of graphics are explained below:

Charts of all forms have many advantages. They are easy to use, cheap (Rozakis, 1995) and can easily bring abstract data into life (Public Speaking Success, 2010) in the sense that they provide clear summaries of related information which are hard to see in a small amount of space. However, they sometimes contain a huge load of information which makes it hard for listeners to understand and follow (Osborn et al., 2007; Rozakis, 1995) and, as a consequence, ignore the speech (Beebe & Beebe, 2013).

A special type of charts is flipcharts. These are large pads of blank paper firmly placed on an easel (Beebe & Beebe, 2013). They are cheap, convenient and flexible to be used in many situations, especially for showing the steps of a process. Nonetheless, they cannot work in classroom speeches and large groups because they are difficult to read from a far distance (Hamilton, 2012). They also give the impression that the speaker did not bother to prepare a classy presentation aid (Osborn et al., 2007; Rozakis, 1995). Besides, the fact that they are blank makes it difficult for the presenter to fill them by hand (Public Speaking Success, 2010; Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

Graphs are assemblies of data, especially concrete, in a pictorial easy-to-understand format (Beebe & Beebe, 2015; Beebe & Beebe, 2013) because *"masses of numbers presented orally can be overwhelming. But a well-designed graph can make statistical information easier for listeners to understand"* (Osborn et al., 2007, p. 255).

The most common graph types are bar graphs, pie graphs, line graphs and picture graphs. A bar graph compares countable data at a certain moment in time; a pie chart shows parts of the whole or percentages; a line graph shows changes in relationships over time; and

a pictograph replaces bars with graphic symbols or icons to show differences in data (Hamilton, 2012).

Maps are useful when the speech discusses some geographical regions, because the audience can visualize (Public Speaking Success, 2010) and clarify see the location of continents, oceans, seas, countries, mountains, rivers and other landforms (Rozakis, 1995). Nevertheless, maps, especially commercial ones, often contain lots of details (Osborn et al., 2007) because they are originally designed to be seen from a short distance. So, those details will not be visible to the audience (Beebe & Beebe, 2013; Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

Diagrams vary from simple to more sophisticated ones depending on the type of speech. They are very good because they can be prepared in advance, and are easy to use. Most importantly, all diagrams, especially three dimensional (3D) ones, help the audience literally visualize objects (Rozakis, 1995).

2.6.2.6. Pictures and Drawings

Pictures can help give striking presentations and speeches. One good picture can support a point in way words cannot. For example, pictures can show the audience objects or places that are impossible to be illustrated using words or directly seen by them (Beebe & Beebe, 2013).

Indeed, a picture is worth a thousand words, but pictures are actually difficult to use. It is hard for the audience to see small pictures. Besides, passing on pictures or running slides of them while speaking is distracting (Osborn et al., 2007). Therefore, they need to be handled with care.

Drawings are also a very popular presentation aid due to their simplicity, low cost and flexibility. They can be designed to the needs and topic of the speech (Beebe & Beebe, 2013).

However, similar to pictures, small or detailed drawings are hard to see (Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

2.6.2.7. People, Objects and Models

People, too, can serve as a presentation aid (Beebe & Beebe, 2015). Using people can help the audience perform certain acts that are hard to describe or illustrate through words (Osborn et al., 2007).

Objects are a very effective presentation aid as well. Their effectiveness is at its peak in demonstrative speeches (explained above) (Public Speaking Success, 2010; Osborn et al., 2007) because they can be seen, touched, heard, smelled and can replace real things (Beebe & Beebe, 2013; Beebe & Beebe, 2015).

Like many other visual aids, passing objects around while speaking or exposing them throughout the speech will eventually distract listeners. Therefore, it is preferable to hide them until later display (Hamilton, 2012).

When it is impossible to bring an object to the classroom, models are the most suitable presentation aid in this case (Beebe & Beebe, 2015). Models are replicates of objects that are very large to carry, very expensive, rare, fragile or unavailable (Osborn et al., 2007). They can be very useful in illustrating the structure, function and design of the original or real things (Rozakis, 1995).

2.6.2.8. Audiovisuals

Audiovisual aids have many advantages. First, they combine sound and image in communicating ideas. Cameras are also reasonably priced and available everywhere, so videos and audiotapes are easy to record, get and present (Beebe & Beebe, 2013). This helps the speaker easily present real life "*dramatic*" action which only very few other aids can do (Rozakis, 1995, p. 210) especially in demonstrating practical techniques (Hall, 2001).

Furthermore, audiovisual aids like videos, audiotapes and MP3s can add variety and interest to a speech. Not only that, they are also very effective in transporting the audience to remote or, sometimes, dangerous places that words fail to depict accurately. However, videos and moving images often attract attention more than words and, thus, upstage the speaker (Osborn et al., 2007; Hamilton, 2012).

2.6.2.9. Computers and the Internet

It has become the norm to use computers in almost all speeches and presentations (Beebe & Beebe, 2015) because, firstly, computers can combine text, sound and image into one piece of work (Hamilton, 2012). Secondly, they actually allow for endless possibilities of display of other aids such as charts, graphs, sketches, videos, audiotapes, maps, diagrams, pictures and many others. These aids are often prepared by PowerPoint software which makes them much neater and more accurate than those written or drawn by hand (Rozakis, 1995).

If the room where the speaker is presenting is connected to the Internet, he/she can play videos or audio files directly from its source. However, it is a risky thing to do because Internet connection can be lost before or during the speech. Therefore, it is always better to play already saved files (Beebe & Beebe, 2013).

2.6.3. Advantages of Using Visual Aids

Visual aids of all their forms and types share most of the followings pros:

- ✓ They improve speaker credibility and authenticity (Hamilton, 2012).
- ✓ They give the impression that the speaker is well-organized and professional (Davidson, 2003; Beebe & Beebe, 2015).
- ✓ They provide concrete support for abstract or new ideas, or for things or places listeners have not seen (Public Speaking Success, 2010; Rozakis, 1995).

- ✓ They can complement and compensate for weakness in spoken words by providing variety, interest and action to a speech (Osborn et al., 2007).
- ✓ They grab and maintain listeners' attention and make them use their eyes, ears and sometimes hands too to examine objects (Laskowski, 2001; Pincus, 2006).
- ✓ According to studies, people learn 87% through seeing, 07% through listening, and the rest 06% through taste, touch and smell. Besides, we remember 20% of what we hear, 30% of what we see, and 50% of what we hear and see at the same time. Therefore, visual aids help the audience better and faster understand, learn and remember the content of the speech (Axtell, 1992; Lamerton, 2001; Beebe & Beebe, 2013).

2.6.4. Disadvantages of Using Visual Aids

Despite the fact that visual aids have many points of strength, sometimes if improperly used, they can do more harm than good for a presentation. For instance,

- ☒ They may limit eye contact between the speaker and listeners.
- ☒ They may distract audience attention from the message of the speech to be on the visual aids instead.
- ☒ They may even distract the speaker's attention if no rehearsal was done in advance using the aids. Consequently, the speaker may seem self-conscious, stressful and unprepared, thus lose listeners' interest and/or his/her credibility.
- ☒ Poorly-prepared aids damage the speaker's credibility. The audience will think that either he/she does not care or is unable to make a good one.

(Osborn et al., 2007)

2.7. Problems of Public Speeches and Oral Presentations

It has been noticed that most students prefer to write an extended essay rather than to deliver a presentation. This is the case because of the following problems students very often face before and during the delivery of a presentation:

- ☒ Many students feel anxious about speaking to a small group, let alone speaking to a large one.
- ☒ Many students cannot use visual aids skillfully and properly, especially computer-related aids.
- ☒ Many students learn only from the presentations they make and not from those of their peers. Therefore, they often complain that *"there is no point attending the other presentations!"* (p. 6)
- ☒ It often happens that one or two students in a group presentations find themselves doing all the work due to the other members' laziness. This makes group presentations more stressful than individual work.
- ☒ Most students avoid presentations because they have little knowledge about the topics to be presented. Sometimes, however, they find so much information that they get confused as what to include and what to leave out.

(Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007).

- ☒ Students often find that there is only very little time for proper preparation of a presentation.
- ☒ A large number of students avoid presentations because they fear that the audience will laugh at, ridicule or humiliate them.

☒ Lots of students have not presented not even once, so they fear the unknown and anticipate that they are going to fail. Sometimes, this fear develops into real and serious physical sickness.

(Templeton, 2010).

2.8. Public Speaking Anxiety

Over the years, public speaking anxiety has been given serious labels such as speech fright, stage fright and speech anxiety (Sellnow, 2005). Glossophobia, which is the scientific term for public speaking anxiety (Templeton, 2010), is defined as a range of unpleasant feelings of fear and discomfort a speaker has before or during a public speech (Osborn et al., 2007).

Public speaking anxiety is a common and natural behavior. It is so common that public speaking has been reported to be the number one feared activity. It is so natural that it is "*pathological*" if someone does not experience at least some level of anxiety related to public speaking (Goberman, Hughes & Haydock, 2011, p. 687). Public Speaking Success (2010, p. 118) suggested that "*a lack of stage fright frequently leads to mediocrity.*" In other words, a little bit of public speaking anxiety is considered a good thing because it can psychologically prepare the speaker for his/her speech. Besides, absence of any signs of stress may give the impression that the speaker does not care about the audience and the message itself (Osborn et al., 2007).

It is a common belief that outgoing persons and those whose profession is public speaking do not suffer from stage fright. Nonetheless, this is not true. It has been noticed that even the most outgoing, experienced and professional performers do suffer from varying degrees of stress before and during a speech (Sellnow, 2005; Monarth & Kase, 2007).

2.8.1. Symptoms of Public Speaking Anxiety

There has been observed that there are universal symptoms for public speaking anxiety.

These symptoms include:

- ❖ Tingling or numbness
- ❖ Shaking hands and legs
- ❖ Accelerated heart beats
- ❖ Dry mouth and cold hands
- ❖ Shortness of breath and sweating
- ❖ Chest pain and abdominal distress
- ❖ Feelings of unreality and detachment from oneself
- ❖ Panic attacks (periods of intense fear or discomfort)
- ❖ Dizziness, unsteadiness, lightheadedness or even faint
- ❖ Fear of losing control over oneself, going crazy or even dying

(Esposito, 2008; Laskowski, 2001).

2.8.2. Causes of Public Speaking Anxiety

Research has identified a number of causes for public speaking anxiety. They are:

- ❖ **Socialized patterns of thinking and feeling:** are those patterns we learned while growing up.

In the process of socialization, people learn to fit into their social community. However, it sometimes happens that some people learn to be afraid of self-expression and public speaking. Studies have found that public speaking anxiety is mostly due to problems in the socialization process. For instance, if someone grows up in a family where parents and siblings are very shy and have very little interaction with one another as well as other people, he/she will simply follow them and does as they do. This is called modeling. Another example is that of a person who has spoken in front of a group of people and

received negative responses for it. This is likely to lead him/her to feel more anxious about public speaking. The same principle applies when the first speech goes well. The speaker will feel calm and expect success from future speeches. This is called reinforcement which is a learning process where past responses shape future expectations and behaviors (Sellnow, 2005).

- ❖ **Preferred learning style:** is the second main cause for public speaking anxiety. For example, if someone prefers to learn just by watching and thinking, he/she is likely to experience high levels of anxiety when speaking to a crowd. However, this does not happen to a person who learns through doing and moving (Sellnow, 2005).
- ❖ **Negative self-talk:** the third major cause of public speaking anxiety is due to negative self-talk. Self-talk is a form of interpersonal communication where someone has thoughts about succeeding or failing in a certain situation. If someone's inner thoughts focus on being unsuccessful, anxiety levels will increase and they will fail eventually. However, if they focus on accomplishing the task successfully, they are likely to do so (Sellnow, 2005).
- ❖ **Negative past experiences:** Most anxious public speakers have a general feeling of low self-esteem, feelings of inadequacy, or social unease due to past life experiences that created a deep feeling of loss of control and loss of trust both in oneself and others. In contrast, some people have had positive public speaking experiences that helped improve their self-confidence (Esposito, 2008).
- ❖ **Internal and external factors:** Internal factors, on the one hand, refer to the speaker's sensitivity, his/her perfectionist traits, audience's misconceptions, or the fear of unwanted consequences like throwing up, passing out or receiving a low grade. On the other hand, external factors can be due to the speaker's unfamiliarity with the act of public speaking, because people generally fear the unknown. However, with practice and exposure, this

fear decreases. It can also be due to the significance of the occasion. If the speech is of high importance, the speaker is going to worry about his/her performance and suffer from some of the symptoms mentioned above (Osborn et al., 2007).

- ❖ **Modeling:** some people learn how to be anxious through observing others. When a child, for instance, sees his family members always responding to others with fear, they learn that talking to others is unsafe and that it should be feared (Monarth & Kase, 2007).
- ❖ **Others:** fear of the audience, fear of failure, fear of criticism, embarrassment, humiliation, and damage to one's reputation (Rozakis, 1995), fear of mind going blank and being unable to continue talking, and fear of making no sense or sounding foolish are also causes of stage fright (Osborn et al., 2007).

Public speaking anxiety has been found to profoundly affect people's lives (Tillfors et al., 2008). Generally speaking, confident people are perceived as more competent, make a better first impression in interviews, and are often promoted faster than anxious people (Hamilton, 2012). This is in sharp contrast with anxious speakers whose lives turn into misery because of their anxiety which limits their potentials and hinders their progress in all fields of their lives: professionally, academically and socially (Esposito, 2008).

2.9. Pros and Cons of Students' Oral Presentations

Like any classroom activity, oral presentation have their advantages and disadvantages. Below, we present the most common ones related to this activity:

2.9.1. Pros

Chivers and Shoolbred (2007) cite the following points as some of the most remarkable advantages of students' oral presentations:

- ✓ They enable learners to better use their body language, voice and visual aids.
- ✓ They prepare learners for the workplace and professional life: teaching, business, etc.

- ✓ They increase self-confidence to speak in front of an audience, and build a stronger personality.
- ✓ Oral presentations are an opportunity for learners to develop communication and presentation skills and knowledge at the same time.
- ✓ Group presentations are often motivating and enjoyable. So, many students claim to have enjoyed presenting and report feelings of pleasure and achievement.
- ✓ Some students can speak better than they write. Thus, they earn better marks in oral presentations than in written assignments due to their speaking skills.
- ✓ Many students prefer to work in groups rather than to work individually. Thus, teachers use presentations to develop team work and project management skills.
- ✓ Group presentations are an opportunity for learners to build a better social life by making new friends with classmates and creating a sense of belonging to a group.
- ✓ It has been shown that people remember information better from new or unusual sources. Therefore, many students are willing to learn and remember the content of their own presentations and those of their peers rather than their teacher or lecturer.

2.9.2. Cons

Despite these numerous advantages of oral presentations, Chivers and Shoolbred (2007) count below a number of common problems and disadvantages which arise when working on an oral presentation:

- ☒ In group presentations, there are often conflicts about who is or are the decision maker(s) in the group.
- ☒ Often, students suffer from lack of ideas and information for their presentations, especially when presenting in large groups of four and above.

- ☒ Just as there are students who prefer to work in groups, there are many others (such as shy, anxious or embarrassed students) who enjoy individual work.
- ☒ Some students can be over eager or greedy so that they want to take a huge and significant part(s) in a presentation and leave only little or unimportant parts for the other members.
- ☒ It often happens that group presentations seem fragmented and disjointed due to students' different skills and presentation styles, absence of rehearsal, and other reasons.
- ☒ They can demoralize and demotivate learners and make them feel let down by some irresponsible, unethical or difficult team members. These feelings of disappointment, anger and frustration tend to last long after the event is over. This is especially true when the presentation is marked and all members share the same mark.

Conclusion

We believe that public speaking is such a vast art that should be a field of study on its own. Nevertheless, we tried to shed some light on this art and discuss its most significant points in relation to classroom practices. First, we defined public speaking and oral presentations, and differentiated between the two for ambiguity purposes. Then, the most common aims behind public speeches and presentations were discussed. In addition, the most well-known public speaking types were explained. Besides, this chapter includes an explanation of public speakers' most commonly used methods of speech delivery. Two very important points in close relation to the art of public speaking were also tackled here. They are speakers' body language and use of visual aids. And since no human activity is perfect, public speeches and oral presentations also have their limitations. Therefore, we have included a discussion of the most common problems of this art, and we also discussed public speaking anxiety which is in tight relation to this heading. Last but not least, we narrowed

down the scope of discussion to speak about the advantages and disadvantages of students' classroom oral presentations, which is the main concern in this research.

Chapter Three: Motivation in Language Learning

Introduction	78
3.1. Definitions	78
3.2. History and Development of Motivation	82
3.3. Theories of Motivation	83
3.3.1. Early Theories	83
3.3.2. Self-efficacy Theory	84
3.3.3. Needs Theory	87
3.3.3.1. Deficiency Needs	88
3.3.3.2. Growth Needs	89
3.3.4. Attribution Theory	90
3.3.5. Goal Setting Theory	91
3.3.6. Douglas McGregor's X and Y Theory	92
3.3.7. Behaviorist Theory	93
3.3.8. Expectancy-value Theory	94
3.3.9. The Drive Theory	95
3.3.10. Contemporary Theories	96
3.3.11. Need Achievement Theory	96
3.4. Types of Motivation	96
3.4.1. Intrinsic Motivation	97
3.4.2. Extrinsic Motivation	100
3.4.3. Overlap between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation	102
3.4.4. Instrumental Motivation	104

3.4.5.	Integrative Motivation	105
3.4.6.	Achievement Motivation	105
3.4.7.	Other Types	107
3.4.7.1.	Unconscious Motivation	107
3.4.7.2.	Autonomous and Controlled Motivation	107
3.4.7.3.	Resultative Motivation	108
3.5.	The Importance of Motivation in Language Learning	108
3.6.	Sources of Motivation	109
3.6.1.	Society	109
3.6.2.	Close People	110
3.6.3.	The Teacher	110
3.6.4.	The Method	110
3.7.	Assessment of Motivation	110
3.8.	Initiating, Sustaining and Losing Motivation	111
3.8.1.	Initiating and Sustaining Motivation	111
3.8.2.	Losing Motivation	112
	Conclusion	113

Introduction

People spend a great deal of their time reflecting on why others do what they do. They try to uncover the reasons behind someone's actions, words and behaviors. They also try to look for the causes why some people engage in tasks that are time- and effort-consuming. They want to know what drives certain persons to do so. Why do they engage in challenging activities? And why do not they give up? Or why do not they simply go for easier ones? The reason, according to Jordan, Carlile and Stack (2008), is motivation. People behave in certain ways because they are motivated to behave as such. They engage in effortful, challenging and time-consuming tasks instead of simpler ones because they have a desire to accomplish a goal. They do not give up because their desire to succeed is stronger than the difficulties they face.

In this chapter, we shed some light on this psychological issue. First, the concept is defined. Then, the most common theories of motivation are discussed. After that, the different types of motivation are tackled. Next, the importance of motivation in language educational settings is presented. Later, the development of motivation is discussed. Then, sources of motivation are highlighted. After that, assessment of motivation is also tackled here. Finally, this chapter ends with a discussion of few problematic points regarding motivation like demotivation, how to imitate and sustain learners' motivation, and others.

3.1. Definitions

Motivation is an English word with a Latin origin. It comes from the Latin verb "*movere*" which means to move (Elliot & Zahn, 2008, p. 686). Thus, motivation refers to a set of factors that move people to act or respond to actions (Jordan et al., 2008).

In fact, there is not one single agreed-on definition of motivation. Scholars have provided a number of insights regarding this notion. The number of definitions cited and explained below are just a sample of the most prevailing ones. Firstly, there are general definitions of motivation:

- ❖ *"Motivation is a kind of internal drive that pushes someone to do something so as to achieve a goal"* (Harmer, 2001, p. 51). This means that it is a set of emotional tendencies and psychological traits that guide and facilitate reaching goals (Lazarus & Benson, 2008; Engaging Schools, 2004). Or, in simpler words, it is the will to accomplish a task or reach a goal (Ravitch, 2007).
- ❖ Motivation is what gives human behavior its purpose and direction. That is to say, it is the driving force behind human behavior and the reason why people think or act in a certain way at any situation (Oka, 2005; Richards, Schmidt, Kendricks, Kim, Platt & Schmidt, 2002; Hall, 2011). In other words, *"motivation provides the energy of life"* in the sense that it is centered on human goals, *"setting them, keeping them, dropping them and dealing with them when they conflict."* In short, motivation is the reason why we start and stop doing things (Strongman, 2006, p. 41).
- ❖ Motivation is what determines the form, the direction, the intensity and duration of one's actions (Vallerand, 2004).

The technical definitions of motivation suggest that:

- ❖ In language learning contexts¹, motivation is attached to the arousal of students' interest in learning a language (Kyriacou, 2007). It also determines the degree of learners' effort in learning that language (Ellis, 1997). It is explained that motivation is *"the driving force to*

¹ It is important to mention that even in language learning contexts, the term was subject to change as it was first seen as instincts, needs and drives, but then it was viewed as curiosity, self-determination and goal setting (Gardner, 2006).

sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 39). For instance, it is the reason why a learner studies a foreign language in the first place, and why he/she does or does not study hard; why some learners persist to complete a task despite enormous obstacles while others give up at the slightest difficulty they face; why they prefer to listen instead of reading; why some party rather than study or vice versa. In sum, motivation is behind all the choices and decisions one makes (Rogers, 2007; Renninger, 2003).

- ❖ It is suggested that *"motivation is a state of cognitive and emotional arousal that leads to a conscious decision to act"* (Hall, 2011, p. 135) and which also results in *"sustained intellectual and/or physical effort so that the person can achieve some previously set goals."* The strength of motivation depends on the goals one wishes to achieve (Harmer, 2001, p. 51).

Despite all these attempts by scholars to define motivation, some others argue that it is still a vague concept. According to Dörnyei (2001) *"There is no such thing as motivation"* because it is such an *"abstract and hypothetical concept"* that people use to explain why they think and behave as they do. Obviously, this term *"subsumes a whole range of motives from financial incentives such as a raise in salary to idealistic beliefs such as the desire for freedom that have very little in common except that they all influence behaviour."* Therefore, *"motivation is best seen as a broad umbrella term that covers a variety of meanings"* (p. 1).

Dörnyei (2001) hypothesized that people use this vague term because it is a convenient way of addressing a much more complicated issue. Dörnyei also exemplified that when a student is said to be motivated, most people will imagine an organized, committed and enthusiastic learner who has a good reason to study. Similarly, it is easy to visualize an

unmotivated learner despite the difficulties we might find to describe accurately what this state of demotivation exactly is.

Other concepts in relation to motivation are:

✚ **Needs:** are "*deficiencies in whatever we need for survival*" such as oxygen, food and drink.

In everyday life, the term is used in a looser sense to mean that something is pressuring us like we say "*I need to rest*", "*I need to see my mother*" or "*I need to go*" (Strongman, 2006, p. 41).

✚ **Drives:** are strong and often impulsive needs where the person has little choice to do something (Strongman, 2006).

✚ **Motives:** are responsible for directing and channeling one's energies towards a certain goal or given goals (Strongman, 2006).

✚ **Goals:** are the objectives a person strives to accomplish or do. These include eating food, buying clothing, or even bettering oneself. Goals can be either short term like writing the next words or finishing the day without smoking, or long term such as wanting to live healthy until 80 or 90 years old (Strongman, 2006).

✚ **Instincts:** are in fact the hardest motivational term to define. In everyday contexts, the term means that something is done with great skill in an easy, automatic and intuitive manner. For instance when we say the player made an instinctive pass. At a technical level, however, the term refers to built-in behaviors that always appear in very similar ways and that are specie-specific. For example, spiders build their webs instinctively. Nevertheless, with human behaviors, it has been argued that there might not be instinctive ones. Even the way mothers react to their newly born children, which is thought to be instinctive behavior, is in fact not instinctive because not all mothers react in the same exact way (Strongman, 2006).

3.2. History and Development of Motivation

The evolution of motivation theory can be traced as follows: At first, primitive man used to believe that people were driven by gods with an internal manifestation in the form of daemons which possessed and forced them to act against their own will. Later, in the Greek civilization, philosophers used to think that humans were made up of two parts. A lower part which concerns bodily appetites, and a higher part concerns rational and spiritual well-being of the person. Later on, in the seventeenth-century, the French philosopher René Descartes suggested a dual definition of motivation which explained motivation as an act which takes place in the mind and then goes on to influence the body (Jordan et al., 2008).

In the nineteenth century, the British naturalist Charles Darwin saw animal motivation and behavior as a natural instinct. This instinct was seen as a mechanism moving them to meet survival needs. Later, early twentieth-century drive theories married to behaviorist theories of stimulus and response relationships have emphasized the role of motivation in the physiological satisfaction of needs in order to maintain bodily homeostasis or equilibrium. However, Drive theory was criticized for not taking into account the fact that our behavior may not always be a reaction to satisfy a desire or fulfill a need. But *"there is more to human motivation than the reactive behaviours that achieve balance"* (Jordan et al., 2008, p. 155). Our cognitive elements also play a crucial part in shaping our motivation. People have goals, objectives, expectations and ambitions which they are motivated to realize.

Nowadays, modern theories of motivation show an awareness of a combination of behaviorist reaction to stimuli and cognitive processes where people wish to identify and control their surroundings (Jordan et al., 2008).

3.3. Theories of Motivation

Generally speaking, motivation is seen as multifaceted construct that involves behavioral, cognitive and affective dimensions (Oka, 2005). Therefore, there are several different views of motivation which do not necessarily conflict but rather complement one another because each one tends to focus on different aspects (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2004).

Indeed, there are many motivational theories and each has its own unique assumptions about human nature and motivation. Nevertheless, these many theories share some common constructs. These common constructs are as follows:

Firstly, they are all interested in why individuals choose one activity over another. For instance, why some learners choose to do their homework while others prefer to watch T.V., talk on the phone, play on the computer or go out with friends. Secondly, they attempt to study the degree of involvement in a task. It is believed that motivated learners are more eager to put forth a great deal of effort in what they do. Besides, there are other unobservable cognitive behaviors such as mental processing of information, deep thinking, using different strategies to learn, building new information on previously stored knowledge, and others. Thirdly, there is persistence. It is thought that if a learner persists at learning tasks despite all obstacles, difficulty, boredom or fatigue, then they are motivated. Unlike many other behaviors, persistence is easily noticed and judged during class, at home or anywhere else. Fourthly, there is learners' actual achievement. In classroom settings, this includes predicting learners' grades in courses, tests or formal examinations (Pintrich, 2003).

3.3.1. Early theories of Motivation

In the early nineteenth century, motivation was described in religious terms. Human behavior was shaped according to God's words in the Bible with the notion of sin. Later on, in

the early nineteenth century, psychologists were concerned with finding more measurable definitions and explanations of human behavior and motivation than those found in the bible. With their studies and observations on animal behavior in controlled conditions, psychologists generalized their findings onto humans in hope for creating respectable scientific theories. This was based on the belief that human beings are animals and therefore are subject to very similar, if not identical, influences (Harkin, Turner & Dawn, 2001).

In the mid-nineteenth century, motivational studies were interested in finding out what aroused behavior, or what generated it in the first place. Theories, then, were under the influence of the late 19th century scientific developments, especially Darwin's theory of evolution and Helmholtz's law of conservation of energy in physics. These ideas led to the belief that living organisms are similar to machines whose fuel is motivation (Kaplan, 2009a). According to this idea, living organisms strive towards what is known as "*homeostasis*" which is defined as "*an optimal state of no motion.*" Motivation was thought to be the result of a deprivation that disturbs such an optimal state. For instance, hunger or thirst lead to motivation to look for food or water (Kaplan, 2009a, p. 14).

By contrast, some scholars such as Graham (2003) hold another belief which is called "*hedonism*" and which is defined as living organisms' "*desire to maximize pleasure and minimize pain*" (p. 1691).

3.3.2. Self-efficacy Theory

This theory is one of the most prevailing theories of motivation. Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's perception of his/her abilities to learn or perform an action or a task well (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). In other words, it is the set of beliefs people hold about their capabilities to learn things or perform tasks (Pajares, 2009). In much simpler words, it is a person's self-confidence in their abilities to do a task (Pintrich, 2003; Dörnyei, 2001).

It should be noted that unlike the attribution theory which explains success or failure in past events, self-efficacy theory tries to anticipate success or failure in future ones (Graham, 2003).

One's self-efficacy can be developed through many ways. One of which is vicarious experience which is simply observing others perform tasks. Observing other people successfully accomplish a task generates or strengthens one's self-efficacy to do it as well. Doing so generates the idea that 'if they can do it, so can I.' In simpler words, it is like taking a model and following his/her actions (Schunk & Pajares, 2009; Pajares, 2009).

Another way of developing self-efficacy is through social persuasion. Social persuasion is the set of verbal messages people receive from others. Whether intentional or accidental, such phrases can play a powerful role in enhancing or disheartening one's self-efficacy. For instance, this happens when someone is told utterances like "*I know you can do it.*" These utterances should not be "*empty praise*"; rather, the goals must be real and attainable because positive feedback will not "*endure*" if the person performs poorly in subsequent tasks (Schunk & Pajares, 2009, p. 37; Pajares, 2009).

Mastery experience is another source of self-efficacy. It is one's result of different experiences. In this,

success raises self-efficacy; failure lowers it. [For example,] students who perform well on mathematics tests and earn high grades in mathematics classes develop confidence in their mathematics capabilities. This sense of efficacy helps ensure that they will enroll in subsequent mathematics-related classes, approach mathematics tasks with serenity, and increase their efforts when a difficulty arises (Pajares, 2009, p. 791).

Self-efficacy is of many types. Collective self-efficacy refers to the perceived abilities of an entire group or team (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). It is what a group of people believe they can do together. Teacher or instructional self-efficacy refers to a teacher's beliefs about his/her abilities to help students learn. *"Teachers with higher self-efficacy are apt to develop challenging activities, help students succeed, and persist with students who have difficulties"* (Schunk & Pajares, 2009, p. 38).

The development of self-efficacy is not automatic. In fact, there are several factors that influence its development.

- ❖ **Family influences:** the first factor that affects self-efficacy is family. Within one's family, there are certain aspects that can affect self-efficacy. These are the family's financial, human and social resources. Children are motivated to learn when raised in an atmosphere rich in activities that arouse their curiosity (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). It has been noticed that educated parents with wide social connection tend to encourage education of their children and encourage them to enroll in programs that foster learning and self-efficacy. Besides, parents who support and encourage discovery and exploration accelerate their children's intellectual development (Schunk & Pajares, 2009).
- ❖ **Social and cultural influences:** in addition to family, peers play a significant role in developing self-efficacy. Efficacious peers who try and succeed at tasks motivate their peers to try doing those tasks themselves. Not only that, but they also *"promote motivational socialization"* in the sense that *"children affiliated with highly motivated groups change positively, whereas those in less motivated groups change negatively."* That is to say, learners who are grouped around successful peers tend to be motivated to succeed as well, and vice versa (Schunk & Pajares, 2009, p. 43).

❖ **Educational influences:** self-efficacy is also under the influence of educational factors such as competition with peers, grading, teacher attention, stress related to school transition, and others (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). These and other practices can affect learners' self-efficacy. For instance, it has been observed that able students' self-efficacy decreases when grouped with less able ones as they find their performance tied to less able members (Schunk & Pajares, 2009).

It has been shown that self-efficacy is of enormous significance. In education, for instance, it has been found out that learners with high self-efficacy tend to engage more in tasks, *"work harder, persist longer, show greater interest in learning, and achieve at higher levels"* than those with low levels of self-efficacy (Schunk & Pajares, 2009, p. 35).

3.3.3. Needs Theory

According to Maslow, motivation is based on three basic types of human needs: physiological, social and cognitive (Jordan et al., 2008). These needs must be satisfied hierarchically, starting with lower order needs before moving on to higher order ones. According to Maslow, physical, security and emotional needs come before cognitive needs such as self-esteem and self-actualization. For instance, it is considered illogical to expect someone to learn well when he or she is hungry, cold or afraid (Cohen et al., 2004).

The following figure and notes explain in detail Maslow's theory of basic needs:

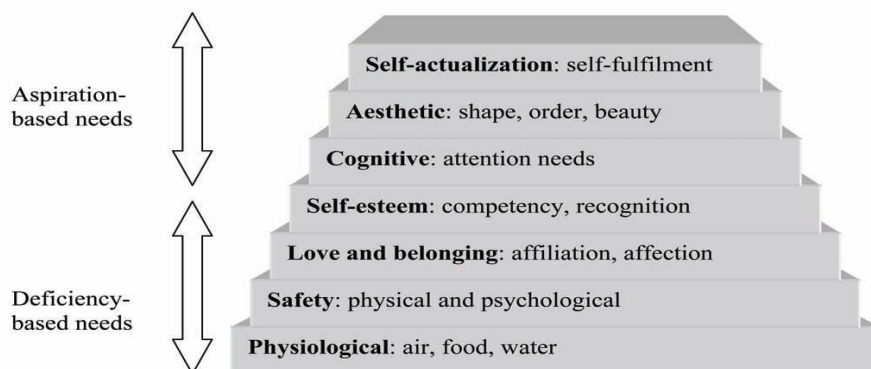


Figure 01: Maslow's Hierarchy of Basic Needs (Jordan et al., 2008, p. 156).

As mentioned above, according to Maslow, all human beings regardless of their cultural differences share some basic needs which can be arranged in a hierarchy. In the chart above, it can be seen that the hierarchy starts with a major group he called deficiency needs which includes physiological, safety, belongingness and love, and esteem. Then, there is a second major group he named growth needs and which includes cognitive, aesthetic, and self-actualization.

3.3.3.1. Deficiency Needs

These are the most important group of needs. These include the body's physiological needs such as the need for food caused by hunger, the need for water caused by thirst, the need for air for breathing, the need for sleep and rest, and the need for optimal temperature. These are all prerequisite for human survival (Harper & Guilbault, 2008).

- ✓ Deficiency needs also include safety needs which are the second most important set of needs. In these, there are people's needs for security, protection, stability, freedom from harm, fear or constant anxiety (Harper & Guilbault, 2008).
- ✓ The next level of deficiency needs is belongingness and love needs. At this level, persons need to feel that they belong and are loved by members of a group such as family, friends, neighbors, co-workers, etc. (Harper & Guilbault, 2008).
- ✓ The last group of deficiency needs are esteem needs. These are concerned with one's self-esteem² that is deserved from others which is based on one's achievements, status, or appearance (Harper & Guilbault, 2008).

² **Self-esteem and self-worth:** this theory sees that a learner must be taken as a whole. It sees that learners' self-esteem is related to their control over their learning. In many learning situations, learners are told what to think, how to think, and when to think. This is believed to damage their self-esteem and self-worth. Therefore, learners' self-esteem and self-worth must be maintained high so as to ensure effective learning, and this is best done through giving rich and positive feedback as well as respect (Cohen et al., 2004).

3.3.3.2. Growth Needs

Growth needs are divided into sub-groups as well. First, there are cognitive needs. These include the need to know, comprehend and explore one's environment and world in general. Second, there are aesthetic needs which are defined as the need to appreciate and look for beauty and symmetry in one's surroundings. Last, there is the need for self-actualization which is the highest point of the hierarchy. Self-actualization is defined as the need to develop one's knowledge, potential and unique talent to the highest level of achievement there is (Harper & Guilbault, 2008).

It is important to mention that *"self-actualization is an ongoing process and not an end within itself."* That is to say, self-actualization is indeed at the top of the needs, however it has no end because knowledge is limitless and the betterment of oneself cannot end. (Harper & Guilbault, 2008, p. 636).

In spite of its usefulness to educators, Maslow's theory has been criticized on a number of counts. First, it was argued that some constructs like self-actualization is in fact hard to define and assess (Jordan et al., 2008). Besides, as mentioned above, Maslow has emphasized on a fixed order of needs in his hierarchy in his early publications. This has led his theory to receive much criticism regarding the rigidity of the order of needs. Scholars agreed on the fact that basic needs were in fact seemingly for all humans, but it was argued that not all people fulfilled such needs in the same way or following the exact order. This is because of their individual and cultural differences. Therefore, in his later publications, Maslow acknowledged the need for further cross-cultural studies on his theory of motivation (Harper & Guilbault, 2008).

3.3.4. Attribution Theory

The notion of attribution was initiated by Fritz Heider in 1896. Then, it was developed by Bernard Weiner in 1935 into his famous attribution theory (Anderman & Anderman, 2009, p. 70). In this theory, attributions are defined as people's inferences about the causes of their success and failure. These causes vary. For instance, there are ability, effort, task difficulty or ease, luck, mood, help or hindrance from other people, and others (Graham, 2003). These attributions are classified into three causal dimensions: locus³, stability and controllability (Dörnyei, 2001). First, there is locus. It refers to whether a cause is internal or external to the individual. Second, there is stability. It designates a cause as constant or varying over time. Third, there is controllability which refers to whether or not a cause is subject to influence. For instance, ability is seen as internal, stable and uncontrollable. Effort is viewed internal as well, but it is unstable and controllable (Graham & Williams, 2009).

According to this theory, it is believed that specific patterns of dimensions lead to specific emotions⁴ and motivations. In simpler words, the causes people account for their success and failure in past tasks play an important role in the degree of their motivation for future ones (Richards et al., 2002). For instance, when a pupil attributes her success to her intelligence (internal and stable) and effort (controllable), she will experience happy and proud feelings and will attempt similar or even harder tasks in the future. By contrast, when she accounts her success to task ease (external and uncontrollable), she may experience

³ Usually, people attribute their success to their own skills and abilities while they account their failures to uncontrollable external factors (Jordan et al., 2008). From this came the concept "*locus of control*" which refers to someone's beliefs about the extent to which they can control their own situations and destinies. People with a powerful internal locus of control are determined and believe that they can affect and change their life events and circumstances. Besides, they are more proactive, proud and feel more shame when they fail. However, people with an external locus of control tend to avoid taking responsibility for their failure. Rather they owe it to external factors such as bad luck (Jordan et al., 2008, p. 161).

⁴ Success at difficult tasks is believed to cause especially pleasant and positive feelings of happiness and pride. However, failure at easy tasks is said to lead to unpleasant and negative feelings of shame and guilt (Jordan et al., 2008).

feelings of happiness but not pride, thus she may not attempt doing similar or harder tasks because she does not have confidence in her abilities (Turner & Goodin, 2008). This is the reason why most educational programs try to convince learners to relate their failure to unstable factors like lack of effort instead of stable ones such as lack of ability. This is because when a learner attributes his/her failure to a stable factor, they are less likely to engage in the same task again, unlike when their failure is due to unstable factors (Graham, 2003).

The attribution theory has received valuable empirical support, but it has been inconsistent in nature. One of the reasons why support has been inconsistent is that research has revealed that people have different beliefs about the stability or controllability of their attributions. For example, it has been shown that some learners believe that their intellectual abilities are not stable and uncontrollable as the theory suggests. Instead, these learners see that their intellectual abilities can be acquired and developed through effort. Therefore, their failure may lead to feelings of disappointment but not shame. Moreover, failure does not necessarily lead them to abandon similar tasks. Rather, it may lead them to increase their efforts or try other strategies, and thus maintain or even increase motivation for future similar or harder tasks (Turner & Goodin, 2008).

3.3.5. Goal Setting Theory

Goal setting theory, also called achievement goal theory, suggests that human behavior is driven by a purpose to achieve goals (Dörnyei, 2001) and that people are more motivated to accomplish tasks when they have clear and specific goals than when they have not (Richards et al., 2002). It also suggests that goal setting is a process of defining a goal and specifying a number of objectives that help reach it (Jordan et al., 2008).

Again, according to this theory, goals are what give an activity its purpose or meaning. Goals are defined as "*the incentive or outcome a person is trying to achieve*" (Maehr & Zusho,

2009, p. 79). These goals are of two types: mastery (also called learning goals) or performance (also known as ego-involved) goals. The former focus on the development of competence. They are explained as *"learning for the sake of learning."* In contrast, the latter focus on the demonstration of competence. That is to say, the aim is to show others that the learner is capable (Maehr & Zusho, 2009, p. 79; Dörnyei, 2001). In other words, learners with mastery goals are oriented toward acquiring or developing certain skills and abilities. In contrast, learners with performance goals aim at demonstrating that they already have certain abilities and master some skills so as to publicly display their competence and outperform others (Graham, 2003).

It is important to note that the level of motivation differs between these two groups. Learners with mastery goals tend to seek out challenge and decrease effort in difficult tasks. However, learners with performance goals tend to avoid challenging situations because they perceive them as a threat for their abilities. Besides, it should be clarified that, sometimes, the two types of goals overlap with some students. For instance, it can be found that a learner may wish to master a skill and outperform his/her peers at once (Graham, 2003).

3.3.6. Douglas McGregor's X and Y Theories

This theory is an idea of motivation that has stood the test of time. According to the X theory, it is assumed that *"human beings cannot be trusted to work. They believe that we will avoid responsibility and effort if we can, therefore we must be controlled, directed, manipulated, force-fed and punished for disobedience."* Nevertheless, the Y theory assumes the opposite. It is believed that

work is natural and that we work best when we take responsibility for ourselves.

Creativity and play are important for problem-solving and the only way to do this

is through engaging people, trusting them and giving them autonomy. Praise is more effective than criticism as a way to lead (Rogers, 2007, p. 22).

In simpler words, in the X theory, there is a tight control of all aspects of learning as well learners themselves, assuming that they need extrinsic motivation to get to work. So, the concepts of punishment and reward are very commonly applied in such contexts. However, in the Y theory, learners are more trusted that they are intrinsically motivated to perform. Thus, they should be given opportunities and responsibilities to take so as to be autonomous learners. They are also encouraged to work individually and set their own goals (Jordan et al., 2008).

In fact, theory X was the prevailing one in the past. The norm was that learners received harsh punishment for disobedience. Rote learning was also the major teaching strategy. Besides, facts were focused on while emotions were neglected. However, in the recent years, educators and teaching professionals came to realize that theory Y is a better teaching as well as learning methodology (Rogers, 2007).

Other reasons why educators abandoned theory X was that learners, especially adults, complained, protested and even fought back against the treatment they received. Therefore, the whole theory was doomed to fail (Rogers, 2007).

3.3.7. Behaviorist Theory

Behaviorism has prevailed in the field of language learning for a long time. It was formally established with the publication of John B. Watson's classic paper *Psychology as the Behaviorist Views It* in 1913. This theory places much attention on using reward and incentives to elicit desired behavior from learners (i.e. extrinsic motivation). According to this theory, learners are more likely to engage in learning situations when there is reward and

they will avoid behaviors that lead to punishment or undesirable outcomes (Oka, 2005; Kaplan, 2009a).

Graham (2003) cited other characteristics of the stimulus-response theory which are:

- ❖ A given stimulus provokes a given response.
- ❖ Learning is a conditional behavior, and it can be programmed.
- ❖ The major motivation behind learning is for extrinsic purposes (rewards).
- ❖ Repetition and rote learning cause learning while lack of repetition leads to extinction.
- ❖ Positively reinforced behaviors are learned, but negatively reinforced ones are forgotten.

As mentioned above and seen in the third characteristic just cited, behaviorism pays much attention to external rewards such as getting a grade, passing a test, getting a star, and pleasing the teacher or parents, etc. (Graham, 2003). However, this is believed to be a mechanical way of learning, *"dehumanized and reward-oriented."* That is to say, learners only study so as to pass a test or gain a mark and not to actually learn anything for the sake of learning it (Cohen et al., 2004, p. 178).

3.3.8. Expectancy-value Theory

Before dealing with the characteristics of this theory, it is important to define the terms expectancy and value first. According to Eccles (2005), expectancy is defined as the learner's *"beliefs about how well they will do on an upcoming task."* Eccles also defined task value as the qualities of various tasks and which affect learners' desire to perform that task (Wigfield, Tonk & Kluda, 2009, p. 57).

In this theory, it is suggested that there are three cognitive factors which are in close relation to learners' motivation. These are anticipation (anticipation of the gain or reward), expectation (expecting an achievement) and importance (significance of the task success) (Jordan et al., 2008). Anticipation means that learners are more motivated to learn if they

know the benefit from doing a task before doing it. This involves two types of motivation: intrinsic as well as extrinsic. All this is to make the performance of tasks *"worthwhile in the learner's eyes"* (Cohen et al., 2004, p. 178). By expectancy, it is meant to ask, "Do learners expect to accomplish the task?" In other words, this means that if learners have some control over their skills and the learning experience, and feel confident, then they are more likely to do the assigned task with much cognitive involvement, persistence, and higher achievement (Pintrich, 2003).

In sum, it can be said that learners are more motivated to engage in performing tasks which they see as valuable, worth doing and achievable (Richards et al., 2002). Therefore, the higher they value the task and the higher their expectations of success are, the higher the degree of motivation they will have to do it (Dörnyei, 2001).

3.3.9. The Drive Theory

The drive theory is one of the early theories of motivation which was introduced by Clark Hull. According to this theory, animal body, including humans, likes to be in what is referred to as homeostasis which is *"a state of balance and contentment."* Only when this state is disturbed by a need to eat, drink, etc., then we are forced to act (Harkin et al., 2001, p. 60). In other words, human behavior is a function of drive and habit. Drives are defined as *"unsatisfied needs"* like the need to eat and drink. The drive to satisfy these needs is what arouses behavior. Habits are *"stimulus response bonds that are built up over time as a result of prior learning."* Habits, here, are what directs behavior. For instance, if a person's need to succeed was achieved in the past by hard work, then the same need should be satisfied in the same manner (Graham, 2003, p. 1691).

Drive theory was criticized for being very mechanistic. It was argued that it did not allow for complex cognitive processes (Graham, 2003).

3.3.10. Contemporary Theories

Generally speaking, contemporary theories are based on three yet interrelated constructs. First, there is expectance. This deals with one's beliefs about their ability (can I do it?). Secondly, there is values which concern one's preferences to do things (do I want to do it?). Last, there is goals that are related to and try to explain the reasons why people engage in the activities they do (why do I do it?) (Graham, 2003).

