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Developing Students' Speaking Skill through “Dogme ELT” Teaching Approach

**A Case Study of Second Year Students at the Department of English.
Mohamed Kheider University, Biskra**

**Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree
of LMD Doctorate in Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL)**

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Dedication

This work is wholeheartedly dedicated to:

My father who has always striven for knowledge.

My mother for her love and prayers.

My beloved wife “Farida Ben Brahim” who was supposed to submit her PhD thesis last year, but unfortunately she left this world on July 18, 2020. Her moral and emotional support kept me stronger than ever.

“You are always loved and never forgotten”

My lovely daughters and sons; Meriem, Rima, Kheireddine, and Ali Zine El Abidine

My brothers and sisters particularly my eldest brother Abdelhamid

All the family and friends who believed in me.

All of you dearest readers.

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Abstract

Speaking English has always been difficult for foreign learners. Hence, several teaching methodologies have been put forth to encourage and promote speaking in the classroom. The aim of this research is to investigate the extent to which the integration of Dogme ELT approach in oral classes would develop the speaking skill of second year students of English at Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra. It is hypothesized that if students were taught through Dogme ELT, they would better improve their speaking skill in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency if compared to those who were taught through traditional way. In this research, the mixed methods approach was used; it is a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. The research which was conducted in the academic year 2016-2017, was undertaken first, by distributing two questionnaires; one to Oral Expression teachers (n=10) and another one to second year students (n= 80); they were designed to diagnose the participants' opinions and attitudes about Dogme ELT as well as the actual situation of teaching speaking. Second, a treatment was used, preceded by a pre-test and followed by a post-test; an experimental group (n=40) and a control group (n=40) were therefore used in the experiment; the former was taught through Dogme ELT approach and the latter through classical teaching. Third, a focus group interview was conducted with students from the experimental group (n=8) to supplement the findings. The pre-experiment questionnaires revealed the inefficiency of the current methods of teaching speaking whereas the post-test scores indicated that the students of the experimental group achieved statistically greater levels in their speaking. Likewise, the qualitative data collected from the focus group interview supplemented the quantitative findings; therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative accepted. Accordingly, some pedagogical recommendations are proposed for further research.

List of Acronyms

| | |
|---------------|---|
| ACTFL | : American Council of the Teaching of Foreign Languages |
| AIDS | : Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome |
| ALM | : Audio-lingual method |
| ASTP | : Army Specialized Training Program |
| BEM | : Brevet de fin d'Etudes Moyennes |
| BYOD | : Bring Your Own Device |
| CAT | : Conversation Activated Teaching |
| CALL | : Computer assisted language learning |
| CBA | : Competency Based Approach |
| CD-ROM | : Compact Disc Read-Only Memory |
| CEF | : Common European Framework |
| CLL | : Community language learning |
| CLT | : Communicative Language Teaching |
| CSs | : Communication Strategies |
| DM | : Direct method |
| DVD | : Digital Video Disc |
| EFL | : English as a foreign language |
| ESL | : English as a second language |
| ESP | : English for Specific Purposes |
| ELL | : English language learners |
| ELT | : English Language Teaching |
| GTM | : Grammar translation method |
| IELTS | : International English Language Testing System |
| IPA | : International Phonetic Association |
| IRF | : Initiate-Respond-Follow up (Initiation Response Feedback) |
| L1 | : First language |

L2 : Second Language
LCT : Learner centered teaching
LMD : License Master Doctorate
NCS : National Certificate Scale
OE : Oral Expression
PPP : Presentation, production, performance
SLA : Second language acquisition
SLT : Situational language teaching
SOT : Slips of the tongue
SPSS : Statistical Package for Scientific Research
SW : Silent way
TBA : Task based approach
TBL : Task based learning
TBLL : Task based language learning
TBLT : Task based language teaching
TEFL : Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL : Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TGG : Transformational Generative Grammar
TOEFL : Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOT : Tip of the tongue
TPR : Total Physical Response
TSE : Test of Spoken English
T T T : Test-Teach-Test
WLL : Whole language learning

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

In this world of globalization, English has become a powerful tool for development and communication, and it has been increasingly taught in universities worldwide. In Algerian Universities, the ability to speak English is viewed by most EFL students as the sine qua non for their language proficiency. Students always try to reach a certain level of fluency as soon as possible so they can comfortably hold a conversation in different social contexts. Richards & Renandya (2002) note that speaking is needed for many different purposes; it can be used in casual conversations to make social contact with people or to establish relationships, to discuss with someone to seek or express opinions, to persuade someone about something or to clarify information, to give instructions or to get things done, to describe things, to complain about people's behavior, to make polite requests, or to entertain people with jokes and anecdotes.

Among language skills, the speaking skill gained more interest particularly by the emergence of communicative language teaching approach in the 1970s; schools have shifted from passive learning to active learning where students are more actively involved, where the teacher has become a facilitator and guide who acts as an independent participant and who has to determine the students' needs and to satisfy them. Students can participate with teachers in the learning process since they are permitted to take equal roles with their teachers. Freire (1993), for instance, states that besides his role of teaching, the teacher plays the role of a learner too when conversing with his students, so he learns while he teaches.

To promote teaching speaking, different classroom activities have been proposed such as: role play, storytelling, interviews, discussion, games and surveys. Though the method has been applied by many educative systems all over the world, it has received some critiques for paying insufficient attention to the context in which teaching and learning take place. Some researchers such as Prabhu (1990) asserted that no single method can be considered the ideal method to teach English. Many other language teaching methods have been adopted and have added at least some knowledge to the field of teaching foreign languages, but teachers and their students as well, still believe that the implemented classroom activities do not completely meet their needs.

Hence, improving students' speaking skill remains one of the challenging roles of Oral Expression teachers to realize. They often seek for methods and strategies that may satisfy their students' needs. Students, however, may feel chained by textbooks and syllabi that teachers have to respect, so they cannot practice the target language freely. In 2000, Scott

Thornbury began to publish his ideas in forms of articles that aimed to return English language teaching to its roots. He carried the notion of abandoning textbooks while teaching, purifying teaching from any artificiality, and focusing on students' actual needs; it was the Dogme English Language Teaching movement that gained many followers all over the world.

In 2009, Scott Thornbury and Luke Meddings published their book "*Teaching Unplugged*", in which they stressed on interaction among students that leads to the production of spontaneous language without a need to any external material. They suggested ten key principles of Dogme teaching. From those, three core principles are highlighted as the fundamentals of the approach: classes should be "conversation-driven", teaching should be "materials light", and the instruction should focus on "emergent language" (Thornbury & Meddings, 2009). Indeed, interaction and conversation allow language to emerge as Hatch claims that "language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations" (Hatch, 1978, p. 404). The suggested approach rejects published textbooks and technology in the classroom, and claims that teaching should be done using only the resources the teacher and students bring to the class and "Learning is a social and dialogic process, where knowledge is co-constructed and mediated through talk" (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 8). In order to address the need for developing students' speaking skill, this study was conducted to test the feasibility of implementing Dogme ELT in teaching speaking in Oral Expression module.

2. Statement of the Problem

The idea of learning English to speak it comfortably always persists. Quite a considerable number of Algerian students at Universities study English in order to improve proficiency in speaking, a skill often targeted mainly for communication purposes in several domains. They consider "speaking" as a predominant skill which is relatively difficult to master because of its complex process if compared with the other language skills. Bygate claims that:

"It is the skill by which they (learners) are most frequently judged and through which they may make or lose friends. It is the vehicle par excellence of social solidarity, or social ranking, of professional advancement and of business. It is also the medium through which much language is learnt and which for many is particularly conducive for learning." (Bygate, 1987, p. 01)

Despite teaching speaking has undergone major changes in the last decades, it is still traditional. For many years, it has been undervalued, and EFL teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. Students often feel bored with activities that are sometimes imposed by their teachers or they do not overlap with

their interests, and they feel less motivated since they are dominated by teacher's talk. It is worth noting that the current way of teaching speaking is viewed less efficient to improve the students' speaking skill, and students rarely intervene during Oral Expression session, and heavy emphasis is put on the target language itself rather than on its use.

However; today's world requires that teaching speaking should improve students' communication skills by providing them with appropriate and enjoyable tasks. Learners' lack of being exposed to foreign language through real life and spontaneous interaction remains a big problem to solve. Learners are taught through different foreign language teaching methods and approaches except the Dogme ELT which seems to be unknown by both EFL teachers and learners. In European Universities, for instance, studies have investigated the usefulness of Dogme ELT using different research methodologies, however; in Algerian universities, the so called approach has never been tackled. Hence, through the current study which is locally held, the researcher attempts to provide a deep overview and concrete findings about the topic as well as its rationales.