3.3.11. Need Achievement Theory

According to H. Murray, the founder of this theory, motivation is explained in two tendencies: motivation towards success and that to avoid failure. That is to say, people can be motivated in two ways, either to succeed at accomplishing a goal or performing a task; or they can be motivated to do something in order to escape failure (Johnson & Johnson, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001).

3.4. Types of Motivation

In most educational settings, teachers often notice differences in learners' motivation. Some of them are highly motivated to engage in doing tasks with much "*intensity and feeling.*" However, other learners seem to be bored and would rather do something else instead. Even with motivated learners, there has been noticed some variations. Some begin doing a task and persist till they finish it, whereas others start enthusiastically but give-up half-way through it once they encounter difficulties (Kaplan, 2009b, p. 513).

Just like there are varieties in learners' level of motivation, there are varieties in motivation itself within learners. For instance, a learner may be interested in accomplishing a task in order to win a price. Another one might be interested in doing the task itself and not to get a reward. Another learner can be taking a language course so as to get a job or a

promotion. A further one may simply be interested in making friends and getting acquainted with native speakers of the language, and so forth (Leaver, Ehrman & Shekhtman, 2005).

These types and differences in motivation are discussed in detail in the following headings.

3.4.1. Intrinsic Motivation

Throughout the years, psychologists have observed the existence of two major types of motivation. These two types were called intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 2004). On the one hand, there is intrinsic motivation. One of the earliest uses of the term intrinsic motivation was in the 1950s by Harry Harlow and his colleagues who conducted some research on a group of monkeys. The term was coined as those monkeys solved puzzles without expecting their solution to yield any kind of reward. Instead, *"solving the puzzles seemed to be its own reward"* (Cameron & Pierce, 2008, p. 556).

Academic definitions of the term suggest that it is *"doing something for its own sake"* (Cohen et al., 2004, p. 332) or *"the desire to achieve one's goals, regardless of external rewards, such as grades, honors, or money"* (Ravitch, 2007, p. 125). It also *"refers to engaging in an activity for itself and for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from participation"* (Vallerand, 2004, p. 428) *"because it makes [...] [persons] feel happy, more whole, or because it fits in some way with something important to who [...] [they] are"* (Leaver et al., 2005, p. 104). Another way of saying it is that intrinsically motivated learners *"are those for which the behaviors [or activities] themselves are rewarding and, thus, do not require separable consequences."* That is, *"such an activity does not require a contingent outcome that is separate from the activity itself"* (Deci, 2004, p. 437).

In everyday language, intrinsic motivation is simply another way of saying that people are interested in and enjoy what they are doing. According to the social

psychological literature, people are said to be intrinsically motivated when they do an activity for its own sake, not for any extrinsic reward (Cameron & Pierce, 2008, p. 555).

In educational contexts, intrinsic motivation is defined as an inner desire⁵ that comes from within the person (Harmer, 2001) to learn for the sake of enjoying learning, say a language, (Richards et al., 2002) free from any ulterior purpose except for the sake of learning (Engaging Schools, 2004). Here, learners' desires, curiosity and interests in language learning are satisfied by engaging in doing activities (Kyriacou, 2007) or figuring out tasks (Warner, Bryan & Warner, 2006). This means that this type of motivation is often derived from an inner interest in the course, or from the materials and activities used in teaching (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 2003) which are rewarding in themselves without the need for external incentives (Jordan et al., 2008). In other words, it is the desire to engage in tasks without *"the promise of rewards or the threat of punishment"* (Oka, 2005, p. 331; Deci, 2004). Rather, it is for the sheer pleasure and enjoyment of doing the activity itself away from any anticipation of an external reward (Hall, 2011; Kaplan, 2009b, p. 513).

It is important to add that some researchers like Csikszentmihalyi consider intrinsically motivating activities as *"ends in themselves rather than means to an end"* (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 40) this means that the major objective of engagement is participation and it does not go beyond that to getting rewarded.

Intrinsic motivation can be observed in activities that provide a sense of achievement, pride in solving a given problem, enjoyment of being in the class, or being able to use the target language as desired (Engaging Schools, 2004). Examples of these intrinsically

⁵ A learner can also be said to be intrinsically motivated when the desire to accomplish a task does not come from within the person, who does not have neither a positive nor a negative attitude towards the target language, but from the type of tasks performed which may be found curious, arousing or interesting. *"In this, they feel personally involved in performing these tasks"* (Ellis, 1997, p. 75).

motivating activities include reading for pleasure (Oka, 2005), playing golf, looking at paintings, and other similar leisure time activities which are often found amusing and satisfying (Deci, 2004). It may also include the desire to be acquainted with native speakers, to understand popular music, or to embrace and learn about the culture of native speakers of the target language (Dunlap & Weisman, 2006).

Some scholars like Vallerand and few others have suggested that there are three types of intrinsic motivation. First, there is intrinsic motivation to know. This refers to the engagement in a certain activity for the pleasure of learning. Second, there is intrinsic motivation toward accomplishments. This type means that a person is doing a task in order to try surpassing oneself. Last, there is intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation which refers to the act of "*engaging in the activity out of sensory and aesthetic pleasure*" (Mallerand, 2004, p. 428).

Intrinsic motivation has been found to have many advantages. For example, *researchers have found that students who are intrinsically interested in an activity are more likely than students who are not intrinsically interested to seek challenging tasks (Pittman, Emery, and Boggiano, 1982), think more creatively (Amabile and Hennessey, 1992), exert effort (Downey and Ainsworth-Darnell, 2002; Miserandino, 1996), and learn at a conceptual level (Ryan, Connell, and Plant, 1990) (as cited in Engaging Schools, 2004, p. 38).*

Besides, it can be a powerful motivator for achievement because the engagement in activities does not depend on external factors to make them worthwhile. "*Simply doing the activity is inherently valuable and satisfying*" (Oka, 2005, p. 332). However, the only problem with intrinsic motivation is that it is hard to be observed or identified because, for instance, a learner may feel lonely or isolated so he/she simply wants the joy of people's company (i.e.

"learning may be their passport to essential socializing." Another one may view learning as a significant part of a new identity or skill (Rogers, 2007, p. 21).

Intrinsic motivation can be developed using strategies such as selecting interesting and relevant topics to learners, allowing them to choose what to do, actively involving them in doing tasks, using games, using novel and different topics, and providing learners with regular feedback on their performance (Kyriacou, 2007).

According to Csikszentmihalyi (1997), intrinsic motivation often leads to what he/she called flow. The flow is a state in which individuals are wholly immersed in an activity that they *"lose track of time and become unaware of what is going on around them."* The level of attention and focus is so high that it leads to a striking lack of self-consciousness. This state can be observed in activities like playing chess, reading, writing, painting, playing video games, and others (as cited in Oka, 2005, p. 332).

2.4.2. Extrinsic Motivation

As it turns out, many of the activities people do are not intrinsically motivating, especially from the time they move out of early childhood and face increasing demands to assume social roles and accept responsibilities. Children must begin to interact congenially with playmates, then to do schoolwork that they do not find interesting, and eventually (as adults) to hold gainful employment and function within the laws of society (Deci, 2004).

The concept of extrinsic motivation is attached to behaviorist theories of the 1940s and 1950s. Despite the fact that those theories did not explicitly use the exact term, but they were based on the idea that desired behaviors lead to rewards (often called reinforcement) (Deci, 2004).

Extrinsic motivation is the result of external factors, reasons or stimuli (Harmer, 2001; Hall, 2011; Cohen et al., 2004; Rogers, 2007) that come from the outside rather than from

inside the person (Warner, Bryan & Warner, 2006) and which motivate them to respond (Jordan et al., 2008).

Extrinsic motivation is not based on personal wishes or needs to perform the task (Broughton et al., 2003). Rather, there is an ulterior purpose behind engagement (Engaging Schools, 2004) instead of the task itself (Kyriacou, 2007). In other words, *"when extrinsically motivated, individuals do not engage in the activity out of pleasure but rather do so to derive some kind of rewards that are external to the activity itself [...] such as a reward, approval from others, or the avoidance of punishment"* (Vallerand, 2004, p. 428).

It is important to mention that extrinsic motivation can only be triggered by these external cues which can be of all types like (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) trophies, awards, treats (Ravitch, 2007), gold stars, candy, verbal praise by the teacher or parents (Oka, 2005; Cameron & Pierce, 2008), grades, prizes, getting a job or a higher position (i.e. promotion) (Engaging Schools, 2004), gaining more money or a higher salary (Rogers, 2007). These external cues can also include social recognition or approval, getting a sense of worthiness, the avoidance of punishment or rejection by others (Kaplan, 2009b, p. 513) which may come from parental pressure, societal expectations, academic requirements, or other sources of rewards and punishments (Richards et al., 2002).

In fact, extrinsic rewards are indeed effective, *"and for some students, they may be the only effective strategy."* However, research has shown that it should be used with caution. The reason being is that their effects are often superficial and promote *"compliance"*, rather than deep thinking. For instance, extrinsically motivated learners were shown not to exert effort when doing difficult tasks. *"In brief, extrinsic incentives that are genuinely achievable are often necessary. However, they should not be the only strategy for motivating students"* (Engaging Schools, 2004, p. 42).

There are few strategies that can build on pupils' extrinsic motivation. These include linking their effort and success to material rewards and privileges. Another strategy includes esteem-related rewards, such as high grades or other forms of recognition for effort and success. Extrinsic motivation can also be highlighted by signaling to pupils the usefulness, relevance and importance of the tasks or activities to their needs, both their short-term and long-term needs such as attaining high test-scores, or coping with the demands of adult life successfully or helping to realize their career aspirations (Kyriacou, 2007).

3.4.2. Overlap Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

As mentioned above, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have to do with whether the motivator is more inside or outside the person (Rogers, 2007). However, there are many differences and much overlap between the two types.

Concerning differences, generally speaking, intrinsic motivation is believed to be more effective and lasting than extrinsic motivation (Jordan et al., 2008) as it helps learners to be initiative and engage in tasks, resulting in self-directed and self-regulated learning. It also helps them to get involved in deep rather than surface learning; as well as experience higher levels of self-satisfaction and self-efficacy (Jordan et al., 2008).

Regarding the overlap between the two types, after intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were identified and defined, researchers began to ask whether these two might interact or overlap. For instance, they inquired if these two types of motivation are additive. That is, the amount of a person's intrinsic motivation and the amount of their extrinsic motivation for a given task can be summed up to yield one's total motivation for the activity. Besides, would their intrinsic motivation change when they receive extrinsic rewards for doing the activity? (Deci, 2004; Cameron & Pierce, 2008).

The first studies on intrinsic motivation in humans were carried out by Deci in 1971. In this research, the effects of "*monetary rewards*" were examined on the intrinsic motivation of college students. The results have shown that "*tangible extrinsic rewards, whether payments or prizes, undermined intrinsic motivation.*" This led Deci to conclude that extrinsic rewards tend to leave people feeling "*controlled by the rewards*" rather than feeling autonomous while doing the task (Deci, 2004, p. 440).

The findings of this study remained controversial for a long time (about three decades) before Deci and colleagues published a meta-analysis in 1999 which involved 128 experiments on the effects of reward and which showed "*definitively that tangible extrinsic rewards do reliably and clearly undermine intrinsic motivation for the rewarded activity*" (Deci, 2004, p. 440).

The same thing applies for other external factors like threats of punishment, deadlines, competition and others which also undermine intrinsic motivation. The reason being is that they are often viewed as controls of performance. On the other hand, studies have shown that positive verbal feedback or praise enhances intrinsic motivation unlike negative feedback which diminishes it (Deci, 2004; Cameron & Pierce, 2008).

Based on the results of the studies above, researchers concluded that intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are not additive; instead, they are interactive. That is to say, the addition of extrinsic motivators can either diminish or enhance intrinsic motivation (Deci, 2004; Cameron & Pierce, 2008).

Similar studies have also shown that extrinsic rewards have the "*potential to decrease students' subsequent intrinsic motivation [especially] when rewards are no longer available. [...] Conversely, the use of unnecessarily powerful extrinsic rewards can lead individuals to discount their intrinsic motivation.*" This means that initially intrinsically motivated learners

tend to show less subsequent motivation to perform tasks than those rewarded learners do. Nevertheless, studies have also suggested that extrinsic rewards do not always have negative or diminishing effects on learners' intrinsic motivation. For instance, rewards have the greatest positive effects when they are given unexpectedly and within a reasonable range (Lepper & Henderlong, 2003, p. 1695).

In summary, it can be said that the two kinds of motivation can overlap to some extent. For example, when the job or test that a person cares about is a part of a degree program in a subject they really like, they may be extrinsically motivated to work for the test or assignment, but they can also be intrinsically motivated to the whole program (Rogers, 2007; Hall, 2011; Kyriacou, 2007).

3.4.4. Instrumental Motivation

Instrumental motivation, also called instrumental orientation, refers to a desire by a learner for a practical benefit from language learning (Engaging Schools, 2004). That is to say, instrumental motivation concerns the functional aims behind language learning, especially when these aims are about fulfilling an academic requirement (Rogers, 2007; Hall, 2011), having better educational or economic opportunities; for instance, passing an exam, getting a better job, getting a place at university, etc. (Ellis, 1997; Yule, 2006; Richards et al., 2002). Another example could be of a French waiter who wants to learn enough English in order to be able to serve English-speaking tourists. This one, too, is said to have instrumental motivation (Broughton et al., 2003). In short, instrumental motivation refers to functional or materialistic aims behind learning a language, but not to achieve any social purposes (Yule, 2006).

3.4.5. Integrative Motivation

Integrative motivation refers to the person's desire to integrate, to identify and be accepted by the community speaking the target language (Engaging Schools, 2004; Broughton et al., 2003; Rogers, 2007). This desire leads to an interest in the culture (Hall, 2011), social life (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) and native speakers of the target language in general (Ellis, 1997). Learners with an integrative motivation want to learn the language for social purposes which include taking part in the social life of a community using that language and to become an accepted member of that community (Yule, 2006). This results in a positive attitude towards the language, its native speakers and language classroom, and commitment to the target language (Richards et al., 2002).

3.4.6. Achievement Motivation

Achievement motivation is defined as the desire and commitment (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) *"to excel at effortful activities"* (Schunk, 2004, p. 35) and achieve one's goals (Bempechat, 2008). Achievement motivation is also called achievement need, and it is simply the need to achieve a goal or an objective (Beghetto, 2007) that is *"formal or informal, set by an individual or by others, in any professional or leisure domain"* (Kaplan, 2009a, p. 13) which directs one's abilities towards success and away from failure (Bempechat, 2008).

In the early days of achievement motivation, it was believed that it was stable universally, but current studies revealed that it changes according to the different personal, social, instructional, familial, and cultural factors of people. For example, among the personal factors that differ from one person to another are goals, expectations and values. The social factors are the ones inherited through interaction with others. These include peer and group work, social interaction skills, leadership, and others. Instructional factors refer to the different grouping strategies teachers apply when doing classroom activities. These strategies

have been found to deeply affect learners' motivation as well as classroom climate. For instance, a "warm" and "democratic" environment has been shown to promote goal attainment while allowing learners to enjoy a pleasurable and peaceful climate. Familiar factors include the family's financial resources which also play a significant role in developing children's achievement motivation. Last, there are cultural factors which refer to the degree to which parents or societies emphasize on education and motivation for learning (Schunk, 2004, p. 38).

It is worth noting that these factors do influence "*both the goals that students choose to pursue and the persistence with which they pursue them.*" For example, students who believe that intelligence can be developed tend to try out challenging activities and consider mistakes as opportunities to learn. This is in contrast with those who see intelligence as more of a "*static entity.*" These learners tend to avoid challenge and consider mistakes as a sign of their disability (Bempechat, 2008, p. 497).

The motivation to achieve is prerequisite for all tasks. The importance of achievement motivation in educational settings is that it helps students learn in school. It also fuels their creativity, and helps them to attain goals (Schunk, 2004).

Researchers suggested that achievement motivation develops in an early age. For example, Crandall (1963) discovered that children with high achievement needs had mothers who rewarded achievement and did not attempt to help the children when they faced a difficult problem (as cited in Beghetto, 2007). Amongst the many ways achievement motivation is developed in an older age are helping learners set challenging but attainable goals, stressing the value of education and learning, building on learners' perception of their abilities and self-efficacy, getting parents involved in children's learning, and using group work effectively (Schunk, 2004).

3.4.7. Other Types

Motivation is not limited to the types mentioned above. It has several other ones. Among of these types of motivation, we find:

3.4.7.1. Unconscious Motivation

In everyday life, people are often under the influence of some thoughts, wishes, and desires on which they have no conscious awareness or control. These ideas or desires push them to act or do some things that they cannot explain. In the field of psychology, this is owed to unconscious motivation (Graham & Williams, 2009).

3.4.7.2. Autonomous and Controlled Motivation

In most schools and even houses, teachers and parents often find themselves frustrated with their students or children, wondering how to motivate them to try harder on their studies. According to Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which is a broad motivational theory that addresses that issue, there are two different types of motivation, autonomous motivation and controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2009).

Autonomous motivation is the desire to engage in activities eagerly and willingly. In contrast, controlled motivation involves *"doing a task with a sense of pressure, demand, or coercion."* That is to say, doing things or activities under the pressure or demand of others. These two types are, indeed, different, but they both move learners to exert energy and perform tasks. However, the quality of learning yielded from the two types is not the same in the sense that autonomous motivation leads to deep understanding rather than memorized learning which is often the result of controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2009, p. 787).

3.4.7.3. Resultative Motivation

Generally speaking, it is believed that motivation is the cause of success in language learning. However, it is also assumed that motivation to learn can be a result of this experience, i.e. successful language learning. That is, because of success or failure in language learning, learners become either more or, sometimes, less motivated to learn and/or make effort (Ellis, 1997).

In conclusion of this section, one can say that motivation is, indeed, such a highly complicated phenomenon. The types mentioned above should not be seen as distinct or in opposite positions to one another. Instead, they should be seen as complementary. For instance, a learner can be both instrumentally and interactively motivated at the same time. Moreover, motivation can be a cause as well as a result of successful language learning. Furthermore, the dynamic nature of motivation makes it vary from one moment to another depending on the learning context or task (Ellis, 1997).

3.5. The Importance of Motivation in Language Learning

Motivation is basic to everything we do. We need it in order to start anything, from the simplest actions and everyday habits like eating or playing to more sophisticated actions like working (Strongman, 2006). In learning contexts, generally speaking, it is believed and widely accepted that motivation is crucial for successful learning. In other words, in order to succeed at doing something, one must have the desire to do it. Without motivation, we are doomed to fail (Harmer, 2001).

Stating the obvious, one cannot and will not learn unless he/she is motivated (Rogers, 2007). Therefore, it can be said that we need some degree of motivation to succeed at learning a language. Motivation is one of two most important factors determining language learning success (Hall, 2011).

Patel and Jain (2008, p. 42) mentioned these points that make motivation of such high importance. It:

- ✓ makes teaching and learning effective.
- ✓ activates learners' creativity and innovation.
- ✓ inspires students to "*prove*" their goals and objectives.
- ✓ creates a positive teaching/learning atmosphere in class.
- ✓ moved mankind from being uncivilized to become civilized.
- ✓ encourages students' self-studies and autonomous learning.
- ✓ provides learners with the necessary encouragement for learning.
- ✓ inspires learners to identify themselves, become active, regular and organized.

3.6. Sources of Motivation

Among the different sources of motivations are:

3.6.1. Society

Outside the classroom, there are social attitudes towards language learning. The importance of learning a given language, say English, French or Chinese, may differ from one community to another. Besides, the status of language learning in the curriculum may be high or low. Besides, the cultural views, which might be positive or negative, associated with the target language, make a difference in learners' motivation. These factors deeply affect learners' attitudes towards the target language which in turn affects the strength and continuity of their motivation. Even when adult learners come to learn a language, they do bring some social and cultural views from where they live and which have developed throughout the years (Harmer, 2001).

3.6.2. Close People

In addition to society, close people like family and friends influence our attitudes and thus motivation to learn a given language. This is particularly true for parents and older siblings. For instance, do they approve learning that language in particular, or language learning in general? Alternatively, do they believe that scientific subjects such as mathematics and physics are more paramount? (Harmer, 2001).

Learners' peers can be considered within this category. If a group of learners are motivated to learn a language, less motivated learners may be taken along with them, and vice versa (Harmer, 2001).

3.6.3. The Teacher

Clearly, the role of the teacher is central for continuity of learners' motivation. A teacher's attitudes towards the language in general and learning activities in particular are in fact reflected on those of learners. The teacher's enthusiasm is believed to be prerequisite for positive classroom atmosphere (Harmer, 2001).

3.6.4. The Method

It is very important that both the teacher and learners have confidence in the method being applied in the learning process. If this confidence is damaged, motivation will be dangerously affected or even lost. However, if they are both sure of what they are doing, their confidence is ensured and, thus, their motivation is sustained as well (Harmer, 2001).

3.7. Assessment of Motivation

As we discussed above, there are many different types of motivation. This implies that there should be several ways of assessing it, too, depending on the situation, subject matter, instructional context, etc. The first method is observation. In this, the observer watches

subjects' performance in a classroom to analyze their engagement in learning activities. Among some other things the observer analyzes are subjects' time spent on tasks, persistence, quality of work, and others (Oka, 2005).

Interviews are also a common method of assessment. In interviews, students can provide information about their learning behaviors, enjoyment of learning activities, and their motivational goals. Besides, these conversations can tell a lot about their potentials, personal interests, etc. They can also be asked to fill in or complete rating scales in which they rate the degree of their motivation (Oka, 2005).

One further common method is to measure the amount of time spent on doing an activity in the presence of alternative activities, especially when no extrinsic reward is offered. Another very common method is of participants' self-report. Here, the participants themselves or their parents or teachers can give responses orally or through scales where they identify the level of motivation towards a certain issue (Oka, 2005).

3.8. Initiating, Sustaining and Losing Motivation

Teachers at the beginning of every school year meet new learners. These learners may come with different kinds and degrees of motivation. Some are intrinsically motivated, others extrinsically, while other have very weak motivation to learn. It is true that the teacher is not responsible for learners' initial attitudes, but he/she is actually responsible for how their motivation develops later on.

3.8.1. Initiating and Sustaining Motivation

According to Harmer (2001), there are three ways the teacher can directly affect continuous participation. First, there is goal setting. Motivation is closely linked to goal achievement both in the short and long terms. Short-term goals are close to learners' day-to-day reality. These are set to be achieved in a short period of time, for example a couple days,

few weeks or months. It is easier for learners to focus on accomplishing a goal by the end of the week rather than by the end of the year. Long-term goals, on the other hand, are set to be accomplished in extended periods of time. These may include passing an exam at the end of a course, future job or travel opportunities.

Second, there is learning environment. Teachers can modify the physical setting and emotional atmosphere of their classes. Both of these can profoundly affect learners' initial and continuing motivation to learn. Learners' first impression of their classroom (attractive, clear and tidy) has been shown to have a positive impact on their motivation to learn, and vice versa. More importantly is the emotional atmosphere of the classroom. It is believed that teachers need to pay much attention to how they handle learners, especially while giving feedback. It must be always expressed in a supportive manner regardless of the learner's participation or answer (Harmer, 2001).

Third, there is learning activities. These need to be designed in a way which interests learners, and they need to be diversified so as to ensure the continuity of their interest. This also applies for the use of teaching materials and visual aids which can help arouse and engage more learners in a lesson (Harmer, 2001).

3.8.2. Losing Motivation

It is very common for learners to lack or even lose motivation in the learning process. Inductive students, for instance, may feel frustrated in a classroom where the teacher instantly points out all aspects of the lesson depriving them from their right to discover things on their own. One major cause of demotivation is anxiety. Feeling anxious leads learners to try to avoid the situation(s) at all cost. Here, they follow a 'sour grapes' defense strategy. Just like grapes which turned out sour, so the speaker claimed he/she did not want them anyway; students tend to avoid learning and claim that they did not like it in the first place. Another

cause is poor results which can also be highly demotivating. These results indicate to the learner that he/she is not as good as the others in the class. Last, the absence of practical results in learning a target language stresses learners out and leaves them demotivated (Rogers, 2007).

Conclusion

Motivation is indeed such a vast and rich topic for investigation and research. In the conclusion of this chapter, we must admit that such a sophisticated topic cannot be entirely covered in a single chapter of a thesis. Nevertheless, we have done our best to tackle and discuss the most important points concerning this behavior. First, we have cited the most remarkable definitions of the concept. Then, we moved through the history of motivation so as to explain how this notion differed throughout time. Additionally, we have discussed its most prevailing schools of thought and ideologies. Later, we tackled its major types, its significance in educational settings, its sources and how it is assessed before we closed this chapter with a discussion of how motivation is initiated, sustained and sometimes lost.

Chapter Four: The Teachers' and the Students' Opinions about the Impact of Classroom Presentations on the Students' Motivation for Fluent Speaking Performance

Introduction 114

4.1. The Teachers' Questionnaire 115

 4.1.1. Description of the Research Population 115

 4.1.2. Description of the Questionnaire 116

 4.1.3. Discussion of the Results 116

 4.1.4. Synthesis of the Results 155

4.2. The Students' Questionnaire 157

 4.2.1. Description of the Research Population 157

 4.2.2. Description of the Questionnaire 158

 4.2.3. Discussion of the Results 158

 4.2.4. Synthesis of the Results 190

4.3. Synthesis of the Results of the Questionnaires 191

Conclusion 192

Introduction

This study investigates the influence of oral presentations on two points: students' motivation and their speaking proficiency. This chapter is devoted to the empirical part of this research. In order to test our hypothesis which states that this classroom practice demotivates students from active engagement in the oral expression sessions, and that it does not enhance their speaking abilities considerably, three means of research were used. First, there is a teachers' questionnaire. In this, teachers are asked to answer questions concerning the students' speaking skill; how they apply and deal with students' oral presentations in terms of duration, techniques, problems and benefits; and what impact these oral presentations have on students' motivation.

Second, the students' questionnaire is used to collect some information about their speaking skill, what public speaking techniques they apply while presenting, the problems they face and the benefits they get from presenting, and the impact this classroom activity has on their motivation.

Last, in the students' test, we aim, on the one hand, at investigating whether or not oral presentation develop students' speaking skill significantly. Therefore, we carry out an assessment pre-test of students' speaking abilities. These students practice only oral presentations throughout the year. Then, at the end of the year, a post-test is used to assess their performance. Comparison between the two results shall either confirm or disconfirm the third hypothesis.

On the other hand, a second test aims at assessing the speaking abilities of another group of students before and after the application of the alternative course. First, we start with analyzing the students' performance before subjecting them to a course of varying

speaking activities. Here, we listen to and see their points of weakness and points of strength. Then, we carry out a number of sessions throughout an entire school year where different specifically designed speaking activities are applied. After that, we listen again and see whether or not the students' performance improved after the intermediate phase. In addition, these results are compared to those of the first group of students who practiced oral presentations throughout the year so as to see if there is a significant difference between the two groups.

4.1. The Teachers' Questionnaire

In the following lines, we present information about where and to whom the questionnaire was submitted, how many copies were collected, the number of questions asked, the aim behind asking each group of questions and the discussion of the results found.

4.1.1. Description of the Research Population

We submitted 40 copies of the questionnaire to 40 teachers of oral expression in 10 universities at the end of the academic year 2016-2017. These institutions are: University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1, University of Echahid Hamma Lakhdar - El-Oued, Center of Abdelhafid Boussouf - Mila, University of L'arbi Ben M'Hidi - Oum El-bouaghi, University of Mohamed Lamine Debaghine - Setif, University of Mohamed Bougara - Boumerdes, University of Mohamed Khider - Biskra, University of Kasdi Merbah - Ouargla, University of Amar Telidji - Laghouat, and University of Ahmed Draya - Adrar.

It is important to say that we did so because we wanted to collect information from different universities in the country, mainly its eastern part, and have the opinions of as many teachers as we could concerning the topic of concern. This is believed to increase the

reliability and validity of the obtained results better than gathering them from only one or very few institutions.

4.1.2. Description of the Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire consists of forty (40) questions. In the first group of questions, teachers provide us with some general information about themselves and the classes they teach. In the second group, they tell us information about the priority and frequency of application of the most common CLT classroom speaking activities. In the next two groups, they give us data about students' speaking skill and how they assess it. In the fourth group, questions are asked to know how teachers deal with students' oral presentations, especially public speaking techniques. In the last group, teachers reveal the influence oral presentations have on their students' motivation towards the subject of oral expression.

4.1.3. Discussion of the Results

Question One: For how long have you been teaching oral expression at the university?

	N	%
1-5 Years	20	50
5-10 Years	16	40
+10 Years	04	10
Total	40	100

Table 05: Teachers' Experience in Teaching Oral Expression at the University

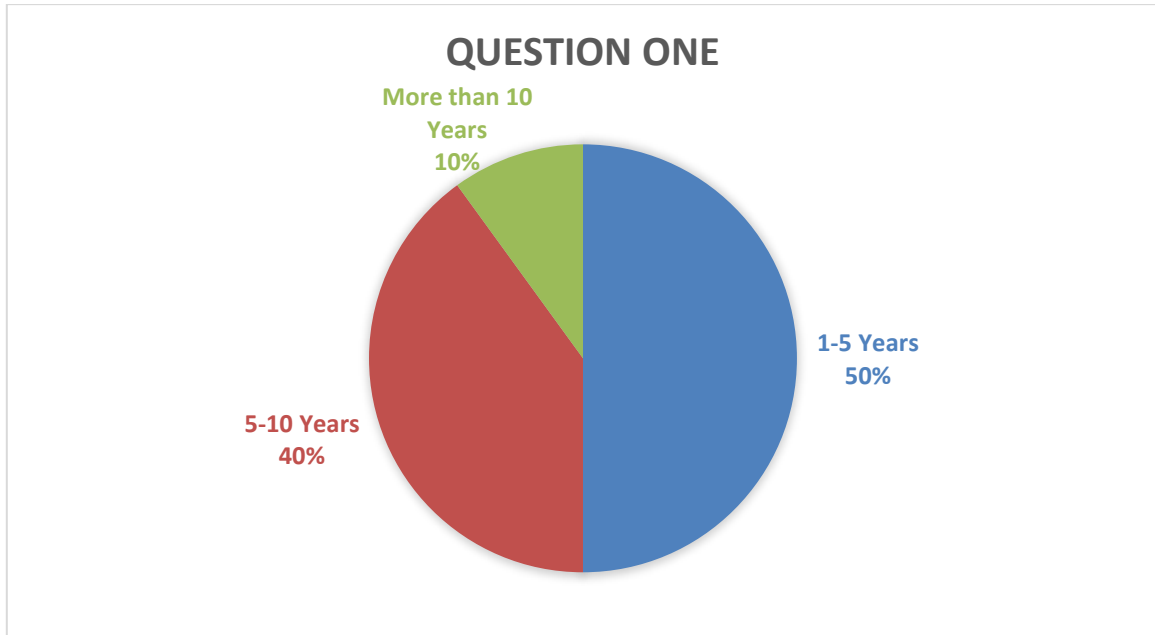


Figure 02: Teachers' Experience in Teaching Oral Expression at the University

From the table and figure shown above, it is found that half of the sample of teachers to whom we have submitted the questionnaire are newly qualified in the domain of teaching oral expression. Less than half of them (40%) have gained a significant amount of experience that is between five and ten years. The rest are a minority of 10% who can be actually called experts in this field as they taught speaking for more than a decade.

Question Two: Generally speaking, how many students are/were there in the groups you teach/taught?

	N	%
Less than 25	04	10
From 25 to 50	33	82.5
More than 50	03	07.5
Total	40	100

Table 06: Average Number of Students in the Groups

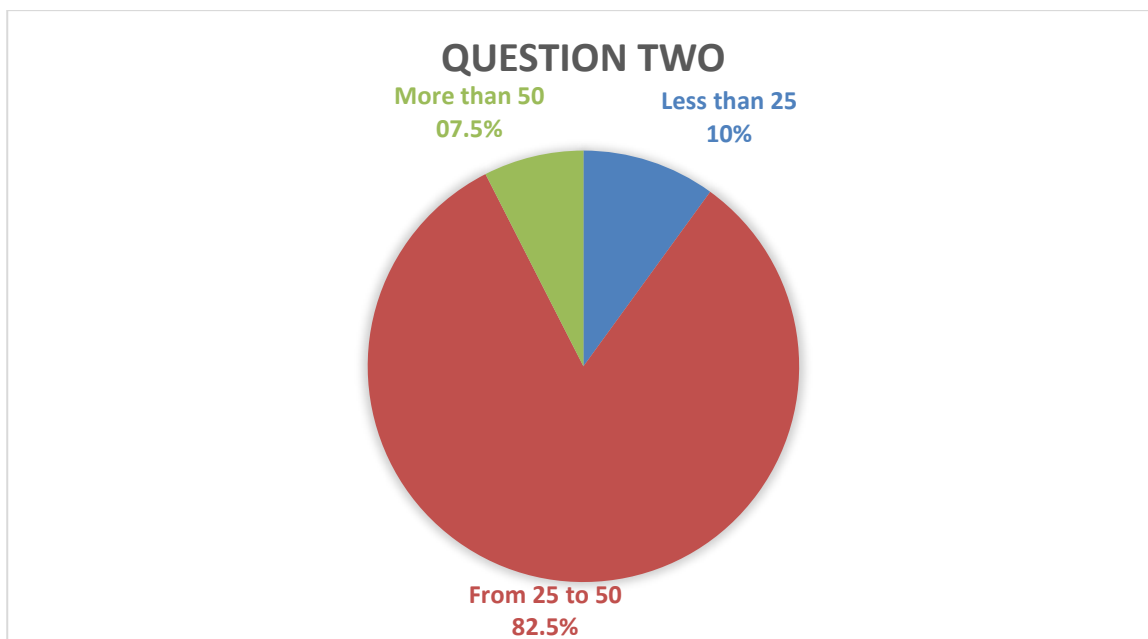


Figure 03: Average Number of Students in the Groups

The table and figure above show that there is a minority of the two extremes where some classrooms contain an optimal number of less than 25 students, and there are other over-crowded classes where there are more than 50 students in class. However, the great majority of classrooms are hardly manageable as they contain a range from 25 to 50 learners.

Question Three: Do you consider yourself following the CLT approach while teaching the subject of oral expression?

	N	%
Yes	21	52.5
Somewhat	19	47.5
No	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 07: Teaching Oral Expression According to CLT Approach

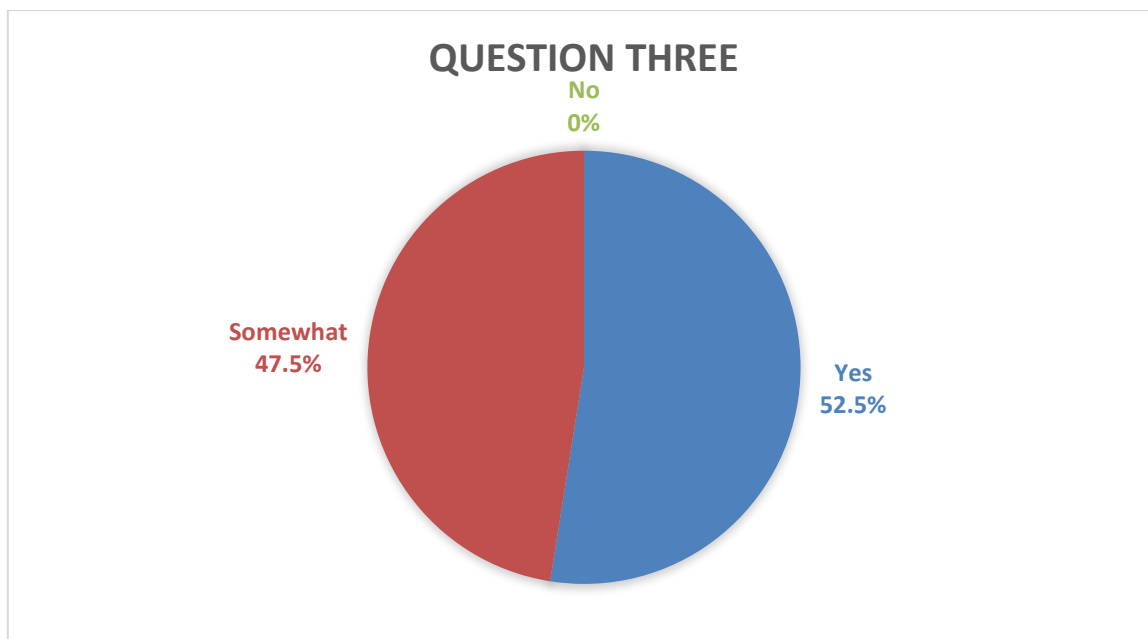


Figure 04: Teaching Oral Expression According to CLT Approach

According to the table and figure above, more than half of the teachers (52%) say that they are following the standards of the CLT approach when teaching speaking. Almost the same number of teachers, 47.5% of the sample, said that they follow the common standards of the approach only to a limited extent, while no one said they completely follow a different approach or method.

Question Four: If your previous answer is no or somewhat, what language teaching approach/method are you following?

According to the teachers who have chosen *somewhat* as their answer, they said that they follow and apply several techniques and methods depending on the students' needs, level and overall environment of the class.

Question Five: How would you order from 1 to 5 the following CLT activities in terms of their effectiveness in developing students' speaking skill? (1 being the least effective)

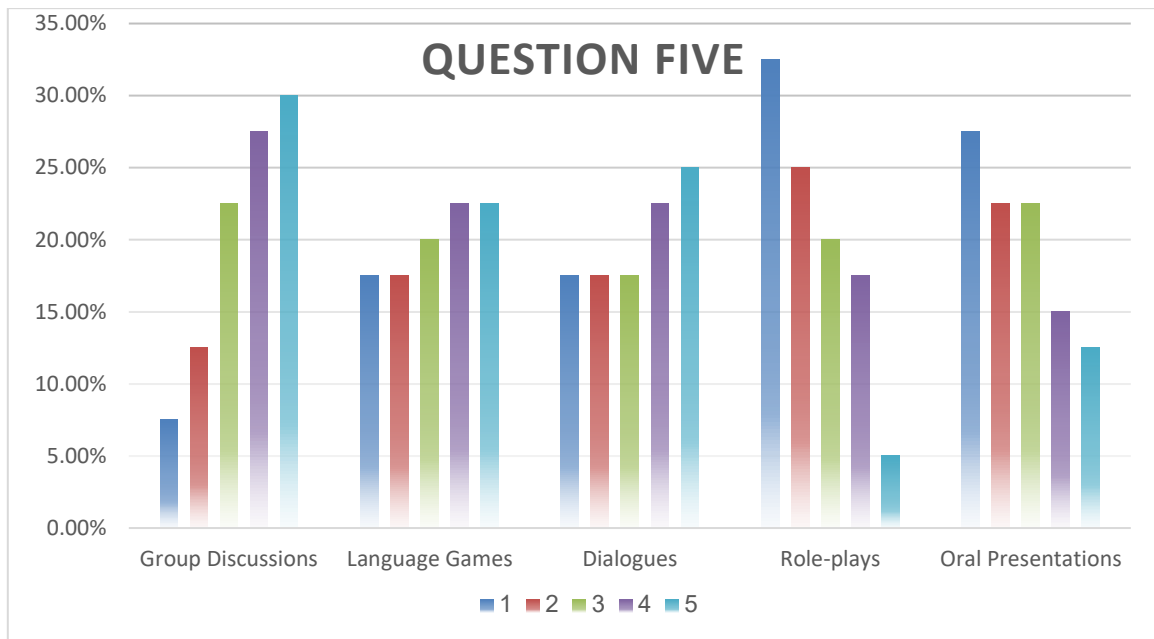


Figure 05: Degree of Effectiveness of CLT Activities in Developing Students' Speaking Skill

The results shown in the figure above illustrate that group discussions, language games and dialogues are believed to be the most effective classroom activities in improving learners' speaking skill. Nevertheless, role-plays and oral presentations are the least effective strategies to achieve that goal. The reason behind such order can be due to the fact that the first three activities often involve students in spontaneous production of language, whereas role-plays and oral presentations demand the repetition of already prepared and memorized utterances.

Question Six: How would you order from 1 to 5 these activities in terms of frequency of application in classroom? (1 being the least frequently applied one)

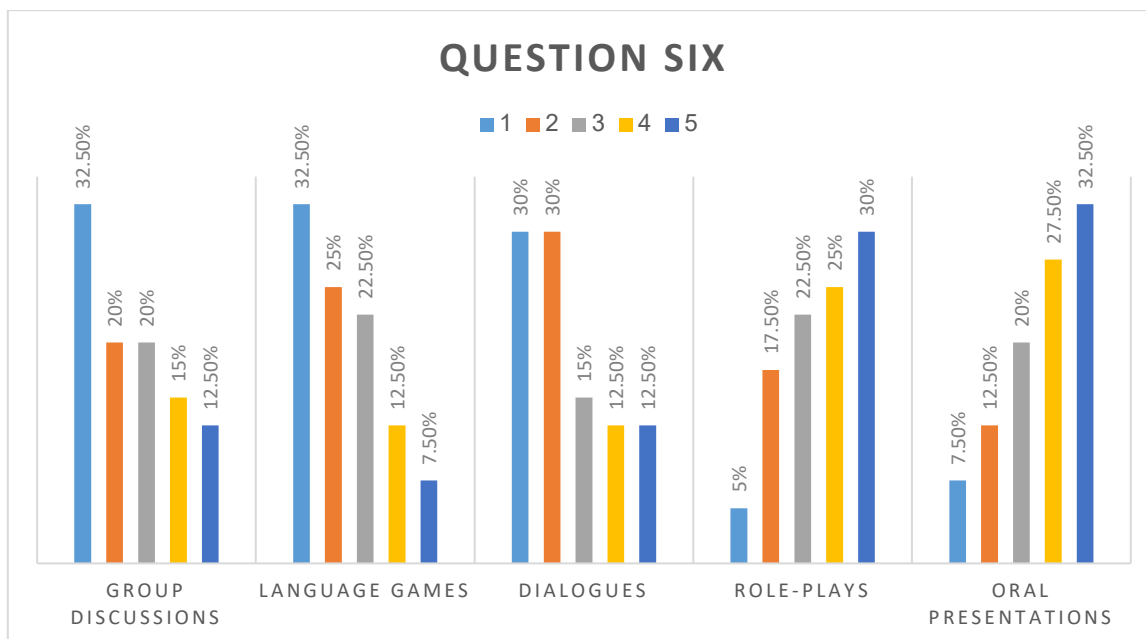


Figure 06: Frequency of Application of CLT Activities in Oral Expression Sessions

As expected, the results shown above come to indicate that the three most effective speaking activities, according to teachers' belief, are in fact the least applied ones in their classrooms. In contrast, we can see that the least fruitful ones (role-plays and oral presentations) are the most frequently practiced. We believe the reason behind this problematic situation is due to the extreme difficulty of application of group discussions, language games, dialogues and similar activities with large groups as we have seen in an earlier question, especially that they often require a small number of students in each group. Therefore, teachers find it next to impossible to apply and perfectly manage all groups in the classroom. However, activities like role-plays and oral presentations are much easier to handle on the part of the teacher as they can involve up to five or six members. Besides, we believe that these activities require less preparation by the teacher, and this is why many teachers prefer to avoid the problems and exhaustion found in the first group of activities and go for the second group instead.

Question Seven: What is your evaluation of the students' speaking skill in general?

	N	%
Poor	02	05
Average	36	90
Good	02	05
Excellent	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 08: Teachers' Evaluation of Students' Speaking Skill



Figure 07: Teachers' Evaluation of Students' Speaking Skill

According to the vast majority of teachers (90%), students fall in the *average* category of learners, but there is an extreme minority of teachers who perceive their students' level to be *poor*, and another equal small group of teachers who find their students' performance to be *good* instead. However, no teacher in our sample finds their students' speaking skill to be *excellent*

Question Eight: If your previous answer is poor or average, to which reasons do you link this level?

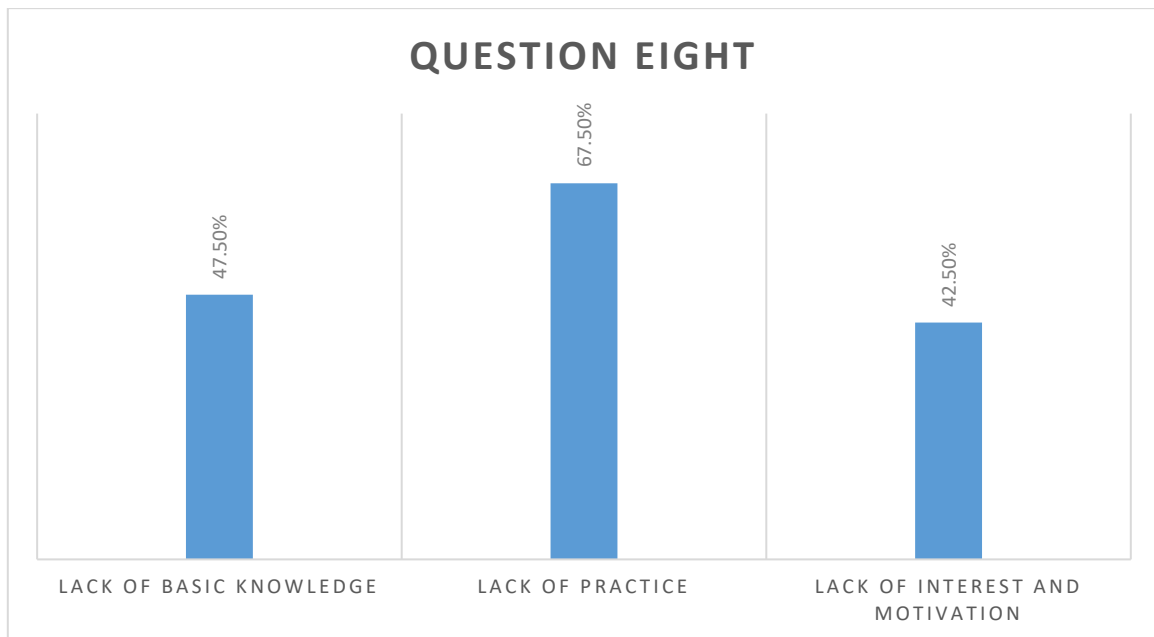


Figure 08: Teachers' Suppositions Concerning Students' Poor/Average Levels of Speaking Skill

In the figure above, we can see that the number one reason behind students' poor or average speaking skill, according to teachers' point of view, is due to lack of practice. The second cause to which teachers owe this general observation about learners' level is to lack of basic knowledge. This means that students do not have the needed vocabulary, grammar rules and accurate pronunciation to speak good English. The last reason is lack of interest in language learning in general, or it might be only in the speaking sessions only.

Among the other reasons mentioned by teachers are:

- weak listening ability
- lack of effective and interesting teaching techniques
- low self-confidence and self-esteem even with competent students
- lack of language knowledge as well as topic knowledge by many learners
- shyness, hesitation and anxiety which prevent students from public display of their speaking abilities

Question Nine: How many students participate actively and regularly in your sessions?

	N	%
None	01	02.5
Some	15	37.5
About half	15	37.5
Most	09	22.5
All	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 09: Number of Students Who Participate Actively and Regularly in the Oral E3xpression Sessions

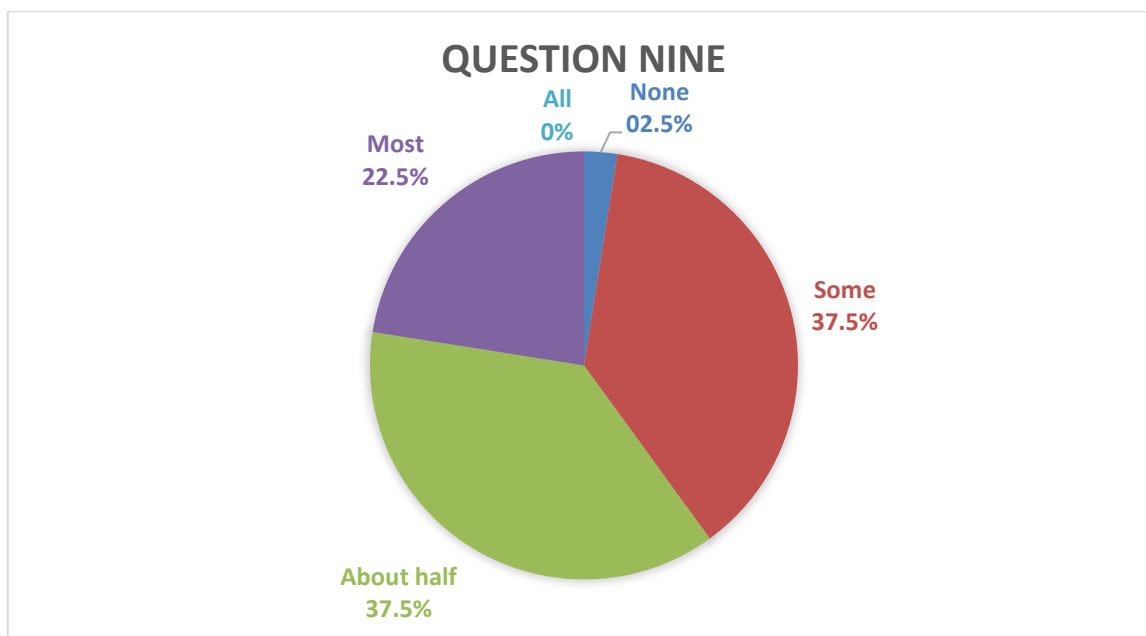


Figure 09: Number of Students Who Participate Actively and Regularly in the Oral Expression Sessions

The numbers shown above translate the fact that about a quarter of the teachers (37%) deal with classes where most students are highly motivated to participate and get involved in the discussions with other members. It can also be seen that a significant number of teachers (38%) deal with groups in which about half of the students participate actively and regularly in the session. Almost an identical percentage (37%) resembles the number of teachers whose classes contain some active members. Last, only 02% of the teachers happen to deal with what seems to be demotivated group(s) who participate every now and then in the session. In short, it can be said that many classes contain a significant number of the students who are rather active and who are eager to learn and practice speaking in the classroom.

Question Ten: What do you think is/are the main reason(s) of some students' lack of participation?

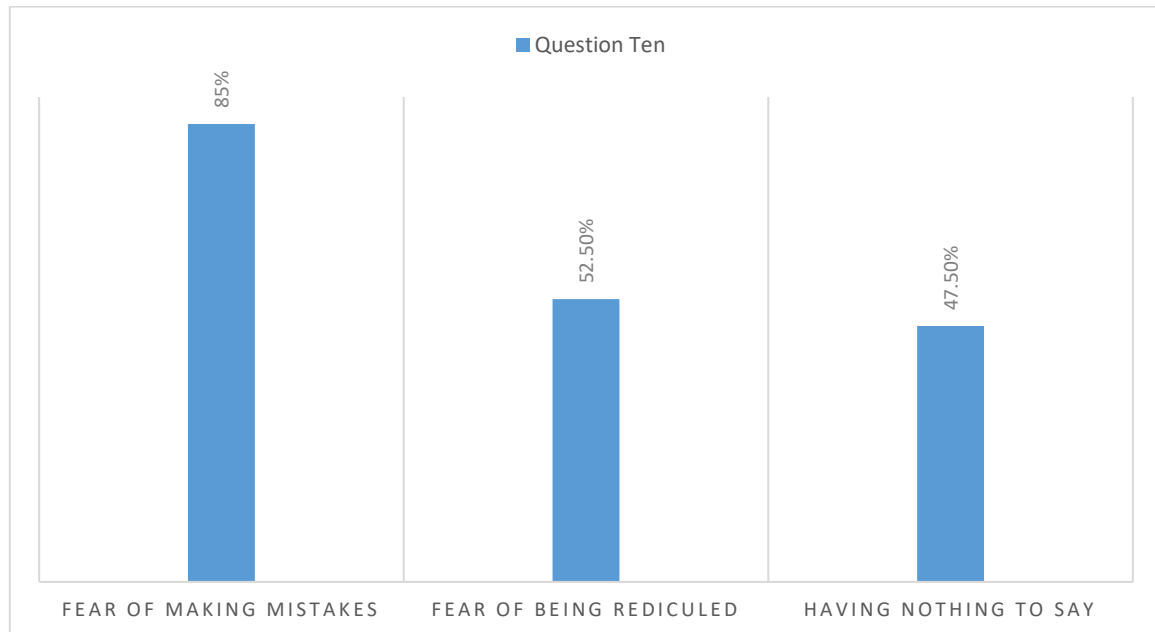


Figure 10: Reasons behind Students' Lack of Participation in Teachers' Opinion

The numbers illustrated above translate the fact that a large number of students (85%) suffer from fear of making mistakes, and this is the number one reason why they do not participate actively and regularly. The second most common reason is fear of being ridiculed and laughed at by their classmates as well as the teacher sometimes. The last suggestion was also chosen by about half of sample of teachers who think that students' lack of participation is due to lack of ideas and topic knowledge. That is why those students keep silent during the speaking sessions.

Among the other reasons teachers have proposed to explain their students' silence are:

- shyness, stress and anxiety
- lack of language knowledge
- fear of public speaking in general
- fear of negative feedback and being corrected
- the nature of the speaking activities that do not motivate or encourage participation
- lack of motivation and interest as some students do not care even if they can speak

- limited size of vocabulary: they may have something to say, but they do not have the words to get their message across

Question Eleven: Which of the following techniques do you believe is the most accurate in assessing the students' speaking skill?

	N	%
Formal tests and exams	15	37.5
Classroom participation	19	47.5
Oral presentations	05	12.5
Role-plays	01	03
Total	40	100

Table 10: Accurate Assessment Strategy of Students' Speaking Performance

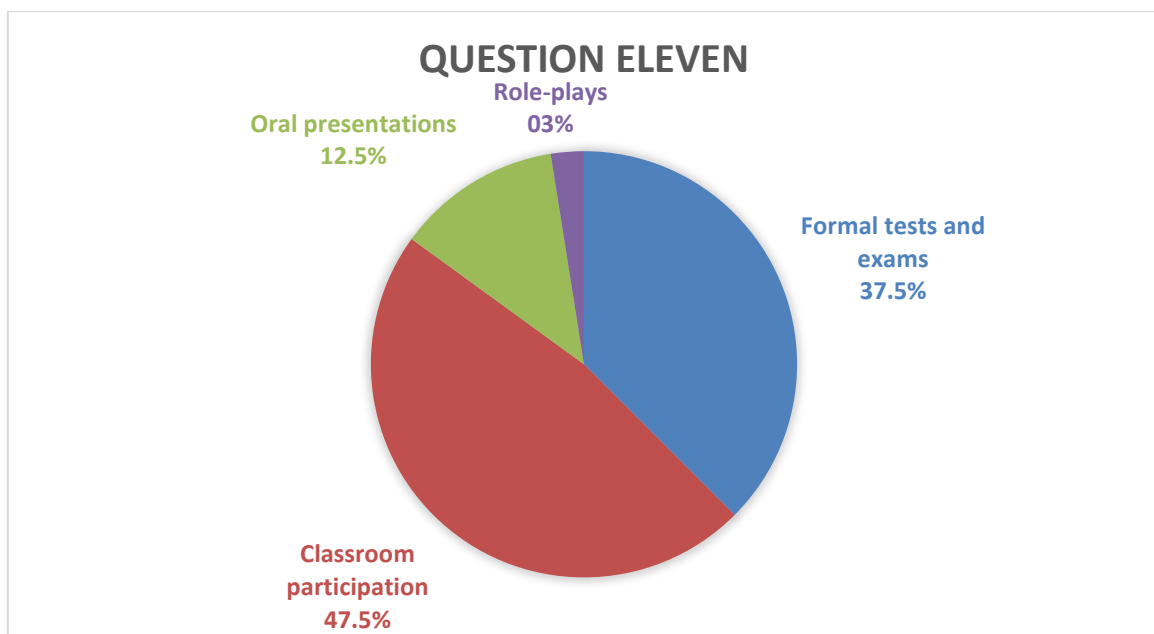


Figure 11: Accurate Assessment Strategy of Students' Speaking Performance

Classroom participation is the most accurate and truthful means of assessing students' speaking abilities, many teachers (47%) believe so. Nevertheless, 37% of the teachers disagree on that point of view and believe that formal tests and exams are actually a better way to evaluate a student's speaking performance. Yet, very few teachers (13%) think that oral presentations are the most suitable tool to accomplish the task. Even fewer teachers (03%) see that role-plays can give an accurate reflection of students' actual level.

Some other teachers suggested that some classroom activities such as group discussions, debates and language games can also give an accurate evaluation of students' speaking skill.

Question Twelve: Do you believe that oral presentations give a true assessment of the students' speaking skill?

	N	%
Yes	05	12.5
Somewhat	26	65
No	09	22.5
Total	40	100

Table 11: Truthfulness of Oral Presentations in Assessing Students' Speaking Skill

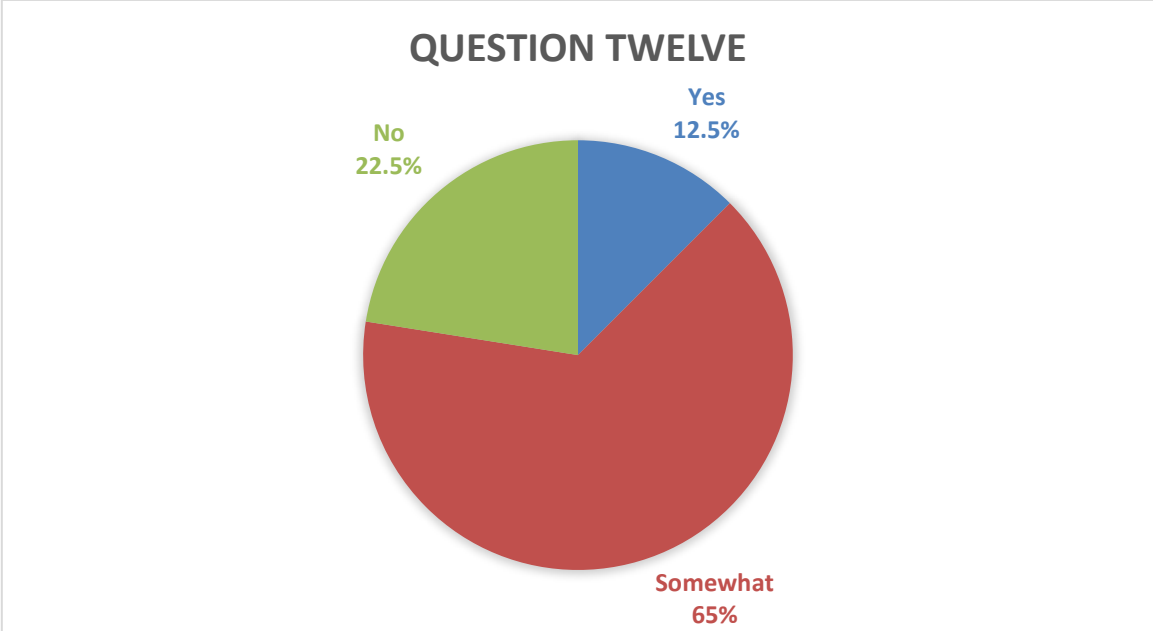


Figure 12: Truthfulness of Oral Presentations in Assessing Students' Speaking Skill

In this question, we isolated oral presentations from the rest of the other assessment techniques and asked teachers what they think of its accuracy in giving an assessment of students' speaking abilities. Here, and as shown in the figure above, 65% of teachers believe that oral presentations *somewhat* give an accurate evaluation. That is, it is a rather limited means of assessment. Only very few teachers (12%) think it is an accurate way, while a larger number of teachers (23%) say it does not give a true evaluation of how students actually

speak. It is believed that the explanation of these results is that, as stated in the theoretical chapter, oral presentations are a form of public speaking where the content is prepared in advance, practiced until it is memorized, and then it is presented to an audience. This is why most teachers do not believe in this activity in evaluating their students' true and actual speaking skill.

Question Thirteen: What is your main aim behind using students' oral presentations?

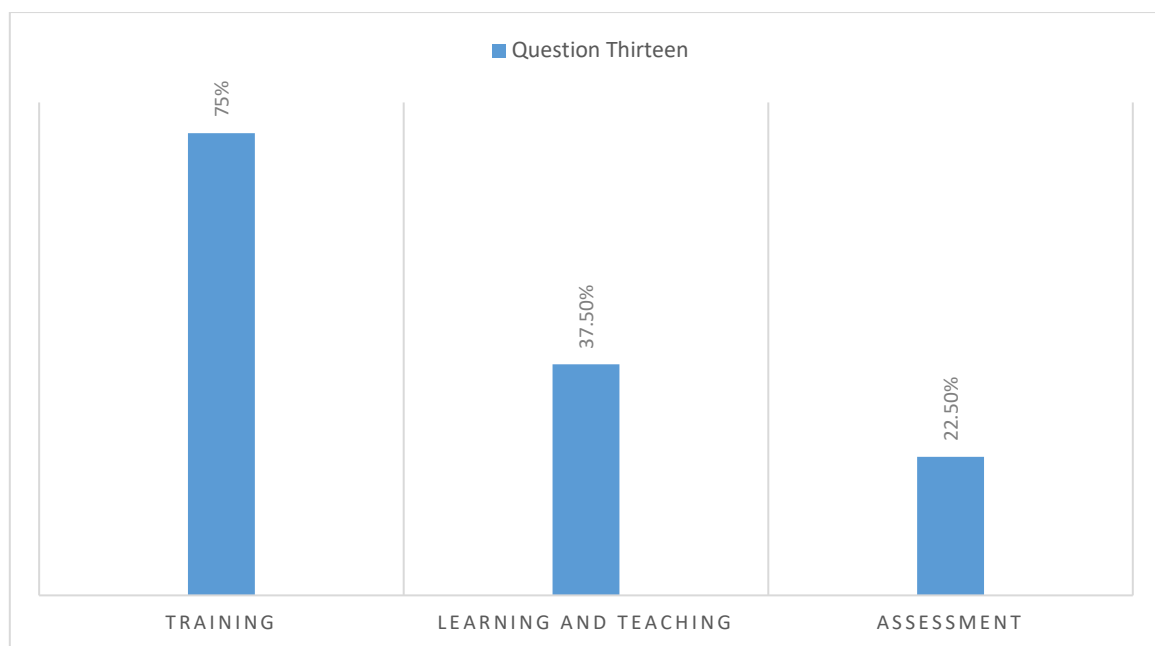


Figure 13: Teachers' Aims behind Using Students' Oral Presentations

When it comes to the reasons why teachers use oral presentations in the speaking sessions, three quarters of them said it is for training purposes. Besides, many teachers use this classroom activity for the sake of giving students the chance to learn from and teach one another. Nonetheless, a minority of teachers said that their main aim behind the application of such an activity is to assess learners' level of spoken English.

Some of the other aims teachers use oral presentations for are to help students' overcome anxiety and fear of public speaking. Besides, some teachers said that they use them to help learners demonstrate the students' linguistic skills.

Question Fourteen: Do you teach/train your students about the types of presentations?

	N	%
Yes	09	22.5
No	31	77.5
Total	40	100

Table 12: Teachers' Instructions to their Students for Oral Presentations

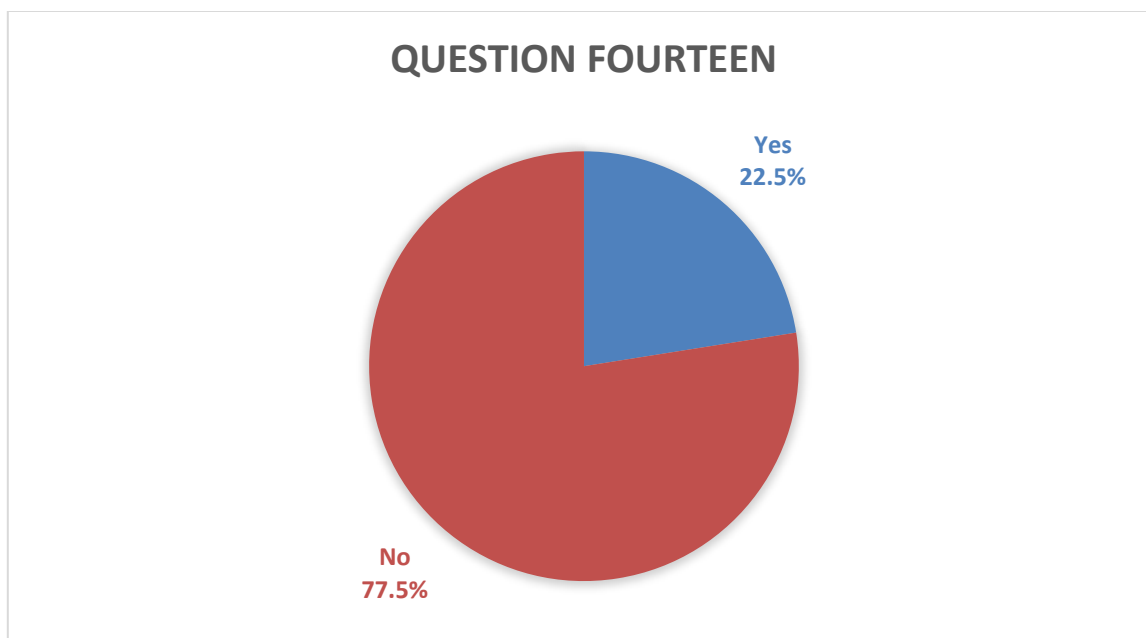


Figure 14: Teachers' Instructions to their Students for Oral Presentations

As it is obvious from the figure above, only 22% of teachers said they provide information and training to students on the types of oral presentations. However, more than three quarters (78%) said they neither give information nor do they train students on that. We believe this has some negative consequences on students' performance as the first step towards a successful oral presentation is the correct choice of the type of the presentation.

Question Fifteen: If your previous answer is no, do you assume they already know that?

	N	%
Yes	10	32.3
No	09	29
I do not know	12	38.7
Total	31	100

Table 13: Teachers' Perception of the Students' Knowledge of Types of Oral Presentations

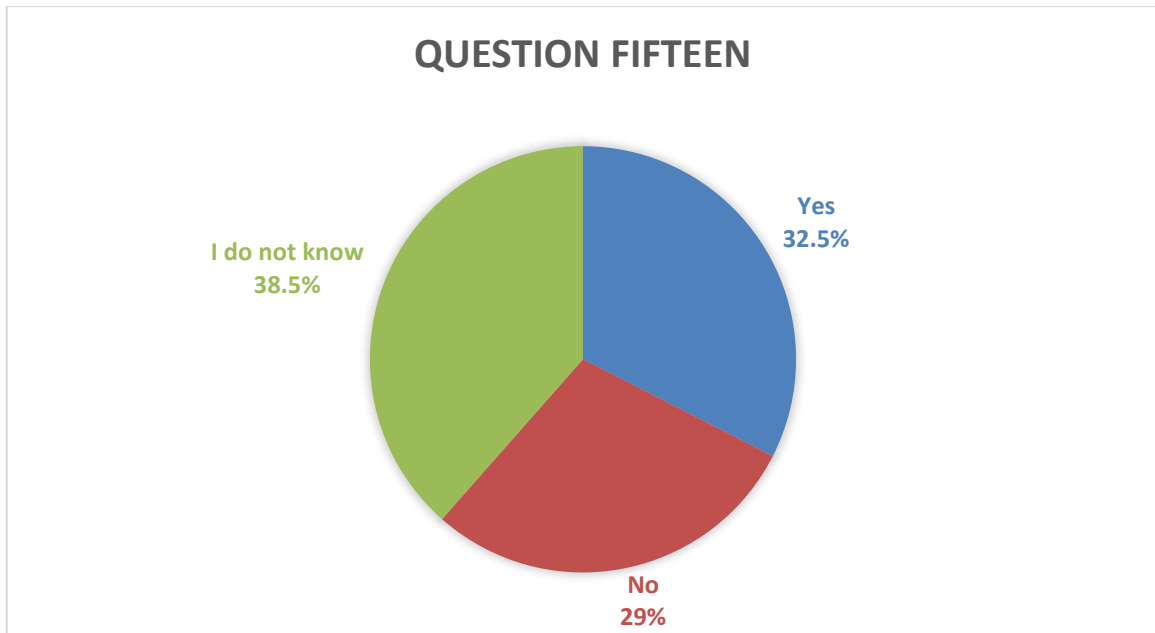


Figure 15: Teachers' Perception of the Students' Knowledge of Types of Oral Presentations

The results above come to show that only one third of teachers assume that their students know about this important technique in public speaking. Concerning the other two thirds, one believes that students do not know, while the other third of teachers they themselves do not even know if students are aware of this point or not.

Question Sixteen: Which method of delivery do students often use in their oral presentations?

	N	%
Reading from a script	16	40
Memorized speech	13	32.5
Speaking from notes	11	27.5
Speaking spontaneously	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 14: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentation from Teachers' Observations

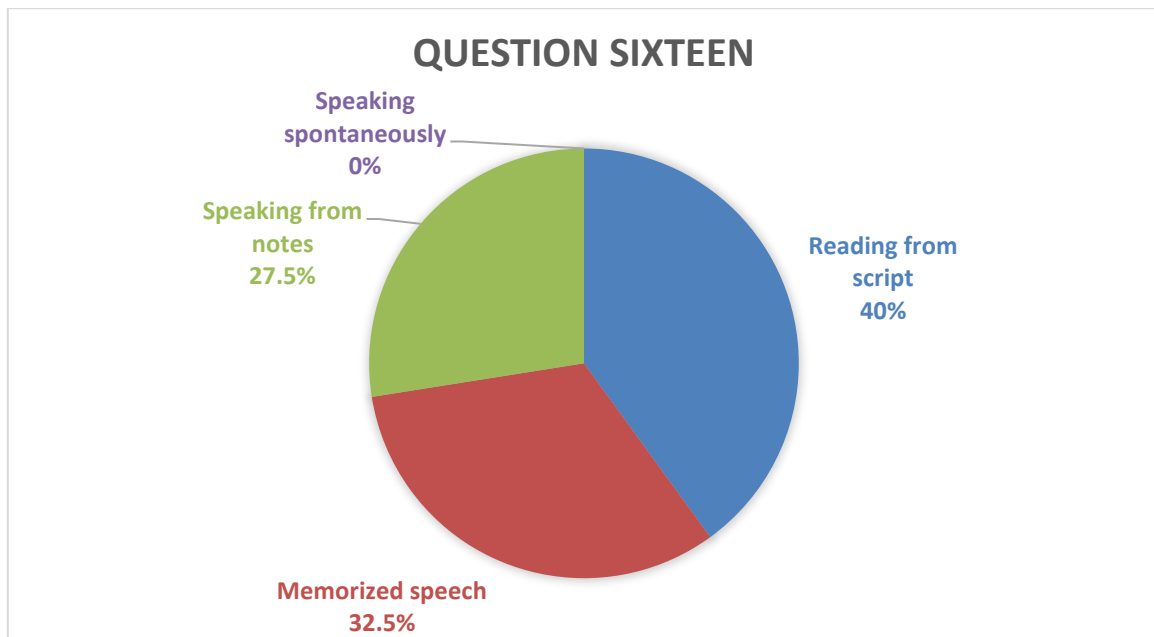


Figure 16: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentation from Teachers' Observations

The results shown in the figure above come to confirm a personal observation we had: two of the most used methods of delivering oral presentations students go for are reading from a script and memorized speeches. Here, too, more than one third of teachers (40%) notice that their students deliver their presentations by directly reading from a script. Moreover, about a third of teachers (32.5%) see that their students prefer to commit that script to memory instead and present what they rote learned. The last part of teachers (27.5%) notice a more advanced manner of presenting which is via using notes. However, we can see the complete absence of the last and most advanced method of delivery which is speaking spontaneously. We believe this is expected to happen because, as discussed in the previous question, most students do not get enough information nor training on public speaking techniques. Therefore, they will naturally look for what is easier for them, and they will do it.

Question Seventeen: Do you ever tell/train your students on these methods, especially in advance?

	N	%
Yes	17	42.5
No	23	57.5
Total	40	100

Table 15: Teachers' Instruction and Training to Students on Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations

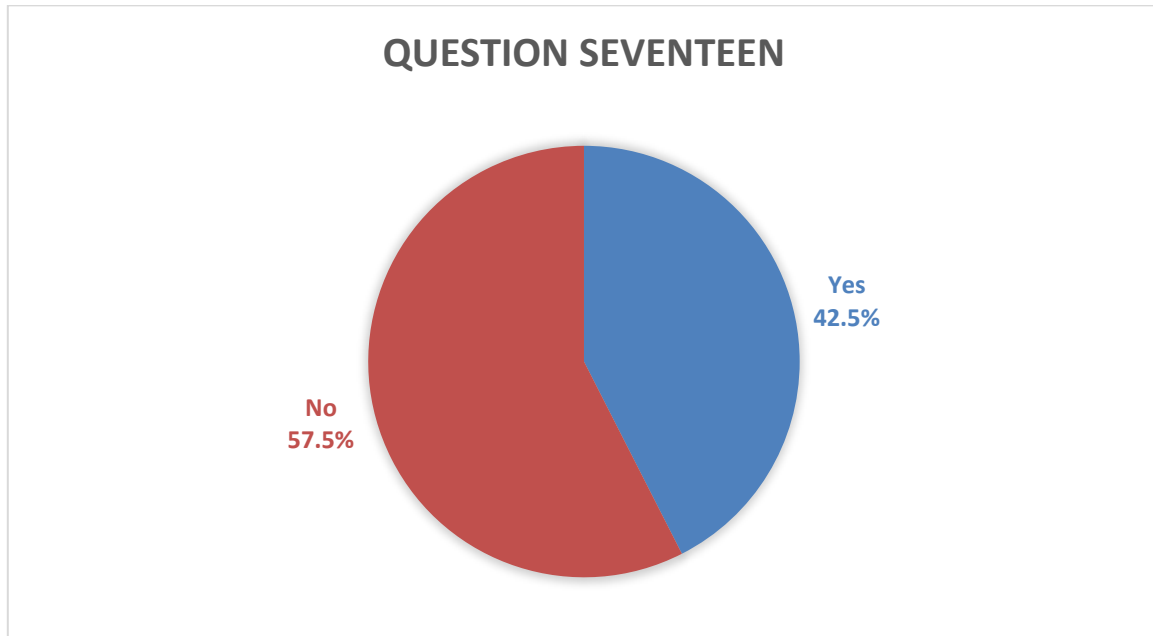


Figure 17: Teachers Instruction and Training to Students on Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations

In this question, we could find the clue to why many students choose to read their presentations or learn them by rote. It is because more than half of teachers (57.5%) neither tell nor train their students on this element. Besides, it is important to mention that even those who answered *yes*, many of them have crossed out the verb ~~train~~ in the question form and wrote remarks that they only tell or advise students, for instance, to use notes or not to read from papers. Hence, here, we believe that giving students information is often ineffective as they desperately need actual field training on how to present using advanced methods of delivery.

Question Eighteen: If your previous answer is no, do you assume they already know that?

	N	%
Yes	04	17.4
No	06	26
I do not know	13	56.6
Total	23	100

Table 16: Teachers' Supposition about Students' Knowledge of Methods of Delivering of Oral Presentations

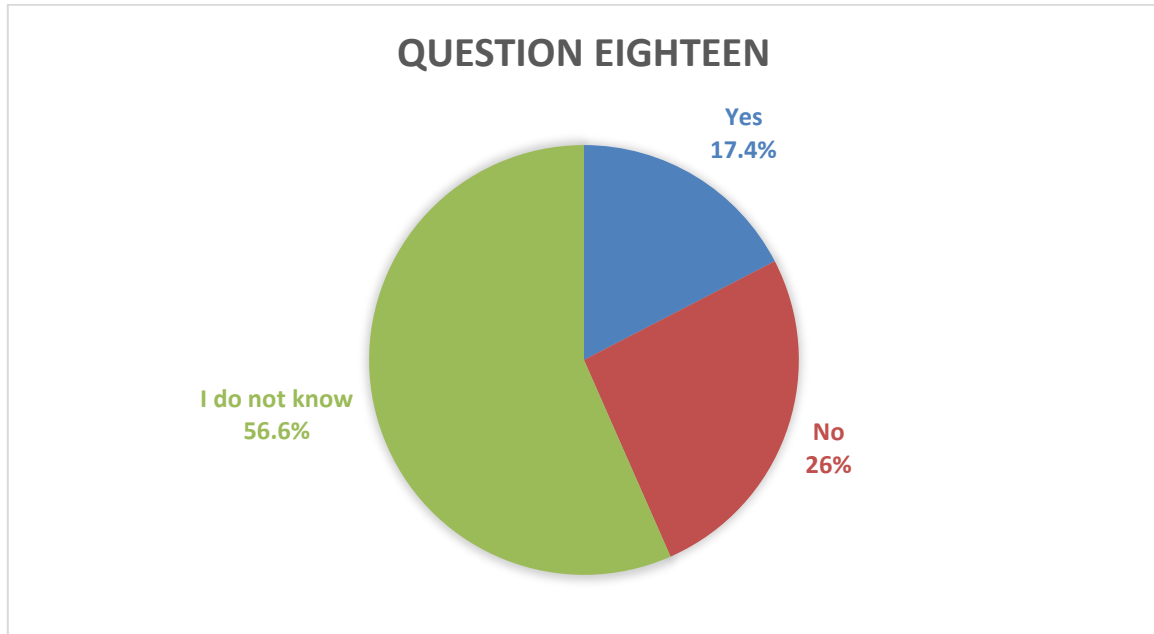


Figure 18: Teachers' Supposition about Students' Knowledge of Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations

Another significant clue is clarified in the figure above. Only very few teachers (17%) think their students are aware of the different methods of delivery. The rest 83% are divided between those who believe students do not know about this point, and those who themselves are uncertain whether or not students possess any information about it.

Question Nineteen: Do your students use body language and visual aids effectively while presenting?

	N	%
Yes	03	07.5
Somewhat	30	75
No	07	17.5
Total	40	100

Table 17: Students' Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids

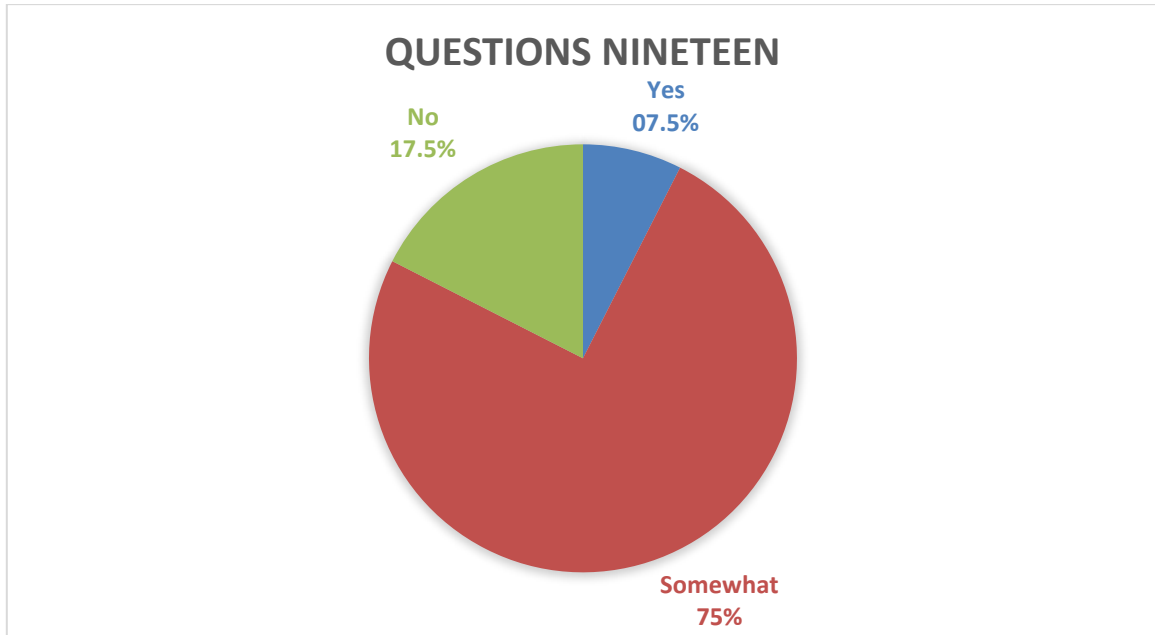


Figure 19: Students' Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids

What is found a natural instinct or skill for some people is found difficult to use for some others. In the figure above, it is found that only very few students (07%) use their body language effectively as well as visual aids properly in their speeches. However, the vast majority of them seem to face varying degrees of problems and obstacles with that. A percentage of 18% of them fail completely to use their facial expressions, gestures and aids to deliver a decent presentation. The other 75% are said to succeed only to a *somewhat* limited extent.

Once again, the reason for this situation lies in the results of the coming question.

Question Twenty: Do you tell/train your students on that?

	N	%
Yes	10	25
No	30	75
Total	40	100

Table 18: Teachers' Instruction and Training to their Students on Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids in Presentations

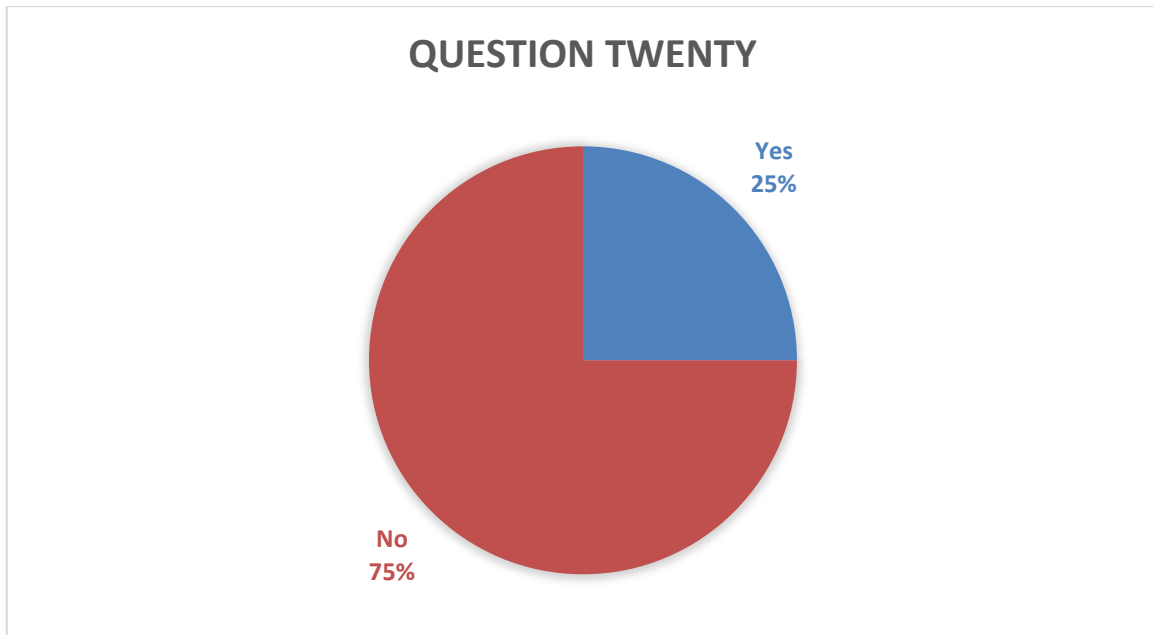


Figure 20: Teachers' Instruction and Training to their Students on Effective Use of Body Language and Visual Aids in Presentations

Once again, as expected, the results illustrated above explain why so many students fail in using their body language and visual aids properly and effectively. The reason is that 75% of teachers do not teach nor do they train students on that. Besides, the ones who said they do, have crossed the verb *train* and replaced it with *advise* instead. Therefore, we strongly believe that telling students verbally what is supposed to happen is not the best thing to do as most of them fail in performing well. Instead, they must be trained on how to perform on the stage.

Question Twenty-one: If your previous answer is no, do you assume they already know that?

	N	%
Yes	03	10
No	19	63.3
I do not know	08	26.6
Total	30	100

Table 19: Students' Knowledge of How to Use Body Language and Visual Aids on Stage

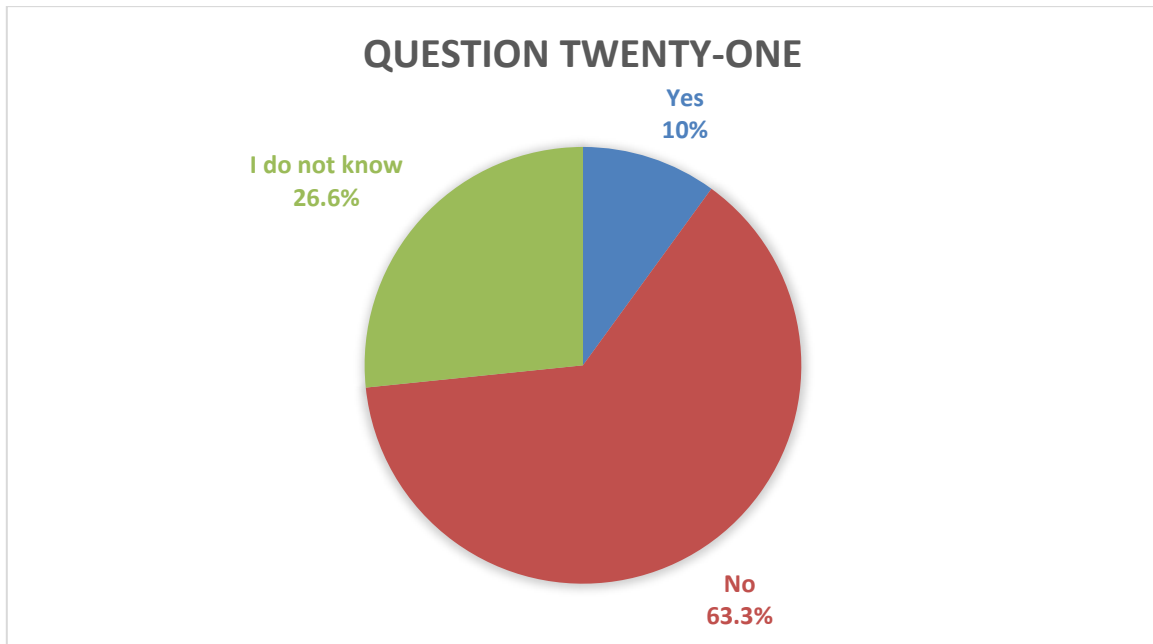


Figure 21: Students' Knowledge of How to Use Body Language and Visual Aids on Stage

Like many other questions, teachers' results to this inquiry support those of the previous one. Here, only a minority of 10% of teachers assume that their students know the proper ways of performing on stage. However, about three quarters (63.3%) believe that their students lack knowledge in this topic. The rest quarter or so of teachers (26.6%) said that they are not sure if their students know about this or not.

Therefore, we can conclude this section of the questionnaire by saying that students' weakness in public speaking techniques are primarily due to lack of information and training provided by their teachers.

Question Twenty-two: How much time of your sessions is devoted to Oral Presentations?

	N	%
None	00	00
Little	05	12.5
About half	21	52.5
Most	10	25
All	04	10
Total	40	100

Table 20: Amount of Time Teachers Devote to Oral Presentations

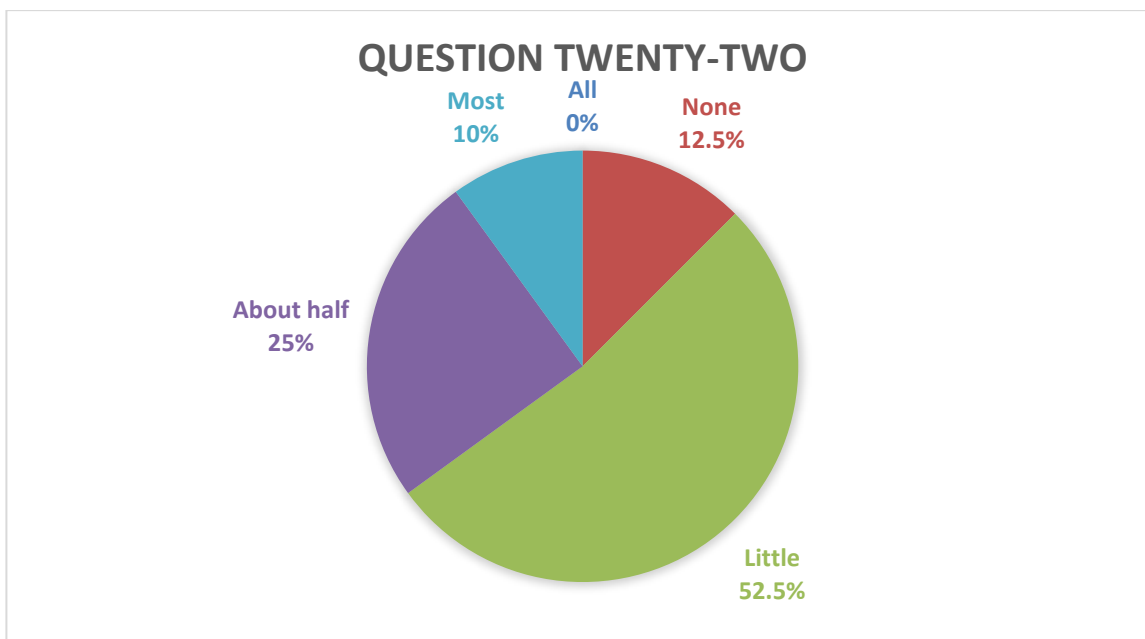


Figure 22: Amount of Time Teachers Devote to Oral Presentations

Oral presentations are the number one speaking activity in the oral expression sessions as it gets the lion's share of the course's time. This is what the collected data show. More than half of the teachers (52.5%) devote half of their sessions for this activity, and a quarter of them (25%) devote most of the course for it. Besides, 10% of teachers use only oral presentations with no other substitute or companion practice. However, only a minority of teachers (12.5%) use oral presentation for little time. Therefore, it is safe to say that oral presentations are indeed the most prevailing activity in speaking classes.

Question Twenty-three: Do you believe that these oral presentations fully respect/reflect the standards of CLT, especially learners' roles?