Being a student for five years, the researcher has observed that students, himself included, had no idea about the so called approach. Even our teachers who taught us all the different foreign language teaching methods from the grammar translation method to the communicative language teaching method did not signal any contemporary approaches that were practiced in the field on the time. This has triggered my curiosity to investigate the Dogme ELT, its principles and objectives, its effectiveness in the improvement of the students' speaking skill, and to check the teachers' awareness about it as well as their opinions. The researcher's main concern was to investigate the impact that Dogme English language teaching could have on students' speaking skill.

3. Aims and Objectives of the Study

When conducting this study, the researcher had first an aim to answer the question 'what are you doing?' to set out what is hoped to be achieved at the end of the study. Second, he had an objective to answer the question 'how are you doing it to achieve the desired measurable outcomes. Hence, he needed to use his own tools and strategies to answer the research questions. Mertens (2010) notes that previous research may have lack of consistency, they may have been conducted on a different population than of yours, they may have provided shortcomings on design, data collection, instruments, sampling, or interpretation. You may have noticed an on-going educational problem and therefore propose studying the impact of an innovative intervention to correct that problem. This was the main reason for which this

research is launched. Therefore, throughout this study, the researcher set himself the following aims to attain;

- To check whether Dogme ELT principles (conversation driven, materials light, and focus on emergent language) could improve students' speaking skill.
- To raise Oral Expression teachers' awareness about Dogme ELT and therefore to have a better understanding of its tenets.
- To introduce Dogme ELT as an alternative teaching approach for investigation and practice.

Research objectives comprise a number of steps that address how research aim will be achieved. They exactly specify the steps to follow in each phase of the research in order to provide answers to questions through the application of scientific procedures. The objectives are summarized in the following points:

- To probe the actual situation of teaching speaking from both teachers and students' perspectives in the department of foreign languages, section of English at Biskra University.
- To test the effectiveness of Dogme ELT principles on students' speaking skill through experiment implementation.
- To determine students and Oral Expression teachers' attitudes toward Dogme ELT and to seek to which extent the new suggested approach could be appreciated and applied by them.
- To enhance students' speaking skill by giving students much freedom in the classroom to select any topic they want to discuss ,to interact in any way they feel comfortable with(discussion, debate, interview ,or dialogue),and to create an atmosphere of friendship among them and their teachers as well.
- To suggest some teaching recommendations concerning the implementation of Dogme lesson ideas in the Oral Expression session as a useful language teaching paradigm.

4. Research Questions

The ability to define precisely what the researcher is trying to discover by setting questions will influence most of the phases of a research, hence it is necessary to acquire a deep overview about the subject under investigation. Tavakoli(2012) states that, in the path of investigating a problem, specific questions should be asked to seek for specific answers. Based on the researcher's prior study about teaching methodologies, there is a need to explore describe, or explain through research questions how could Dogme ELT be a useful alternative

way of teaching speaking. The present study is an attempt at answering a set of questions related to the development of students' speaking skill through the application of the Dogme ELT lessons in Oral Expression session. The objectives of the investigation are guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the reasons behind the students' speaking difficulties?
2. What strategies do students use to develop their speaking skill?
3. How is speaking actually taught by Oral Expression teachers?
4. What are the main principles of the Dogme ELT teaching approach?
5. To what extent would the use of Dogme ELT develop students' speaking skill in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency?
6. What are the students' attitudes and opinions about Dogme ELT activities?

5. Hypothesis

Before undertaking a clear research, there is a necessity to introduce a problem, propose a remedy, and expect results. These steps are often summarized in a form of a statement called 'hypothesis' which is considered by Kothari (2004) as a proposition set forth as a clarification for the appearance of a phenomenon either confirmed simply as a temporary intuition or prediction to carry on an investigation or admitted as highly potential in the light of established facts. A good hypothesis should state the relationship between variables which are measurable or potentially measurable and which are capable of being tested. Kumar (2011) states that hypothesis has many functions; it tells you what specific aspect of research problem to investigate, what data to collect, it enhances objectivity, and enables the researcher to conclude what is true or what is false.

Based on prior experience as a student and as a teacher, which resulted from observation and previous studies, the researcher collected information that shaped his suspicions and assumptions which therefore became the basis of this enquiry. Referring to the research questions, it is assumed that there is a close relationship between teaching through Dogme ELT and the development of students' speaking skill. Therefore, this assumption is converted into the following hypothesis.

Students who are taught through Dogme ELT teaching approach would better improve their speaking skill in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency if compared to those who are taught through traditional approach.

6. Significance of the Study

Broadly, the researcher expects that this study could enrich the field of foreign language teaching with the outcomes of using Dogme ELT as a teaching paradigm to improve students' speaking skill. The results of the study may have implications for educational policy and future project implementation in the Algerian university and why not to influence the education system authorities to incorporate it in the curriculum. Thus, schools and institutions that apply the recommended approach will be able to prepare students to be confident and fluent speakers who can communicate effectively. From another perspective, if Dogme ELT is integrated in teaching speaking, it may reduce the amount of high budgets devoted to equipment and materials such as published text books and technological instruments. Generally, the researcher looks forward that teaching speaking through the Dogme ELT teaching approach may answer the question of how teaching speaking should be useful and less complicated; it may provide new insights to teachers to be more reflective, and to look over and analyze their teaching practices so they can improve or change them for better learning outcomes. Specifically, since Dogme ELT is investigated for the first time at the level of our department, from one side it may serve as a guide and reference for students undertaking similar studies and for students seeking for improving and socializing spoken language among them. From another side, it may free students from imposed materials that probably chain their motivation and enthusiasm. Therefore, they can be partners with their teachers in their learning process. The significance of this study could not be completely attained unless providing some suggestions and recommendations to teachers to test this new alternative approach in teaching speaking with less preparation and less materials.

7. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis includes five chapters which are presented after a general introduction. The latter provides an overview about the whole work; it includes the background of the study, statement of the problem, aims and objectives of the study, research questions, research hypothesis, significance of the study, structure of the thesis, research methodology, and limitations of the study.

The first chapter is devoted to deal with the dependent variable (the speaking skill): the nature of speaking, the differences between speaking and writing, the integration between

speaking and listening, the components of speaking, types of speaking tasks, activities and strategies to develop the speaking skill, communication strategies, and the students' psychological difficulties.

The second chapter provides an overview about the different language teaching methodologies. It focuses on the communicative approaches that shaped Dogme ELT and emphasized its principles: (conversation driven, materials light, and emergent language) as well as its advantages and disadvantages.

The third chapter deals with the research situation analysis, it investigates the actual situation of teaching and learning speaking through analyzing and discussing the two questionnaires delivered to second year students and Oral Expression teachers.

The fourth chapter clarifies the content and the procedure of the experiment implementation as well as the analysis and discussion.

The fifth chapter evaluates with details the results obtained from the pre/post tests of both groups and the focus group interview held with the experimental group. The chapter provides a conclusion of the research and some recommendations for further research.

8. Research Methodology

Research methodology is the theory or the general framework that guides the research project; it is viewed as the spine on which research success is built; it determines the direction of the study, the quality of data and the manner of their collection. However, research method is the various scientific and planned procedures and techniques through which answers are provided to questions such as: how are participants selected? How are collected data analyzed? And how are findings communicated? A method may include observation, experiment, numerical schemes, and statistical approaches. It is believed that "Research methodology has many dimensions and research methods do constitute a part of the research methodology" (Kothari, 2004, p. 8), whereas method is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation used to obtain conceived answers to research question" (Kumar, 2011); it deals with steps such as sampling, data collection and data analysis.

Deciding which method to use for conducting this research relies on the nature of the investigated problem, the type of needed sample and data, and the objectives of the study. The research is an attempt to collect evidence about the usefulness of Dogme ELT as an alternative teaching approach in developing students' speaking skill, it explores the potential 'cause and effect' relationship between the variables. Hence, for a better understanding of the research problem, the mixed method approach, which requires collecting, analyzing, and

interpreting both qualitative and quantitative, is seen the most convenient. The quantitative approach seeks to collect numerical data to test a theory or to quantify participants' opinions through the use of structured interviews or questionnaires. The qualitative approach seeks to gain a deep understanding of participants' attitudes and motivations and to provide insights into the subject matter through the use of tools such as unstructured or semi structured interviews. The research is experimental since it manipulates the variables to arrive at conclusion, and descriptive since it describes the characteristics of the variables.

8.1. Population and Sampling

To investigate the research problem, identifying the target population was needed in order to select a sample. In the academic year 2016/2017, the number of second year students enrolled in the department of foreign languages; section of English at Biskra University was 400. Since it was practically difficult to involve the whole population, 80 students equally divided into two groups and which represented 20% of the population were assigned by the administration. Since the two groups existed before conducting this study, it was impossible to reconstruct them through the basis of random sampling. Hence, the sample falls under the category of 'non random sampling' and more precisely 'convenience sampling' because of its convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher. The sample is a convenient source of data since the two groups were to be taught by the researcher and they were easy to contact and to manipulate. The experimental group was exposed to a treatment in the form of Dogme activities in Oral Expression session. The treatment consisted of 8 activities selected from the book 'teaching unplugged' and each activity took two sessions a week, whereas the control group was taught in a classical way using activities such as: role play, story-telling and interviews.

8.2. Data Gathering Tools

The phase of gathering data in a research begins after defining the research problem and choosing the research design. Therefore, it is worth noting that there are two major approaches under which collecting information are undertaken: the first approach deals with primary data which can be driven through questionnaires, observations, and interviews (Kothari, 2004), the second approach deals with secondary data collected from documents such as previous studies (Kumar, 2011). Choosing the best data gathering tool pertains to the researcher who needs to link between the instrument to be used with the nature of research problem and the theoretical field of the research. It is claimed that there is no single

prescribed data collection measure, nor is there a 'right' or 'wrong' one. The prevalence of one measure over another is highly dependent on the research question or related to the theoretical framework within which research is conducted (Mackaey & Gass, 2005).

To fulfill the research objective, the researcher opted for different instruments. First, two questionnaires were administered to both second year students of English and Oral Expression teachers at Mohamed Kheider University (Biskra). The questionnaires sought for analyzing and evaluating the current situation of teaching and learning speaking; they aimed to diagnose the students' current level in speaking, then to prove they needed a kind of treatment to develop their speaking skill. Second, a pretest was used to diagnose the students' speaking level in terms of (vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency), and to make sure they had nearly the same level. After the experiment was launched, two progress tests were used to assess the students' speaking progress. At the end of the experiment, a post test was used in order to assess the extent to which Dogme ELT (the independent variable) had affected the students' speaking skill (the dependent variable) by comparing the scores of the experimental and control groups. Third, a focus group interview was held with the experimental group to collect data about their attitudes and opinions regarding the integration of Dogme ELT in learning speaking.

9. Limitations of the Study

Before undertaking this research, it was not possible to include all aspects of the investigated problem, and the researcher didn't expect some constraints that were out of control and that might influence the results. Bringing up those shortcomings doesn't under evaluate the research; by contrary, it indicates that the researcher has a wide understanding about the subject under investigation. Hence, it is recommended to identify any problems before reviewers or researchers find them. As with the majority of studies, the design of the current research was subject to limitations that could be addressed to future research. The first limitation pertains to the lack of previous research studies on the topic. Since it is a new approach of teaching English, Dogme ELT has rarely been investigated in the Algerian Universities. Discovering gaps in prior studies would help the researcher to scrutinize the problem from a different perspective in order to look for solutions to their shortcomings. Hence the researcher needed to use his own methodological perception and self-reflection to test the research hypothesis and to achieve the predicted outcomes.

The second limitation concerns the sample size which seemed to be insufficient for statistical measurement; it is confirmed that the larger the sample the more precise your results will be. Conducting a study only with 40 participants among 400 second year students automatically

leads to narrow results that could not be generalized and therefore minimizes the validity of the research. The third limitation is related to the sampling technique; the ability to use a random sampling was not at the reach of the researcher because the two groups were designated by the administration. Therefore the researcher was obliged to opt for a convenience sampling which hinders the generalizability of findings to a larger population. The fourth limitation pertains to the difficulty of testing speaking. Unlike the other language skills, speaking is probably the most difficult skill to assess. The intricacy of speaking is related to its sub skills (vocabulary pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency) which is time consuming to evaluate and which requires a careful speculation before giving scores. The researcher as a test taker faced many challenges such as the problem of bias which always persists. It was not possible to score test performance anonymously because the test was held face to face with participants, and even if it was recorded through an audio tape, participants' voices could be easily recognized.

10. Operational Definitions of Key Terms:

The current research includes significant words which are defined below in order to help the reader to understand their meanings.

Speaking skill: The ability to talk at any time and in any situation; it requires components such as fluency, accuracy, vocabulary and pronunciation.

Dogme ELT: communicative approach to language teaching that encourages teaching without published books and focuses instead on conversational communication among learners and teacher.

Conversation driven: Conversation is both the process and the product of language learning, and learning a skill should be co-constructed within the interaction between the learner and the teacher.

Materials light: minimizing the use of materials such as published textbooks and technological devices, and welcoming instead materials imported by the students.

Emergent language: language that is often produced unpredictably in interaction between the learners and/or the teacher and the learners.

Chapter One: Speaking

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Chapter One: Speaking

Introduction

At the present time, English is considered to be the world's lingua franca; it is spoken as a native language in many countries around the world. Moreover, roughly hundreds millions of people use it as their second language. Due to the fact that the world has turned into an interconnected global system, people from different countries who do not share a mother tongue often use English as a mutual language. Hence, for non-native speakers, learning English language means being able to speak it and to communicate with it worldwide.

In classroom setting, EFL learners consider speaking as equivalent to knowing the language; they often prioritize leaning to speak English rather than other aspects of foreign language learning such as writing, listening, and reading. They tend to perceive their speaking ability as a crucial criterion of their language learning success. However, due to its complicated nature, the speaking skill seems not to be easy to master, it needs to be well investigated in order to understand the mechanism of its interconnected sub-skills (linguistic, oral, production, and production skills), and its components (vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency).

Furthermore, the ways of teaching speaking should be well selected and applied to ensure the development of the speaking skill. The surrounding factors that may affect the students should be diagnosed in order to reduce their probable negative effects on students' speaking performance. The type of the activities performed in the classroom should provide free and real opportunities to practice the target language and therefore to recognize the different communication strategies. All the mentioned elements play a great part in promoting teaching speaking and enabling students to gain confidence which is necessary in oral communication.

This chapter deals with the speaking skill; it tackles with details its importance, its nature, and its components. It clarifies its relationship with the writing skill and its integration with the listening skill. Besides the different useful types of classroom activities and communication strategies, the chapter emphasizes both linguistic and psychological speaking difficulties and suggests ways to overcome them.

1.1. Importance of the speaking skill

Along the history of foreign language teaching and learning, speaking has always been viewed as one the most important skill to be mastered, and "acquiring speaking proficiency is one of the hardest skills for ELL to achieve" (Sasson, 2013, p. 24). Learners often assess their learning achievement basing on their mastery of the speaking skill and pay less attention to their potentialities in the other language skills, simply because they need to use the target

language with friends, classmates and casual acquaintances face to face, through the telephone or over the internet. When asked about competence in other languages, the question “How many languages do you write?” sounds odd, the question “How many languages can you understand or read?” makes more sense, but the question “How many languages do you speak?” sounds overwhelming (Lazaraton, 2001).

Surely, speaking is the most needed skill, and it is “so much a part of daily life that we take it for granted. The average person produces tens of thousands of words a day, although some people-like auctioneers or politicians may produce even more than that” (Thornbury, 2005, p. 1). Brown (2007) states that the act of speaking is too complex due to its characteristics that include clustering, hesitation markers and pausing, colloquial language such as slangs and idioms, and supra-segmental features such as stress, rhythm, and intonation.

Hedge (2000) considers speaking as “A skill by which they (people) are judged while first impressions are being formed” (Hedge, 2000, p. 261). Celce-Murcia also states that “For most people, the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language since speech is the most basic means of human communication” (Celce-Murcia, 2001, p. 103). A great portion of world’s foreign language learners study English in order to improve proficiency in speaking, and learners often use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.