	N	%
Yes	02	05
Somewhat	30	75
No	08	20
Total	40	100

Table 21: Correspondence of Oral Presentations to CLT Standards

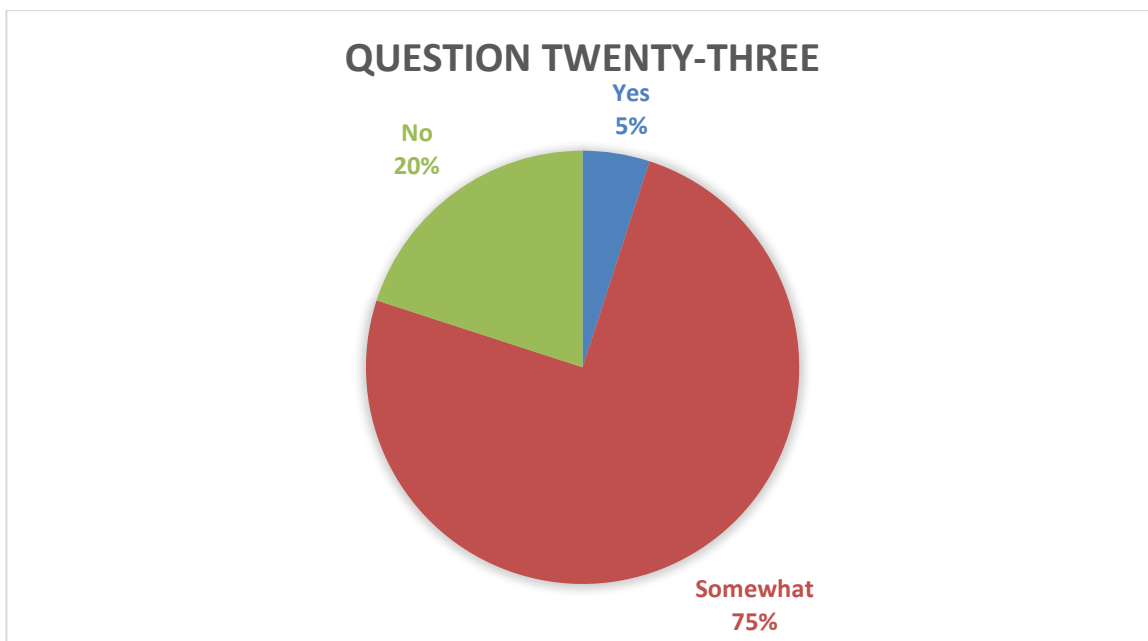


Figure 23: Correspondence of Oral Presentations to CLT Standards

Before discussing the results of this question, it is important to clarify which CLT standards we are referring to here. In CLT, the main objective of language teaching is to teach learners communicative competence through activities that require them to interact and negotiate meaning with one another spontaneously.

According to teachers' opinions, only 05% of them think that oral presentations, which are prepared one-sided form of communication, fully respect and reflect the standards explained above. The rest of the teachers are divided between a majority (75%) who believe that such an activity does not really correspond to the objectives and beliefs of the approach, and about a quarter (20%) who hold a belief that this activity has nothing to do with what CLT wants to achieve at all.

Question Twenty-four: How many students do you prefer to have in each group presentation?

	N	%
1 to 2 students	15	37.5
3 to 4 students	22	55
More than 5 students	03	07.5
Total	40	100

Table 22: Number of Students Teachers Prefer to have in an Oral Presentation

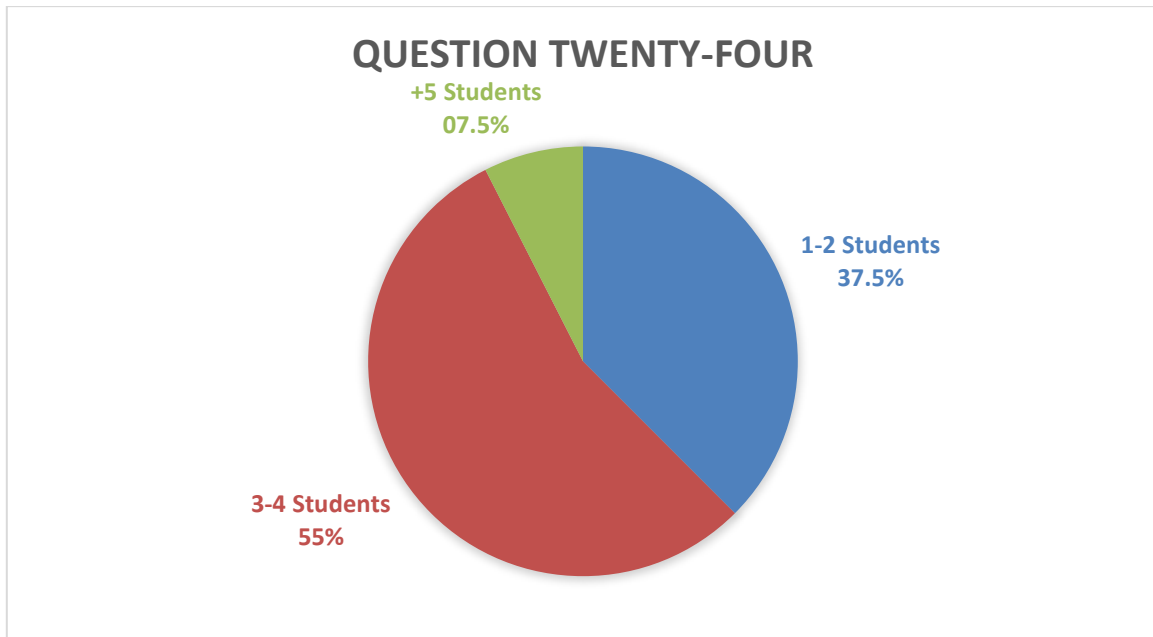


Figure 24: Number of Students Teachers Prefer to have in an Oral Presentation

According to the common belief, the best number for any group work is three members. Seemingly, many teachers (55%) are able to apply this in their classes, which according to the obtained results are a little bit crowded. Besides, there are many teachers (37.5%) who say that they can successfully manage to have couple and individual presentations as well. However, perhaps due to the large number of students in some classrooms, few teachers (07.5%) are obliged to have more than five members in an oral presentation.

Question Twenty-five: How much time do you usually give each group of students to present?

	N	%
5-15 minutes	23	57.5
15-30 minutes	13	32.5
30-45 minutes	04	10
45-60 minutes	00	00
+60 minutes	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 23: Amount of Time Teachers Give for Every Oral Presentation

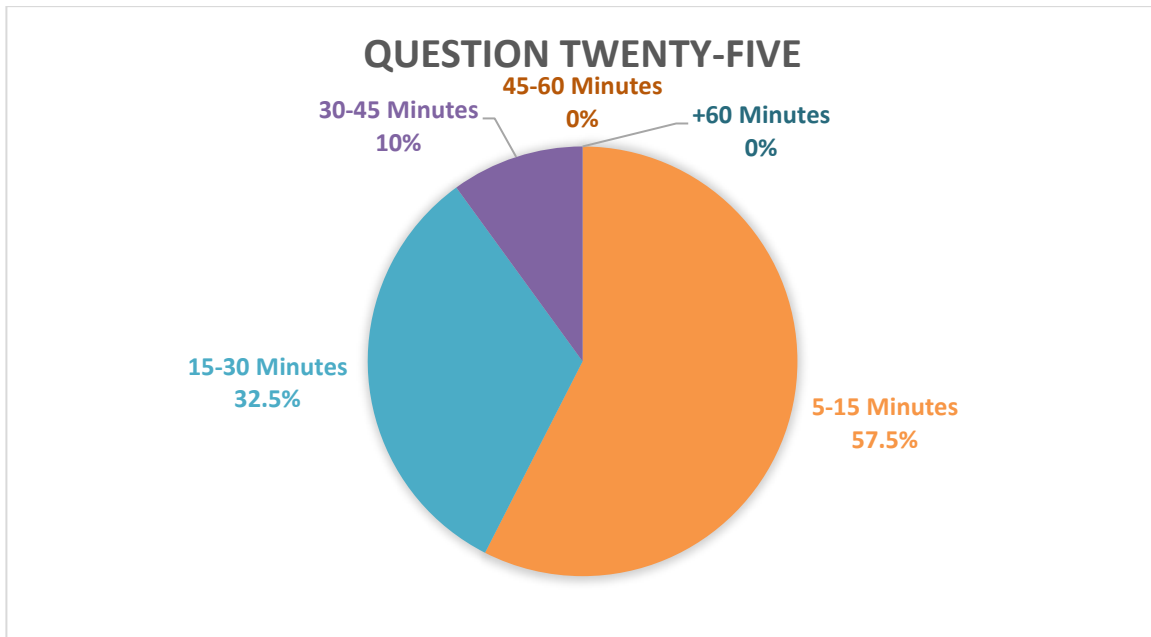


Figure 25: Amount of Time Teachers Give for Every Oral Presentation

Less than fifteen minutes is the amount of time 57.5% of teachers give for a group presentation, the figure above shows. Moreover, 32.5% of them give about half an hour for a group of students to deliver their presentations. The longest period given for group presentations is about 45 minutes, which is allowed by only 10% of teachers.

Once again, we believe that the number of students in the classroom is the primary obligation for teachers to give very little time for a couple of students to deliver their presentation. Otherwise, the duration would exceed these extremely narrow limits.

Question Twenty-six: How many times does each group of students present per year?

	N	%
Once	10	25
Twice	26	65
3 times	04	10
4 times	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 24: Number of Times per Year Each Group Present

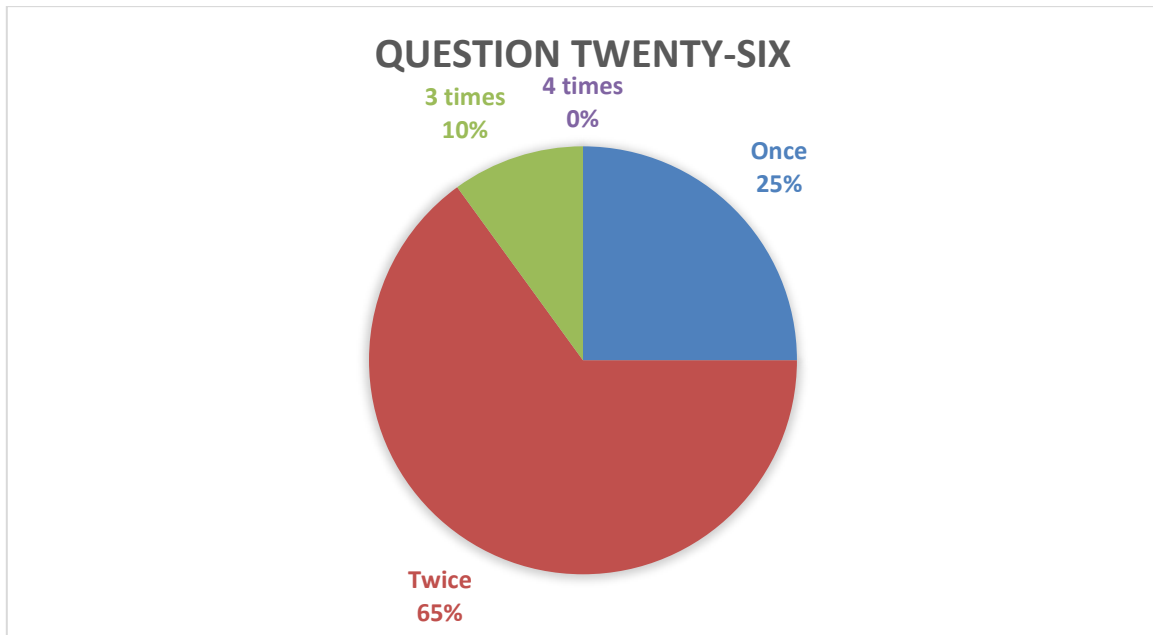


Figure 26: Number of Times per Year Each Group Present

Twice, that is how often most teachers (65%) give groups of students to present throughout an academic year. Only once, a quarter of teachers can allow their students to go on stage to speak. The maximum number of times given is three times a year, but it happens only in 10% of classrooms.

Question Twenty-seven: Based on the total number of students in the class, and your answers to the three previous questions, how much time does each student get to present per year?

	N	%
5-15 minutes	14	35
15-30 minutes	11	27.5
30-45 minutes	08	20
45-60 minutes	06	15
+60 minutes	01	02.5
Total	40	100

Table 25: Amount of Time Each Student Gets to Present per Year

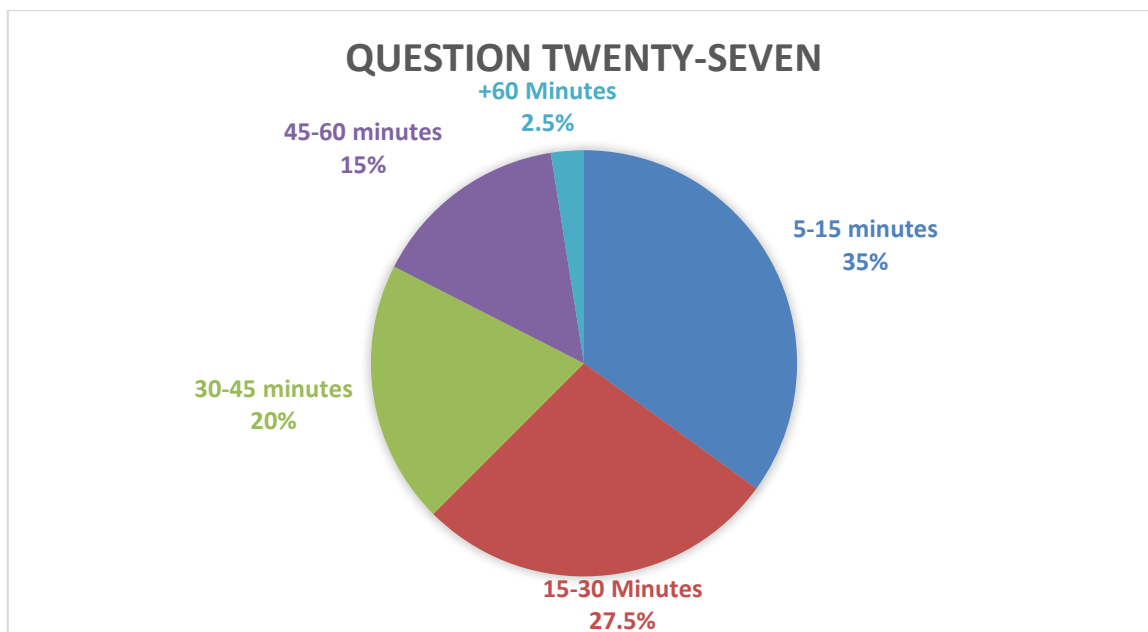


Figure 27: Amount of Time Each Student Gets to Present per Year

When teachers divided the number of students they usually have in their classrooms by the number of students they prefer to be in each group presentation, and then multiplied the amount of time they give for each group to present with the number of times they can allow each group to present; it was found that 35% of students get only from 5 to 15 minutes of presentation time throughout the academic year. That is, a quarter of an hour is the maximum amount of time third of the students get to go on the stage. Less than half of an hour is the time 27.5% of teachers can give each student to deliver his/her part of the speech. The longer the duration, the less teachers who can give it. For instance, there are only 20% and 15% of classes where students can present for up till 45 and 60 minutes respectively. Additionally, results show that very few students (02.5%) can present for longer than one hour per year.

After looking at the results discussed above, we believe these durations are too little for anyone to work on their speaking skill, especially that oral presentations take all, most or at least half of the sessions. Besides, based on our observations, many students' only chance to

speak is during that time they go on stage, otherwise they are sitting silently due to different reasons discussed above. But do teachers share the same opinion with us?

Question Twenty-eight: Do you think it is enough time for a student to develop his/her speaking skill?

	N	%
Yes	01	02.5
Somewhat	13	32.5
No	26	65
Total	40	100

Table 26: Sufficiency of Time for Developing the Speaking Skill

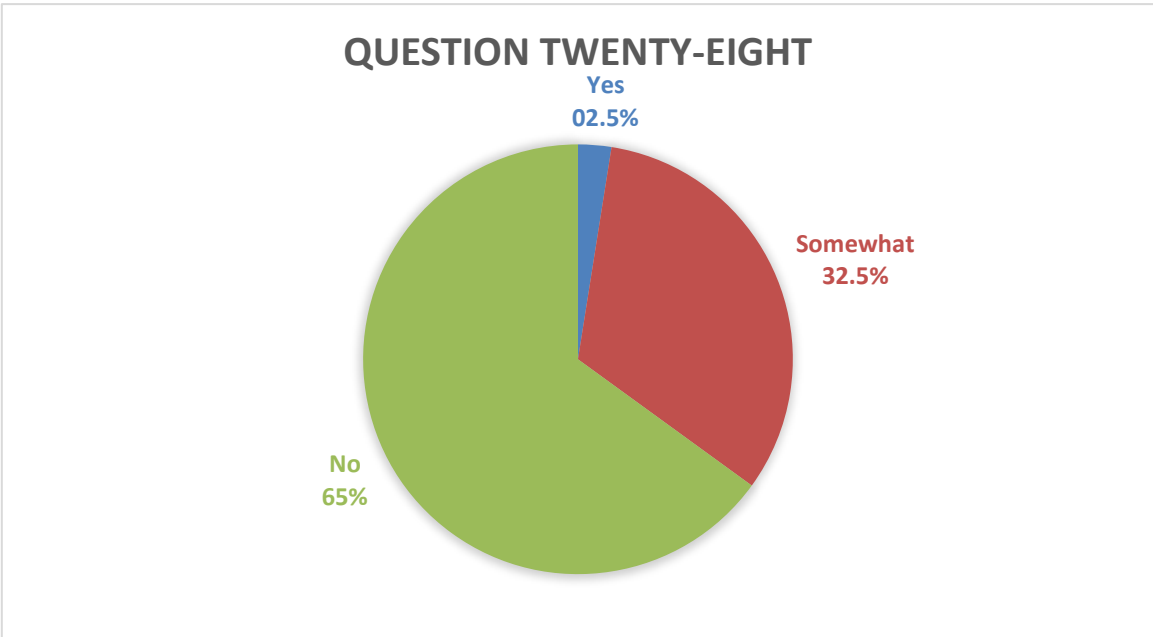


Figure 28: Sufficiency of Time for Developing the Speaking Skill

One out of forty teachers thinks oral presentations provide enough time for students to work on and develop their speaking skill. Third of the teachers (33%) believe it is not really a sufficient amount of time, while the rest vast majority 65% believe it is not enough at all. Therefore, it can be said that most teachers are on the same page with us concerning this issue.

Question Twenty-nine: In your opinion, how similar are oral presentations to everyday spontaneous and meaningful interaction?

	N	%
Identical	00	00
Very similar	00	00
A bit similar	08	20
A bit different	05	12.5
Very different	17	42.5
Completely different	10	25
Total	40	100

Table 27: Similarity between Oral Presentations and Everyday Interaction

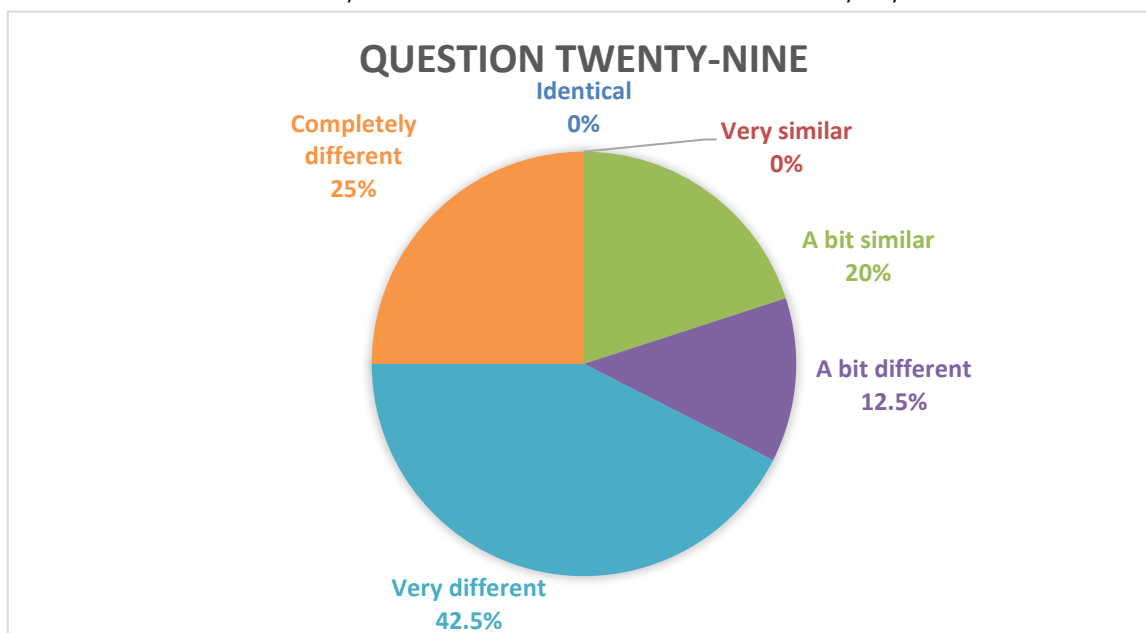


Figure 29: Similarity between Oral Presentations and Everyday Interaction

Everyday interaction is spontaneous, but an oral presentation is prepared. That is why none of the teachers thinks they are *identical* or *very similar*. Besides, many teachers (20%) believe they are *a bit similar* (i.e. mostly different), but only few of them (12.5%) think they are *a bit different* (i.e. mostly similar). The great majority of teachers are divided into two groups: a large group (42.5%) who believes in the existence of a wide gap between the two actions, and another group (25%) who believes that there is nothing in common at all between how people normally speak to one another in their everyday interaction and how a student delivers his speech to an audience on the stage.

Question Thirty: Do you think that oral presentations develop learners' communicative competence of all its sub-divisions?

	N	%
Yes	06	15
Somewhat	29	72.5
No	05	12.5
Total	40	100

Table 28: Oral Presentations' Ability to Develop Students' Communicative Competence

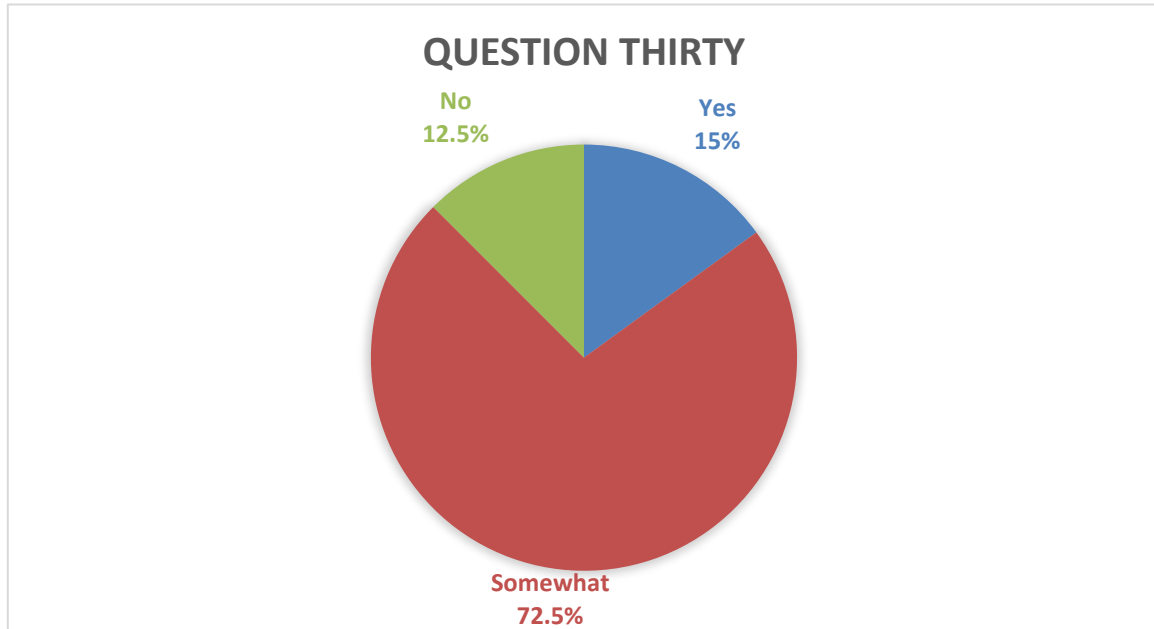


Figure 30: Oral Presentations' Ability to Develop Students' Communicative Competence

Communicative competence, which is composed of four competencies: linguistic, discourse, pragmatic and strategic, is CLT's ultimate objective to teach learners. According to most teachers (72.5%), oral presentations develop it only to a limited extent, while some teachers (12.5%) believe that this form of public speaking does not enhance students' communicative competence at all. Nevertheless, some other teachers (15%) see that oral presentations can achieve this objective.

Question Thirty-one: Do you think that oral presentations teach students the use of any language functions?

	N	%
Yes	11	27.5
Somewhat	25	62.5
No	04	10
Total	40	100

Table 29: Students' Learnability of Language Functions from Oral Presentations

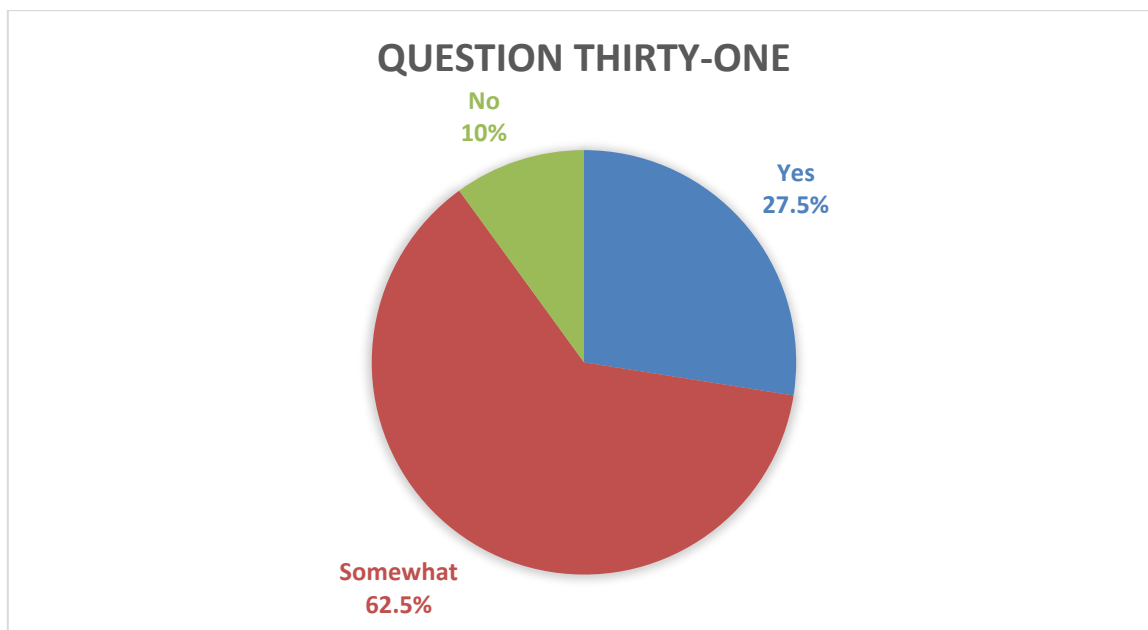


Figure 31: Students' Learnability of Language Functions from Oral Presentations

Language functions play a crucial role in CLT. Thus, it stresses implementing and teaching those functions in all activities and tasks. By this question, we wanted to see what teachers' think oral presentations can do so as to attain this main objective in the approach. Approximately, a quarter of teachers (27.5%) see that this activity does actually teach students the use of some language functions. Nevertheless, 62.5% of teachers see that the success of this activity at fulfilling this goal is limited to a *somewhat* narrow extent. That is, only few language functions are learned when presenting. The other 10% of teachers believe that oral presentations do not help students learn or work on the different functions of language at all.

Question Twenty-three: If your previous answer is yes or somewhat, which of the following language functions do students learn when delivering or listening to oral presentations?

F1 ¹	Greeting people and introducing oneself	F2	Comparing and contrasting	F3	Agreeing and disagreeing
F4	Asking and giving advice	F5	Expressing preference	F6	Expressing wishes
F7	Making complains	F8	Asking questions	F9	Suggesting
F10	Summarizing	F11	Persuading	F12	Explaining
F13	Describing	F14	Predicting	F15	Guessing
F16	Offering	F17	Warning	F18	Narrating

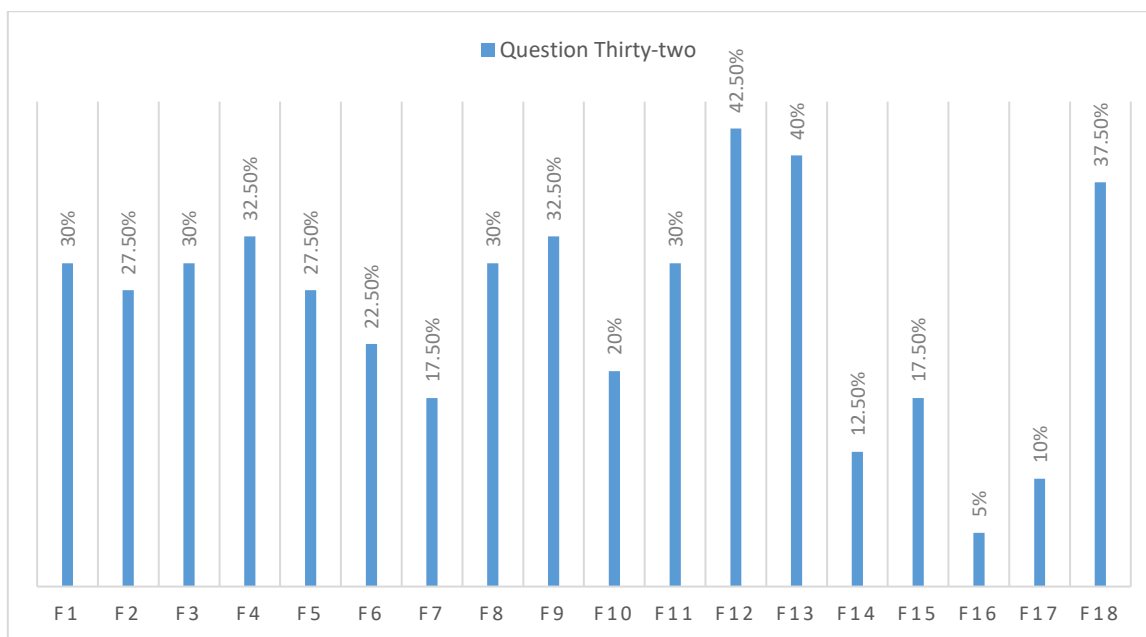


Figure 32: Language Functions that Students Learn from Oral Presentations

The obtained results shown above indicate that oral presentations do little help teaching students language functions. First, only few teachers believe that oral presentations can achieve this objective, while most teachers do not share the same strong belief. Besides, even those who think students can learn to use the different language functions via oral presentations, their responses in this question show little trust in this strategy. Language functions with the highest percentages are explaining, describing and narrating. However, even these ones were not chosen by half of those who said yes in the first place. Therefore, it can be said, safely, that learners do not learn how to express and use language functions well through presentations.

¹ F1: Function One

Question Thirty-three: Do students start to become noisy after few presentations?

	N	%
Yes	11	27.5
Somewhat	21	52.5
No	08	20
Total	40	100

Table 30: Students' Level of Noise after Few Presentations

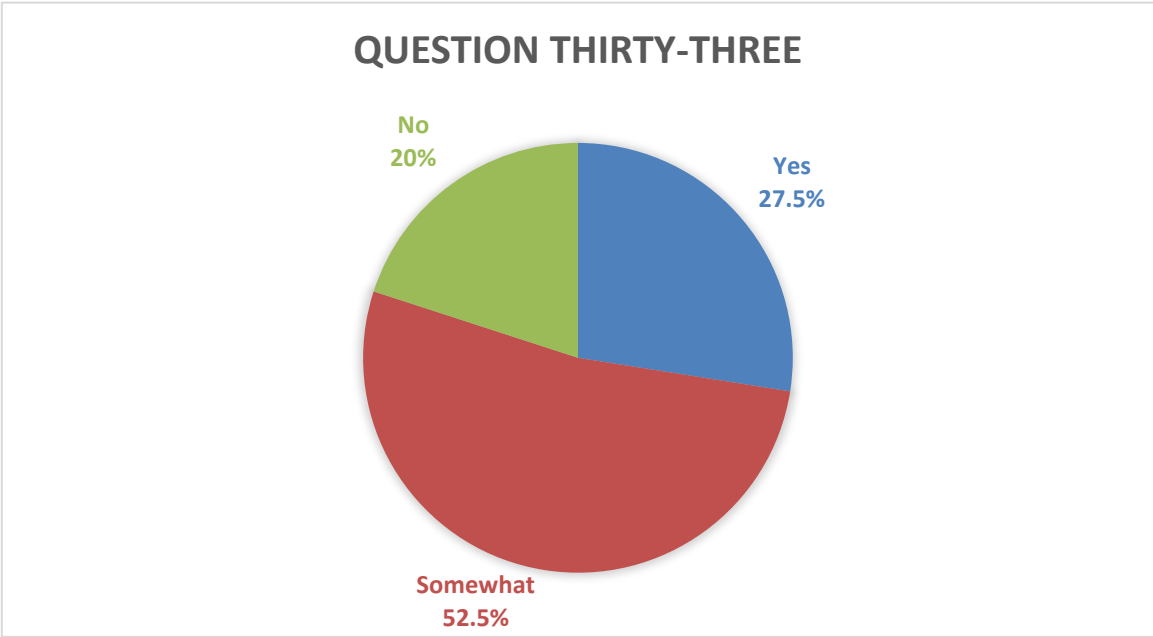


Figure 33: Students' Level of Noise after Few Presentations

When it comes to students' attentiveness, it seems that it decreases after several continuous presentations. About third of teachers (27.5%) notice that the level of noise learners produce increases remarkably after a couple of presentations. This is believed to be due to boredom. Similarly, more than half of the teachers (52.5%) find that their students start to be *somewhat* disruptive after few presentations or sessions in the same norm of the activity. Last, only 20% of teachers said they do not find the behavior of their classes to change throughout the entire course.

Question Thirty-four: Which of the following problems do you often notice in the presentations your students make?

- **Problem 1:** Anxiety
- **Problem 2:** Poor use of visual aids
- **Problem 3:** Lack of information and ideas

- **Problem 4:** One or few learners seem to have done most or all the job
- **Problem 5:** Fragmented/disjoined performances due to differences in skills

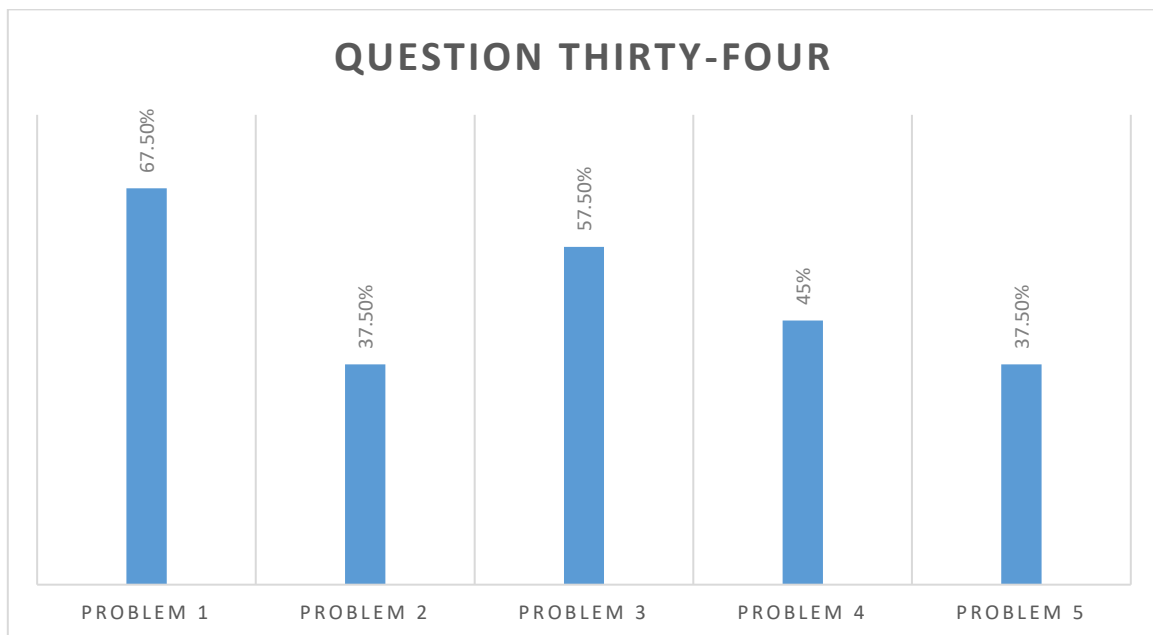


Figure 34: Most Noticed Problems in Students' Presentations

Oral presentations are not only demotivating for some students, but they also cause much stress and anxiety before and during their performances. According to teachers' answers, anxiety is the most frequently observed problem in the oral presentations students deliver, 67.5% of teachers notice signs of stress while students are on the stage.

Other serious issues observed in students' presentations are lack of information and ideas, more than half of teachers (57.5%) notice that. Moreover, many teachers (45%) see poorly organized group work as one or very few members seem to do most or all the work. Besides, students are found not to be able to use visual aids effectively while presenting. In addition, because of the varying levels of skills, abilities and presentation techniques of students, many presentations are found to be fragmented and disjoined. For instance, a student reads his speech directly from paper while his/her colleagues use notes. Or someone uses body language and voice effectively, but someone else shakes and mumbles on stage because of anxiety.

Question Thirty-five: How effective do you believe are these presentations in improving students' speaking skill?

	N	%
Not effective	16	40
Slightly effective	20	50
Very effective	04	10
Total	40	100

Table 31: Effectiveness of Oral Presentation in Improving Students' Speaking Skill

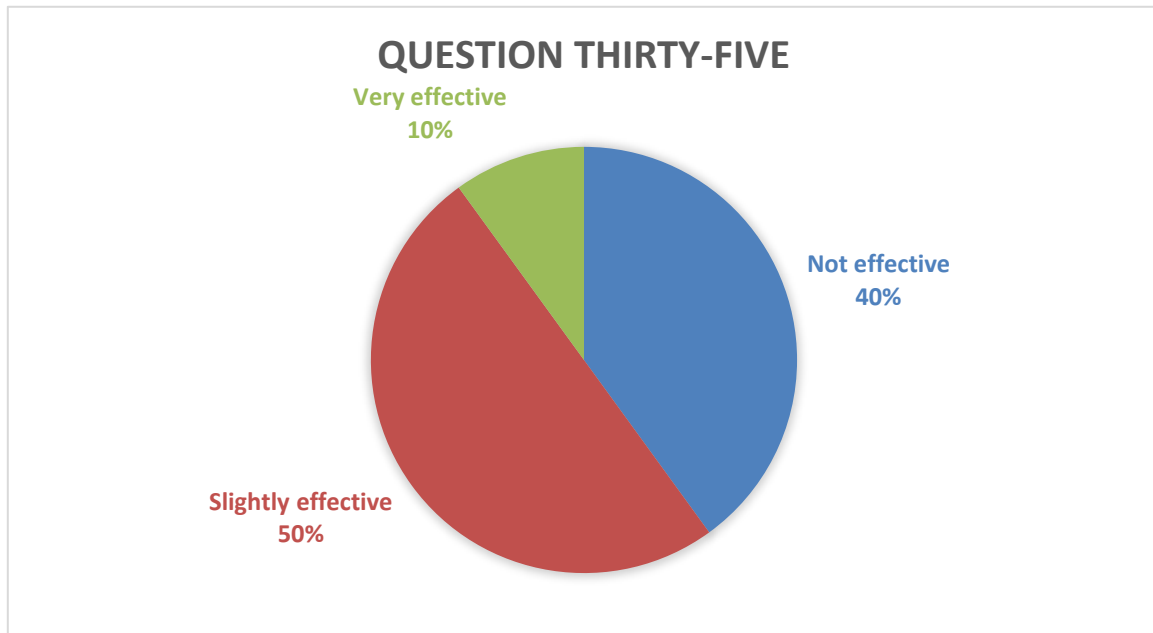


Figure 35: Effectiveness of Oral Presentation in Improving Students' Speaking Skill

In fact, this is one of the most important and sensitive questions as it directly asks about the usefulness and functionality of this classroom practice in achieving a common objective of all teachers of oral expression: developing students' speaking skill. However, results come to show some rather negative information. Very few teachers (10%) believe in the complete use of this strategy in enhancing students' speaking abilities. Besides, half of them have doubts and said that this form of public speaking *somewhat* helps achieve the goal. The last group of teachers (40%) were sure to say that this strategy is *not effective* and it does not help students work on and develop their speaking skill. Therefore, it can be said that, according to most teachers' opinions that are based on experience, oral presentations are a classroom

practice that does not improve the level of students' speaking skill to the desired level. In best cases, it enhances it only to a very limited extent.

Question Thirty-six: To which degree do you believe oral presentations can train and prepare students for accurate, fluent and proper real-life interaction?

	N	%
Not at all	06	15
Very little	10	25
A bit	22	55
Much	02	05
Very much	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 32: Extent to which Oral Presentations can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction

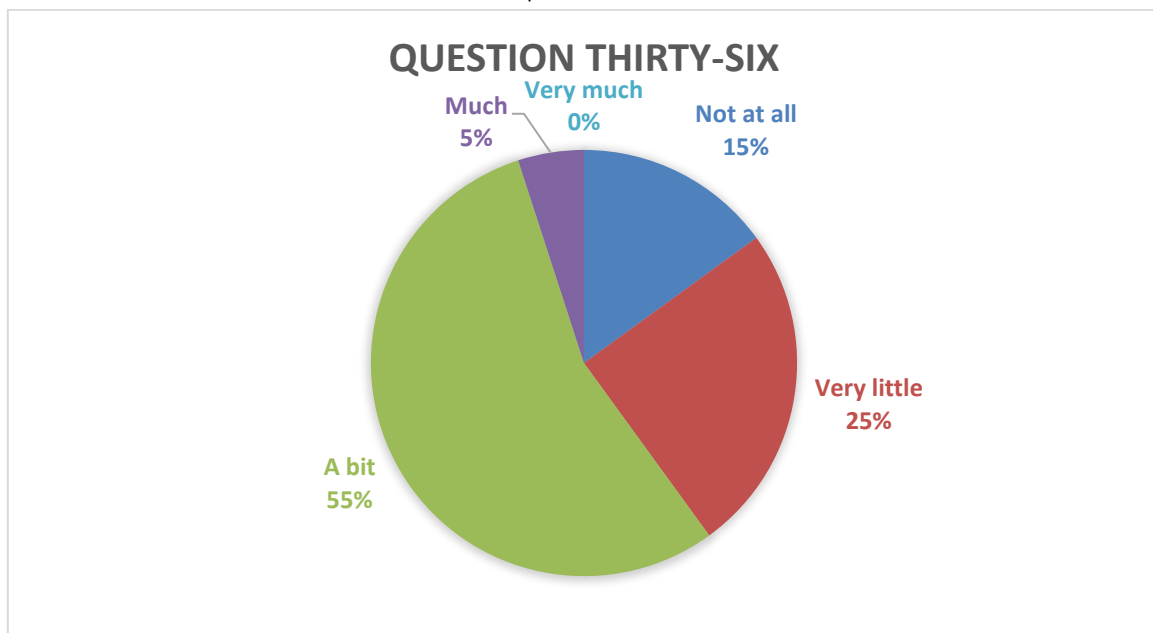


Figure 36: Extent to which Oral Presentations can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction

In a more precise area of the speaking skill, we asked teachers what they think oral presentations can do to help students develop their accuracy, fluency and proper real-life interaction. Results come to strengthen and support what they said earlier. Unlike the very few teachers (05%) who think that this classroom practice can *much* enhance students' performance, more than half of the teachers (55%) said that this classroom strategy provides

very limited assistance to learners (i.e. *a bit*). In addition, a quarter have said it provides even less than that (i.e. *very little*). Besides, there is a significant number of teachers (15%) who see no use of oral presentations in developing students' speaking skill, especially in this specific area.

Question Thirty-seven: Do you think that applying other speaking activities would further increase students' motivation to the subject of oral expression?

	N	%
Yes	35	87.5
I do not know	05	12.5
No	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 33: Speaking Activities for Potential Increase of Students' Motivation

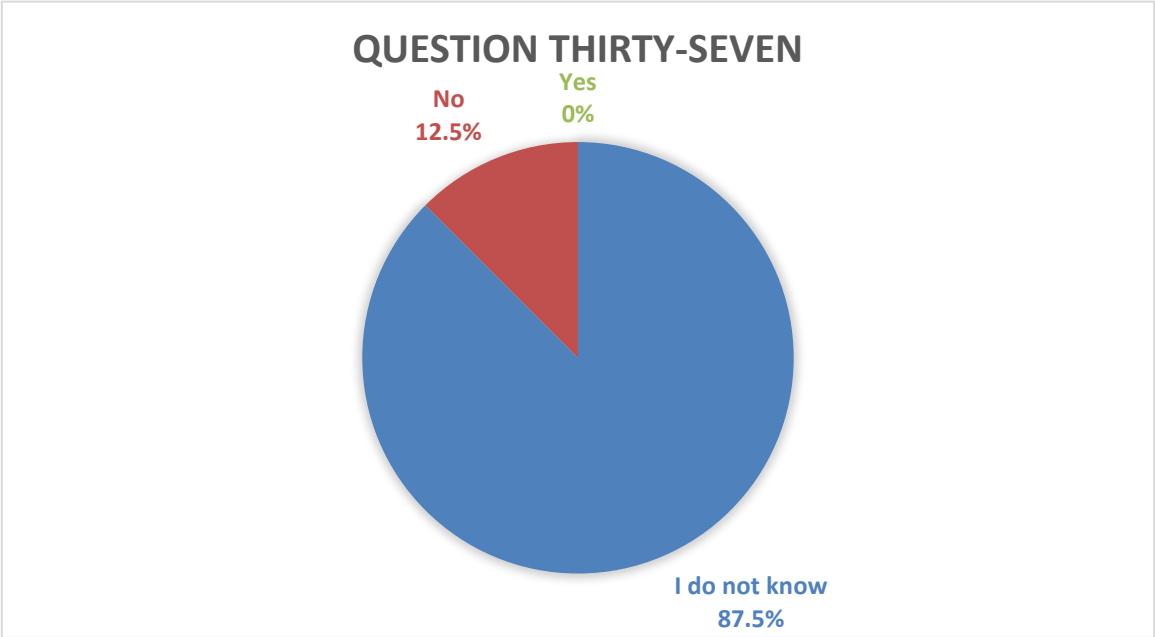


Figure 37: Speaking Activities for Potential Increase of Students' Motivation

There is a general agreement among teachers that students' motivation towards the subject of oral expression would increase significantly if other speaking activities were applied instead of oral presentations. As shown in the figure above, 87.5% of teachers answered *yes*, while only 12.5% were uncertain. Besides, none of the teachers said *no*, and this is one of the

most important questions of this research as it directly tackles a major axis which is motivation.