Richards & Renandya (2002) note that speaking is used for many different purposes, it can be used in casual conversations to make social contact with people or establish relationships, to discuss with someone to seek or express opinions, to persuade someone about something, to complain about people’s behavior, to make polite requests, or to entertain people with jokes and anecdotes. It is the most dominating skill in daily life practice if compared to the other language skills (Grognet, 1997). Through speaking which is necessary to every aspect of life, people can build positive relationship with others, explain clearly their intentions, get directly information, and contribute effectively in discussions.

All the different methods and approaches of teaching and learning languages have recognized the importance of speaking; however they have not given it the same emphasis. Sarosdy, Bencze, Poor & Vadnay (2006), for instance, noted that a traditional method such as Grammar Translation Method gave no importance to speaking while the Direct Method advocated communication. The Audio-Lingual Method stressed on structures and pronunciation patterns drills to improve listening and speaking skills, and prepare various speech functions. Communicative approaches to language teaching that emerged in the 1970s, gave priority to speaking since it was considered as the most effective skill for communication.

Classrooms have become a setting for practicing language between the teacher and students and between students themselves through interaction. The spoken language, as (Palmer 122, p. 2014) states, is composed of six essential competencies: Poise: appearing calm and confident. b) Vice: making every word heard. c) Life: putting passion into the voice. d) Eye contact: engaging each listener. e) Gestures: matching motions to words. f) Speed: pacing for powerful performance. The characteristics of spoken language in different circumstances are summarized, where the + sign indicates presence and the - sign absence.

| Circumstance | Immediate response needed | Message adjustable (speed, ..) | Short bursts of language | Redundancies | Body language | Discourse markers |
|----------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Friendly interaction | + | + | + | + | + | - |
| Service encounter | + | +/- | + | - | +/- | - |
| Other talking | - | - | + | + | + | - |
| Talks/Lectures | - | - | - | - | +/- | + |
| Radio/TV | - | - | +/- | - | +/- | - |

Table1. Characteristics of spoken language in different circumstances (Grauberg, 1997, p. 84)

Clark and Clark (1977) as cited in (Grauberg, 1997, p. 201) describe the process the speakers follow to interpret what they intend to convey, they propose the following five steps: Choosing the form of the discourse such as inviting, ordering, and reporting, shaping the sentence to convey the message such as stating or questioning, selecting the appropriate words such as noun phrase, verb phrase, short clause, preparing their pronunciation and producing them is in due time.

1.2. Speaking as a Skill

If we think of all the different conversations we have in one day and compare them with the written communications, we do in the same day, which do we do more? of course we spend much time in speaking .Speaking, therefore, is a vital biological activity donated to human being to express their thoughts, beliefs, feelings and desires; it is the first and the main form of communication through which information is easily transmitted, received and understood. Luoma (2004) notes that when we hear someone speak, we often pay attention to what the speaker sounds like, we subconsciously judge the speakers personality, attitudes, and the

home region. People use their speech to create an image of themselves to others. They use speed and pausing, and variations in their pitch, as well as volume and intonation. Speakers create a texture for their talk that indicates what they are saying. It is claimed that speaking is:

“The skill by which they (learners) are most frequently judged and through which they may make or lose friends. It is the vehicle par excellence of social solidarity, or social ranking, of professional advancement and of business. It is also the medium through which much language is learnt and which for many is particularly conducive for learning” (Bygate, 1987, p. 1).

The aim behind learning a foreign language is to speak and to communicate with that language. Being skilful in speaking is not merely to produce and pronounce words (McDonough and Shaw, 1993). It is to be able to produce the expected patterns of specific discourse situations. In other words, to be able to decide what to say in the situation, to say it clearly, and to be flexible when conversing .Gammidge (2004) notes that the main goal of speaking is primarily to communicate, and just when speaking and gaining confidence, half the problem is then solved. Many linguists such as Luoma (2004) argue that foreign language learners spend a long time to develop their speaking abilities which seem to be very difficult to reach. The act of speaking assembles several types of specific skills: the linguistic skill, the oral skill, the production skill and the interaction skill.

1.2.1. The Linguistic Skill

Another component of the skill of speaking is the linguistic competence (sometimes called grammar competence). It is defined by Canale and Swain (1980) as the ability to control the linguistic code of the target language, it includes lexicon, rules of morphology, syntax and orthographic knowledge. Once learners acquire the linguistic competence, they will be able to interpret their ideas easily into well-constructed utterances; they can also gain time, reduce their hesitation and feel self-confident. Bachman (1990) indicates that grammar competence is composed of lexical competence which itself includes vocabulary, phonology, morphology, syntax that are necessary to select the appropriate words, to express specific significations with acceptable forms and arrangements, and to realize correct physical structures, either as sounds or as written symbols.

The mastery of language is a crucial part in maintaining communication. It consists of many sub-sills), it is note that “An umbrella concept that includes increasing expertise in grammar (morphology, syntax), vocabulary and mechanics. With regards to speaking the word mechanics refers to basic sounds of letters and syllables, pronunciation of words,

intonation and stress.” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 144). Learners must have a certain amount of knowledge about language such as grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, production of speech sounds production of speech sound, appropriate use of stress and intonation, manipulation of the structural system of English, the acquisition of extensive vocabulary and the ability to use idioms in context. We can describe the linguistic skill as the ability of knowing and mastering the following linguistic issues: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Despite its importance in speaking, the knowledge of the language remains insufficient to hold a spoken conversation; the latter requires translating orally this knowledge into words and sentences to interlocutors so ideas can be exchanged and messages can be conveyed.

1.2.2. The Oral Skill

People communicate with each other in many different ways. They can speak, write, and use body language and gestures, but the most common communication happens orally. It is a two way process of transmitting information, feelings, and ideas between speaker and listener (or listeners) which involves the productive skill of the speaker and the receptive skill of the listener (understanding or listening with understanding). The oral skill is generally needed in various situations such as face to face conversation, telephone conversation, discussion at business meetings, or classroom interaction. The participants need to recognize that speaking requires other skills called “motor perceptive skills”. Bygate states that “motor perceptive skills involve perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the correct order sounds and structure of the language” (Bygate, 1987, p. 5). Haliday (1975) notes that the oral skill is more than an exchange of words between interlocutors; it is a matter of a well transmission of ideas, feelings, facts and principles. Munro (2011, p. 3) notes that the ability to use the oral language requires students to use words meaningfully, speak accurately, speak in sentences, and stay on the topic of a message

Broughton, Brumphit, Flavell, Hill, and Pincas (1980) state that to perform an effective oral communication, students are supposed to practice dialogues with each other and with their teacher as well. Dialogues have many merits, they can be used for controlled or guided or free work, and teachers have to use them at least within minutes of meeting a class. In guided oral works, the teacher can proceed round the class, ask students different simple questions, interrogate two of the most dominant students to come to the front of the class and perform the dialogue with switching the roles, and asks their classmates to repeat what have been said. The teacher can also use the dialogue in chain drill. For example, the teacher says: last weekend, I went to the stadium, what about you? The student’s answer might be: last

week? I went to the village to visit my grandparents. The teachers give a turn to all students to answer the same question.

In guided oral work, the teacher provides students a limited freedom to practise what they have learnt. Role playing is the best oral activity in which setting, scene and content are given, and students can create their own language. For example, when asking a needed thing, students may use different expressions depending on their language proficiency such as: 'Can I help you?' 'Is there anything you want?' or 'If you need me, I'm at your service'. Answers, of course, will be varied such as: 'No, thank you very much' 'Not just at the moment, thank you' or 'that's very kind of you'. In free oral work which deals with more advanced level of attainment and focuses on less controlled situations, students have the ability to say what they want rather than what they have been told. The teacher, from his part, has to possess creative thought and ideas to stimulate his or her students to communicate orally in a natural way. Group work, for instance, is an active tool with less teacher control that can free students from any limiting barriers. The teacher can use different types of stimulus such as: audio visual stimuli (maps, photographs, pictures, cassettes, slides and films), and written word stimuli (magazines and newspapers) which are used as discussion and debate starters and a source of oral language practice in general.

1.2.3. The Interaction Skill

The interaction skill has an impact on the success of any exchange, and speakers must be able to anticipate and produce the expected patterns of specific discourse situation. Richards (2008) states that speaking as interaction is used by interlocutors to establish a comfortable exchange through greetings, negotiating, and complimenting, which often has some characteristics such as: interaction which can be formal or casual, has a social function and indicates the speakers' identity and politeness, and respects conversational conventions and register. He adds that though the ability to use speaking as interaction is difficult for many learners, but it can be overcome by knowing how to begin and close conversation, how to select adequate topics, when to interrupt and take the floor, when to joke and when to speak seriously.

Participants, who talk to each other about various topics in different situations, have a repertoire of hundreds of conversational routines. Their aim can be to argue, to convince, to request, to complain or to amuse. So they need to have some qualities to be good communicators. Pawlak & Waniek-Klimczak (2015) note that Classroom interaction is a dialogic process that requires negotiation on three interdependent levels; turn-taking and conversation ordering (discourse organization), negotiating places, roles and identities

(interpersonal relations), and negotiating beliefs, hopes, and value (semantic meanings). Hence, “Interlocutors mutually influence, ‘here and now’, each other’s speech behaviors, modifying their former intentions in the course of the conversation”(Pawlak & Waniek-Klimczak, 2015, p. 32).

Van Duzer (1997) assumes that the speaker’s skills and speech habits have an impact on the success of any exchange. So the speaker has to adapt himself within the different kinds of conversations to perform well his spoken interaction and to use the appropriate expressions. For example greetings come at the beginning of conversations, and farewells at the end. Telephone conversations always begin by checking the identity of the other speaker.

Interaction is the main way through which classroom communication develops, and opportunities for negotiating comprehensible input rise. It is “the fundamental fact of pedagogy and that successful pedagogy involves the successful management classroom interaction” Allright as cited in (Ellis, 1997, p. 173). Tsui (2001) notes that in classroom setting, interaction is based on three main aspects: input interaction which refers to the language used by the teacher, output interaction which refers to the language produced by the students, and interaction which refers to the interrelationship between input and output. The input of the teacher which is known as ‘teacher’s talk’ is characterized by slow rate of speech, simpler syntax, clearer articulation, more repetitions, and basic vocabulary in order to make it comprehensible to students.

The teacher has to know when and how to give the floor to the students, and repeat difficult words, rephrase complex expressions, or modify any ambiguous utterance. It is obvious that students with low input are passive and do not take turns unless they are called up, they often need to be assisted by their teacher and students with higher input are more able to interact. Hence, the teacher has to give equal opportunities for both to insure a uniform interaction with all students. (Sasson, 2013) claims that one main scaffolding way that enables students to look for types of questions that will stimulate interaction between them and their teachers is modelling open ended questions that do not require a yes/no response. These open ended questions have been confirmed as an effective technique for creating spontaneous interaction in the classroom.

1.2.4. The Production Skill

The production of the spoken target language remains one main difficult aspect in learning foreign languages, hence “Acquiring a spoken language requires becoming not only a fluent perceiver but also a fluent producer of speech” (Jusczyk, 2000, p. 167). Brown and Yule,

(1983) state that in classroom setting, when the teacher asks questions, students are supposed to answer with complete sentences which can help the teacher to provide them with corrections in terms of pronunciation and grammar, and appropriateness of the structure. However, the task seems to be exhausting for students, simply because they have to go through many steps, they decide what to say, they determine how to express, and finally to produce the language. Students need to use production strategy which is defined as “an attempt to use one’s linguistic system efficiently and clearly, with a minimum of effort (Tarone, 1980, p. 419).

In this context, relevant questions are asked: how to formulate an utterance which is often consisted of several words that must be phonologically well formed and pronounced to express a meaningful idea? How to select the appropriate lexical items that point explicitly or implicitly to their implied meanings? How to perform the language orally needs much more knowledge about how to overcome these difficulties? Levelt, as cited in (Leuninger et al, 2004, p. 186), distinguishes three basic steps required in any kind of verbal performance:

“Conceptualization (the component in which content is prepared for expression) formulation (the component in which content is mapped into linguistic form by accessing lexical, syntactic, and phonological knowledge) and articulation (where relevant structures are mapped into motoric processes.”

Hughes (2011) states that the greater part of speech is created spontaneously, in real time, hence speakers need to use simpler vocabulary, a higher frequency of coordinated clauses, and filler expressions such as ‘you know’, ‘you see’ in order to gain time. They should not spend long time to make lexical choices otherwise they lose the chance to speak. Under time pressure, they find themselves speaking immediately; this situation pushes them to do errors, their memory then is pressed by time also. In order to compensate they try to repeat, rephrase and correct what they have already said. Thornbury and Slade (2006) note that production strategy includes facilitation (simplifying structure, ellipsis, using formulaic expressions, and the use of fillers and hesitation devices), and compensation (repairs, false starts, repetitions, rephrasing).

1.2.4.1. Facilitation

Facilitation involves the use of the following strategies: simplification, ellipsis, formulaic expressions, fillers and hesitation devices. Simplification involves the use of short phrases connected with and, or, but or that, or not joined by conjunctions or transitional words at all, but spoken next to each other (parataxis). The latter is the opposite of hypo taxi which means the use of subordination in complex sentences. Ellipsis is the suppression of parts of words or

sentences. Sometimes, words are omitted because they are mutually understood and thus unnecessary. It is preferable to speakers to abbreviate and to minimize their sentences as possible as they can, so they use incomplete sentences to economize the production effort, though sometimes the hearer finds ambiguity if he does not share the same background with the speakers, or if he does not know the context of the conversation. For example, one might say “I visited the museum on Saturday and she on Monday”. A contextually identical sentence would be “I visited the museum on Saturday and she visited the museum on Monday”.

Formulaic expressions: are expressions used very frequently such as: idioms, phrases. Sometimes the words included in these conventional expressions are difficult to change, so they always keep the same form when spoken. Instead of saying “now” which is not formulaic, one can say “at the present time”, or saying “I have the ability to” (formulaic expression) instead of “I can”. Bygate believes that speakers can benefit from this strategy and notes that “they do not have to construct each new utterance afresh, using the rules of the grammar and their knowledge of vocabulary in order to vary their expression for each fresh occasion” (Bygate, 1987. p. 17). The following are some of the most common formulaic expression: It’s very nice to meet you, you must be joking, I’ ll be there....

Fillers and hesitation devices: are called also “time creating devices”. Speakers use them while they are thinking about what they would say next. Native speakers, who are often able to speak their language fluently with less difficulty, they use fillers especially when they have to think of complex ideas and sentences in order to carry on their speaking. The main fillers are the use of phrases like “alright”, “erm”, “you know”, “to be honest”, “all in all”, “unfortunately”, and repeating and rephrasing what have been said and keeping pauses between expressions. Hesitation consists of stalling and repeating words while trying to find a needed word and to organize ideas. Thornbury and Slade “(2006) states that “The most frequent pause fillers (hesitators) are ‘er’ and ‘erm’ (uh and um in American English), the following segment includes three instances (underlined, and in Italics): it was marvelous erm they thought this was wonderful and erm they asked why it was dead and er the farmer apparently didn’t want his wife to know”.

1.2.4.2. Compensation

When producing foreign language, speakers often face difficulties; the problem can be easily solved if they know some techniques such as compensation. The latter is defined by Faerch & Kasper ((1983) as a strategy which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of the difficulties and problems that arise during the planning phase of an utterance due to his own low linguistic competence. It is based on two

major strategies; a conceptual strategy and linguistic strategy (Poulisse, 1989). The time pressure keeps the speaker broach conversations spontaneously and without preparation, he often expresses and sends his messages incompletely and sometimes incorrectly so he is permitted to compensate this problem. (Oxford, 1990, p. 47) defines compensation strategies as those that “enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitation in knowledge. Compensation strategies are intended to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and, especially, of vocabulary.”

The compensation features include: self-correction, false starts, repetition, and rephrasing. In self-correction the speaker sometimes does not mention important information about the components of his topics. In order to recuperate this lack, he substitutes or adds words (nouns, adjectives, verbs...). This can help him to be more accurate. False starts imply that the speaker begins an utterance then stops and either repeats or reformulates it. The short duration through which the speech is exchanged is not helpful for the interlocutors to remember all what have already been said, so they use repetition in order to remind themselves of any forgotten information and rephrasing which is saying something in a different way. Speakers use this strategy to make the conversation ideas more understandable.