Question Thirty-eight: Do you think that applying other speaking activities would further improve students' speaking skill in general and their fluency in particular?

	N	%
Yes	36	90
I do not know	04	10
No	00	00
Total	40	100

Table 34: Other Speaking Activities to Improve Students' Speaking Skill in General and their Fluency in Particular

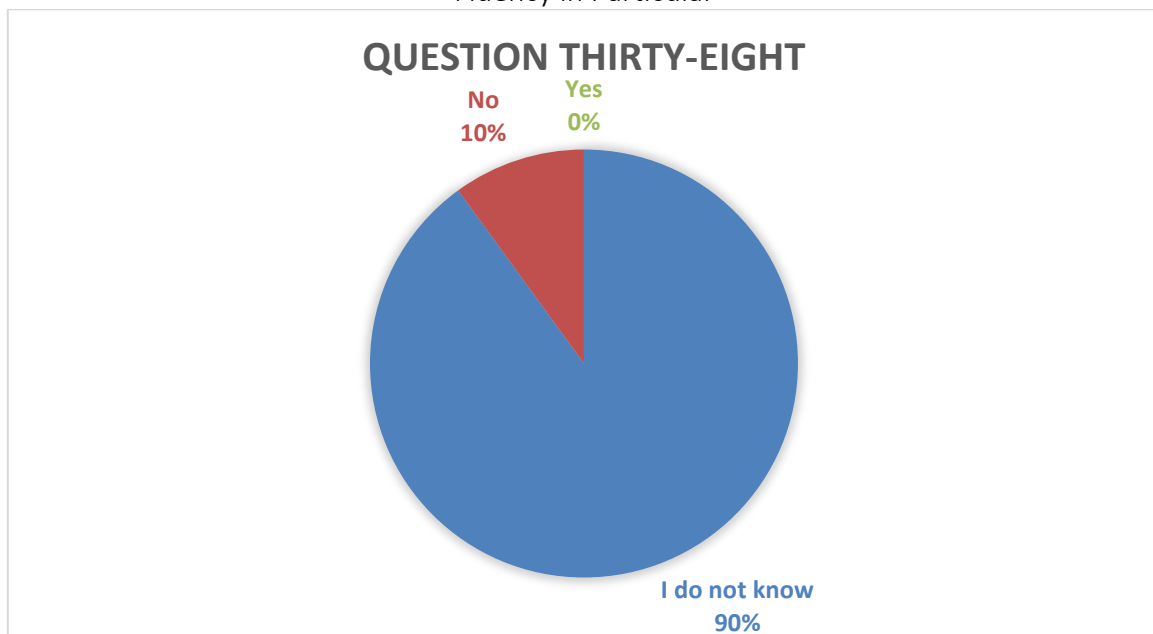


Figure 38: Other Speaking Activities to Improve Students' Speaking Skill in General and their Fluency in Particular

Applying other speaking activities instead of oral presentations would improve students' speaking skill, the vast majority of teachers (90%) believe so. However, the results illustrated above show that only very few teachers (10%) are uncertain of the potential effectiveness of the alternative activities. The reason of these results is believed to be due to the fact that teachers see the application of different activities would help students develop their speaking abilities, but the general conditions found in the university classrooms (especially the number

of students and the absence of proper means) make it very hard to practice anything rather than oral presentations as they are the easiest thing to do.

Question Thirty-nine: To what extent are students motivated to attend, present and participate in a class in which only oral presentations are applied?

	N	%
Not motivated	12	30
Slightly motivated	25	62.5
Very motivated	03	07.5
Total	40	100

Table 35: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in Oral Presentations

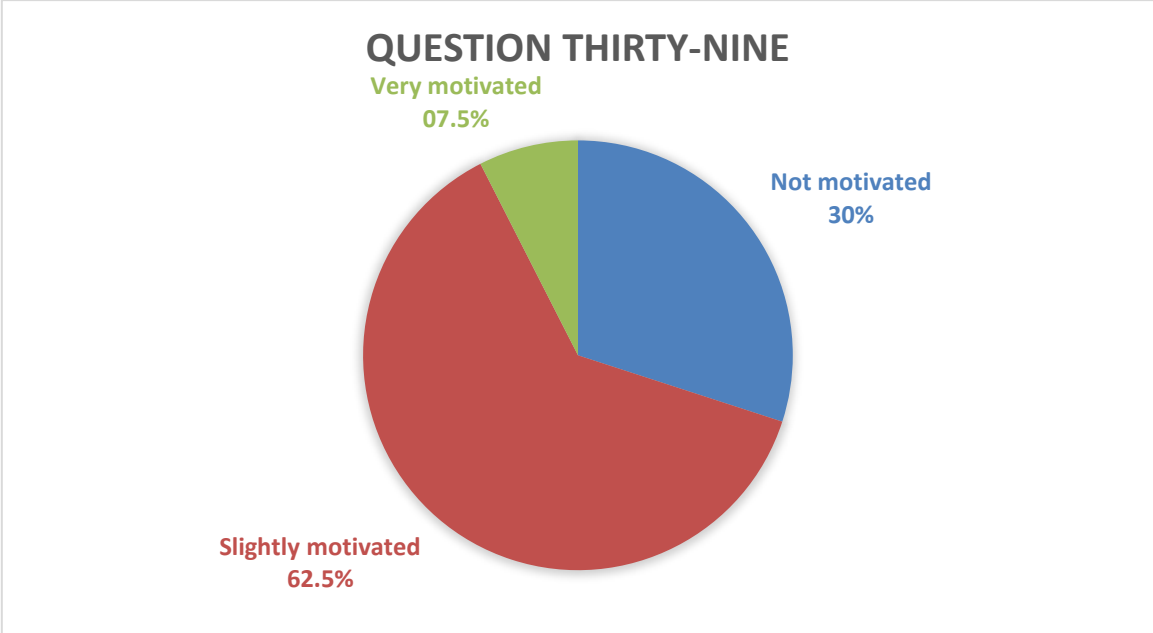


Figure 39: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in Oral Presentations

When it comes to students' motivation during a course of oral expression sessions that exclusively applies oral presentations, only very few teachers (07.5%) find their students highly motivated to attend, present and participate. However, the great majority of teachers (62.5%) see a limited extent of motivation in students to do so. Besides, about a third of teachers (30%) see that this strategy does not arouse their students' desire to do any of the above.

Question Forty: To what extent are students motivated to attend, present and participate in a class in which other speaking activities are applied?

	N	%
Not motivated	01	02.5
Slightly motivated	17	42.5
Very motivated	22	55
Total	40	100

Table 36: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in a Class where other Speaking Activities are Applied According to Teachers' Observations

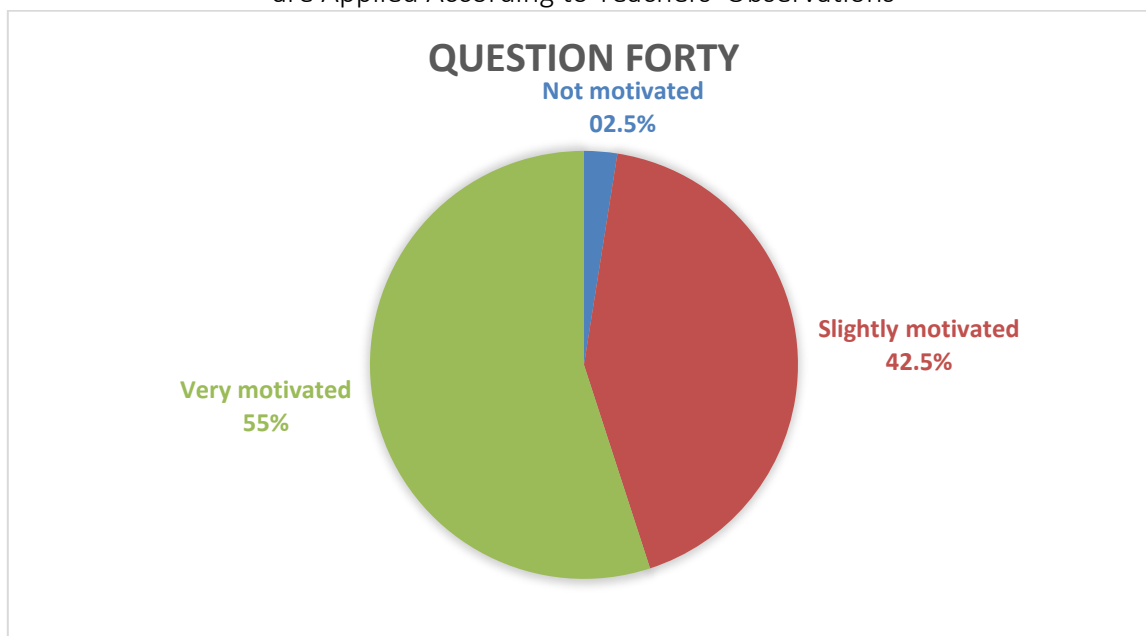


Figure 40: Students' Level of Motivation to Engage in a Class where other Speaking Activities are Applied According to Teachers' Observations

The last question deals with students' motivation to take part in sessions where different speaking activities are applied. Here, in contrast with the previous results, there is a minority of teachers (02.5%) who find their students demotivated towards that. Besides, there are many teachers (42.5%) who generally notice a slight amount of motivation among their students. However, more than half of the teachers (55%) observe a high level of motivation among students when they change from oral presentations to different activities.

4.1.4. Synthesis of the Results

By looking at the results obtained and discussed above, we can synthesize and summarize the following notes:

- ❖ Most classrooms range from manageable to crowded.

- ❖ The least effective speaking activities are the most frequently applied ones, and vice versa.
- ❖ The great majority of students are average speakers of English, and this is mainly due to lack of practice.
- ❖ From half to most of students do not participate actively and regularly in oral expression sessions. The chief reason for this is their fear of making mistakes.
- ❖ Oral presentations are among the least accurate means of assessing students' speaking skill because they do not give true evaluation of how students really speak.
- ❖ The vast majority of teachers do not teach nor do they train their students on how to choose the best type of presentations. Not only that, but also they do not know if students are aware of those types or not.
- ❖ The most frequently used methods of delivering oral presentations are reading from a script and memorized speech, which are poor presentation methods. However, more advanced manners are almost non-existent. Again, this is because most teachers provide no information nor training on that, and do not know whether or not students possess any information about it.
- ❖ Most students are poor performers, especially when it comes to their body language and using visual aids. Once again, this situation is a results of the absence or lack of information and training provided by teachers.
- ❖ Oral presentations take all, most or at least half of the oral expression sessions.
- ❖ Oral presentations are an activity that does not fully respect the standards of the CLT approach, particularly learner's roles.
- ❖ About 15 minutes is the amount of time most students get to present per year, and this is believed to be an insufficient duration by most teachers.

- ❖ Oral presentations have very little in common with how everyday spontaneous and meaningful communication goes.
- ❖ Oral presentations do little to enhance students' communicative competence which is an important axis in the CLT approach.
- ❖ Students do not really learn to use language functions via delivering oral presentation.
- ❖ The continuous application of oral presentations leads students to get bored of the session, and make some noise consequently. In addition, this form of public speaking involves many problems for students. For instance, it stresses most of them out.
- ❖ Seemingly, oral presentations are not effective in developing students' speaking skill, especially their fluency and proper real-life interaction.
- ❖ Using different speaking activities would not only increase students' motivation to the subject of oral expression remarkably, but it would also improve their speaking skill significantly.
- ❖ In contrast with a course in which only oral presentations are used, students are highly motivated to take part in a course that uses different speaking activities.

4.2. The Students' Questionnaire

The following sub-heading discuss a description of to whom and where the students' questionnaire was distributed and collected, the number of questions asked and how they are grouped, and the aim behind each group and the discussion of the obtained results.

4.2.1. Description of the Research Population

Out of 210 students studying in second year in the English department in Echahid Hamma Lakhdar University, South-East Algeria, during the academic year 2016-2017, we have

distributed a questionnaire to 105 students whom we have taught that season. Five students have not returned their copies of the questionnaire, while 100 students have. The two main reasons for choosing this level are that these students have already studied oral expression in their first year. Hence, they have experienced this subject. In addition, most of them have declared, in advance, that they practiced oral presentations in that subject. Therefore, they can answer the questions asked in the questionnaire and provide us with the needed information.

4.2.2. Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of 30 questions divided into four sub-sections. Sections one (from 01 to 03) deals with general information about students. Section two (04-09) contains questions about students' speaking skill such as their general level, favorite classroom speaking activities, frequency of participation and others. The third group of questions (10-25) is about students' oral presentations: presentation time, methods of delivery, problems faced when working on a group presentation, benefits gained from presenting, and others. The last group of questions (26-30) deals with one specific point which is students' motivation in the session of oral expression.

4.2.3. Discussion of the Results

Question One: For how long have you been studying English at the university?

	N	%
2 years	96	96
3 years	03	03
4 years	01	01
Total	100	100

Table 37: Period of Time Students Studied English in the University

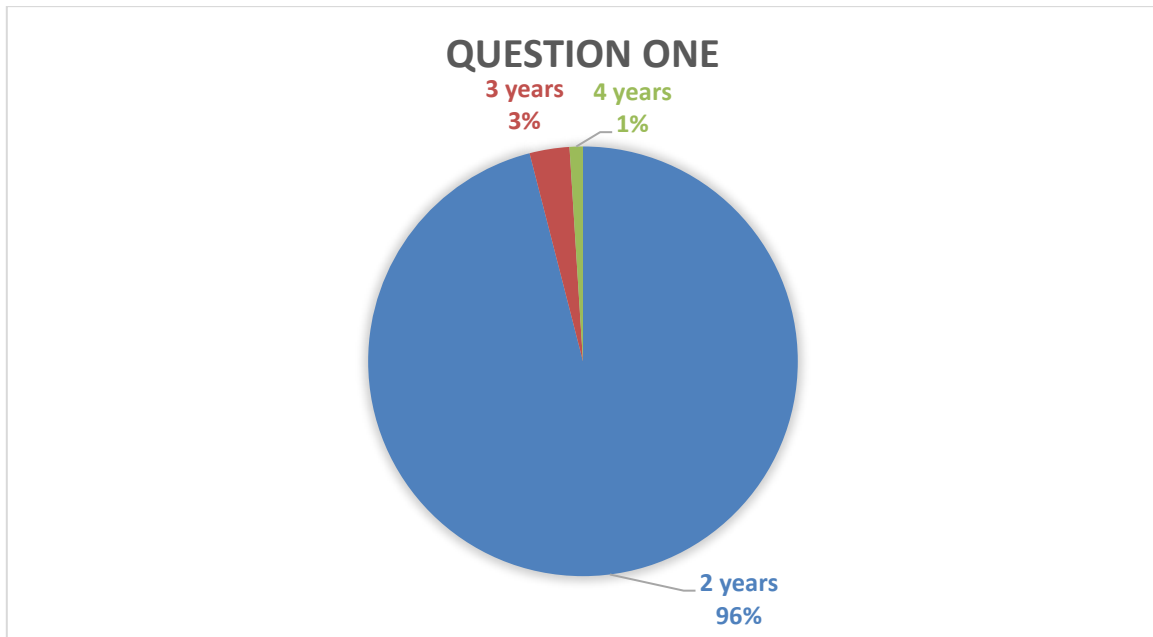


Figure 41: Period of Time Students Studied English in the University

The table and figure above show that the vast majority of students (96%) have spent two years studying English in the university, while only 03% of them spent three years to reach second year, and 01% spent the longest period of them all, four years, to reach that level.

Question Two: How would you rank the importance of these language skills according to you?
(1 being the least important)

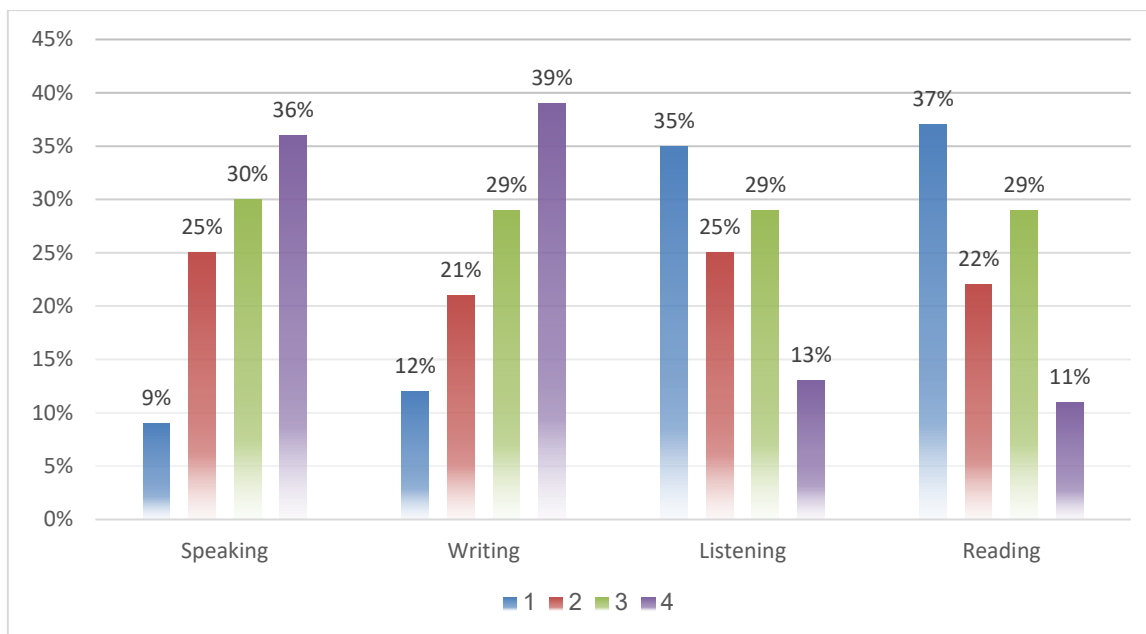


Figure 42: Importance of Language Skills According to Students

The results illustrated above show that productive language skills, speaking and writing, are the most important ones for students. However, receptive skills (listening and reading) are much less important. In fact, we find these results rather troubling. A second year university student of English is supposed to realize the fact that speaking is a skill that feeds on listening, and that writing, in turn, feeds on reading. That is to say, in order to be able to speak a language in a good way, one has to listen to a great deal of it. Similarly, if one wants to write well, he/she has to read often.

Perhaps, the reason why the general level of students' speaking abilities is average is that they give little attention to the listening skill which plays a crucial role in developing their language learning in general and speaking skill in particular.

Question Three: How would you rank these skills in terms of difficulty of mastery? (1 being the least difficult)

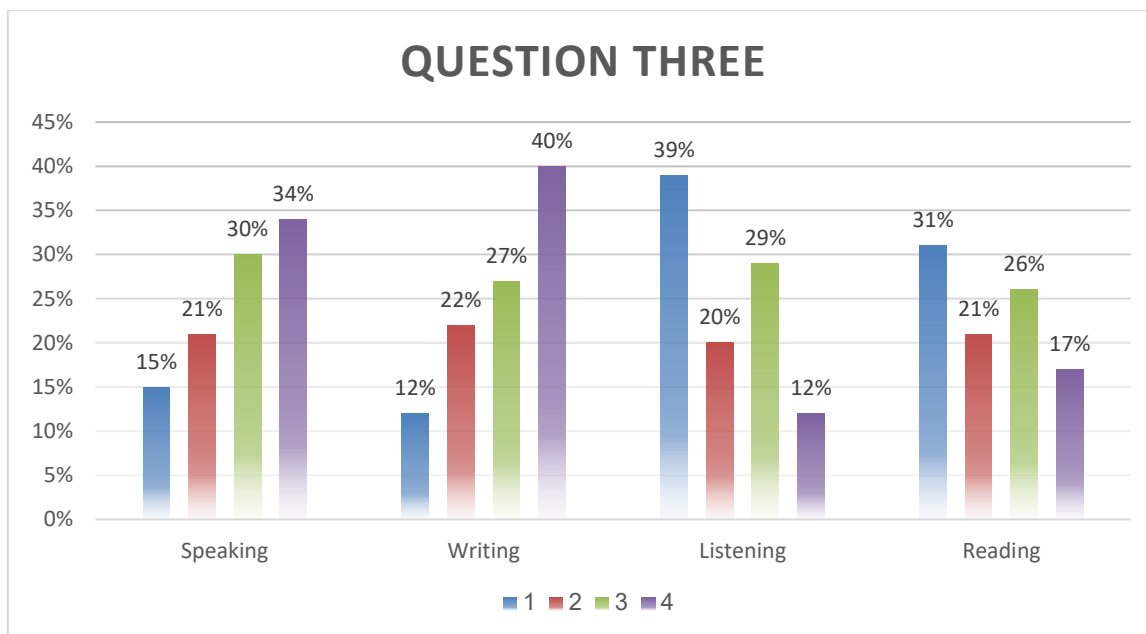


Figure 43: Most Difficult Language Skills According to Students

Listening and reading are much more easier language skills than speaking and writing, many students think. Once again, these findings are very surprising. What is found odd here is that listening and reading which are known to require much time and practice to develop seem to be taken for granted by many students.

Again, we believe this is the missing link in this case. This can be the main reason why many students suffer from an average speaking skill. It is because they give very little importance and attention to the listening skill which actually improves their speaking abilities. Not only that, but they also think receptive skills, in general, are less important and less difficult than the productive ones.

Question Four: How do you evaluate your speaking skill?

	N	%
Poor	23	23
Average	47	47
Good	23	23
Excellent	07	07
Total	100	100

Table 38: Students' Self-evaluation of their Speaking Skill

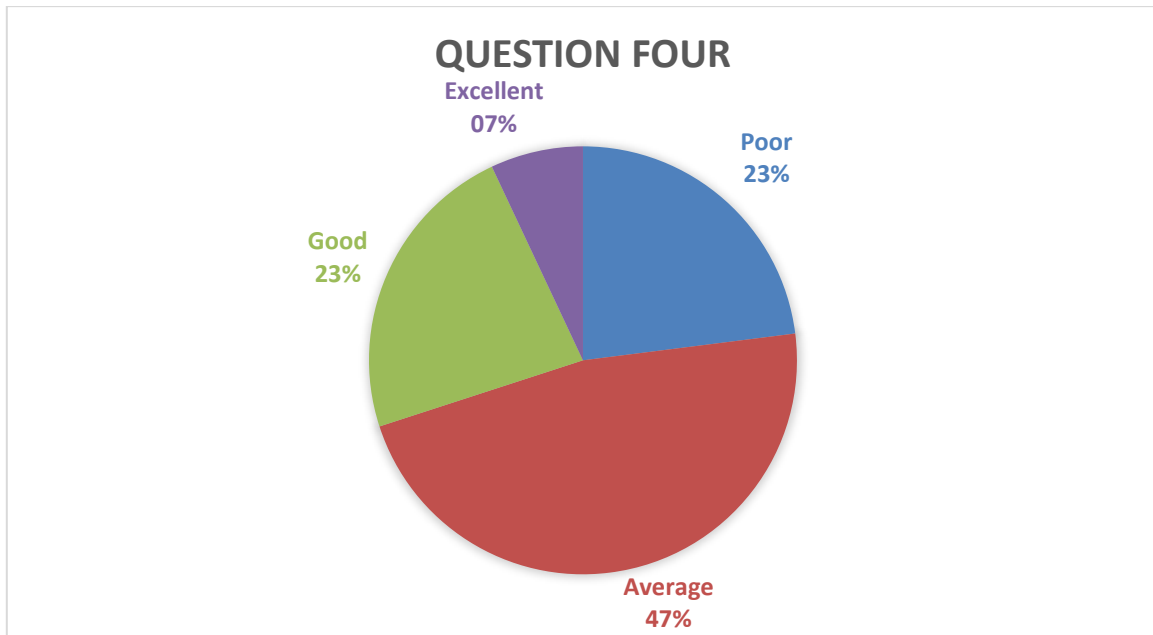


Figure 44: Students' Self-evaluation of their Speaking Skill

The results shown above are in harmony with teachers' answers to the same question. Here, about half of the students (47%) said that they are *average* speakers of English. Many students (23%) believe they have poor speaking abilities, with the same number of students (23%) who said they are *good* speakers of the language. The last group of students are a minority of 07% who claim to have an advanced level in speaking.

Question Five: If you answered poor or average, to which reasons do you owe this level?

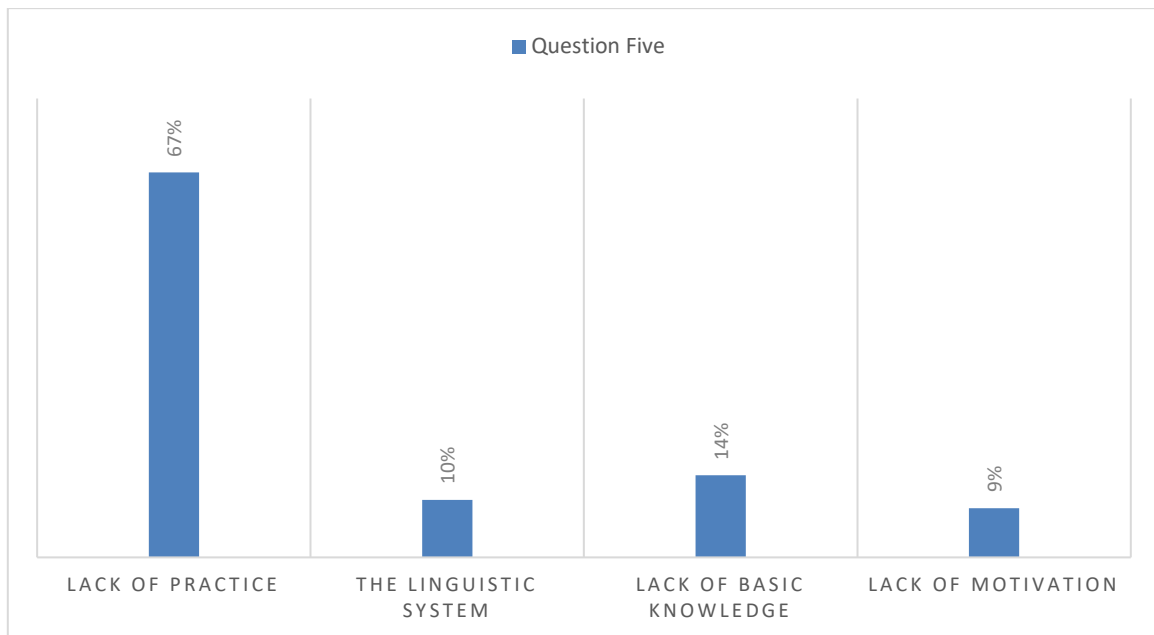


Figure 45: Students' Suppositions of the Reasons behind their Poor/ Average Speaking Skill

Lack of motivation, difficulty of the linguistic system of English and lack of basic knowledge are the least effective reasons why many students have poor/average speaking abilities. However, the major cause is lack of practice. The figure above shows that most of students (67%) suffer from this issue. In addition, there are few other reasons which are lack of listening, lack of guidance and training provided by teachers and shyness which prevents many students from practicing the language with or in front of others.

Question Six: How would you order these activities in terms of how interesting you find them?

(1 being the least interesting)

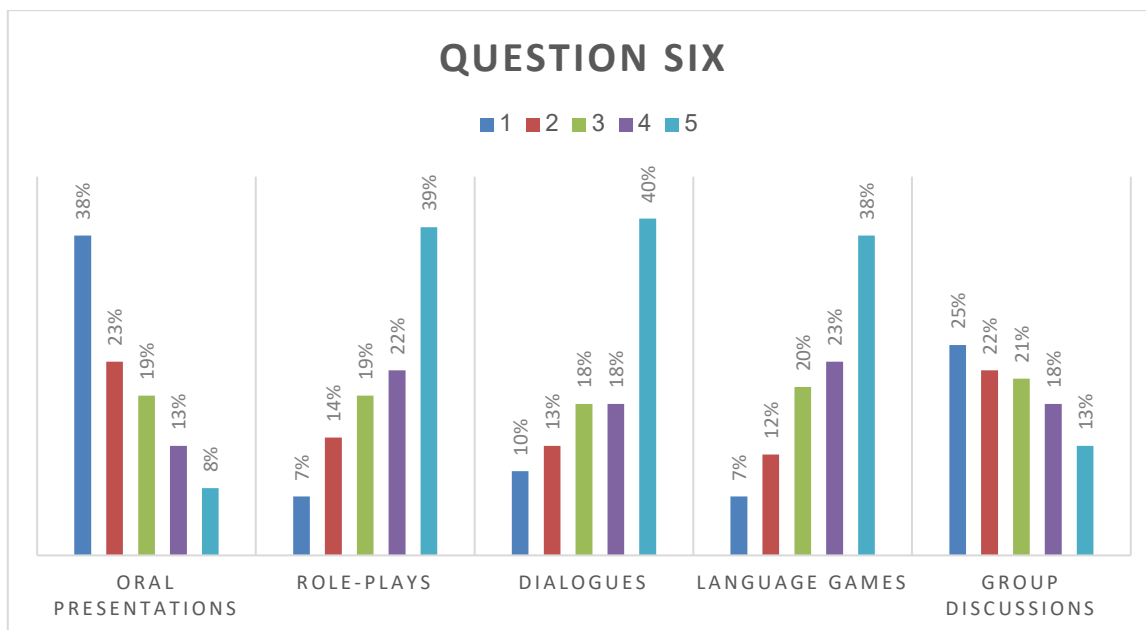


Figure 46: Students' Favorite Classroom Speaking Activity

According to the results shown above, it is clear that oral presentations and group discussions are the least preferable classroom activities. The reason is believed to be due to the fact that students spent most, if not all, of the first year oral expression sessions delivering presentations which are usually followed by whole group discussions. Besides, it can be because students found little or no improvement in their speaking skill while and after practicing them.

However, students' most favorite activities are role-plays, dialogues and language games. It is important to mention that the course we taught included many language games, dialogues and role-plays. Therefore, students might have compared the different types of activities and found that these latter are the most motivating ones.

Question Seven: Which of the following activities your teacher(s) applied the most with you previously?

	N	%
Oral presentations	62	62
Role-plays	15	15
Dialogues	07	07
Language games	11	11
Group discussion	05	05
Total	100	100

Table 39: Most Frequently Applied Classroom Speaking Activities in the Oral Expression Sessions

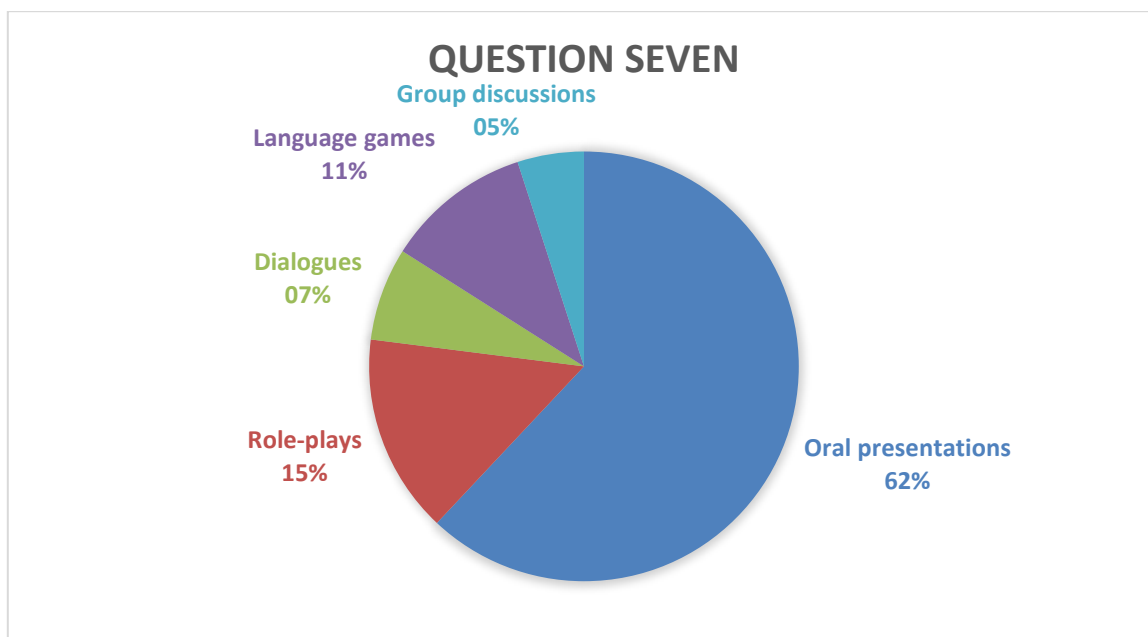


Figure 47: Most Frequently Applied Classroom Speaking Activities in the Oral Expression Sessions

As expected, students' least favorite speaking activity (oral presentations) were the most frequently practiced one previously, indeed. About two thirds of the students (62%) said that. In contrast, their most preferable activities (role-plays, dialogues and language games) were practiced by small minorities 15%, 07% and 11% respectively.

These results, too, are in fact consistent with teachers' answers to the same question. Teachers have said that they devote either all, most or at least half of the course for oral presentations.

Questions Eight: How often did you participate in the oral expression session?

	N	%
Never	25	25
Rarely	19	19
Sometimes	37	37
Often	14	14
Always	05	05
Total	100	100

Table 40: Students' Frequency of Participation in the Oral Sessions (Previously)



Figure 48: Students' frequency of Participation in the Oral Sessions (Previously)

A quarter of students have *never* participated in the oral expression sessions. Besides, many of them (19%) have *rarely* done so. In addition, many more students (37%) *sometimes* voiced their ideas in the classroom. Very few ones are those who could participate on a regular basis.

The reason for students' low participation rates are believed to be, primarily, due to the large number of students in each classroom. Therefore, it is next to impossible to engage all students in every session. In addition, the application of oral presentations which prevents many students from uttering while others present on stage. Last, some students' extreme

shyness and anxiety can also be the reason why many students never or rarely spoke in the classroom.

Question Nine: If you chose never or rarely, what was the main reason of your lack of participation?

	N	%
Fear of making mistakes	26	56.1
Fear of being ridiculed	05	11.4
Having nothing to say	13	29.5
Total	44	100

Table 41: Main Reasons behind Students' Lack of Participation

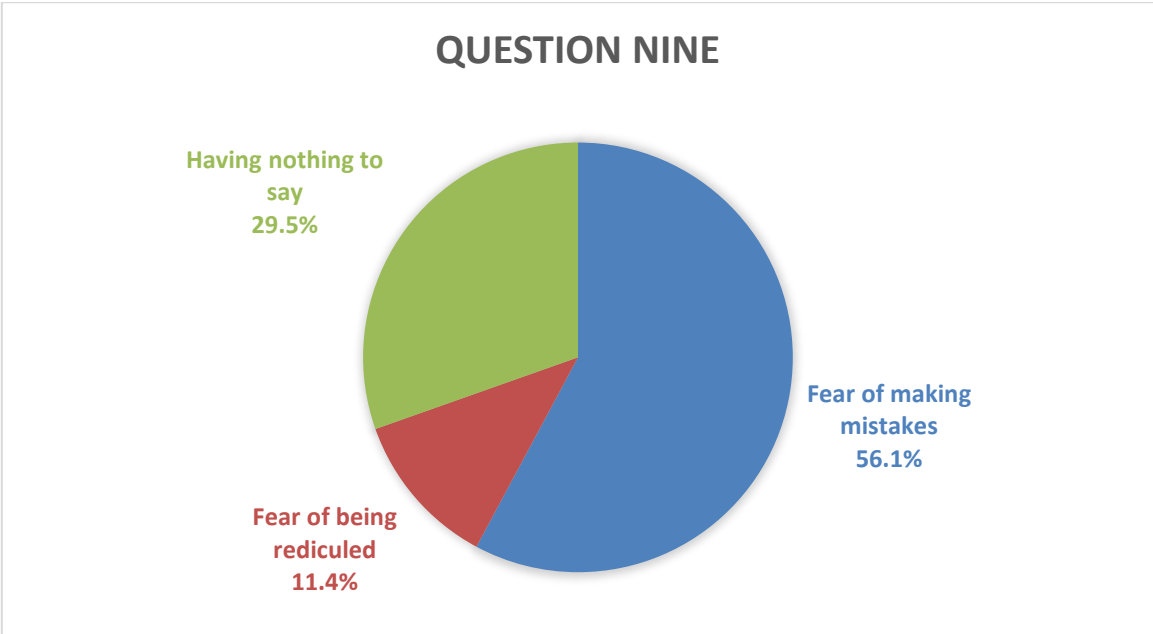


Figure 49: Main Reasons behind Students' Lack of Participation

The first main reason behind many students' severe lack of participation is their fear of making mistakes. The second major reason is that many of them (29.5%) claim they have nothing to add to the discussion. The last reason is their fear of being ridiculed either by classmates or even by the teacher.

Other reasons why students did not participate were that they had a nervous or passive teacher in addition to bad choice of topics. All this led many students to "hate the session"

and consider it "the worst ever". Besides, many students lack knowledge about the topics discussed, while others had ideas but could not express them. Last but not least, few students declared that they dislike conversations because they are unsociable people.

Question Ten: Based on the total number of students in the class, their number in each group presentation, the time given to each group to present, how much time did you get to present per year?

	N	%
5-15 minutes	45	45
15-30 minutes	35	35
30-45 minutes	14	14
45-60 minutes	04	04
+60 minutes	02	02
Total	100	100

Table 42: Amount of Time Students Got to Present per Year

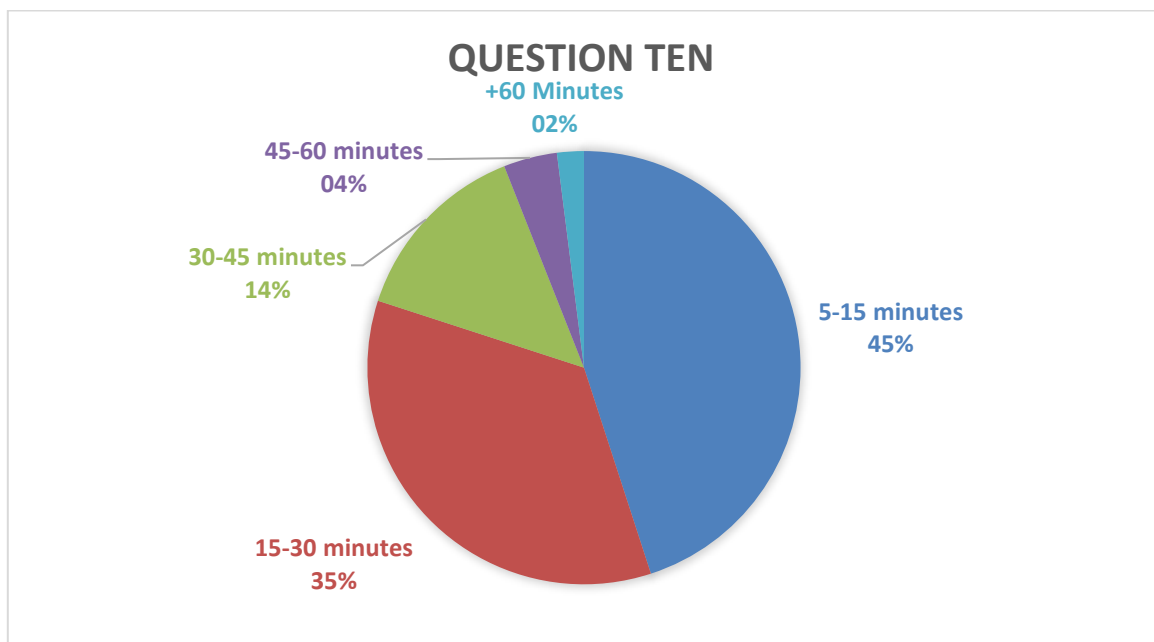


Figure 50: Amount of Time Students Got to Present per Year

Throughout an entire academic year, about half of the students (45%) got less than 15 minutes of presentation time. Besides, throughout the same period, more than a third of the students (35%) presented for less than half of an hour. The longest period is one hour per

year, and it was presented by only 02% of students. In short, the longer the duration is, the less students to present that duration are.

Question Eleven: In oral expression sessions, did you want/prefer to try other activities instead of presentations?

	N	%
Yes	86	86
No	14	14
Total	100	100

Table 43: Students' Desires to Practice Different Activities instead of Oral Presentations

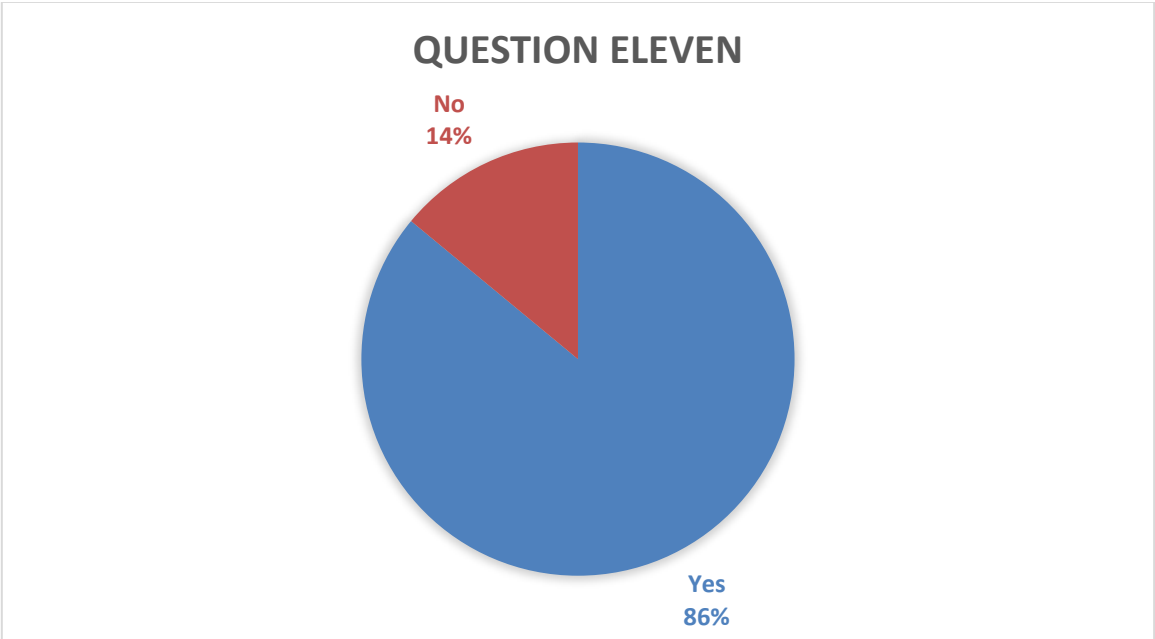


Figure 51: Students' Desires to Practice Different Activities instead of Oral Presentations

When it comes to students' motivation towards oral presentation, the great majority of them (86%) prefer(ed) to practice alternative activities instead. We believe the main reasons are that they got bored with it, or that they found little use in developing their speaking skill that way. However, few students (14%) said that they did not wish to try other activities as they enjoyed the presentations they delivered or attended.

Question Twelve: Do you like to work in groups so as to deliver a presentation?

	N	%
Yes	17	17
Somewhat	42	42
No	41	41
Total	100	100

Table 44: Students' Desire to Work in Groups to Deliver Presentations

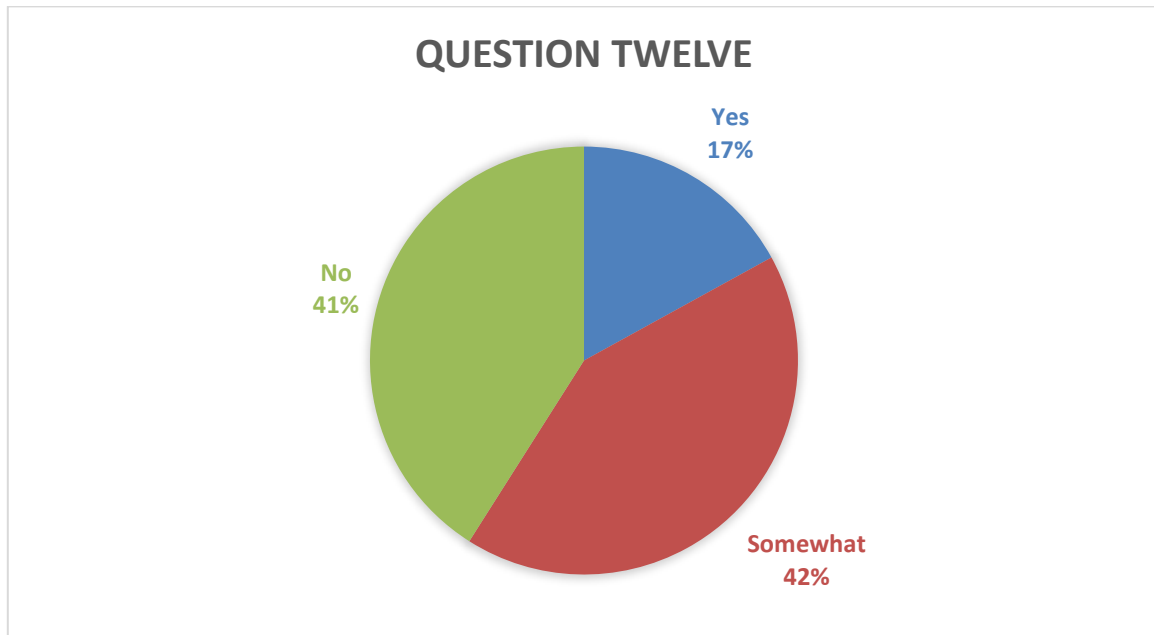


Figure 52: Students' Desire to Work in Groups to Deliver Presentations

Here is another question which reveals another negative impact oral presentations have on students' motivation. Only few students (17%) like to work in groups so as to prepare and deliver presentations. However, many students (42%) only *somewhat* like the idea. That is, they would rather not engage in such group work if they had the choice. A similar percentage (41%) completely dislike this type of cooperative work. The reasons for these results lie in the answers to the following questions.