Oxford (1990) suggests the following ten compensation strategies: guessing by linguistic clues, guessing by other clues, switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gestures, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, and using circumlocution or synonym. Guessing by linguistic clues and guessing by other clues are generally used to compensate limitations in listening and reading. The former which is based- language clue is required by a learner who has insufficient knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, or other linguistic elements, but he seizes his pre-existing knowledge of the target language, mother language, or another language. The latter which is non-linguistic clue is inspired from knowledge of context, setting, text structure, or general world knowledge. However; the eight compensation strategies which are proposed to overcome limitations in speaking and writing by Oxford (1980) are summarized as follows: 1) switching to the mother tongue, 2) getting help, 3) using mime or gesture, 4) avoiding communication partially or totally, 5) selecting the topic, 6) adjusting or approximating the message, 7) coining words: 8) using circumlocution or synonym

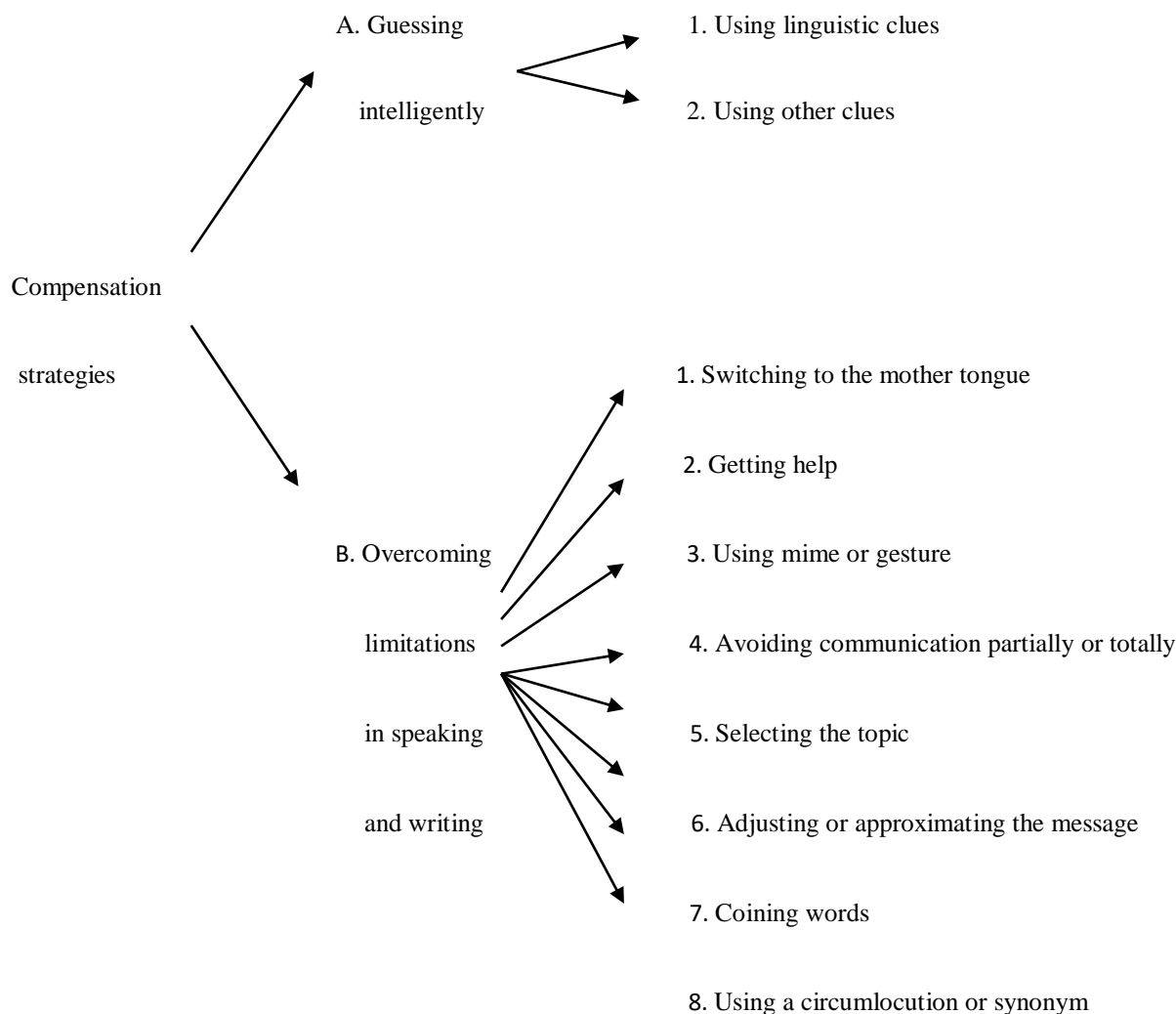


Figure1. Diagram of compensation strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 48)

1.3. Differences between Speaking and Writing

Language consists of four skills: speaking, writing, reading and listening; Edge (1993) states that these skills are used in learning parts of the language. For example, when learning a new piece of grammar or a new function, the student goes through four steps; he listens to the uttered word; he speaks it through reading a text or performing a dialogue, and writes it through solving exercises. If we represent these skills according to the activity of the language user as proposed by Widowson (1978), speaking and writing are said to be active or productive skills, whereas listening and reading are said to be passive or receptive skills. If we represent them according to the medium, speaking and listening are said to be related to language expressed through the oral medium and reading and writing are said to be related to language expressed through the visual medium.

The diagram bellow shows how all four skills are related:

| | | |
|---------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | Productive/Active | Receptive/Passive |
| Aural medium | Speaking | Listening |
| Visual medium | Writing | Reading |

Table 2. Classification of language skills. (Widowson, 1978, p. 57)

Another classification suggested by Byrne (1986), who considers speaking and writing as productive skills, whereas, reading and understanding as receptive skills. The spoken language consists of speaking and understanding, whereas the written language consists of writing and reading. The following diagram shows the interrelation between the four language skills.

| | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|----------|----------------------|
| Spoken language | | | |
| Receptive skills | Understanding | Speaking | Productive skills |
| | Reading | Writing | |
| Written language | | | |

Table 3. Interrelation of language skills (Byrne, 1986, p. 8)

Sarosdy, Bencze, Poor & Vadnay (2006) note that the process of teaching language skills is divided into major phases: the input phase and the output phase. The input phase is simple, it consists of receptive skills which itself consists of extracting meaning from the source students read or hear. However; the output phase is complex, it consists of productive skills which requires interpreting thought and ideas through speaking or translating them writing.

| | MEDIUM SKILL | SPEECH | WRITTEN WORD | TYPES |
|--------|-----------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|---------|
| INPUT | RECEPTIVE | Listening and understanding | Reading and understanding | SIMPLEX |
| OUTPUT | PRODUCTIVE | Speaking | writing | |
| | | Interpreting | Translating | COMPLEX |

Table 4. Classification of language skills by Bardos, as cited in (Sarosdy et al., 2006, p. 51)

The speaker and the writer have to encode the message they wish to convey while the listener and the reader have to decode that message. Byrne (1986) insists on giving high proportion of class time to the production skills especially ‘speaking’. Research have shown that ideas, beliefs are more easily understood and processed through speech than through writing, and people prefer to listen to spoken language because it needs less effort to understand as Andrews (2001) notes that speech is a more direct, briefer, and dialogic than writing.

Turk (1985) notes that “Spoken language was the first form of communication between human beings. It came long before written language and writing is a transcript of speech, not vice versa” (Turk, 1985, p. 9). So speaking goes back to human beginnings, perhaps millions of years, whereas; writing is relatively recent. Jones as cited in (Richards, 2008, p. 19) notes that “In speaking and listening we tend to be getting something done, exploring ideas, working out some aspect of the world, or simply being together. In writing, we may be creating a record, committing events or moments to paper”. Hughes (2011) claims that the spoken form has generally been viewed as the primary form of language upon which the written form is essentially dependent.

Though speaking and writing are productive skills but they differ in many ways. Brown and Yule (1983) as cited in Nunan (1989) distinguish between written and spoken language, and they point out that the former is characterized by well-formed sentences integrated into highly structured paragraphs whereas the latter is characterized by short, often fragmentary utterances, in a range of pronunciations. Brown (2001) notes that because of time pressure, speakers usually use simple vocabulary, short sentences, while writers use more complicated vocabulary and long subordinating sentences because they have plenty of time to think about what to write. The spoken language disappears as one finishes speaking however, the written language lasts for a long time one can read what was written centuries ago. The spoken language includes phonemes, stress, rhythm, intonation and paralinguistic features, whereas, the written language contains punctuation, capitalization, pictures, charts.

Luoma (2004) notes that a major difference between speaking and writing is that speakers do not speak in sentences. Their speech consists of simpler grammar that of the written language because they communicate ideas that listeners need to comprehend in real time, as they are being spoken. “Speaking is usually instantaneous where the listener often has no chance to listen to it again, and it is always perceived to be very fast, unplanned, context dependent, and has linear structure, it is characterized by hesitation, reduced forms, fillers and

repeats, and it is transmitted though different accents”(Richards, 2008, p. 3). Writers use correct grammar structured in a formal way (sentences, paragraphs). Speakers also can use many aspects of language that are not present in writing such as facial expression, tone of voice and body language; this means that they communicate at several levels, not only with words. Thornbury (2005) summarizes the features of spoken language that are distinguished from written language in the following table

| Written grammar | Spoken grammar |
|--|---|
| Sentence is the basic unit of construction | Clause is the basic unit of construction |
| Clauses are often embedded (subordination) | Clauses are usually added (co-ordination) |
| Subject + verb + object construction | Head + body + tail construction |
| Reported speech favored | Direct speech favored |
| Precision favored | Vagueness tolerated |
| Little ellipsis | A lot of ellipsis |
| No question tags | Many question tags |
| No performance effects | Performance effects, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hesitation • Repeats • False starts • Incompletion • Syntactic blends |

Table 5. Difference between written and spoken grammar (Thornbury, 2005, p. 21)

Hughes (2011) states that the spoken discourse is often spontaneous, unplanned, dependently related to a context, and transient; if a word is uttered, the action happens within the coordination of a particular place and moment that can never be reduplicated. It is also delivered via the aural oral channel in a dynamic way; in other words a conversation can be held by participants who choose desired topics, change and manage them, repair any misunderstandings, and accommodate themselves to one another. Conversation can take a form of give and take between speakers as well as between the discourse and the context. The written discourse is constant, visual, and non transient. The writer has plenty of time to select and change the vocabulary and the form of text in order to satisfy the readers. A written discourse is always decontextualized since the time and place factors are not shared by the participants (the writer and the reader). The following figure illustrates the features of written and spoken discourse according to the aspect of production.

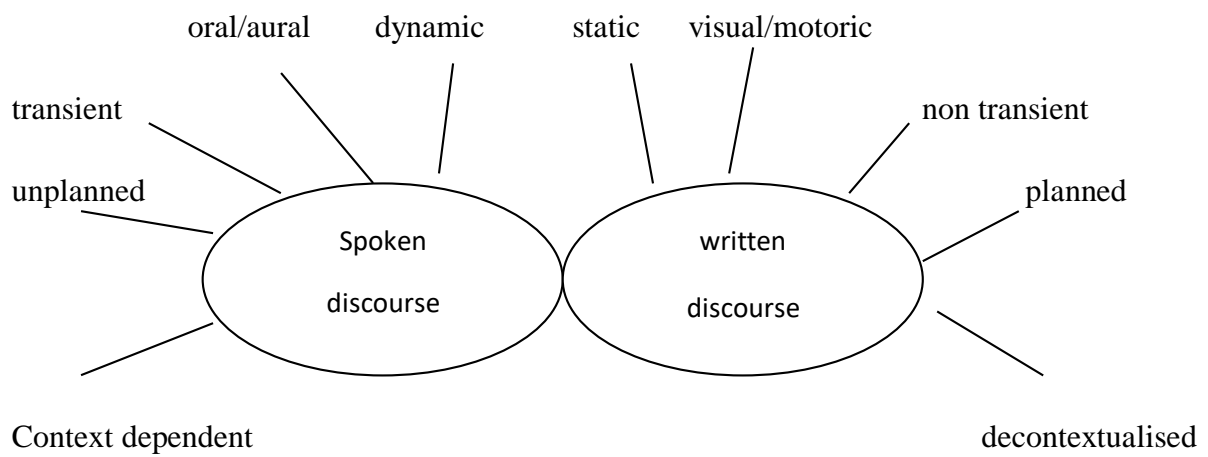


Figure 2. Features of spoken and written discourse according to aspects of production (Hughes, 2011, p. 11)

From social perspective, the spoken form of any language precedes its written form. Vachek, as cited in (Hughes, 2011) notes that in the history of humankind, the spoken language has been viewed as the primary form of language and the source of innovation and language change, whereas the written form is a separate and independent. In first language acquisition, speaking is the only language form put under investigation, it is interpersonal, informal. By contrary, the performance of writing is investigated and evaluated after a long period of practice. Writing tends to be logical, formal, creative, and conservative; the writer often feels comfortable to present a varied accepted language to the readers. The following figure illustrates the features of spoken and written discourse according to social aspect.

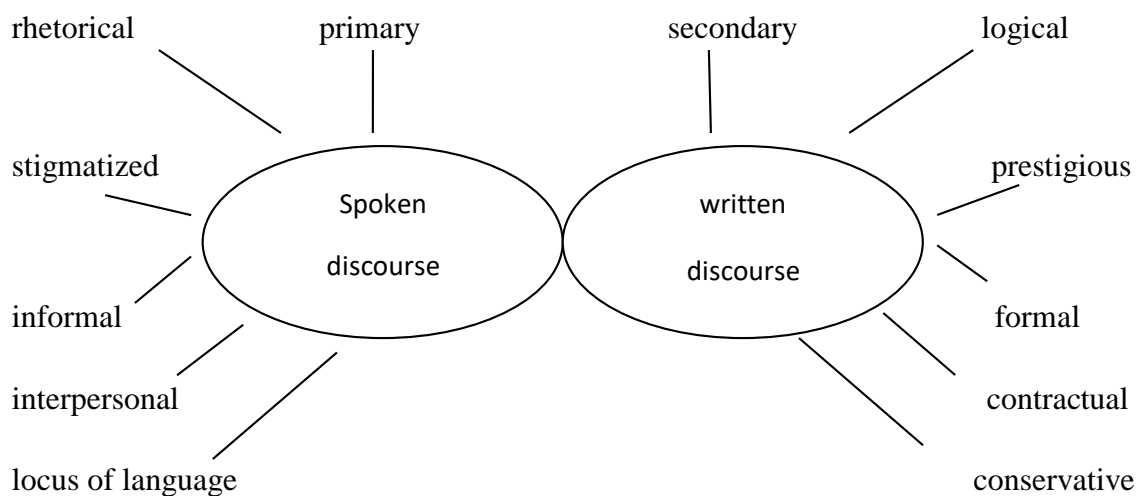


Figure 3. Features of spoken and written discourse according to social aspects (Hughes, 2011, p. 12)

1.4. Integration between Speaking and Listening

For a long time, listening which is defined as an activity of paying attention and getting meaning from something we hear (Underwood,1990), has always been considered as a skill with less importance, and oral communication depends much more on the speaking skill. This assumption which was completely wrong has loosed its power. Many linguists have proven that listening which is the interpretation of what is heard, has its strong impact on the comprehension of the exchanged messages. One main agreement is made by Lynch and Mendelson as cited in (Nation & Newton, 2009) who state that listening was traditionally viewed as a passive process by which the learner receives data sent by the speaker, however; it is recently viewed as an active and interpretive process where the message is determined during the interaction between interlocutors, and meaning is formed by context and built by the listener through interpretation.

Listening and speaking have often been viewed as too difficult to deal with by the majority of students who need to converse with each other in the classroom. The two skills can never be separated or used in isolation in any oral communication since each one depends on the other. Edge (1993), for instance, claims that since they are skills necessary in face-to-face communication, they can be grouped together. Palmer (2014) also claims they are inseparable features of classroom communication which involves sending and receiving messages and suggests the following equation: Listening + speaking = classroom communication, however; it is impossible to teach listening separately from speaking (Temple & Gillet, 1992).

The ability to speak effectively is always preceded by the ability to listen well to interlocutors, but what is missing is that many learners do not recognize the important relationship between them. Palmer (2014, p. 9) notes that “If you asked a fish about water, the fish would reply, “What’s water?” Completely surrounded it, the fish doesn’t even recognize water as a separate entity and certainly doesn’t realize water’s importance. This is how it is with listening and speaking. They are so deeply embedded in so many aspects of our lives that most of us don’t think about them much”. Even outside classroom setting, listening and speaking are frequently used, and “One should keep in mind that these skills are normally integrated in real life” (Byrne, 1991, p. 21).