Question Thirteen: Which method do/did you use when delivering your oral presentations?

	N	%
Reading from a script	26	26
Memorized speech	49	49
Speaking from notes	18	18
Speaking spontaneously	07	07
Total	100	100

Table 45: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations

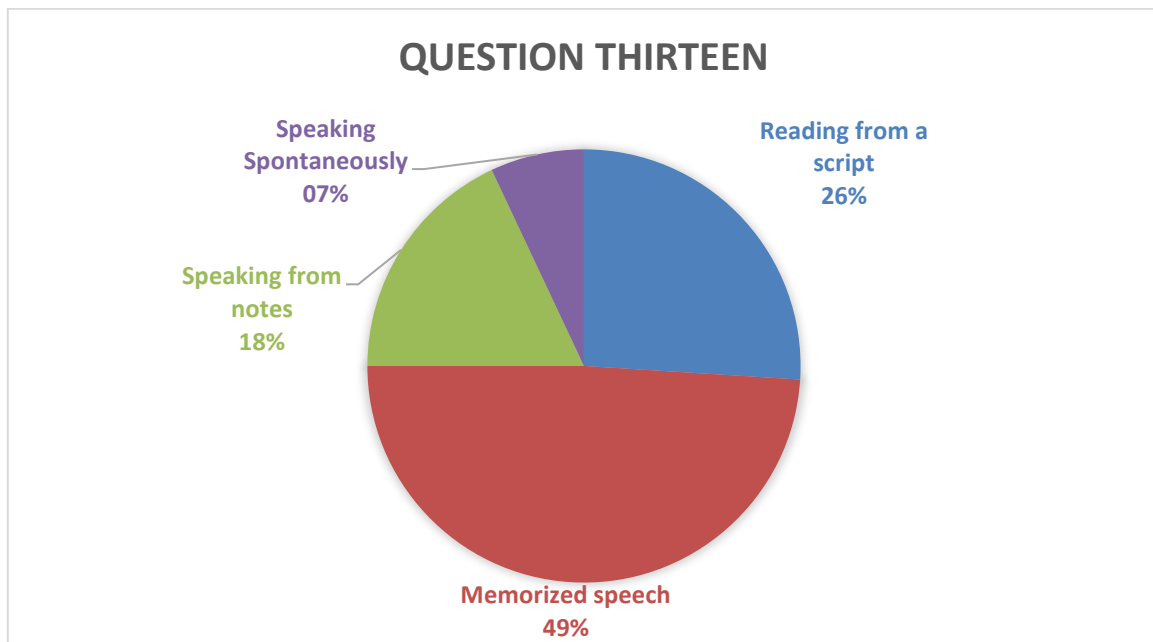


Figure 53: Students' Methods of Delivering Oral Presentations

It is believed that reading from a script and memorized speeches are two of the least professional methods of delivery. Not only that, but they also carry many disadvantages. However, students' results show that the great majority of them either read their presentations from papers (26%) or go on stage and speak from memory (49%). Nevertheless, more advanced methods are used only by minorities of students. For instance, speaking from notes is used only by 18%. Additionally, speaking spontaneously is said to be used by less than that, only by 07% of students.

As discussed in the teachers' questionnaire, most of them do not teach nor do they train students on how to use the different methods of delivery. Therefore, these results are a logical outcome of that lack or even absence of guidance and training.

Question Fourteen: Have you even been taught types of speeches and presentations, their methods of delivery, how to use body language and visual aids while presenting before?

	N	%
Yes	32	32
No	68	68
Total	100	100

Table 46: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Received from their Teachers

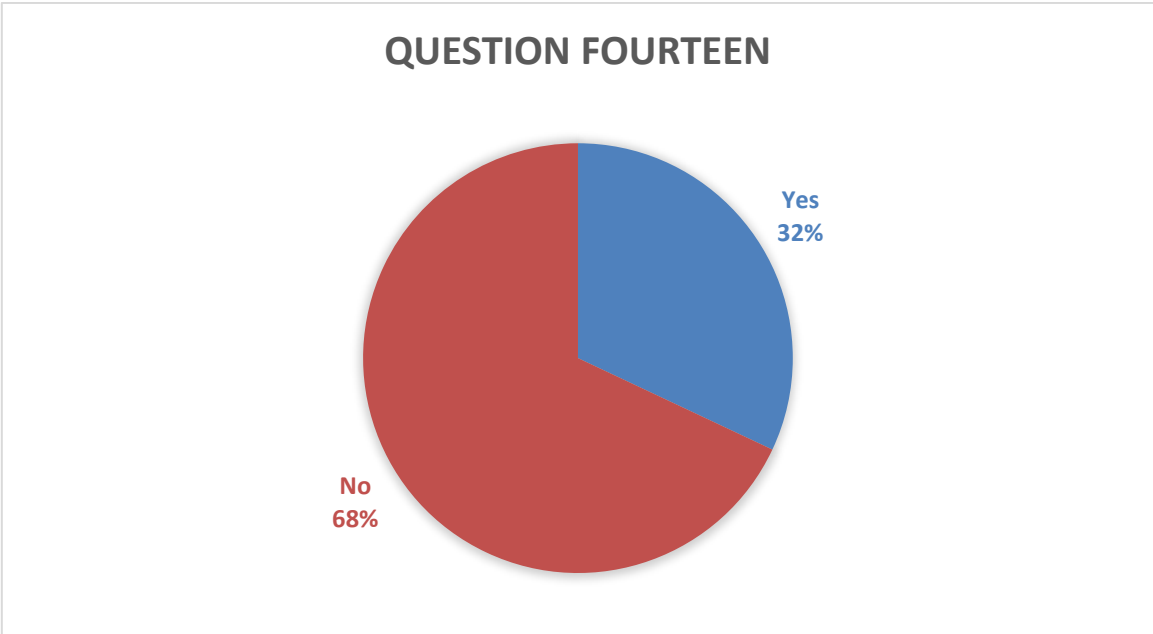


Figure 54: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Received from their Teachers

Students do not only lack knowledge and training about methods of delivery, but they also suffer from severe lack (in fact absence) of information about many other crucial public speaking techniques. Most of students (68%) have not been informed or trained on types of speeches, methods of delivery, how to use body language and visual aids effectively on the stage. Only few of them (32%) know about these important points.

It is not only students who say this, teachers' results confirm these findings as well. As found in the teachers' questionnaire, most teachers neither provide information nor do they know if students are aware of these points or not.

Question Fifteen: If not, did you know anything about that?

	N	%
Yes	11	16.1
Somewhat	38	55.9
No	19	28
Total	68	100

Table 47: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Obtained from other Sources

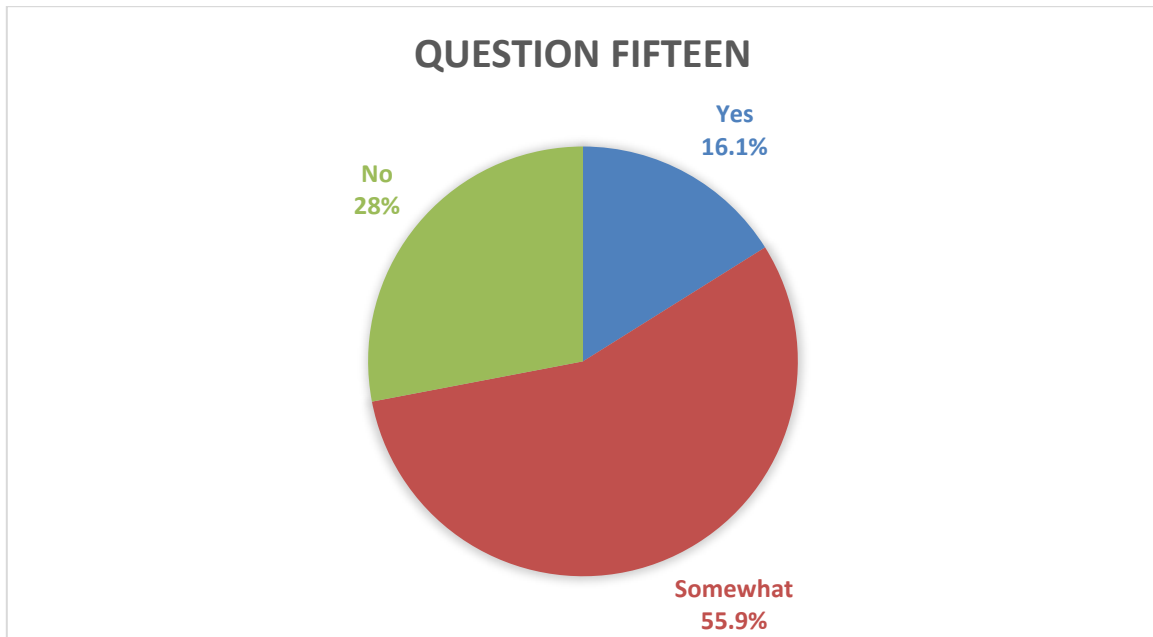


Figure 55: Students' Knowledge about Public Speaking Techniques Obtained from other Sources

As found in the teachers' questionnaire, most teachers do not teach about public speaking standards. Besides, they do not even know whether or not students are aware of that. Here, we confirmed that most students received neither instruction nor training on that, except for very few of them. Not only that, but also most students are, indeed, unaware of public speaking techniques due to lack of knowledge provided by teachers or obtained from outside resources.

Question Sixteen: If your answer was yes, where from did you learn that?

In this question, students reveal the sources from which they learned about public speaking techniques. The main source many students mentioned is the Internet, especially videos on YouTube. Besides, some students said that they learned how to present through imitating the way their teachers present lessons, and how their classmates deliver their presentations. Some other students said that they had special training courses for that, while few others said they acquired that knowledge from high school teachers of English or from personal readings.

What is found interesting in students' answers is that none of them has learned about public speaking standards from direct instruction provided by their teachers in the university, especially those of oral expression. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that public speaking techniques are not being taught in the university.

Question Seventeen: Has your teacher delivered a model oral presentation for you?

	N	%
Yes	23	23
No	77	77
Total	100	100

Table 48: Teachers' Delivery of Model Oral Presentations for their Students

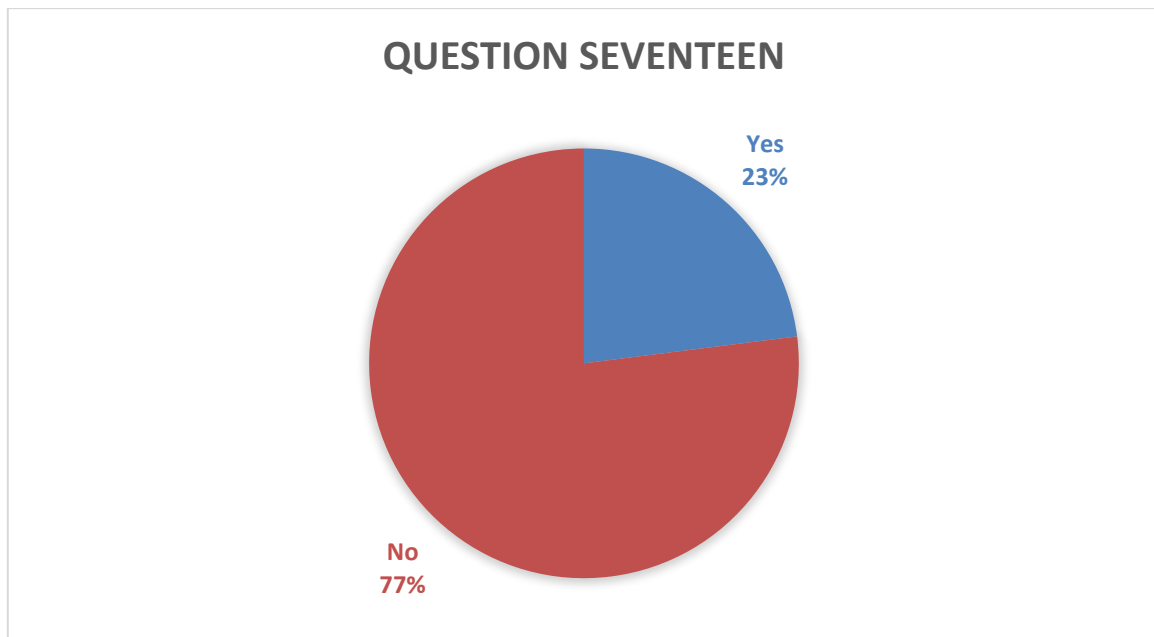


Figure 56: Teachers' Delivery of Model Oral Presentations for their Students

We believe that the least a teacher of oral expression can do to transmit knowledge about public speaking techniques is through delivering a model oral presentation him/herself. However, results show that more than three quarters (77%) of teachers have not done that. Only few teachers, less than a quarter, have gone on stage to show students how a speech is delivered². Therefore, it is fair to say that students' knowledge about public speaking is mostly acquired anyhow and anywhere but from their teachers in the university.

Question Eighteen: Which of the following problems face-d you in a group presentation?

- **Problem 1:** Fear and anxiety
- **Problem 2:** Misuse of visual aid
- **Problem 3:** There is too little time to prepare
- **Problem 4:** I find myself doing most of the job
- **Problem 5:** Bossy, greedy or difficult members
- **Problem 6:** I see no point of some or all presentations
- **Problem 7:** There is too little or too much information
- **Problem 8:** Conflicts about who is/are the decision maker(s)
- **Problem 9:** I do not like group work. I prefer to work alone better

² It is important to mention that most of these students have said that their teachers did not deliver an entire presentation. Instead, they just stood on the stage to show students how certain techniques are applied.

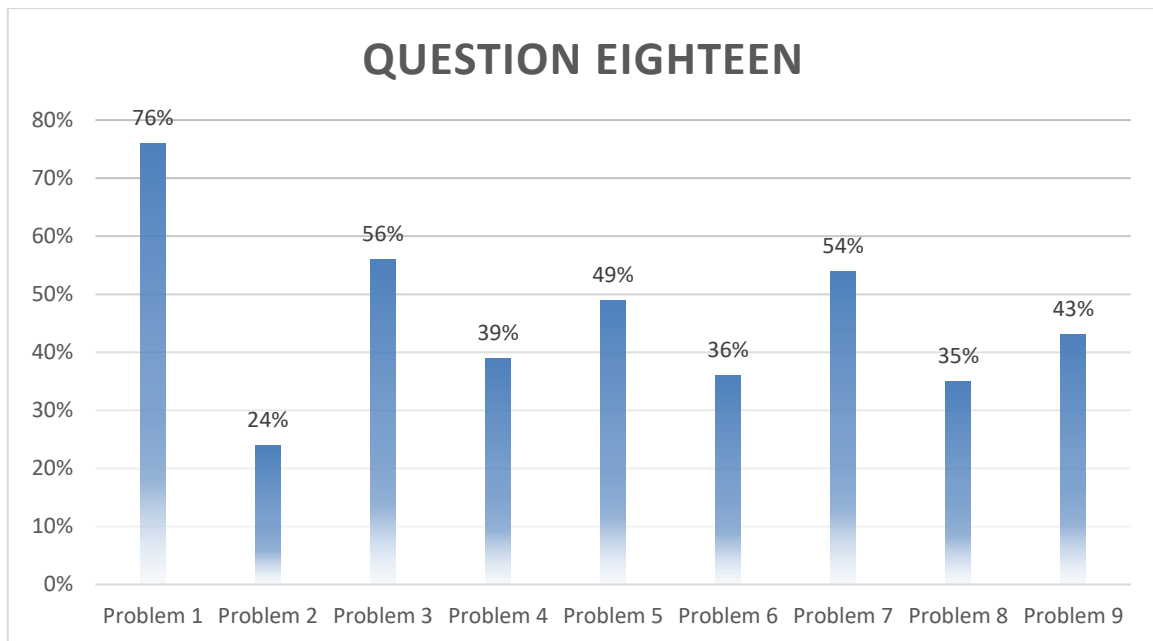


Figure 57: Problems Students Face-d When Working on Oral Presentations

In the process of working on and delivering oral presentations, students encounter many problems. The most common problem, as stated by teachers previously, is anxiety. The great majority of students (76%) suffer from stress before and during their presentations. The second main issue students have is with time management. Here, more than half of students (56%) find it insufficient for proper preparation of a decent speech. Moreover, almost an equal number of students (54%) have problems with resources. They find themselves either desperate for some information or drowned in too much of it. Among the other common problems are: dealing with difficult members, feeling uncomfortable working in groups; finding oneself doing most or all the work, having conflicts about who is/are the leader(s) of the group, and having problems with using visual aids.

Question Nineteen: How did these problems affect your motivation towards oral presentations?

	N	%
It decreased	44	44
They did not affect it	26	26
It increased	20	20
Total	100	100

Table 49: Effects of Problems' on Students' Motivation after Delivering Presentations

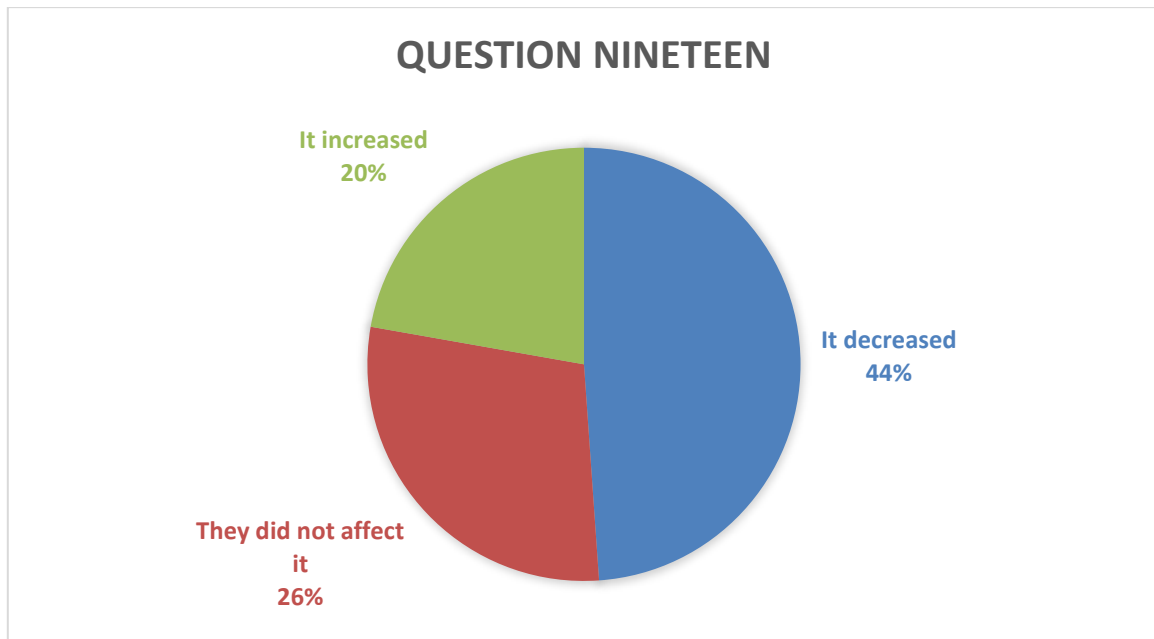


Figure 58: Effects of Problems' on Students' Motivation after Delivering Presentations

A logical consequence of the problems discussed above is to have a negative influence on students' motivation towards standing on the stage. About half of the students (49%) felt demotivated after going through all or some of those obstacles so as to deliver their oral presentations. Besides, a large number of students, about a third, said that these problems did not affect them. But this does not necessarily mean that their motivation was high in the first place. Perhaps they had a negative attitude about presentations already. The last group of students are a small number of students who are determined learners and eager to overcome all obstacles in order to fulfil their objectives. These students felt motivated even after going through those problems to deliver their presentation and perhaps they wanted to do it again too.

Question Twenty: Which of the following skills have you actually developed from working on and delivering oral presentations?

- **Skill 1:** I developed group work techniques and strategies
- **Skill 2:** I am prepared for the workplace and professional life
- **Skill 3:** I learnt to use body language, voice and visual aids better
- **Skill 4:** I gained higher marks because I can speak better than I write
- **Skill 5:** I really enjoyed presenting and feel motivated to do it again and again
- **Skill 6:** I developed my communication skills as well as knowledge at the same time
- **Skill 7:** I learned new information from the presentations of my friends as well as mine
- **Skill 8:** I built a stronger personality and my self-confidence to speak to a crowd increased
- **Skill 9:** I developed my social life (i.e. friends) and I created a sense of belonging to a group

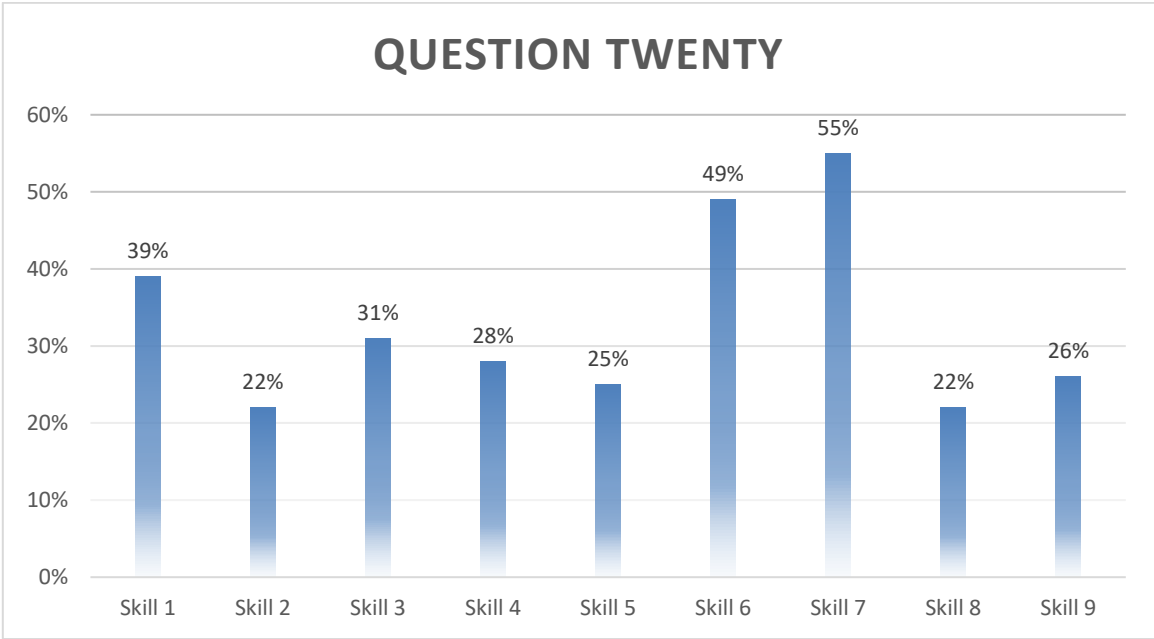


Figure 59: Skills Developed from Delivering Oral Presentations

In this question, we wanted to shed light on the advantages of delivering oral presentations. In the figure above, more than half of the students (55%) said that they gained some knowledge both from the presentations they delivered and the ones they attended. Moreover, about the same number (49%) said that their communication skills improved thanks to this activity. Besides, while working in group presentations, many students (39%)

said that they developed team work techniques, in addition to few other benefits. However, we cannot help but notice that two of the major skills oral presentations are said to develop have the least results in the figure above. Only 31% of students said that they developed their presentation techniques (body language, voice, etc.), and less students (22%) said that their self-confidence improved after presenting.

Question Twenty-one: Does/did the routine of oral presentations cause you to get bored of the session?

	N	%
Yes	51	51
Somewhat	38	38
No	11	11
Total	100	100

Table 50: Students' Motivation towards the Session during Oral presentations

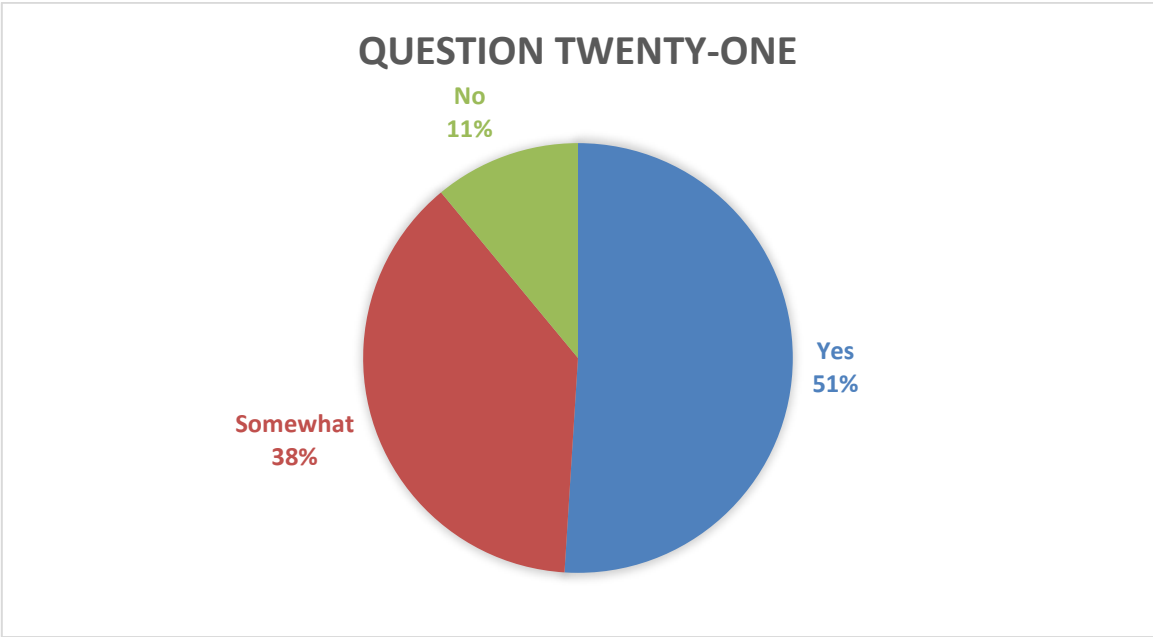


Figure 60: Students' Motivation towards the Session during Oral Presentations

Once again, students' answers come in perfect harmony with those of the teachers. Here, too, only a small minority of students (11%) are highly motivated to attend a number of continuous presentations without feeling demotivated or bored. However, a larger number

(38%) are only *somewhat* motivated to attend such sessions, and approximately half of students (51%) said that attending several presentation does make them loose interest in the session, indeed.

Question Twenty-two: In your opinion, how similar is real-life interaction to the presentations you do in the classroom?

	N	%
Identical	00	00
Very similar	06	06
Somewhat similar	21	21
Somewhat different	11	11
Very different	38	38
Completely different	24	24
Total	100	100

Table 51: Comparing Oral Presentations to Real-life Interactions

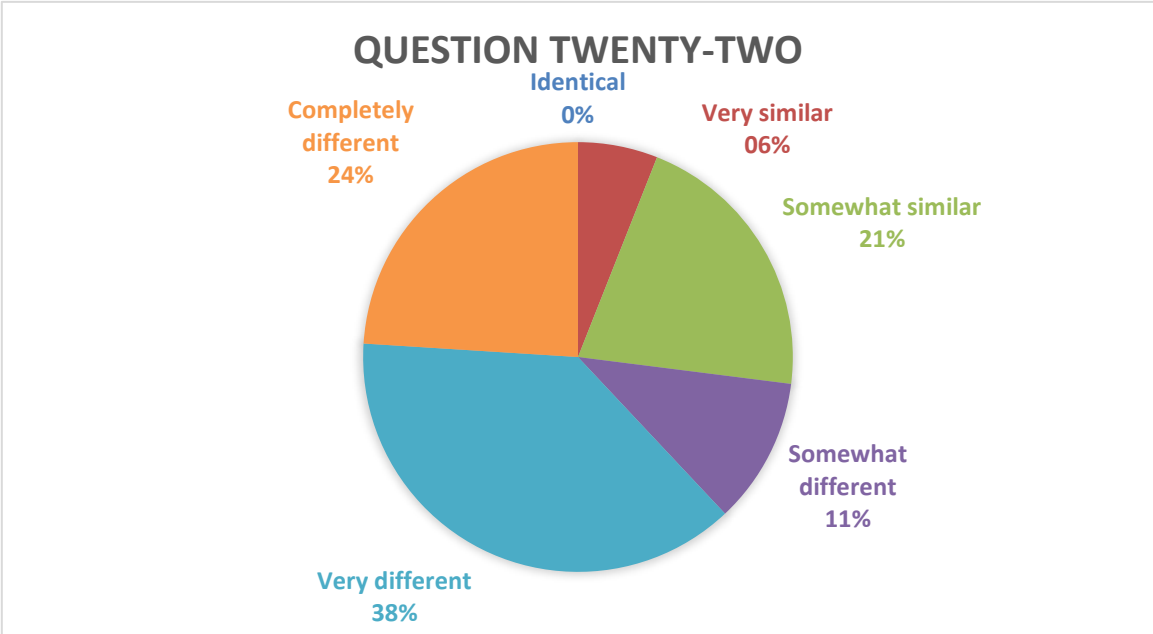


Figure 61: Comparing Oral Presentations to Real-life Interactions

Not only teachers realize the wide gap between real-life natural interaction and classroom prepared oral presentations. Most students, too, share the same opinion. Here, it is found that more than a third of students (38%) see that the two activities are very different. Besides, about a quarter of them (24%) see that oral presentations have nothing in common

with everyday interaction. Besides, many students (21%) believe that these two practices are *somewhat* similar (i.e. mostly different). However, only few students see it from a different angle. Eleven per cent of students think that oral presentations and everyday talk are *somewhat* different (i.e. mostly similar). Furthermore, fewer students (06%) see that they are very similar.

Question Twenty-three: Do you think oral presentations provide enough time to improve your speaking skill?

	N	%
Yes	20	20
Somewhat	27	27
No	53	53
Total	100	100

Table 52: Sufficiency of Time Oral Presentations Provide for Improving Students’ Speaking Skill

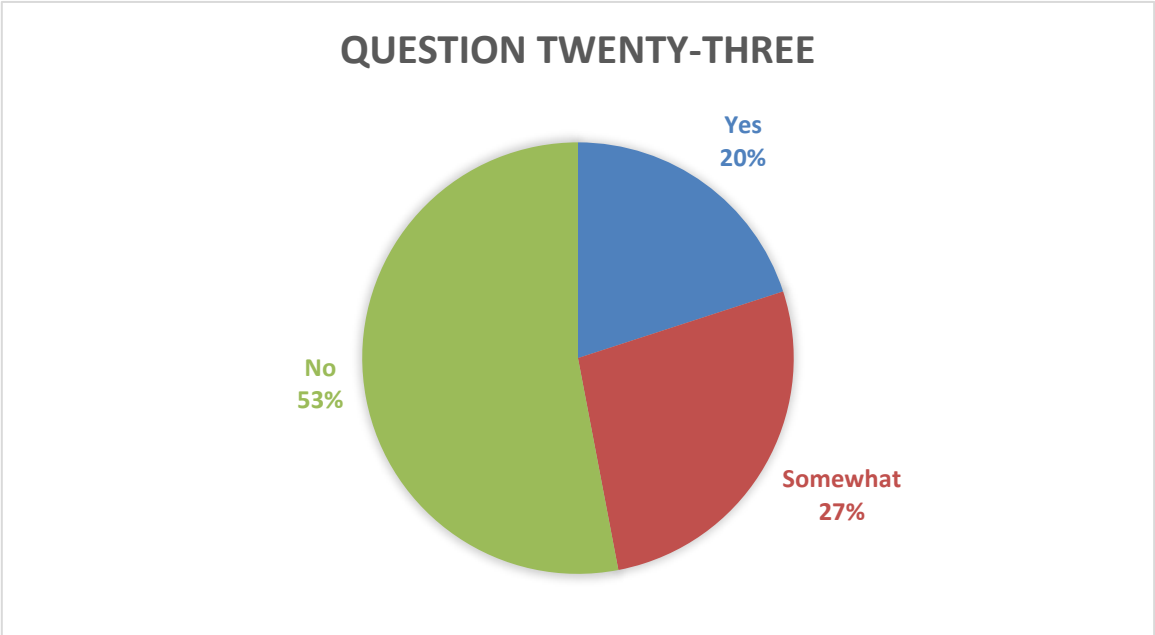


Figure 62: Sufficiency of Time Oral Presentations Provide for Improving Students’ Speaking Skill

Less than a quarter of students (20%) think that the amount of time they go on stage to deliver their speeches is enough to develop their speaking abilities. Nevertheless, similar to teachers' opinions, many students believe that that duration is not really sufficient to

enhance their speaking skill to the desired level. Besides, more than half of the students (53%) find those 15 minutes or so not adequate at all to make a difference, a positive one, in the way they speak. Therefore, it can be fairly said that the general opinion of both teachers and students is that the amount of time oral presentations provide is not enough to enhance students' speaking skill.

Question Twenty-four: If you answered yes or somewhat, to what extent have the oral presentations you made improved your speaking skill?

	N	%
Very much	03	06.4
A little	36	76.6
Not at all	08	17
Total	47	100

Table 53: Extent to which Oral Presentations Improved Students' Speaking Skill

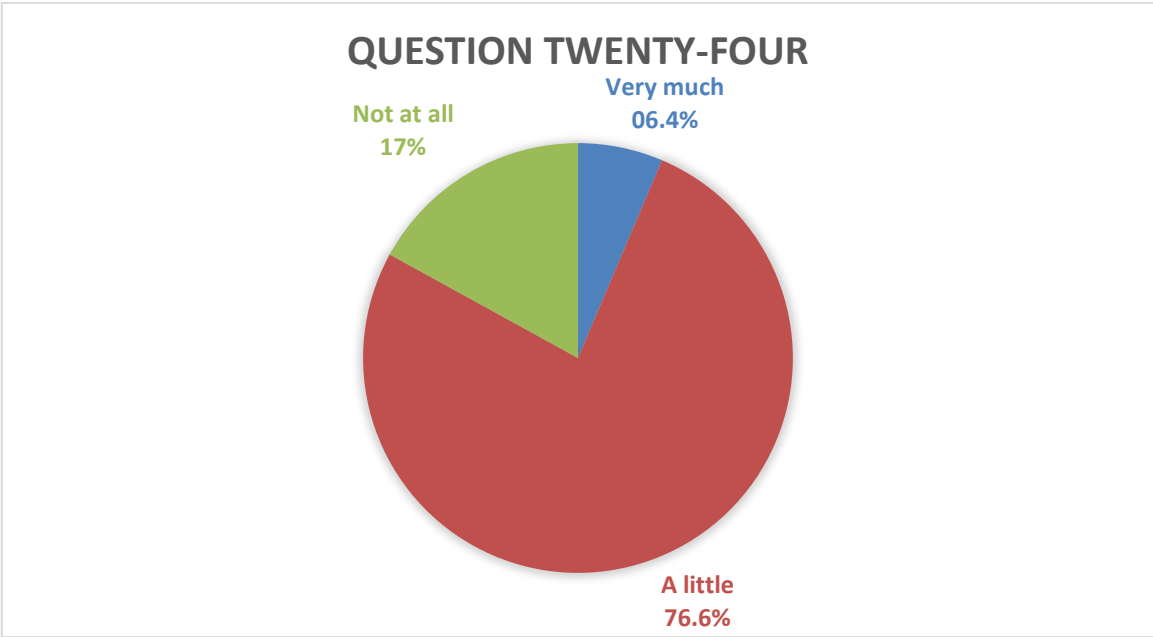


Figure 63: Extent to which Oral Presentations Improved Students' Speaking Skill

Not only a small number of students think that oral presentations provide enough time to develop their speaking skill, but also even most of those students themselves (76.6%) admit in the figure above that this classroom activity did not improve much the way they

speak, while some others (17%) said that it did not improve their level at all. Perhaps, this is due to the short duration they went on stage. Moreover, very few ones (06.4%) have said that delivering oral presentations improved their speaking abilities to a remarkable extent.

Question Twenty-five: To which degree do you believe oral presentations can train and prepare you for accurate, fluent and proper real-life interaction?

	N	%
Not at all	15	15
Very little	36	36
A bit	28	28
Much	14	14
Very much	07	07
Total	100	100

Table 54: Extent to which Oral Presentations Can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction

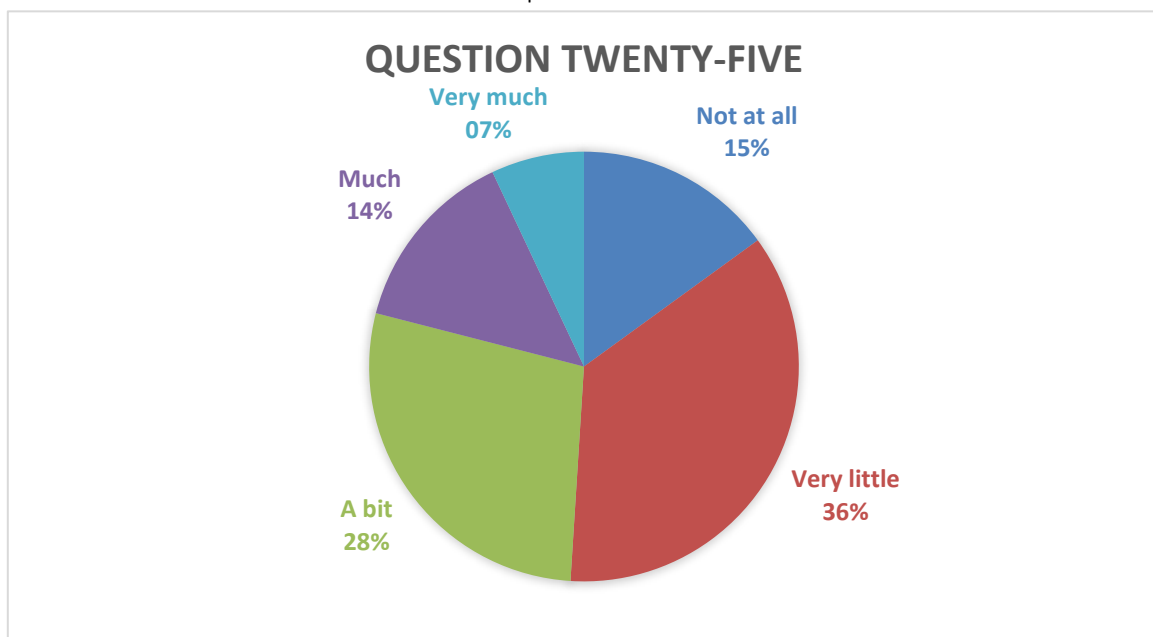


Figure 64: Extent to which Oral Presentations Can Train and Prepare Students for Accurate, Fluent and Proper Real-life Interaction

CLT classroom activities should prepare and train learners for both accurate and fluent real-life talks. However, according to two thirds or so of students, oral presentations can only provide either *very little* (36%) or *a bit* (28%) of training to help them reach that goal. In addition, many students (15%) believe that this classroom activity cannot help them attain

that objective. Only 14% of students think that going on stage to deliver their presentations can *much* help them learn how to speak accurately, fluently and properly. Fewer students (07%) see that doing so can provide *very much* of a push to achieve the desired aim.

Question Twenty-six: Are you motivated to study and learn English?

	N	%
Yes	75	75
Somewhat	20	20
No	05	05
Total	100	100

Table 55: Students' Motivation towards Studying and Learning English

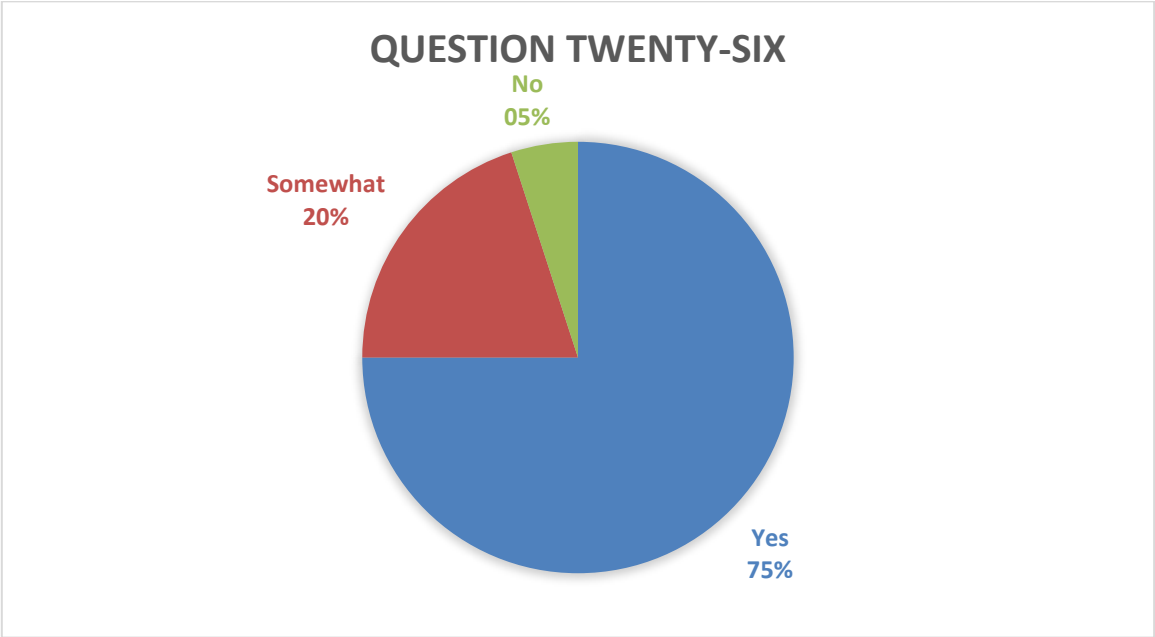


Figure 65: Students' Motivation towards Studying and Learning English

As discussed in the third chapter of this thesis, motivation is a crucial factor in language learning. Therefore, in this last section of the questionnaire, we wanted to know about students' motivation. Here, in this question, results show that three quarters of students are motivated to study and learn English. Besides, the figure above shows that 20% of students are *somewhat* motivated for that. Only very few students (05%) said that they do not feel motivated to learn the language.

From our oral discussions with those students, they explained their state by saying that they actually wanted to study different specialties like mathematics, medicine and so forth; but their general average in the Bacallaureate exam was insufficient to study those branches.

Question Twenty-seven: What are the sources of your motivation to study and learn English?

	N	%
Society	14	14
Close people	26	26
Teachers	30	30
Educational system / method	10	10
Unanswered	20	20
Total	100	100

Table 56: Students' Sources of Motivation to Study and Learn English

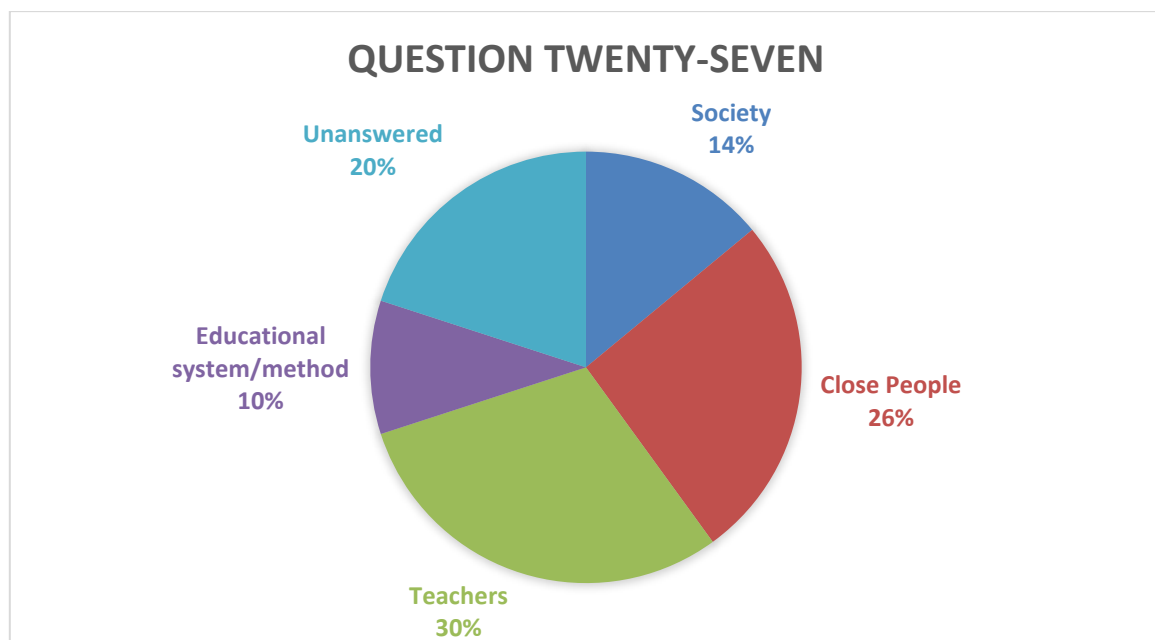


Figure 66: Students' Sources of Motivation to Study and Learn English

Sources of motivation to learn a language differ from one student to another. Here, the main source of many students' motivation (30%) to study and learn English is their teachers, either in the university or former ones. The second main reason why many other students (26%) are pursuing their higher studies in the English department is because of their close people (e.g.: parents, siblings, spouses, relatives, friends, etc.). Thirdly, there is society which

motivates 14% of students to study and learn the language. Last, 10% of students find themselves motivated to learn English because of the educational system in general and different activities practiced in the classroom in particular.

Among the other sources of motivation students mentioned are their love for the English language. Others have said that they are motivated to study it in order to achieve their future goals and have a decent job and a successful career. Others have said that communication with other people, especially native speakers, motivates them to go in this path of learning English.

Question Twenty-eight: How motivating do you find oral presentations to attend oral expression sessions?

	N	%
Not motivating at all	39	39
Slightly motivating	35	35
Very motivating	18	18
Extremely motivating	08	08
Total	100	100

Table 57: Students' Motivation towards Attending Oral Presentations



Figure 67: Students' Motivation towards Attending Oral Presentations

This question is one of the main axes of this research. The results obtained above are alarming. Only very few students (09%) find oral presentations a source of a great deal of motivation to attend the speaking class. Additionally, a small number of students (20%) are *very much* motivated to take part in the oral expression session because of this activity. However, about a third of students (28%) find a slight degree of motivation to attend and participate in the class because of it. Besides, almost half of the students (43%) are *not motivated* and they feel no desire whatsoever to come witness other colleagues deliver their presentations.

In fact, we believe that these results are very much expected because of the different negative points this strategy has and which we have gone through in the discussion of the questions above, both in the teachers' questionnaire and that of students. For instance, oral presentations are among the least effective speaking activities in developing students' speaking skill; yet it is the most frequently applied one. They provide very little time for individuals to go on the stage to present. Therefore, it is not enough time to help them

develop their speaking skill. They also do not teach students language function well, and they are far from real-life interaction. Not only that, but they also involve many problems during the preparation phase and presentation one. All these issues and more, logically, lead students to be demotivated towards the speaking session, especially a session that uses a great deal of presentations.

Question Twenty-nine: How did the course of oral expression sessions you have studied affect your motivation to the subject of oral expression?

	N	%
It decreased it	07	07
It did not affect it	16	16
It increased it	77	77
Total	100	100

Table 58: Students' Motivation towards the Oral Expression Session in the Intermediate Phase

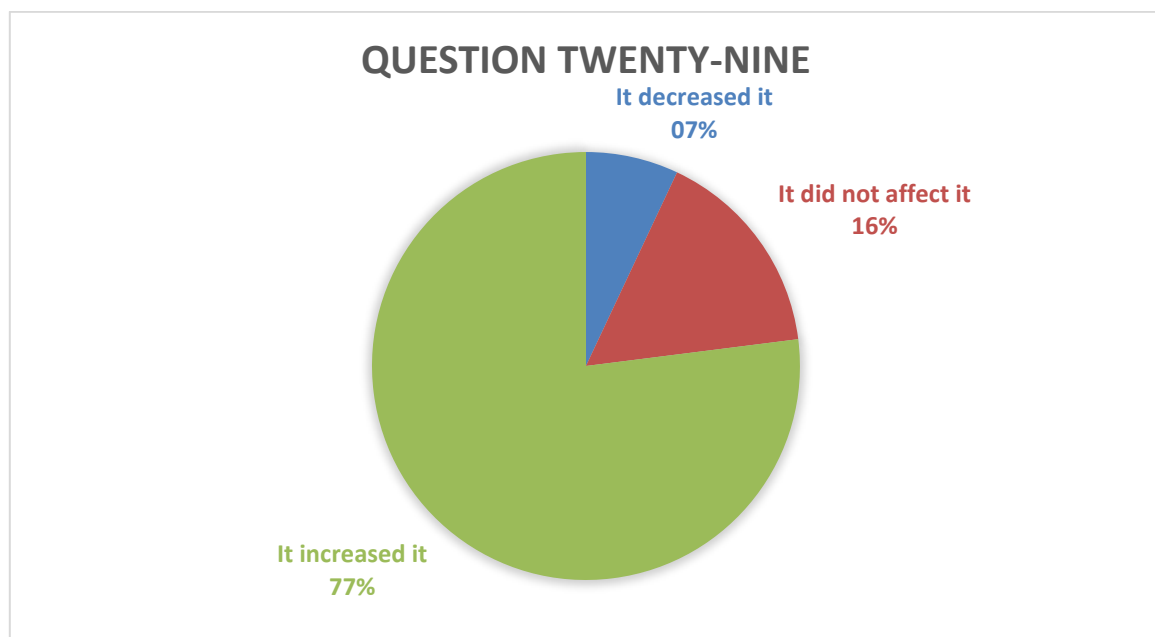


Figure 68: Students' Motivation towards the Oral Expression Session in the Intermediate Phase

In the teachers' questionnaire, most of them said that using alternative classroom techniques would increase students' motivation to attend and participate in the oral expression session. Indeed, results come to validate their general opinion. Here, the great

majority of students (77%) said that their motivation increased when they were subjected to the alternative course (yet to be described). Only some students (16%) said that the course did not affect their motivation, which does not necessarily mean it was low in the first place, and only 07% said that their motivation decreased.

Question Thirty: How do you think the course of oral expression sessions you have studied affected the level of your speaking performance?

	N	%
It lowered it	06	06
It did not affect it	20	20
It enhanced it	74	74
Total	100	100

Table 59: Students' Self-assessment of their Speaking Skill after the Intermediate Phase

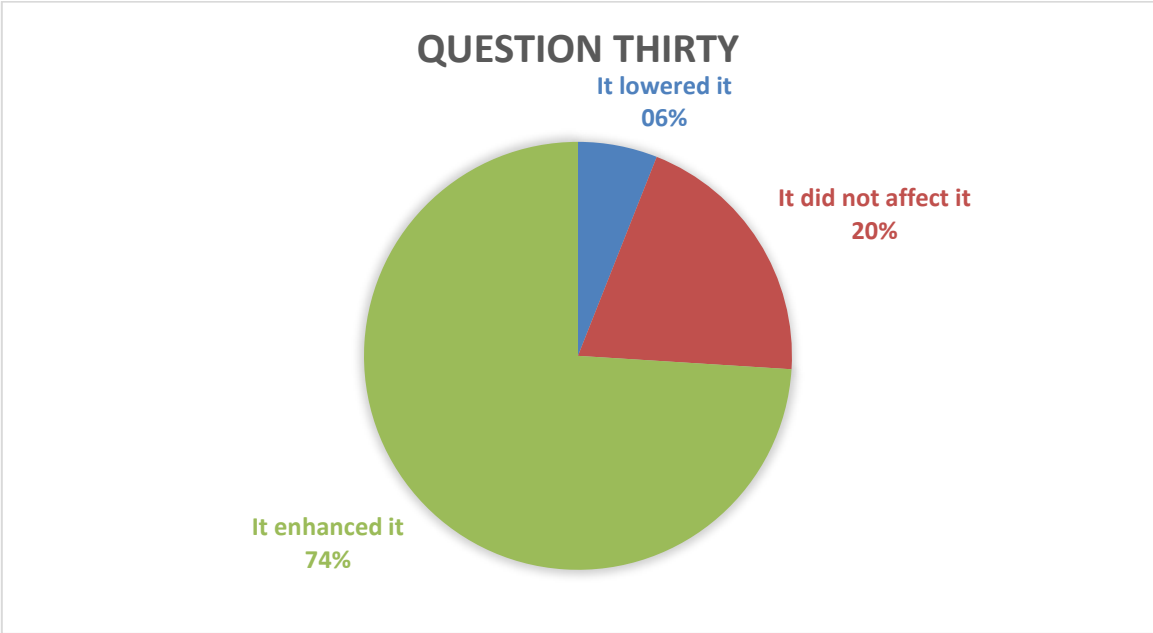


Figure 69: Students' Self-assessment of their Speaking Skill after the Intermediate Phase

Similar to the previous question, only very few students (06%) see that their speaking abilities degraded after the course. Moreover, some students (20%) think that their level remained the same as before. However, most students (74%) believe that their speaking skill improved after they have been subjected to the intermediate phase.

It is important to mention that students' self-assessment of their speaking skill after the course cannot be taken for granted. It can only be taken as a sign of development, but the actual statistics of the test will either confirm or deny this pre-assumption.

4.2.4. Synthesis of the Results

After discussing the students' results above, we can synthesize the following:

- ❖ Most of students give great importance and priority to productive language skills (speaking and writing) and ignore receptive ones (listening and reading).
- ❖ The vast majority of students are poor to average speakers of English, and the main reason of their level is lack of practice.
- ❖ Oral presentations are the least interesting classroom activity for students, yet they were the most frequently applied ones previously.
- ❖ Many students do not participate in the speaking class as often as they can because of their fear of making mistakes and being ridiculed and laughed at consequently.
- ❖ The vast majority of students presented for less than 15 minutes in the previous year(s), and they believe that that duration was not enough at all to develop their speaking skill.
- ❖ Students have not been taught nor they have been trained on public speaking techniques, and most of them know nothing about that. Even the few ones who know, they learned it from personal readings and research.
- ❖ Presenting, especially in groups, involves many problems, mainly anxiety, which have deep negative consequences on students' motivation towards the practice in particular and the speaking class in general. This leads them to get bored of the session and prefer to practice different activities instead of oral presentations
- ❖ In fact, delivering oral presentations can help some students develop certain skills.

- ❖ Most students see no/little resemblance between oral presentation and the fluency of real-life interaction. This belief is based on the fact that presenting did no/very little help to enhance their speaking abilities.
- ❖ According to students' opinions and self-assessment, the course of the speaking activities to which they have been subjected throughout the academic year has remarkably increased their motivation to the session and significantly enhanced the level of their speaking abilities.

4.3. Synthesis of the Results of the Questionnaires

After discussing the results of both the teachers' and the students' questionnaires, we can synthesize the following common alarming findings between the two:

- ✚ Oral presentations are not only the least effective activity in developing students' speaking skill, but also the least desired one by students. However, it is the most prevailing classroom activity as it takes all, most or at least half of the course.
- ✚ Most students have poor to average speaking abilities and it is mainly because of their lack of practice.
- ✚ Only very few members participate actively and regularly in the speaking session. The rest are anxious and scared of making mistakes.
- ✚ Students' oral presentations are the least accurate method of assessment of their speaking performance.
- ✚ Most students get less than 30 minutes per year of presentation time. This short duration is not enough at all to develop their speaking skill, especially with absence/lack of other auxiliary classroom speaking activities.

- ✚ The vast majority of students either read their speeches from paper or deliver them from memory. Besides, most of them know nothing or very little about other important public speaking techniques. This is all because of lack of knowledge and training provided by teachers of the subject.
- ✚ Oral presentations involve students in many problems and conflicts that negatively affect their motivation towards the activity in particular and the speaking class in general. Not only that, but they also bore students out of the session, which occasionally leads them to make noise, and often makes them feel a strong desire to practice other activities instead.
- ✚ This classroom activity develops only few skills and teaches some language functions, but to a very limited extent.
- ✚ Oral presentations are very far from natural, fluent and spontaneous real-life interaction. Hence, they do very little help developing students speaking skill and training them for actual everyday communication.
- ✚ In contrast with presentations-only classes, students are highly motivated to attend and participate in classes in which other speaking activities are applied.
- ✚ According to most students' answers, the course to which we have subjected them has greatly increased their motivation to the speaking class and enhanced their speaking skill.

Conclusion

This chapter has been concerned with the analysis and discussion of both the teachers' and the students' opinions about the influence of the classroom practice in concern on the students' motivation to achieve a fluent speaking performance. By the two means of research used in this chapter (a teachers' questionnaire and that of students), it has been shown that both groups agree on a number of points regarding oral presentations. The most important agreements to mention here are that oral presentations are the least preferable classroom

practice despite their common application. Also, this activity provides very little time for the practice of the target language in the classroom. Not only that, but it is also a cause of different problems. But the most important results are that oral presentations are far from natural everyday communication and that they demotivate students and make them desire to practice other classroom speaking activities; the alternative course to which they were subjected.

Chapter Five: The Students' Performance in the Test Measuring the Impact of Classroom Presentations and the Alternative Course on their Motivation for Fluent Speaking Performance

Introduction	194
5.1.The Students' Tests	194
5.1.1. Test One: Measuring the Effectiveness of Oral Presentations in Developing Students' Speaking Skill	194
5.1.1.1. Description of the Test Population	194
5.1.1.2. Description of the Test	195
5.1.1.3. Discussion and Analysis of the Results	196
5.1.2. Test Two: Measuring the Effectiveness of the Alternative Course in Developing Students' Speaking Skill	200
5.1.2.1. The Students' Pre-Test	200
5.1.2.1.1. Description of the Test Population	200
5.1.2.1.2. Description of the Pre-test	200
5.1.2.1.3. Discussion of the Results	201
5.1.2.2. The Intermediate Phase	204
5.1.2.2.1. Tell Me More	205
5.1.2.2.2. Story Telling	206
5.1.2.2.3. Develop, Act and Impress	207
5.1.2.2.4. Vocabulary Expansion	207
5.1.2.2.5. It's Hard for Everyone	208
5.1.2.2.6. Act it Out	209
5.1.2.2.7. Discussion Games	210

5.1.2.2.8.	Match it Up	211
5.1.2.2.9.	Free Role-plays	212
5.1.2.3.	The Students' Post-Test	213
5.1.2.3.1.	Description of the Post-test	213
5.1.2.3.2.	Discussion and Analysis of the Results	213
5.1.3.	Synthesis of the Two Tests' Results	223
5.2.	Final Discussion	224
	Pedagogical Recommendations	225
	Conclusion	228

Introduction

In order to measure the effectiveness of classroom presentations and their impact on students' motivation for fluent speaking performance, and so as to test the validity of the third and fourth hypotheses of this research, it is more reliable to use a research method that can statistically measure the effectiveness of oral presentation in developing students' speaking skill and that of the alternative course. By obtaining statistical data, it is possible to compare the findings and conclude which classroom practice works best. Therefore, a students' test was used where a control group and a test are pre-tested, group go through an intermediate phase and then are post-tested to measure the difference in their performances. The following sub-titles present information about where the test took place, the students involved in it, information about the intermediate phase, and comparison and discussion of the results.

5.1. The Students' Tests

5.1.1. Test One: Measuring the Effectiveness of Oral Presentations in Developing Students' Speaking Skill

5.1.1.1. Description of the Test Population

In the academic year 2016-2017, a group of 105 second-year students were chosen to be the subject of our test. We have taken this group particularly, first, because we knew it was going to be taught oral expression using only oral presentations for the entire year. Another reason for taking this group from this level is that in the second test we carried out, we also had a group of second-year students. Therefore, we believed the best thing is carry out both of the tests with students in the same level so that the comparison between the performance of the two groups at the end of the two experiments becomes logical and fair.

5.1.1.2. Description of the Test

The students' test took place in two parts: a pre-test and a post-test. First, the pre-test took place in the very first session with the students. They took turns to make the test which was in the form of one-to-one conversation with the teacher about everyday topics. For instance, students were asked to introduce themselves; talk about their favorite high school subjects or teachers; their most memorable moments in high school; what they expected university life to be like and how they found it; the best and worst things about studying English in the university, their future dreams and goals, and so forth.

We believe these topics are the most suitable things a teacher can talk about with a student on their first meeting. We tried to avoid asking about and discussing personal issues as that might cause some discomfort among newly met students. In short, these topics are believed to be context appropriate.

It is important to mention that students were given the freedom to speak as long as they wanted. That is, they were not pushed to speak more when they could not, nor they were stopped before they finished speaking. This is because we wanted to ensure they felt at ease so as to make their performance as natural as possible.

As mentioned in the theoretical chapters, teachers often focus on different points in their assessment of students' speaking performance. Here, too, we concentrated on five elements of students' speech: vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency and appropriateness.

The post-test, on the other hand, took place at the end of the same academic year. Like in the pre-test, students took turns to answer some questions in the form of a short

discussion with the teacher. However, this time the topics were not exactly like in the pre-test. Here, students talked about some everyday topics such as their families and friends; their favorite movies, movie stars, singers, actors, etc.; their happiest or saddest moments in life; their life-changing decisions; their greatest accomplishments and so forth.

5.1.1.3. Discussion and Analysis of the Results

Statistically speaking, measuring the effectiveness of oral presentations on students' speaking skill takes the form of a paired T-test or what is often called dependent T-test. In this, the average performance (i.e. the mean) of students in the pre-test is compared to that of the post-test to check whether or not there has been a significant improvement to either confirm or deny the hypothesis.

Firstly, we set up the two hypotheses:

- ✚ $H_0: u_d = 0$ (the null hypothesis: the mean of the pre-test is equal to the mean of post-test. That is, there is zero difference between the two means. In other words, there is no significant difference between students' performance in the pre-test and post-test).
- ✚ $H_1: U_d \neq 0$ (the alternative hypothesis: there is a significant difference between the two means.)

In the following table, students' performance in the pre-test and post-test is shown in the form of the marks they got in each test

Subject	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference (D)	D ²
1	13	10	-3	09
2	16	13	-3	09
3	15	14	-1	01
4	15	13	-2	04
5	13	10	-3	09
6	13	10	-3	09
7	18	15.5	-2.5	06.25

8	17	16.5	-0.5	0.25
9	15	09	-6	36
10	15	14	-1	01
11	18	17.5	-0.5	0.25
12	13	15	2	04
13	13	08	-5	25
14	13	12	-1	01
15	10	11	1	01
16	18	18	0	00
17	16	14.5	-1.5	02.25
18	13	08	-5	25
19	10	12	2	04
20	13	12	-1	01
21	12	10	-2	04
22	13	14.5	1.5	02.25
23	12	10	-2	04
24	13	10	-3	09
25	12	10	-2	04
26	12	10	-2	04
27	12	10	-2	04
28	12	10	-2	04
29	17	16	-1	01
30	12	11	-1	01
31	12	10	-2	04
32	12	10	-2	04
33	18	17.5	-0.5	0.25
34	17	17	0	00
35	11	08	-3	09
36	05	07	2	04
37	16	12	-4	16
38	14	10	-4	16
39	17	17	0	00
40	13	12	-1	01
41	10	11	1	01
42	06	08	2	04
43	08	10	2	04
44	14	13	-1	01
45	08	08	0	00
46	14	11	-3	09
47	08	10	2	04
48	14	12	-2	04
49	13	11	-2	04
50	13	11	-2	04
51	06	11	5	25
52	10	10	0	00
53	13	12	-1	01

54	12	11	-1	01
55	13	12	-1	01
56	07	08	1	01
57	06	08	2	04
58	03	10	7	49
59	06	08	2	04
60	13	12	-1	01
61	10	10	0	00
62	13	11	-2	04
63	06	08	2	04
64	05	11	6	36
65	10	06	-4	16
66	05	07	2	04
67	13	12	-1	01
68	13	12	-1	01
69	07	11	4	16
70	08	07	-1	01
71	05	08	3	09
72	08	08	0	00
73	14	12	-2	04
74	12	11	-1	01
75	04	12	8	64
76	05	09	4	16
77	07	07	0	00
78	04	08	4	16
79	14	12	-2	04
80	06	12	6	36
81	03	04	1	01
82	07	08	1	01
83	05	09	4	16
84	07	12	5	25
85	05	07	2	04
86	08	10	2	04
87	12	11	-1	01
88	11	11	0	00
89	12	12	0	00
90	06	10	4	16
91	12	09	-3	09
92	10	12	2	04
93	03	09	6	36
94	04	08	4	16
95	07	05	-2	04
96	09	08	-1	01
97	05	06	1	01
98	12	12	0	00
99	04	10	6	36

100	14	13	-1	01
101	11	11	0	00
102	10	08	-2	04
103	12	10	-2	04
104	05	12	7	49
105	14	12	-2	04
	$\bar{X}_1 = 10.69$	$\bar{X}_2 = 10.71$	$\sum D = 02$	$\sum D^2 = 831.5$

Table 60: Results of the Control Group of Students in the Pre-test and Post-test

We have the T-test formula below which is used to calculate the T_{stat}

$$T_{stat} = \frac{\sum D}{\sqrt{\frac{(N \sum D^2) - (\sum D)^2}{N-1}}}$$

By taking the values obtained and inputting them in the formula, we find:

$$T_{stat} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\frac{(105 \times 831.5) - (2)^2}{105-1}}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\frac{87307.5-4}{104}}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\frac{87303.5}{104}}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{839.4567307692}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{28.9733796919}$$

$$T_{stat} = 0.069$$

Based on the information provided, the chosen significance level $\alpha = 0.01$, and the degree of freedom is $Df = 104$. Hence, it is found that the critical value for this test $T_{crit} = 2.626$

Since it is observed that $T_{stat} = 0.069$ is very much less than $T_{crit} = 2.626$; also using the P-value approach, we find that $p = 0.945$ is much greater than $\alpha = 0.01$. Therefore, we do not

reject H_0 (The Null Hypothesis) but reject H_1 (the Alternative hypothesis) instead. Consequently, we shall conclude that there is no significant difference between the two means. In other words, oral presentations do not improve students' speaking skill to a significant level.

5.1.2. Test Two: Measuring the Effectiveness of the Alternative Course in Developing Students' Speaking Skill

5.1.2.1. Students' Pre-Test

5.1.2.1.1. Description of the Test Population

Identical to the previous test, we have taken a number of 105 second-year students for this experiment. We wanted to take the exact number of students from the exact same level in the exact same academic year in order to have as truthful and as reliable results as possible.

5.1.2.1.2. Description of the Pre-test

Again, identical to the former pre-test, in this experiment too, students' speaking performance was assessed in their first session with the teacher. Students took turns to converse with the teacher about the same topics mentioned previously for the same reasons explained above.

It is equally important to restate that, here too, students could speak for as long as they wished. None was pushed to say more and no one was interrupted during their speech. All this was done to make students perform as comfortably as possible so as to produce their most natural speech possible.

5.1.2.1.3. Discussion of the Results

Once again, similar to the former test, here too, focus was on five points in students' production: vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency and appropriateness.

In the few coming paragraphs, we analyze students' performance and give examples of their mistakes and errors concerning each point.

The first aspect we analyzed in the pre-test was students' knowledge of English vocabulary. In this element, many students could easily express themselves using enough terms they had. However, many others suffered from severe lack of lexis to both comprehend the questions asked and to express the ideas they had in mind. For instance, many students were unable to understand some very common words like *prison*, *wedding*, *scary*, *nightmare*, *upset*, *decision* and *parent*. On the other hand, many students were so desperate for words that they replied with very short utterances which were generally yes or no. In addition, some students confused a word for another similar one. For example, *engage* for *fiancé*, *Algeria* for *Algiers*, *notice* for *mark*, *bigger* for *older*, *section* for *session*, *hot* for *heat*, *to learn* and *to study* for *to teach*, and *Tuesday* for *Thursday*. Besides, few students used some rather incorrect forms like "different than" instead of *different from*, "to pass exams" instead of *to make exams*, and "the most one liked" for *the most liked one*. Furthermore, many students tended to think in Arabic and just translate their thoughts into English word for word. For example, some said "between-between" for *so-so*, "not a friend a friend" for *not really a friend*, while others kept repeating one word for several times like "lazy lazy lazy" or "cook cook cook." Last, some students spoke directly in Arabic due to their severe lack of English vocabulary.

Students' greatest weakness was observed in their mastery of the English grammar. The great majority of students had serious issues dealing with some very common and relatively easy grammatical rules. In fact, many students

- ☒ used two subjects for one sentence like "my father he is ...", "that day it was ..." etc.
- ☒ failed to refer to the subject of their utterances with the right pronoun. For instance, some referred to *mother* with *he*, *him* or *his*; *grandfather* with *she* or *her*; and people like *friend*, *brother* or *girl* with the pronoun *it*.
- ☒ used two verbs side by side in one utterance. For example, "it is do not let them", "they are make me", "he is explain" and "I was studied" were among many mistaken utterances students said.
- ☒ got rid of the verbs in their sentences and said things like "I sad", "he sick", "she famous", "they afraid", "we still there", and "God with me."
- ☒ could not use subject-verb agreement successfully. For instance, they said "she have", "daughters is" and "people does not".
- ☒ had problems conjugating verbs in the past tense. Examples of those cases are "teached", "sawed", "writed", "goed", "telled", etc. Other students used the infinitive form of verbs just as they are to indicate the past.
- ☒ had problems with the present tense, especially with the *s* of the third person singular which they forgot where needed ("he bunch", "she study", "it make", etc.) and added when it was not ("they needs", "friends does not", etc.).
- ☒ had issues with the future tense, despite its easiness. Some said things like "will gave", "will bulking" and "will explosive."
- ☒ confused between nouns and verbs and said things like "I can success", "married is" and "the die of my father".

☒ failed to use the comparative form of adjective. For instance, some said "short than", "old from", "more strong", "the most best" and "best than."

☒ could not ask questions using the correct forms. So, they said "I start?", "must three?" and "we have session?"

☒ were unable to apply the rules of the plural form correctly. Few examples of those cases are "childrens", "mans", "a girls", "a things", "six month", "three boy", "there is others" and "there is many things."

☒ used the relative pronoun *which* referring to people like *scientists*, *children* and *friends*; and referred to things with the relative pronoun *who* (e.g.: "program who").

☒ fell in the trap of double negation and said things like "I did not say nothing."

Among some other mistakes students committed were these: "I so love it," "to getting the respect," "we was," "a accident," "can added," "very action," and "I always fast."

In contrast with their catastrophic level in English grammar, students' general level of pronunciation was very satisfactory. Many students had native-like pronunciation, and many more could speak the language with correct phonetic rules of stress, intonation, assimilation and so forth. Yet, some students had some issues with the pronunciation of final -s and final -ed; short and long vowels (sick/seek, list/least, live/leave, etc.); the articulation of some consonants (chicken/shaking, grab/grape, contact, mentality, etc.); silent letters (dumb**est**, would, walking**g**, honest, half, etc.); and some issues with word stress like 'develop, fa'vorite, memor'able, Ame'rica. Besides, few students' pronunciation was deeply affected by their mother tongue, so they spoke English with a clear accent.

Fluency was the point we analyzed before the last. Here, too, students had serious problems. The great majority of students spoke with many hmms, ahs and stops in and

between their utterances. Those stops varied from subtle to short to very long ones that often led many students to leave their utterances unfinished. In addition, many other students spoke either very slowly or very rapidly, but it was not because of nervousness as time revealed it was a habit and that was the way they naturally speak.

The last aspect we analyzed in students' speech was appropriateness. In this, not many students committed mistakes. Only few students inappropriately addressed the examiner with the personal pronoun *you*. Besides, few students spoke informal and sometimes slang English. For instance, some said "I wanna", "I'm gonna", "I dunno", "yeah" and "you know." Some others said "what?" instead of *sorry* or *I beg your pardon*, and few other ones used "be like" for the verb *to say*.

5.1.2.2. The Intermediate Phase

Based on students' performance in the pre-test, activities of the intermediate phase were carefully designed to satisfy their major needs and improve their points of weakness. Therefore, the speaking classroom activities we designed focused, primarily, on practicing and developing their grammar knowledge. Furthermore, students were frequently provided with appropriate smart-phone applications, dictionaries, audio files and e-books to make them achieve a higher level in English grammar.

Equally important, students were equipped with several techniques and practices that aim at developing their fluency and help them get rid of the habit of making many hmms, aahs and stops in their speech. For instance, they were advised to practice self-talk and reading aloud to get used to speaking, even to oneself. Besides, they were strongly advised to use tape recorders to get used to their own voices and discover their points of weakness on their own. Besides, they were encouraged to speak in front of mirrors and videotape

themselves talking to help them use body language and facial expressions effectively. Finally yet importantly, students were made prepared to practice speaking with other classmates using the classroom activities explained below:

5.1.2.2.1. Tell Me More

This first activity aims at peacefully engaging students in small group conversations with their classmates, ideally friends, about some friendly topics that do not require much knowledge except for enough vocabulary to run a conversation about some everyday topics. We believe that this activity is best suited to be done in the first practical session with the students as it does not involve much public exposure and display of the speaking abilities.

For motivational purposes¹, this activity is divided into four different parts, each with a sub-objective that serves the overall aim of the activity. Part one which is called "Four Friends, Four Questions" requires four students, preferably friends, to sit and discuss the content of four questions given to them. A student takes a question, answers it, then the rest three students will answer the same question before a new question is picked and answered by another student as well as the rest the group. This part goes on in the same manner until the fourth question is done.

Part two, called "New Friends, New Questions", requires the teacher to group students again with less familiar individuals so as to build their self-confidence to speak to a crowd. This part goes on just like the previous one. The only differences are that students are answering new questions given to them with some new faces from the group.

¹ Unlike oral presentations which often take the same form for almost every session, the activities we designed contain four main different parts. We believe that doing so ensures the continuity of students' motivation to the activities/parts throughout the session(s), and this what has actually taken place.

"Whole Class Discussion" is the third part of this activity. Here, students sit and listen to the teacher reading some of the questions which he picks randomly and asks volunteers to answer or comment on them. This part is seen ideal to be practiced at the end of the session because (a) students have gone through relatively easier parts of the activity, (b) students might have already answered some of those questions, and (c) it requires only volunteers to speak in front of such a large audience. Thus, there is no slight amount of embarrassment or discomfort for anyone talking.

At the end of every activity, there is a permanent part concerned with the assessment of students' speaking performance. Here, focus is on the correction of all types of mistakes students make in the session: vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc. In this, the teacher restates the mistakes he has heard and recorded while going on monitoring the groups during the different parts of the activity. Then, students themselves attempt to correct those mistakes as a kind of self-correction. The teacher should not interfere unless no one could find how the mistake is corrected.

5.1.2.2.2. Story Telling

Story Telling is an activity that covers different skills while working on students' speaking skill. First, in the first part "Story Completion", students are divided into groups of four. Then, each group is given the start of an anecdote which they need to develop together so as to give it the most unexpected ending.

In the second part "Story Sharing", a spokesman or a spokeswoman from each group goes on the stage to share their story with the rest of the students. After that, in "Story Discussion", listeners discuss the endings of each story and, advisably, give alternative endings for them.

As in every session, the last part is devoted for the assessment and correction of students' mistakes. This part goes on in the exact same way with all the activities. The teacher restates the mistakes he has heard during the session, and students figure out their correction.

It is important to mention that a reward is offered to the best story based on students' votes. Additionally, the teacher had better explain the parts of every activity at the beginning of the session so that students know what they are expected to do, for how long and for which purpose.

5.1.2.2.3. Develop, Act and Impress

In this beginners' acting activity, students start to learn how to present as a homogeneous group on the stage. In the first phase of this activity, a number of advanced students² are given the setting of different plays, for instance, shop, home, court, etc. In addition, they are given a brief description of the characters and story line. These students have to choose from the audience the rest of the cast for the play. After that, as a group, they need to decide on who takes each role. Besides, they need to develop the scenes and dialogues between the characters. Finally they present their plays on the stage in less than fifteen minutes for each play.

5.1.2.2.4. Vocabulary Expansion

In this activity, the aim is to enrich students' linguistic package with new words and expressions from different domains. In the first part "Field-related Terms", students work in groups of four to give as many words as they can in a given topic in a limited period of time.

² Based on students' results in the pre-test, the teacher is supposed to identify these elements and distribute them on different groups.

For example, students give all the words they know about human anatomy, astronomy or sea life in five minutes. This activity should be done without consulting dictionaries, of course. After this, the group which got the highest number of words shares its work with the rest of students. Besides, other groups can mention any terms the winning team has not included in their list.

"Last Sound, First Sound" is the second part of this activity. Obviously, students work with sounds in this part. For instance, a student gives a word in a given field, say food or technology, then the next one says a word in the same field that starts with the last sound of the previous word (bread, doughnuts, spaghetti, etc.). This part goes on until everyone has said a word. The teacher may make another round if students are able to give other words in the field.

"What is in the Picture?" is the third part of this activity. Like most of the other group work activities we designed, one advanced student is put to work with other three less able ones. Here, groups of students are given a picture full of random objects which they need to name in the shortest amount of time, say two minutes. The winning group gets a prize after they share what they have identified and named with the audience.

Last, there is the assessment of students' performance in the whole activity. Assessment of this activity is not concerned only with vocabulary, but also other aspects such as grammar and pronunciation are involved.

5.1.2.2.5. It's Hard for Everyone

In this activity, students deal with and discuss different topics. First, in the "Set them Apart" section, students sit in groups of four (two against two) and debate about whose life is

harder. Here, each pair states all their problems and try to prove that their life is harder. Besides, they need to underestimate the problems of the opponent pair. Take for example, students vs. teachers, males vs. females, children vs. parents, mothers vs. fathers, the poor vs. the rich, bosses vs. employees, etc.

In the second part "Bring them Closer", pairs use less tense language and try to send a message to the opposite pair explaining the things they want to say. For instance, students may tell teachers that "we actually appreciate all your effort, but you should know that we struggle to deal with many subjects at a time." Additionally, teachers may inform learners that "we do realize that, but you should also know that we do what we do all for your best."

"Be Careful What You Wish for" is the third part of this activity. In fact, it is a bit far from the theme of the previous two parts, and it is for motivational purposes. That is, not to bore students out of the session. Here, each student writes a personal wish on a piece of paper, folds it and puts it in a box. After that, wishes are mixed and distributed to the class. Each student gets a wish of his/her classmate. So, he/she needs to corrupt it in the form of very short anecdote which he/she reads aloud to their classmates. For example, a student may wish to have a large house and a family. His/her classmate may grant him that wish, except that the house is haunted and the family members suffer from rare medical conditions.

This session ends with the assessment of students' performance, which is done in the same way as all other activities.

5.1.2.2.6. Act it Out

In this intermediate acting activity, students carry on developing their acting skills. Firstly, in the "Who is it?" part, each student writes the name of a celebrity on a piece of

paper. After that, he/she goes on the stage to answer the audience's questions who wants to know who that person is. Here, the participant can answer only using yes or no. The game continues until one of the audience figures out who is the celebrity written on the piece of paper. Then, another participant takes the turn.

"Perform it" is the part of the activity where students learn to use their body language effectively to deliver or explain the meaning of an expression they have. It is a kind of mime if we can say. In this, students are given proverbs or well-known sayings that they must explain to their classmates using body language only. For example, a student has to use gestures and facial expressions to explain to his classmates the proverb "do not climb a tree to look for fish."

In "Time to Fight", the third part of the activity, students are expected to perform a very short role-play. Here, students are given only the characters and theme of the plays, but they need to improvise the content and story which has to be in the form of a fight. For instance, two students are told "father, son, haircut", or "sister, sister, clothes" and they have to act a short play based on that.

As with every session, it ends with the assessment of students' speaking performance.

5.1.2.2.7. Discussion Games

This is one of the language games students practiced in the intermediate phase. First, students play a game called "Never Have I Ever". In this game, students listen to the teacher reading some statements such as "Never have I ever sleepwalked". Then, if someone has done that, he/she needs to tell the audience about that incident.

The second part, called "Would You Rather?", goes on in a similar manner to the previous one, except that the theme is different and participants are chosen by the teacher. Here, the teacher reads some expressions like "Would you rather be bald or fat?" while addressing a specific student who needs to make a hard decision and justify his/her choice. The teacher can ask students whom he knows are able to answer but are timid so as to grant them the chance to express themselves more often in the class.

In the third part being called "What's the Truth?", a student is supposed to tell the audience two lies and one truth which are all hard to believe. Ideally, this part should be about personal experiences. The audience should guess which is which.

The session ends with the assessment of students speaking performance in which the teacher directs students' attention to self-correct new mistakes, or he may remind them of old but still committed ones.

5.1.2.2.8. Match it up

Idioms and proverbs are a significant aspect of any language. In English too, proverbs play a crucial role. Therefore, this activity aims at teaching students some important proverbs in an innovative manner. Firstly, in "Definitions, Opposites and Remainings", students are randomly given pieces of paper on which a prover, its definition, its opposite or a part of it is written. Students, here, need to move around so as to match what they have with what they miss. For instance, a student may have "*clothes make the man ≠*", and he/she has to go look for and find "*≠ never judge a book by its cover*" with one of the rest of students. Alternatively, he/she may have "*One law for the rich ...*", and he/she has to find "*... and another for the poor*" amongst his classmates. When all pairs are matched, students take turns to read and discuss the information they could attach.

Secondly, students are given once again pieces of paper on which proverbs are written. Here, students do not have to go around looking for anything. They simply need to read what is written on their papers and do what the teacher asks. For example, a student may have "*Speak softly and carry a big stick*" which he needs to explain. Alternatively, he/she may have an edited proverb such as "*a chat has nine lives*" or "*you can't teach a new mouse old clicks*", and which he/she needs to look for its correct phrasing. Last, a student may have something like "*still waters run deep*" and he/she has to give its Arabic equivalent. Here, too, students take turns to discuss and talk about the proverbs they have.

It is important to mention that proverbs in this activity were coded according to colors, and students were informed beforehand about that. For instance, blue proverbs have to be explained, red ones need editing, and green ones should be translated.

In the last phase, "Tell us your own", students are given the floor to share any proverbs they have and which might have been missed in the activity.

Finally, the teacher restates all the mistakes he could detect and record during the session so that students correct them.

5.1.2.2.9. Free Role-plays

As the title suggests, this activity enables students to show their talent and creativity in making and presenting a role-play from scratch. First, a number of advanced students are asked to come to the board and choose from the audience few students to work with. Then, groups sit to suggest topics, negotiate roles and design their plays. When finished, groups take turns to go on the stage to present their work to the audience.

This activity is considered one of the advanced acting ones which should be done at the end of the course. First, students have already gone through some acting activities from which they have learned how to speak, move and take on a role on the stage. Besides, students have worked on their speaking skill for a while which gives them a significant amount of self-confidence to perform. All this enables them to effectively present some decent plays either in terms of speaking ability or body language.

5.1.2.3. Students' Post-test

5.1.2.3.1. Description of the Post-test

After several months full of various speaking activities, students' were assessed once again to see if they made any significant improvement in their speaking performance. Like with the other group, post-assessment took the form of one-to-one conversation with the teacher about some random everyday topics which varied from talking about funny, embarrassing or tragic situations to taking a stand for or against a certain issue.

5.1.2.3.2. Discussion and Analysis of the Results

Once again, students' performance was assessed based on five points discussed previously. In the following few paragraphs, we present a general overview of students' performance in terms of their points of weakness and strength after the alternative course was applied.

Firstly, concerning lexis, despite the fact that the topics discussed in the post-test were relatively harder than those of the pre-test, most students could cover those topics using sufficient vocabulary. Unlike their performance in the pre-test, they could understand the questions, answer them using the appropriate language functions for that. Moreover,

utterances were relatively longer and grammatically accurate. Besides, word-for-word translation of Arabic thoughts seemed to decrease as well as the direct use of the mother tongue. Furthermore, the repetition of single words as well as yes and no answers decreased. However, this does not exclude cases where some students could not express themselves; confused some words for others (*memory* for *dissertation*, *due* for *duty*, *planet* for *plant*, etc.); or used the Arabic equivalent for words they did not know.

Secondly, thanks to the intensive mini-lessons provided for students in the intermediate phase, especially in the assessment part of every session, students' mastery of the English grammar improved remarkably. Many simple mistakes such as double subjects, double verbs, subject-pronoun agreement, subject-verb agreement, absence of verbs, and others were successfully avoided in the post-test. Nevertheless, surprisingly, many students including extremely able ones could not get rid of the problem of the "s" of the third person singular. For instance, utterances like "it depend", "that mean", and "he do not" were frequently heard in the post-test.

As mentioned above, the great majority of students already had a fairly good level of pronunciation even before the intermediate phase was applied. Yet, many students could develop their knowledge as well as their ability to articulate utterances in a native-like manner. Perhaps, this was, once again, due to the frequent reminders provided to students in the assessment part at the end of every session. For instance, students' attention was often drawn to final "s" and final "ed" pronunciation, short and long vowel pronunciation, silent letters and their errors in the articulation of certain consonants. Nonetheless, it is fair to mention that some students' pronunciation did not develop a bit even with continuous

practice because those few cases were so deeply affected by their native language (accent) that it was very difficult to get rid of it in such a short period of time.

Seemingly, the application of different strategies during the intermediate phase has helped a large number of students develop their fluency to a remarkable level. Many students have had serious problems with this point. For instance, many of them could not speak without uttering few ahs and hmms in-between words. However, the number of stops they made and the sounds they made in-between words decreased dramatically in the post-test.

Last but not least, students' performance in terms of appropriateness was already acceptable. In fact, few cases used informal and sometimes even slang language in the pre-test, in addition to some other mistakes. Nonetheless, explaining this point to students and providing them with clear examples, resources and activities has indeed helped those students differentiate between what can be said in an oral test or exam and what they can say in informal situations.

In the following table, students' performance in the test (pre-test and post-test) is presented in the form of statistics which are compared and then analyzed to either confirm or deny the following hypotheses we set in this experiment:

- ✚ $H_0: u_d = 0$ (the null hypothesis: the mean of the pre-test is equal to the mean of post-test. That is, there is no difference between the two means. In other words, there is no significant difference between students' performance in the pre-test and post-test and our suggested course has not improved students' speaking skill).
- ✚ $H_1: U_d \neq 0$ (the alternative hypothesis: there is a significant difference between the two means. That is, the suggested course has actually enhanced students' level).

Subject	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference (D)	D ²
1	14	10	-04	16
2	17	16	-01	01
3	15.5	16	0.5	0.25
4	12	16	04	16
5	14.5	17	2.5	6.25
6	13.5	10	-03.5	12.25
7	12	12	00	00
8	12	14	02	04
9	10	15	05	25
10	14.5	14.5	00	00
11	16	15.5	-0.5	0.25
12	10	10	00	00
13	09	13	04	16
14	16	16	00	00
15	15	17	02	04
16	14.5	14.5	00	00
17	08	11	03	09
18	13.5	15	01.5	02.25
19	14	11.5	-02.5	06.25
20	14.5	15	0.5	0.25
21	14.5	16	01.5	02.25
22	14	13	-01	01
23	14	11	-03	09
24	15	15	00	00
25	12.5	12	-0.5	0.25
26	15	16	01	01
27	12.5	14	01.5	02.25
28	15.5	15	-0.5	0.25
29	14	08	-06	36
30	14.5	15	0.5	0.25
31	12	12	00	00
32	05	17.5	12.5	156.25
33	14.5	16	01.5	02.25
34	09	11	02	04
35	14	12	-02	04
36	11	10	-01	01
37	13	16	03	09
38	11	13.5	02.5	06.25
39	16.5	19	02.5	06.25
40	09	18	09	81
41	09	10	01	01
42	11.5	10	-01.5	02.25
43	16	13	-03	09
44	18.5	20	01.5	02.25
45	09	14	05	25

46	13	16	03	09
47	15.5	12.5	-03	09
48	12.5	15	02.5	06.25
49	12	15.5	03.5	12.25
50	09	10.5	01.5	02.25
51	15	18	03	09
52	13.5	17	03.5	12.25
53	11	08	-03	09
54	14	15	01	01
55	10	19	09	81
56	15	13.5	-01.5	02.25
57	13	15	02	04
58	16.5	15	-01.5	02.25
59	16	19	03	09
60	15	19	04	16
61	13	16	03	09
62	12	16	04	16
63	12	10	-02	04
64	14	16	02	04
65	13.5	15	01.5	02.25
66	18.5	19	0.5	0.25
67	10.5	12	01.5	02.25
68	05	12	07	49
69	12	13	01	01
70	15	10	-05	25
71	17.5	19	01.5	02.25
72	16	15	-01	01
73	13.5	10	-03.5	12.25
74	08	06	-02	04
75	13	12.5	-0.5	0.25
76	13	12	-01	01
77	15	16	01	01
78	15.5	15.5	00	00
79	15	15	00	00
80	07	07	00	00
81	17	18	01	01
82	13	12	-01	01
83	16	16	00	00
84	13.5	12	-01.5	02.25
85	11	15	04	16
86	18	16.5	-01.5	02.25
87	16	16	00	00
88	09	14	05	25
89	17	19	02	04
90	09	14	05	25
91	15.5	18	02.5	06.25

92	14.5	16	01.5	02.25
93	11	14	03	09
94	11	13	02	04
95	15	14	-01	01
96	14	14	00	00
97	10	14.5	04.5	20.25
98	12.5	14	01.5	02.25
99	16.5	15.5	-01	00
100	13	18	05	25
101	14	14	00	00
102	11	15	04	16
103	12	13	01	01
104	16	15	-01	01
105	13.5	14.5	01	01
	$\bar{X}_1 = 13.19$	$\bar{X}_2 = 14.24$	$\Sigma D = 111$	$\Sigma D^2 = 965$

Table 61: Results of the Experimental Group of Students in the Pre-test and Post-test

By substituting the elements in the table in the following formula, we find:

$$T_{\text{stat}} = \frac{\Sigma D}{\sqrt{\frac{(N \Sigma D^2) - (\Sigma D)^2}{N-1}}}$$

$$= \frac{111}{\sqrt{\frac{(105 \times 965) - (111)^2}{105-1}}}$$

$$= \frac{111}{\sqrt{\frac{101325 - 12321}{104}}}$$

$$= \frac{111}{\sqrt{\frac{89004}{104}}}$$

$$= \frac{111}{\sqrt{855.8076923077}}$$

$$= \frac{111}{29.2541910212}$$

$$T_{\text{stat}} = 3.79$$

In our experiment, the critical value for $\alpha = 0.01$ and a degree of freedom $Df = 104$.

Therefore, we find $T_{\text{crit}} = 2.626$

Here, the observed value $T_{\text{stat}} = 3.79$ is much greater than $T_{\text{crit}} = 2.626$. Also, following the P-value approach, we find that $p = 0.000253$ very much smaller than $\alpha = 0.01$. Therefore, we reject H_0 (The Null Hypothesis) and accept H_1 (the Alternative hypothesis) instead. Consequently, we shall state that there is indeed a significant difference between the two means. In other words, the suggested course has remarkably enhanced students' speaking skill.

Last, in order to check whether or not the difference between means of the two groups (who have practiced oral presentations and those who practiced the suggested course) is statistically significant and that it has occurred because of random chance in sample selection, we conduct an independent samples T-test.

Subjects	Treatment 1	Difference ($X - \bar{X}_1$)	($X - \bar{X}_1$) ²	Treatment 2	Difference ($X - \bar{X}_2$)	($X - \bar{X}_2$) ²
1	10	-0.71	0.51	10	-4.25	18.04
2	13	2.29	5.22	16	1.75	3.07
3	14	3.29	10.80	16	1.75	3.07
4	13	2.29	5.22	16	1.75	3.07
5	10	-0.71	0.51	17	2.75	7.58
6	10	-0.71	0.51	10	-4.25	18.04
7	15.5	4.79	22.90	12	-2.25	5.05
8	16.5	5.79	33.47	14	-0.25	0.06
9	09	-1.71	2.94	15	0.75	0.57
10	14	3.29	10.80	14.5	0.25	0.06
11	17.5	6.79	46.05	15.5	1.25	1.57
12	15	4.29	18.37	10	-4.25	18.04
13	08	-2.71	7.37	13	-1.25	1.56
14	12	1.29	1.65	16	1.75	3.07
15	11	0.29	0.08	17	2.75	7.58
16	18	7.29	53.08	14.5	0.25	0.06
17	14.5	3.79	14.33	11	-3.25	10.55
18	08	-2.71	7.37	15	0.75	0.57
19	12	1.29	1.65	11.5	-2.75	7.55
20	12	1.29	1.65	15	0.75	0.57
21	10	-0.71	0.51	16	1.75	3.07
22	14.5	3.79	14.33	13	-1.25	1.56
23	10	-0.71	0.51	11	-3.25	10.55

24	10	-0.71	0.51	15	0.75	0.57
25	10	-0.71	0.51	12	-2.25	5.05
26	10	-0.71	0.51	16	1.75	3.07
27	10	-0.71	0.51	14	-0.25	0.06
28	10	-0.71	0.51	15	0.75	0.57
29	16	5.29	27.94	08	-6.25	39.03
30	11	0.29	0.08	15	0.75	0.57
31	10	-0.71	0.51	12	-2.25	5.05
32	10	-0.71	0.51	17.5	3.25	10.58
33	17.5	6.79	46.05	16	1.75	3.07
34	17	6.29	39.51	11	-3.25	10.55
35	08	-2.71	7.37	12	-2.25	5.05
36	07	-3.71	13.80	10	-4.25	18.04
37	12	1.29	1.65	16	1.75	3.07
38	10	-0.71	0.51	13.5	-0.75	0.56
39	17	6.29	39.51	19	4.75	22.59
40	12	1.29	1.65	18	3.75	14.08
41	11	0.29	0.08	10	-4.25	18.04
42	08	-2.71	7.37	10	-4.25	18.04
43	10	-0.71	0.51	13	-1.25	1.56
44	13	2.29	5.22	20	5.75	33.09
45	08	-2.71	7.37	14	-0.25	0.06
46	11	0.29	0.08	16	1.75	3.07
47	10	-0.71	0.51	12.5	-1.75	3.05
48	12	1.29	1.65	15	0.75	0.57
49	11	0.29	0.08	15.5	1.25	1.57
50	11	0.29	0.08	10.5	-3.75	14.04
51	11	0.29	0.08	18	3.75	14.08
52	10	-0.71	0.51	17	2.75	7.58
53	12	1.29	1.65	08	-6.25	39.03
54	11	0.29	0.08	15	0.75	0.57
55	12	1.29	1.65	19	4.75	22.59
56	08	-2.71	7.37	13.5	-0.75	0.56
57	08	-2.71	7.37	15	0.75	0.57
58	10	-0.71	0.51	15	0.75	0.57
59	08	-2.71	7.37	19	4.75	22.59
60	12	1.29	1.65	19	4.75	22.59
61	10	-0.71	0.51	16	1.75	3.07
62	11	0.29	0.08	16	1.75	3.07
63	08	-2.71	7.37	10	-4.25	18.04
64	11	0.29	0.08	16	1.75	3.07
65	06	-4.71	22.22	15	0.75	0.57
66	07	-3.71	13.80	19	4.75	22.59
67	12	1.29	1.65	12	-2.25	5.05
68	12	1.29	1.65	12	-2.25	5.05
69	11	0.29	0.08	13	-1.25	1.56

70	07	-3.71	13.80	10	-4.25	18.04
71	08	-2.71	7.37	19	4.75	22.59
72	08	-2.71	7.37	15	0.75	0.57
73	12	1.29	1.65	10	-4.25	18.04
74	11	0.29	0.08	06	-8.25	68.02
75	12	1.29	1.65	12.5	-1.75	3.05
76	09	-1.71	2.94	12	-2.25	5.05
77	07	-3.71	13.80	16	1.75	3.07
78	08	-2.71	7.37	15.5	1.25	1.57
79	12	1.29	1.65	15	0.75	0.57
80	12	1.29	1.65	07	-7.25	52.53
81	04	-6.71	45.08	18	3.75	14.08
82	08	-2.71	7.37	12	-2.25	5.05
83	09	-1.71	2.94	16	1.75	3.07
84	12	1.29	1.65	12	-2.25	5.05
85	07	-3.71	13.80	15	0.75	0.57
86	10	-0.71	0.51	16.5	2.25	5.07
87	11	0.29	0.08	16	1.75	3.07
88	11	0.29	0.08	14	-0.25	0.06
89	12	1.29	1.65	19	4.75	22.59
90	10	-0.71	0.51	14	-0.25	0.06
91	09	-1.71	2.94	18	3.75	14.08
92	12	1.29	1.65	16	1.75	3.07
93	09	-1.71	2.94	14	-0.25	0.06
94	08	-2.71	7.37	13	-1.25	1.56
95	05	-5.71	32.65	14	-0.25	0.06
96	08	-2.71	7.37	14	-0.25	0.06
97	06	-4.71	22.22	14.5	0.25	0.06
98	12	1.29	1.65	14	-0.25	0.06
99	10	-0.71	0.51	15.5	1.25	1.57
100	13	2.29	5.22	18	3.75	14.08
101	11	0.29	0.08	14	-0.25	0.06
102	08	-2.71	7.37	15	0.75	0.57
103	10	-0.71	0.51	13	-1.25	1.56
104	12	1.29	1.65	15	0.75	0.57
105	12	1.29	1.65	14.5	0.25	0.06
	$\bar{X}_1 = 10.71$	$\sum D = 0.45$	$\sum D^2 = 768.93$	$\bar{X}_2 = 14.25$	$\sum D = -0.25$	$\sum D^2 = 841.56$

Table 62: Results of the Control Group and Experimental Group of Students in the Post-test

In order to find the value of T_{stat} and Df (Degree of freedom), we follow the procedures below:

$$S_x^2 = \frac{\sum(X - \bar{X})}{N-1} = \frac{768.93}{105 - 1} = \frac{768.93}{104} = 7.39$$

$$S_y^2 = \frac{\sum(y - \bar{y})}{N-1} = \frac{841.56}{105 - 1} = \frac{841.56}{104} = 8.09$$

By looking at the variances we got, we find them not exactly the same. However, we need to check if they are equal or unequal using the F-test.

$$F_{\text{stat}} = \frac{\text{High } S^2}{\text{Low } S^2} = \frac{8.09}{1047.39} = 1.094$$

Referring to the F_{crit} , we find that $F_{\text{stat}} = 1.094$ is less than $F_{\text{crit}} = 2.601$. Therefore, our variances are considered equal, which leads us to set up our hypotheses H_0 and H_1

✚ $H_0: u_d = 0$ (the null hypothesis: the mean of the first group is equal to the mean of second one. In other words, there is no significant difference between the performance of students who practiced oral presentations and those who practiced the alternative suggested course.).

✚ $H_1: U_d \neq 0$ (the alternative hypothesis: there is a significant difference between the two means and that differences is not because of random chance of sample selection, but due to the treatment).

Before calculating the T_{stat} , we should first calculate the pool variance S_p^2 as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S_p^2 &= \frac{(N-1)S_x^2 + (N-1)S_y^2}{2N-2} \\ &= \frac{(105-1) \times 7.39 + (105-1) \times 8.09}{105 + 105 - 2} \\ &= \frac{104 \times 7.39 + 104 \times 8.09}{208} \\ &= \frac{768.56 + 841.36}{208} \\ &= \frac{1609.92}{208} \end{aligned}$$

$$S_p^2 = 7.74$$

By substituting the entities found above in the T_{stat} below, we find that:

$$\begin{aligned} T_{\text{stat}} &= \frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{S_p^2}{N_1}\right) + \left(\frac{S_p^2}{N_2}\right)}} \\ &= \frac{(10.71 - 14.25)}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{7.74}{105}\right) + \left(\frac{7.74}{105}\right)}} \\ &= \frac{-3}{\sqrt{0.0737142857 + 0.0737142857}} \\ &= \frac{-3}{\sqrt{0.1474285714}} = \frac{-3}{0.383964284} \end{aligned}$$

$$T_{\text{stat}} = -9.219$$

Here, we find that the absolute calculated $T_{\text{stat}} = 9.219$ is very much greater than the critical value $T_{\text{crit}} = 2.601$. Besides, the value of $p < 0.001$ which is much less than $\alpha = 0.01$. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis H_0 and accept the alternative hypothesis H_1 . In other words, the difference between the means of the two groups is indeed statistically significant, and that difference is not due to random chance of sample selection but rather because of the effects of the treatment.

5.1.3. Synthesis of the Two Tests' Results

Based on the statistics presented above, it was found that students' performance did not improve significantly, if at all, after practicing oral presentations for an entire academic year. However, we found that the alternative course we specifically designed to meet the needs of the experimental group of students has actually enhanced their speaking skill to a remarkable level. This has been proven true using a third test that has shown a statistically significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the post-test.

5.2. Final Discussion

This study is based on a number of research questions and hypotheses. Firstly, the first questions which asks about the common standards of good oral presentations is answered in the second theoretical chapter: Public Speaking and Oral Presentations. There, important points and guidelines for successful presentations such as presentation methods, body language, voice and visual aids are discussed.

Secondly, the answer to the second question which is about whether or not the currently-practiced oral presentations respect and apply those common standards mentioned above lies in different parts of the empirical study, both in teachers' and the students' questionnaire. No, they do not respect public speaking standards. For instance, most students present either from their memory or through reading from papers. Besides, many of them are unable to use body language and visual aids effectively while they are on the stage.

Thirdly, concerning the question about the impact of oral presentations on students' motivation, which is an essential axis in this research, the answer lies in the discussion of the last questions in the teachers' and the students' questionnaires. Teachers, on the one hand, have said that continuous oral presentations do bore students out and often lead them to make noise. On the other hand, most students said that they find oral presentations demotivating and they find little interest in attending and making them. Instead, they prefer to practice and get involved in doing different classroom activities.

Fourthly, the second main axis of this investigation is the effect of oral presentations on students' speaking skill. Again, the answer to this question is the empirical study. For example, oral presentations provide very little time for students to practice the language inside the classroom, and what adds insult to the injury is that even in that very short period of time,

students speak unnaturally. In addition, these oral presentations do not teach students enough language functions which are a very essential part of the language. In fact, most teachers agree on the idea that oral presentations play a weak role in developing students speaking abilities. Students, on the other hand, said that they would rather practice some different activities instead of oral presentations. Actually, a student cannot learn from something unless he/she is motivated to do it. Moreover, they said that the oral presentations they practiced did not improve their speaking abilities to the desired level and they did not get the training they needed to achieve higher levels.

The last questions we attempt to answer is whether an innovative course of classroom speaking activities can make a significant difference in students' motivation and speaking skill. The students' questionnaire results, on the one hand, show that the course they have been subjected to increased their motivation to get involved in the designed activities. The students' test results, on the other hand, prove that their speaking level developed due to the course which is designed according to their actual needs.

Answering the questions mentioned above makes our set of hypotheses valid. Students' oral presentations do not respect the common standards of public speaking. They also have a negative impact on students' motivation to the subject of oral expression. More importantly, these oral presentations, under the current conditions, do not improve students' speaking skill. Implementing an innovative course of speaking activities based on learners' needs can both motivate them and improve their speaking abilities.

Pedagogical Recommendations

This study has investigated the impact of oral presentations on students' motivation for speaking classes. Besides, it has analyzed the effects of this classroom activity on learners'

speaking skill. It has thereby revealed that this practice, and under the current conditions, demotivates students and does not improve their speaking abilities. Therefore, we strongly emphasize on the following recommendations for teachers in order to reach students' highest potentials:

- This research has shown, paradoxically, that the most effective speaking activities are the least practiced ones, and vice versa. Therefore, teachers should take the risk of implementing new activities and diversifying the content of their sessions. Indeed, there are many effective activities which can be used in parallel with oral presentations or even substitute them and obtain better results both in terms of speaking performance and the motivation and psychology of students.
- Since students' general speaking performance is believed to be average, and as the main reason is now known (lack of practice), teachers ought to invest sessions in involving as many students as possible in doing varied speaking activities which preferably engage them in a natural use of language. Besides, some encouragement to use the language even outside the walls of the classroom with friends and classmates does help learners develop their speaking abilities even further.
- Special treatment should be given to introvert and shy students so as to help them overcome their public speaking anxiety. We believe that making them stand up on the stage to deliver presentations in front of dozens of their classmates, especially in their early days in the university, increases their glossophobia. In best cases, this pushes them to learn some rather negative presentation habits like rote learning or reading from papers.
- Because fear of making mistakes is the chief cause why many students prefer to remain silent in the speaking class, teachers had better convince students with the fact that mistakes are an essential part of the learning process. Students cannot learn to use the

language right if they do not use it, even wrongly in the beginning. More importantly, teachers should make sure that mistaken students must not be ridiculed or laughed at by anyone in the classroom because this is the second major reason behind students' silence.

- After few rehearsals, students' classroom oral presentations do not reflect their actual speaking abilities. Consequently, teachers' assessment is sometimes misled and their remarks often do not help students improve the way they speak. Hence, teachers should not rely on oral presentations for getting accurate evaluation of students speaking skill.
- Teachers who prefer oral presentations as a classroom practice should provide their students with the knowledge and training they need to deliver proper presentations, especially public speaking standards. Lack of information and training has led many students to perform poorly on stage in terms of presentation methods, body language, voice, visual aids, etc.

As for students, we recommend the following points:

- They should give equal attention to the receptive skills, especially listening in this case, because it is believed that productive skills such as speaking and writing feed on listening and reading. That is to say, in order to be able to speak well, students must listen to the language as much as they can.
- They should not rely solely on the activities they practice in the classroom as they provide insufficient amount of time for practicing the language. Instead, using the language in their everyday lives with certain people helps provide enough training to develop their speaking performance.

Last yet importantly, both syllabus designers and teachers should carefully tailor their programs based on the actual needs of their students. In fact, learners' needs differ from one

academic year to the other and even from one group to another in the same season. A simple pre-test can serve both educators and learners deal with what actually matters.

Conclusion

In the field investigation of this thesis, there has been three means of research: a teachers' questionnaire, another for students and a students' test. The teachers' questionnaire, on the one hand, has revealed much information about the sources of the issue under research. Firstly, it has shown that oral presentations are the least effective classroom activity, yet they are the most prevailing activity in most national universities. Students lack information as well as training on public speaking techniques which negatively affects their performance on the stage. Besides, it has been shown that most teachers support the application of alternative speaking activities so as to increase students' motivation and enhance their speaking abilities.

On the other hand, the results obtained from the students' questionnaire have come in harmony with those of teachers. For instance, the great majority of students have practiced only oral presentations during the previous year(s), but they both wish and need to practice other activities, namely dialogues, language games and role-plays. In addition, students have not been taught or trained on public speaking techniques in the course. For these reasons and others, oral presentations have a deep negative impact on students' motivation. Consequently, students explicitly revealed their strong desire to engage in different speaking activities rather than the less beneficial and demotivating oral presentation they often practiced.

General Conclusion

We started this research based on a personal observation in higher education, particularly in our first year in the university. We saw that oral presentations dominated the scene, especially in the oral expression sessions. However, it was clear that students gradually lost motivation in the subject as rarely any teacher used a different strategy. Motivation decreased even further as many students realized some of the many disadvantages this activity has, especially its effect on their speaking skill. Therefore, this study comes to clarify many points about this common classroom practice.

In the first chapter of this thesis, we have discussed the speaking skill in terms of its pedagogical definition, its importance and difficulty, as well as its nature and characteristics. Moreover, this chapter included a discussion of the history of the speaking skill and its main schools of thought. This chapter has also tackled few other points in close relation to the speaking skill.

Moving towards the core of the topic of this research, we talked in the second chapter about public speaking and oral presentations. There, we defined and differentiated between the two activities. Then, we discussed the major aims behind using oral presentations. Besides, we talked about the types and methods of public speaking. Two topics of close relation to this art were also discussed. These are body language and visual aids. The chapter ends with a discussion of the most common problems students face when working on oral presentations.

Motivation is the second axis of this thesis. Thus, the third chapter was devoted for this topic. Firstly, we started with stating the most common definitions of the term. Then, we moved to discuss its history and theories. In addition, we tackled its types and importance in

language learning contexts. Besides, the chapter talks about sources of motivation, its assessment, before it ends with how motivation is initiated, sustained and sometimes lost.

The findings of the empirical study of this research are presented in the fourth chapter of this thesis. Firstly, the teachers' questionnaire results are discussed then analyzed. Then, those of the students' questionnaire are also presented and analyzed. After that, synthesis of the two questionnaires were made to answer some very important questions in this research. Last, the clear-cut answer of the second major question of this study was in the students' test which revealed that oral presentations do not improve students' speaking skill, but the alternative course does.

References

- Anderman, E. & Anderman, L. (2009). Attribution Theory. In Psychology of classroom learning: an encyclopedia. Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (Eds.). (Pages 70-3). Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA/Gale Cengage Learning.
- Arredondo, L. (2007). Communicate effectively: 24 lessons for day-to-day business success. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Axtell, R. E. (1992). Do's and taboos of public speaking: how to get those butterflies flying in formation. New York: Wiley.
- Bahatia, B. K. (2006). Bilingualism and Second Language Learning. In Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics. (Vol. 2, Pages 16-22). Boston: Elsevier Ltd.
- Beebe, S. A. & Beebe, S. J. (2013). Public Speaking Handbook (4th ed.). USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Beebe, S. A., & Beebe, S. J. (2015). A concise public speaking handbook. USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Beghetto, R. A. (2007). Motivation. In Encyclopedia of Special Education: a reference for the education of children, adolescents, and adults with disabilities and other exceptional individuals (3rd ed.). Reynolds, C. R., & Fletcher-Janzen, E. (Eds.). (Vol. 1, Pages 1386-8). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bempechat, J. (2008). Homework. In Encyclopedia of educational psychology. Salkind, N. J., & Rasmussen, K. (Eds.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 494-8). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Benati, A. G. (2009). Japanese language teaching: a communicative approach. London: Continuum.
- Bloome, D. (2003). Language and Education. In Encyclopedia of education. (Vol. 8, Pages 1388-92). New York: Macmillan Reference USA.
- Boonkit, K. (2010). Enhancing the development of speaking skills for non-native speakers of English. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 1305-1309. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.191
- Brindley, S. (1994). Teaching English. London: Routledge.
- Broughton, G., Brumfit, C., Flavell, R., Hill, P. & Pincas, A. (2003). Teaching English as a foreign language (2nd ed.). London: Routledge & K. Paul.
- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). Teaching the spoken language: an approach based on the analysis of conversational English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy (2nd ed.). USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Bussmann, H., Trauth, G., & Kazzazi, K. (1996). Routledge dictionary of language and linguistics. London: Routledge.
- Bygate, M. (2009). Teaching the Spoken Foreign Language. In Handbook of foreign language communication and learning (Vol. 6, pages 401-38). New York, NY: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Cameron, J. & Pierce, W. D. (2008). Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic Motivation. In Encyclopedia of educational psychology. Salkind, N. J., & Rasmussen, K. (Eds.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 555-60). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Caplin, J. (2008). *I hate presentations*. Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Chivers, B., & Shoolbred, M. (2007). *A student's guide to presentations: making your presentation count*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2004). *A Guide to Teaching Practice* (5th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Colomar, M. P. (2014). A classroom-based assessment method to test speaking skills in English for Specific Purposes. *Language Learning in Higher Education*. (Vol. 4, Pages 9-26). 4(1). doi:10.1515/cercles-2014-0002
- Crystal, D. (1995). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Danesti, M. (2006). Kinesics. In *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*. (Vol. 8, Pages 207-13). Boston: Elsevier Ltd.
- Davidson, J. P. (2003). *The complete guide to public speaking*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Dean, G. (2004). *Improving learning in secondary English*. London: David Fulton.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (2009). Self-Determination Theory of Motivation. In *Psychology of classroom learning: an encyclopedia*. Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (Eds.). (Pages 787-91). Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA/Gale Cengage Learning.
- Deci, E. L. (2004). Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination. In *Encyclopedia of applied psychology*. Spielberger, C. D. (Ed.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 437-48). Oxford: Elsevier Academic Press.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Duncan, C. K. (1987). *Evaluating Speaking Skills in the Classroom: A Workshop for Teachers*. In *Foreign Language Annals*. (Pages 15-9). doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1987.tb02909.x
- Dunlap, C. Z., & Weisman, E. M. (2006). *Helping English language learners succeed*. Huntington Beach, CA: Shell Educational Publ.
- Elliot, A. J. & Zahn, I. (2008). *Motivation*. In *Encyclopedia of educational psychology*. Salkind, N. J., & Rasmussen, K. (Eds.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 686-92). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Engaging schools: fostering high school students' motivation to learn*. (2004). Washington, D.C.: National Academies Press.
- Esposito, J. E. (2008). *In the spotlight: overcome your fear of public speaking and performing*. Chichester: Capstone.
- Flor, A. M. & Juan, E. U. (2006). *Towards acquiring communicative competence through listening*. In *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills*. (Pages 29-46). Berlin: M. de Gruyter.
- Gabor, D., & Power, M. (2011). *How to start a conversation and make friends: revised and updated*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Gardner, R. C. (2006). *Motivation and Attitudes in Second Language Learning*. In *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*. (Vol. 2, Pages 348-55). Boston: Elsevier Ltd.

- Goberman, A. M., Hughes, S., & Haydock, T. (2011). Acoustic characteristics of public speaking: Anxiety and practice effects. *Speech Communication*. (Vol. 6, Pages 867-76.)
doi:10.1016/j.specom.2011.02.005
- Graham, S. & Williams, C. (2009). An Attributional Approach to Motivation in School. In *Handbook of Motivation at School*. Wentzel, K. R., & Wigfield, A. (Eds.). (Pages 11-33). New York: Routledge.
- Graham, S. (2003). Motivation: Overview. In *Encyclopedia of education* (2nd ed.). (Vol. 8, Pages 1690-5). New York: Macmillan Reference USA.
- Griffin, Z. M. & Ferreira, V. S. (2006). Properties of Spoken Language Production. In *Handbook of Psycholinguistics*. (Pages 21-60). London, UK: Elsevier Inc.
- Hall, G. (2011). *Exploring English language teaching: Language in action* (Routledge introductions to applied linguistics). New York: Routledge.
- Hall, G. M. (Ed.). (2001). *How to present at meetings*. London: BMJ Books.
- Hamilton, C. (2012). *Essentials of Public Speaking*. Wadsworth, USA: Cengage Learning.
- Harkin, J., Turner, G., & Dawn, T. (2001). *Teaching young adults: a handbook for teachers in post-compulsory education*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Harmer, J. (1998). *How to Teach English: an introduction to the practice of English language teaching*. Essex, England: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (2nd ed.). Harlow, United Kingdom: Longman.

- Harper, F. D. & Guilbault, M. (2008). Maslow's Hierarchy of Basic Needs. In Encyclopedia of educational psychology. Salkind, N. J., & Rasmussen, K. (Eds.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 633-8). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Heaton, J. and Harmer, J. (1988). *Writing English language tests*. London: Longman.
- Howatt, A. P. R. (2006). Language Teaching: History. In Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics. (Vol. 2, Pages 634-46). Boston: Elsevier Ltd.
- Hymes, D.H. (1972) "On Communicative Competence" In: J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (eds) Sociolinguistics. Selected Readings. Harmondsworth: Penguin, pp. 269-293.(Part 2)
- Incidental (2008). In Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Intentional (2008). In Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Johnson, K., & Johnson, H. (1998). Encyclopedic dictionary of applied linguistics: a handbook for language teaching. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Jordan, A., Carlile, O., & Stack, A. (2008). Approaches to learning: a guide for teachers. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Juan, E. U., & Flor, A. M. & Soler, E. A. (2006). Towards acquiring communicative competence through speaking. In Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. (Pages 139-57). Berlin: M. de Gruyter.

- Kaplan, A. (2009a). Achievement Motivation. In *Psychology of classroom learning: an encyclopedia*. Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (Eds.). (Pages 13-7). Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA/Gale Cengage Learning.
- Kaplan, A. (2009b). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation. In *Psychology of classroom learning: an encyclopedia*. Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (Eds.). (Pages 513-7). Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA/Gale Cengage Learning.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: from method to postmethod*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kyriacou, C. (2007). *Essential teaching skills*. Cheltenham, U.K.: Nelson Thornes.
- Lamerton, J. (2001). *Everything you need to know public speaking*. Place of publication not identified: Trafalgar Square.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching (2nd ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Laskowski, L. (2001). *10 days to more confident public speaking*. New York: Warner Books.
- Lavery, C. (2001). *Language assistant*. London: The British Council.
- Lazaraton, A. (2001). Teaching Oral Skills. In *Teaching English as a second or foreign language (3rd ed.)*. (Pages 103-15). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

- Lazarus, P. J. & Benson, N. (2008). Emotional Intelligence. In Encyclopedia of educational psychology. Salkind, N. J., & Rasmussen, K. (Eds.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 334-7). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Leaver, B. L., Ehrman, M. E., & Shekhtman, B. (2005). Achieving success in second language acquisition. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Léger, D. D. (2009). Self-Assessment of Speaking Skills and Participation in a Foreign Language Class. In Foreign Language Annals. (Vol. 42, Pages 158-78). doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2009.01013.x.
- Lepper, M. R. & Henderlong, J. (2003). Motivation: Instruction. In Encyclopedia of education (2nd ed.). (Vol. 8, Pages 1695-8). New York: Macmillan Reference USA.
- Lillis, T. M. (2006). Communicative Competence. In Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics. (Vol. 2, Pages 666-73). Boston: Elsevier Ltd.
- Maehr, M. L. & Zusho, A. (2009). Achievement Goal Theory: The Past, Present, and Future. In Handbook of Motivation at School. Wentzel, K. R., & Wigfield, A. (Eds.). (Pages 77-104). New York: Routledge.
- Malmkjær, K. (1991). Psycholinguistics. In The Linguistics encyclopedia. London: Routledge.
- Maxom, M. (2009). Teaching English as a foreign language for dummies. Hoboken, NJ: For Dummies.
- McArthur, T. (Ed.). (1992). The Oxford companion to the English language. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Monarth, H., & Kase, L. (2007). *The confident speaker: beat your nerves and communicate at your best in any situation*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nicholls, N. & Hees, J. V. (2008). *The English language learning progressions: a resource for mainstream and ESOL teachers*. Wellington (N.Z.): Learning Media for the Ministry of Education.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oka, E. R. (2005). Motivation. In *Encyclopedia of school psychology*. Lee, S. W. (Ed.). (Pages 330-5). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Osborn, M., Osborn, S. & Osborn, R. (2007). *Public Speaking (8th ed.)*. USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Pachler, N., & Gaffney, E. (2001). *Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary: a Companion to School Experience*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Pajares, F. (2009). Self-Efficacy Theory. In *Psychology of classroom learning: an encyclopedia*. Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (Eds.). (Pages 791-4). Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA/Gale Cengage Learning.
- Patel, M. F., & Jain, P. M. (2008). *English language teaching: (methods, tools & techniques)*. Jaipur, India: Sunrise Publishers & Distributors.
- Pincus, M. (2006). *Boost your presentation IQ*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Pintrich, P. R. (2003). Motivation and Classroom Learning. In Handbook of Psychology. Reynolds, W. M. & Miller, G. E. (Eds.). (Vol. 7, Pages 103-22). Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Public speaking success in 20 minutes a day. (2010). New York, NY: Learning Express.
- Puffer, C. D. (2006). Questions as strategies to encourage speaking in content-and-language-integrated classrooms. In Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Berlin: M. de Gruyter.
- Ravitch, D. (2007). Edspeak: a glossary of education terms, phrases, buzzwords, and jargon. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Renninger, K. A. (2003). Effort and Interest. In Encyclopedia of education (2nd ed.). (Vol. 8, Pages 704-7). New York: Macmillan Reference USA.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (1986). Approaches and methods in language teaching: a description and analysis. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., Schmidt, R., Kendricks, H., Kim, Y., Platt, H., & Schmidt, M. (2002). Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics (3rd ed.). New York: Longman.
- Rogers, J. (2007). Adults learning (5th ed.). Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Rogova, G. V. (1975). Methods of teaching English. Leningrad: Prosveshchenie.
- Rozakis, L. (1995). The complete idiot's guide to speaking in public with confidence. New York, NY: Alpha Books.

- Schunk, D. H. & Pajares, F. (2009). Self-Efficacy Theory. In Handbook of Motivation at School. Wentzel, K. R., & Wigfield, A. (Eds.). (Pages 35-53). New York: Routledge.
- Schunk, D. H. (2004). Achievement Motivation in Academics. In Encyclopedia of applied psychology. Spielberger, C. D. (Ed.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 35-40). Oxford: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Scott, W. A., & Ytreberg, L. H. (1990). Teaching English to children. Essex, England: Longman.
- Sellnow, D. D. (2005). Confident public speaking (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- Shastri, P. D. (2002). Communicative approach to the teaching of English as a second language. Mumbai: Himalaya Pub. House.
- Snow, C. E. & Freedson-Gonzalez M. (2003). Second Language Learning and English as a Second Language Bilingualism. In Encyclopedia of education. (Vol. 8, Pages 181-5). New York: Macmillan Reference USA.
- Speak. (2008). In Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Strongman, K. T. (2006). Applying psychology to everyday life: a beginner's guide. Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tavil, Z. M. (2010). Integrating listening and speaking skills to facilitate English language learners' communicative competence. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 9, 765-770. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.12.231.
- Templeton, M. (2010). Public speaking and presentations demystified. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- The American Heritage dictionary of the English language. (1992). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Tillfors, M., Carlbring, P., Furmark, T., Lewenhaupt, S., Spak, M., Eriksson, A., Westling, B. E. and Andersson, G. (2008). Treating university students with social phobia and public speaking fears: internet delivered self-help with or without live group exposure sessions. *Depression and Anxiety*. (Vol. 8, Pages 708-17). doi:10.1002/da.20416
- Tillitt, B., & Bruder, M. N. (1985). *Speaking naturally: communication skills in American English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Trask, R. L. (1999). *Language: the basics*. London: Routledge.
- Turner, J. E. & Goodin, J. B. (2008). Motivation and Emotion. In *Encyclopedia of educational psychology*. Salkind, N. J., & Rasmussen, K. (Eds.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 692-6). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Vallerand, R. J. (2004). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation in Sport. In *Encyclopedia of applied psychology*. Spielberger, C. D. (Ed.). (Vol. 1 & 2, Pages 427-35). Oxford: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Warner, J., Bryan, C., & Warner, D. (2006). *The unauthorized teacher's survival guide: an essential reference for both new and experienced educators!* Indianapolis: JIST Works.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching language as communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wigfield, A., Tonks, S. & Klauda, S. L. (2009). Expectancy-Value Theory. In *Handbook of Motivation at School*. Wentzel, K. R., & Wigfield, A. (Eds.). (Pages 55-75). New York: Routledge.

Wilkins, D. (1990). Second Languages: How they are Learned and Taught. In Encyclopedia of Language. (Vol. Pages 286-300). London: Routledge.

Wood, M. (2003). Teaching of Language Arts. In Encyclopedia of education. (Vol. 8, Pages 1392-6). New York: Macmillan Reference USA.

Wright, T. (2009). How to be a brilliant teacher. London: Routledge.

Yule, G. (2006). The study of language. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Appendices

Appendix A - The Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam/Miss,

Thank you for accepting to fill in this questionnaire which is an important section of a Doctorate thesis. Our research aims at measuring the effectiveness of classroom oral presentations and their impact on students' motivation to achieve a fluent speaking performance.

We aim through this questionnaire at taking advantage of your teaching experience to obtain some valuable information concerning students' speaking skill; the way oral presentations are/were applied in your class; their potential use and impact on students' motivation to the subject of Oral Expression.

Thank you in advance.

A. General Information

1. For how long have you been teaching oral expression at the university?

1-5 years 5-10 years +10 years

2. Generally speaking, how many students are/were there in the groups you teach/taught?

Less than 25 From 25 to 50 More than 50

B. Communicative Language Teaching Approach

3. Do you consider yourself following the CLT approach while teaching the subject of oral expression? Yes Somewhat No

4. If your previous answer is no, what language teaching approach/method are you following?

5. How would you order from 1 to 5 the following CLT activities in terms of their effectiveness in developing students' speaking skill? (1 being the least effective)

Group discussions (...) Language games (...) Dialogues (...) Role-plays (...) Oral presentations (...)

6. How would you order from 1 to 5 these activities in terms of frequency of application in classroom? (1 being the least frequently applied one)

Oral presentations (...) Roleplays (...) Language games (...) Dialogues (...) Group discussions (...)

C. Students' Speaking Skill

7. What is your evaluation of the students' speaking skill in general?
Poor Average Good Excellent
8. If your previous answer is poor or average, to which reasons do you link this level?
Lack of basic knowledge Lack of practice Lack of interest and motivation
Other, please specify
9. How many students participate actively and regularly in your sessions?
None Some About half Most All
10. What do you think is/are the main reason(s) of some students' lack of participation?
Fear of making mistakes Fear of being ridiculed Having nothing to say
Other, please specify:

D. Assessing the Students' Speaking Skill

11. Which of the following techniques do you believe is the most accurate in assessing the students' speaking skill?
Formal tests and exams Classroom participation Oral presentations Roleplays
Other, please specify:
12. Do you believe that oral presentations give a true assessment of the students' speaking skill? Yes Somewhat No

E. Students' Oral Presentations

13. What is your main aim behind using students' presentations?
Training Learning and teaching Assessment Other (.....)
14. Do you teach/train your students about the types¹ of presentations? Yes No
15. If your previous answer is no, do you assume they already know that?
Yes No I do not know
16. Which method of delivery do students often use in their oral presentations?
Reading from a script Memorized speech Speaking from notes
Speaking spontaneously
17. Do you ever tell/teach your students on these methods, especially in advance?
Yes No

¹ There are informative presentations, descriptive presentations, persuasive presentations, etc.

18. If your previous answer is no, do you assume they already know that?
 Yes No I do not know
19. Do your students use body language² and visual aids³ effectively while presenting?
 Yes Somewhat No
20. Do you teach/train your students on that? Yes No
21. If your previous answer is no, do you assume they already know that?
 Yes No I do not know
22. How much time of your sessions is devoted to oral presentations?
 None of it Little of it About half of it Most of it All of it
23. Do you believe that these oral presentations fully respect/reflect the standards of CLT, especially learners' roles⁴? Yes Somewhat No
24. How many students do you prefer to have in each group presentation? (# students)
25. How much time do you usually give each group of students to present?
 5-15 minutes 15-30 minutes 30-45 minutes 45-60 minutes +60 minutes
26. How many times does each group of students present per year? (# times)
27. Based on the total number of students in the class, and your answers to the three previous questions, how much time does each student get to present per year?
 5-15 minutes 15-30 minutes 30-45 minutes 45-60 minutes +60 minutes
28. Do you think it is enough time for a student to develop his/her speaking skill?
 Yes Somewhat No
29. In your opinion, how similar are oral presentations to everyday spontaneous and meaningful interaction?
 Identical Very similar A bit similar A bit different Completely different
30. Do you think that oral presentations develop learners' communicative competence of all its sub-divisions⁵? Yes Somewhat No
31. Do you think that oral presentations teach students the use of any language functions? Yes Somewhat No

² We mean personal appearance, posture, facial expressions, eye contact, body movements, gestures, etc.

³ Visual aids include all types of boards, handouts, data-shows, graphs, maps, pictures and drawings, etc.

⁴ In CLT, learners are supposed to express themselves, negotiate and interact with one another.

⁵ Linguistic, discourse, pragmatic and strategic competences.

32. If your previous answer is yes or somewhat, which of the following language functions do students learn when delivering or listening to oral presentations? Signal your choice(s)

Greeting people and introducing oneself	Comparing and contrasting	Agreeing and disagreeing	
Asking and giving advice	Expressing preference	Expressing wishes	
Making complains	Asking questions	Suggesting	
Summarizing	Persuading	Explaining	
Describing	Predicting	Guessing	
Offering	Warning	Narrating	

Other, please specify:

33. Do students start to become noisy after few presentations?

Yes Somewhat No

34. Which of the following problems do you often notice in the presentations your students make? Anxiety Poor use of visual aids One or few learners seem to have done most or all the job Fragmented/disjoined performances due to differences in skills Lack of information and ideas Other:

35. How effective do you believe are these presentations in improving your students' speaking skill? Not effective Slightly effective Very effective

36. To which degree do you believe oral presentations can train and prepare students for accurate, fluent and proper real-life interaction?

Not at all Very little A bit Much Very much

37. Do you think that applying other speaking activities would further increase students' motivation to the subject of oral expression? Yes I do not know No

38. Do you think that applying other speaking activities would further improve students' speaking skill in general and their fluency in particular? Yes I don't know No

F. Students' Motivation to the Subject of Oral Expression

39. To what extent are students motivated to attend, present and participate in a class in which only oral presentations are made?

Not motivated Slightly motivated Very motivated

40. To what extent are students motivated to attend, present and participate in a class in which other speaking activities are applied?

Not motivated Slightly motivated Very motivated

Appendix B - The Students' Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Miss/Madam,

Thank you for accepting to fill in this questionnaire which is an important section of a Doctorate thesis. Our research aims at measuring the effectiveness of classroom oral presentations and their impact on students' motivation to achieve a fluent speaking performance.

We aim through this questionnaire at taking advantage of your learning experience to obtain some valuable information concerning your speaking skill; the way you deal with oral presentations; and their impact on your motivation to the subject of oral expression.

Thank you in advance.

Questions

A. General Information

1. For how long have you been studying English at the university? year(s).
2. How would you rank the importance of these language skills according to you? (1 being the least important) Speaking (...) Writing (...) Listening (...) Reading (...)
3. How would you rank these skills in terms of difficulty of mastery? (1 being the least difficult) Speaking (...) Writing (...) Listening (...) Reading (...)

B. The Speaking Skill

4. How do you evaluate your speaking skill?
Poor Average Good Excellent
5. If you answered poor or average, to which reasons do you owe this level:
 - Lack of practice
 - The linguistic system
 - Lack of basic knowledge
 - Lack of interest and motivation
 - Other, please specify
6. How would you order from 1 to 5 these activities in terms of how interesting you find them? (1 being the least interesting)
Oral presentations (...) Role-plays (...) Dialogues (...) Language games (...) Group discussions (...)
7. Which of the following activities your teacher(s) applied the most with you previously?

Oral presentations Role-plays Dialogues Language games
Group discussions

8. How often did you participate in the oral expression session?

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Always

9. If you chose never or rarely, what was the main reason of your lack of participation?

Fear of making mistakes Fear of being ridiculed Having nothing to say

Other, please specify:

C. Oral Presentations

10. Based on the total number of students in the class, their number in each group presentation, the time given to each group to present, how much time do you get to present per year?

5-15 minutes 15-30 minutes 30-45 minutes 45-60 minutes +60 minutes

11. In oral expression sessions, did you want/prefer to try other activities instead of oral presentations? Yes No

12. Do you like to work in groups so as to deliver a presentation?

Yes Somewhat No

13. Which method do/did you use when delivering your oral presentations?

Reading from a script Memorized speech Reading from notes

Spontaneous speaking

14. Have you even been taught types of speeches and presentations, their methods of delivery, how to use body language and visual aids while presenting before?

Yes No

15. If not, did you know anything about that? Yes Somewhat No

16. If your answer was yes, where from did you learn that?

17. Has your teacher delivered a model oral presentation for you? Yes No

18. Which of the following problems face-d you in a group presentation?

- Fear and anxiety
- Misuse of visual aid
- There is too little time to prepare
- I find myself doing most of the job
- Bossy, greedy or difficult members
- I see no point of some or all presentations

- There is too little or too much information
- Conflicts about who is/are the decision maker(s)
- I do not like group work. I prefer to work alone better

19. How did these problems affect your motivation towards oral presentations?

It decreased it It did not affect it It increased it

20. Which of the following skills have you actually developed from making and delivering oral presentations?

- I developed group work techniques and strategies
- I am prepared for the workplace and professional life
- I learnt to use body language, voice and visual aids better
- I gained higher marks because I can speak better than I write
- I really enjoyed presenting and feel motivated to do it again and again
- I developed my communication skills as well as knowledge at the same time
- I learned new information from the presentations of my friends as well as mine
- I built a stronger personality and my self-confidence to speak to a crowd increased
- I developed my social life (i.e. friends) and I created a sense of belonging to a group
- Other:

21. Does/did the routine of oral presentations cause you to get bored of the session?

Yes Somewhat No

22. In your opinion, how similar is real-life interaction to the presentations you do in the classroom?

Identical Very similar Somewhat similar Somewhat different
 Very different Completely different

23. Do you think oral presentations provide enough time to improve your speaking skill?

Yes Somewhat No

24. If you answered yes or somewhat, to what extent have the oral presentations you made improved your speaking skill? Very much A little Not at all

25. To which degree do you believe oral presentations can train and prepare you for accurate, fluent and proper real-life interaction?

Not at all Very little A bit Much Very much

D. Students' Motivation

26. Are you motivated to study and learn English? Yes Somewhat No

27. What are the sources of your motivation to study and learn English?

Society Significant others Teachers The method and system of education

Other, please specify:

28. How motivating do you find oral presentations to attend oral expression sessions?

Not motivating at all Slightly motivating Very motivating

Extremely Motivating

29. How did the course of oral expression sessions you have studied affect your motivation to the subject?

It decreased it It didn't affect it It increased it

30. How do you think the course of oral expression sessions you have studied affected the level of your speaking performance?

It lowered it It did not affect it It enhanced it

ملخص

لهذه الدراسة هدفان. أولاً، فإنها تحقق في تأثير العروض الشفوية للطلبة على دافعهم للتكلم بفصاحة. في هذا، نحن نفترض أن هذا الأسلوب الفصلي، وتحت الظروف الحالية، يحبط الطلبة من المشاركة النشطة في جلسات التعبير الشفوي. ليس ذلك فحسب، ولكن هذه الممارسة أيضاً تعيق تطوير قدراتهم على التحدث. في الواقع، فإن الوسائل الثلاث المختلفة للبحث (استبيان لأربعين أستاذاً للتعبير شفهي كذلك استبيان لـ 105 من طلاب السنة الثانية بالإضافة إلى اختبارهم الأول) تكشف الكثير من المعلومات حول الموضوع وتؤكد بقوة هذه الفرضية.

ثانياً، من أجل اقتراح حل بديل للمشكلة، يدرس هذا البحث أيضاً فعالية دورة من أنشطة التعبير الشفوي التي تهدف إلى زيادة دافع الطلبة على الحضور وكذلك زيادة عدد فرصهم للمشاركة في حصص التعبير الشفهي، وبالتالي تعزيز قدراتهم على التحدث. من ناحية أخرى، يظهر استبيان الطلبة أن هذه الدورة تقوم بالفعل بما صممت لتحقيقه. يزداد الدافع لدى الطلبة بشكل ملحوظ خلال تطبيق الدورة. ومن ناحية أخرى، يؤكد اختبار الطلبة الثاني أن أداءهم الكلامي يتحسن بفضل هذه الدورة.

بناءً على النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها، تم تأكيد الفرضيات التي اختبرناها، من حيث أن العروض الشفهية التي يقوم بها الطلبة تؤدي إلى خفض دافعهم للمشاركة في حصص التعبير الشفوي، كما أن هذه العروض لا تحسن من أدائهم الكلامي. وعلى النقيض من ذلك، فإن المقرر البديل هو الحل الأنسب للمشكلة لأنه يزيد بشكل ملحوظ من دافع الطلبة للمشاركة ويحسن إلى حد كبير من مهاراتهم الشفوية.

كلمات مفتاحية: كلام، الخطابة العامة، تعبير شفهي، عرض شفهي، دافع.

Résumé

Cette étude a deux objectifs. Tout d'abord, elle étudie l'impact des présentations orales des étudiantes sur leur motivation pour obtenir une performance parlante fluide. Dans ce cas, nous émettons l'hypothèse que cette technique de classe et, dans les conditions actuelles, démotivent les étudiants de participer activement aux sessions d'expression orale. Non seulement cela, mais aussi cette pratique empêche le développement de leurs capacités de parler. En effet, les trois différents moyens de recherche (les questionnaires des enseignants et des étudiants et le premier test des étudiantes) révèlent beaucoup d'informations sur le sujet et confirment fortement cette hypothèse.

Deuxièmement, afin de suggérer une solution alternative au problème, cette recherche étudie également l'efficacité d'un cours d'activités d'expression orale visant à accroître la motivation des étudiantes et à leur participation à l'expression orale, ce qui améliore leurs capacités de parler. Le questionnaire des étudiants, d'une part, montre que ce cours fait réellement ce qu'il est conçu pour réaliser. La motivation des étudiantes augmente considérablement lors de l'application du cours. Le deuxième test des étudiants, d'autre part, confirme que la performance orale des étudiantes se développe grâce au cours.

Sur la base des résultats obtenus, les hypothèses que nous avons testées sont confirmées, en ce sens que les présentations orales effectuées par les étudiants les démotivent pour participer à la classe orale, elles n'améliorent pas leur performance orale. En revanche, le cours alternatif est une solution mieux adaptée au problème, car elle augmente de façon remarquable la motivation des étudiantes et améliore considérablement leurs compétences orales.

Mots clés : parler, parler en public, expression orale, présentations orales, motivation.