Hence, there is “a natural link between speaking and listening” (Brown, 2001, p. 275). In second language learning as well as in first language acquisition, learners often spend much time in listening in a pacific way to gain input which is considered as a platform for any further output. Worth as cited in (Palmer, 2014, p. 5) claims that we devote $\frac{3}{4}$ of our

communication to listening and speaking as illustrated through the following statistics: writing (9%), reading (16%), talking (30%), and listening (45%). Lynch (2009) states that when conversation problems occur in conversation, meaning can be negotiated by the speaker and the listener. The speaker adjusts what he says and the way he says it to accommodate the listener's perspective and expectation, the following processes are proposed by Lynch (2009, p. 63)

| | |
|------------------------------|---|
| Confirmation check: | Listener makes sure they have understood what the speaker means |
| Comprehension check | Speaker makes sure the speaker has understood. |
| Clarification request | Listener asks the speaker to explain or rephrase |
| Repetition | Listener or speaker repeats their own or the other's words. |
| Reformulation | Speaker rephrases the content of what they have said |
| Completion | Listener completes the speaker's utterance |
| Backtracking | Speaker returns to a point in the conversation, up to which they believe the listener had understood them |

Table 6. Conversational adjustment (modifications of interaction) (Lynch, 2009, p. 63)

The integration between listening and speaking has become a fact that should be practiced whenever oral communication emerges, and learning will be beyond the reach if classroom interaction is not the main interest of both students and teachers. Dean (2004) claims that effective speaking and listening are the starting point for learning; they can be learned by attending in oral events and engaging in spoken discourse. (Lynch, 2009) notes that the connection between listening and speaking is related to three research based principles. The first principle is: the better you listen, the better you speak. Brown, Anderson, Shillcock, and Yule provided evidence from a Scottish study of secondary pupil's first language listening and speaking which showed that what helped them to be effective speakers was not their language practice, but it was their previous experience as listeners. The second principle is: speakers are often affected by listeners. Successful oral interaction depends on the ability of the speaker to shape his speech according to the listener's linguistic competence and background knowledge. The third principle is: listening and speaking are always alternative and necessary in any conversation. The message sent by the speaker is received by the listener who confirms his understanding through verbal and non-verbal feedback.

1.5. Components of Speaking

By the beginning of 1970s, there was a major shift in teaching English from traditional methods and approaches to communicative ones which emphasized the importance of teaching through communication. For a large majority of foreign language learners, the ultimate goal was to be able to communicate in the target language. Hence, the speaking skill which consists of many sub-skills such as vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and fluency has become a crucial element in the learning process. Students are often exposed to speaking activities which are classified into two types as Harmer (2001) notes: non communicative and communicative activities; the former are devoted to ensure students' correctness particularly pronunciation and grammar, and the latter are intended to improve language fluency. No one denies that speaking is a complex skill because it is concerned with several components which influence how well people speak the target language. It is obvious that people do not have the ability to speak effectively and appropriately until they have been exposed to some linguistic competences such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar

1.5.1. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is defined as "The words used in a particular subject or sphere of activity or on a particular occasion" (Oxford living dictionaries, 2018). It is a vital aspect in language because it appears in its every skill: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. It includes not just words but also their meaning, orthography, pronunciation, context and conjugation. Students need to possess rich vocabulary when confronted with a native English speaker, when watching a movie without a subtitle, when listening to a favourite English song, when reading a text in a book or a newspaper, or when writing a letter to a friend. In a classroom setting, students often find it difficult to speak fluently because they cannot recall all needed words.

Teachers, therefore have an essential role in helping them develop an extensive vocabulary. Vocabulary is divided into two groups, passive and active vocabulary. Passive vocabulary includes all words that we understand when we read or listen, but we do not use or cannot remember when we write or speak. Active vocabulary includes all the words we understand and use when we write or converse without having to think very much about them. Memorizing and recalling words seem to be so important in learning vocabulary. Carter (2001) points out that learning a word depends on what is meant by a word, how it is remembered, over what period of time, in what circumstances it can be recalled, and is learning a word means that is always retained? Issues related to memorization are always

involved in the process of learning L2 words. To teach new vocabulary, we should take into consideration the following steps listed below, and which are summarized from (Richards and Renandya, 2002, p. 260-261)

- 1) Learners do not only need to how the word is written, but also how it is pronounced and said aloud with respect to its syllable structure and stress pattern.
- 2) To avoid confusion, learn first semantically unrelated words with different forms, with different first syllable, not with similar opposite, or with closely related meanings.
- 3) Study words regularly over several short sessions are more useful than to study them for one or two longer sessions. Repeat and review the ones studied for the first time.
- 4) Study few words at a time so they can be easily memorized.
- 5) To create deeper mental processing and better retention, use activities such as crosswords and scrabble. Sometimes it's better to associate an image or a gesture with the word to fix it in the mind and recall it in need.
- 6) Make a link between the already known words with the new, and see whether they belong to the same type or not (synonyms, antonyms, adverbs phrasal verbs....).

Hunt and Bugler (2002) state that there are three approaches through which vocabulary can be acquired: incidental learning, explicit instruction, and independent strategy development. The incidental learning of vocabulary emerges when students are asked to read and listen extensively to the target language. For native speakers of English, extensive listening is useful to understand a new word from context, and from the first exposure however L2 learners need to listen to the new word for several separate times to grasp its meaning. Extensive reading is also beneficial for students to gradually build new words and new syntax until they are able to decode difficult authentic texts. Explicit instruction determines what students need to know as words, introduces new words for the first time, and therefore builds knowledge and fluency through their acquisition.

For effective reading at the university level, L2 learners have to know about 3000 words, whereas they have to know 5000 words to ensure academic success. Independent strategy development allows students to deduce word meaning from context and enables them to use dictionaries. This strategy seems to be easy for more proficient students who deal with non difficult texts. To guess a word meaning from context is a complex and difficult task. First it requires from students to know 19 out of every 20 words (95%). Second it obligates them to know other linguistic items such as collocations, idioms, and phrasal verbs. Nation (2002) states that the main effect of guessing procedures is to raise students' confidence and awareness, to make them sensitive to the range of clues available, and to enable them avoid other difficult strategies. To memorize the building blocks of a given language, Brown (2001, p. 377) proposes the following guidelines for teachers: allocate specific class time to vocabulary learning, help students to learn vocabulary in context, play down the role of

bilingual dictionaries, encourage students to develop strategies for determining the meaning of words, and engage in “unplanned” vocabulary teaching.

To develop one’s vocabulary, Nattenger, as cited in (Nunan, 1991) provides a set of classroom techniques. He classifies them into two types: techniques for comprehension (understanding and storing words), and production (retrieving and using these words). Techniques for comprehension includes context clues, word morphology, mnemonic devices, loci, paired associates, key words, total physical response, cognitive depth, formal grouping, word families, historical, orthographical similarities, and collocations.

1.5.2. Pronunciation

Languages in the world have their conventional patterns that organize the treatment of sounds which are known as “pronunciation”. The latter has become a branch of linguistics that deals with issues such as articulation, stress, and intonation Seidlhofer (2001) states that ‘Pronunciation’ is a ‘discipline’ created during the Reform Movement in the late nineteenth century, resulted from the founding of International Phonetic Association (IPA). And due to its importance, it is sometimes viewed as the “Cinderella’ of foreign language teaching” (Seidlhofer, 2001, page. 56). Pronunciation is defined as “The act or result of producing the sounds of speech, including articulation, stress, and intonation, often with reference to some standard of correctness and acceptability” (Dictionary.com online, 2018). It is also defined as “The way a certain sound or sounds are produced. Unlike articulation, which refers to the actual production of speech sounds in the mouth, pronunciation stresses more on the way sounds are perceived by the hearer, e.g.: You haven’t pronounced this word correctly, and often relates the spoken word to its written form, e.g.: In the word knife, the k is not pronounced” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 429).

Though it is a small part of linguistic competence which is itself one of the components of communicative competence, pronunciation is considered as essential in building contact with people (Morley, 1991). It is through pronunciation; individuals introduce their identity, and indicate their partnership of particular community. Stern (1983) notes that spoken language is always given primary concern, and phonetics is so important for both foreign language learners and teachers. Goodwin, as cited in Celce-Murcia (2001) reports what one of her undergraduate students said in an ESL pronunciation course “I feel that I am judged by my way of Talking English. In other classes, teachers often treat me as inferior or academic disability because of my muttering English. Celce-Murcia (2001) notes that unlike in the past, where pronunciation focused only on how to articulate vowels and consonants, nowadays it

stresses much more on supra-segmental features such as stress, rhythm, and intonation. Hence it is considered as a part of communicative interaction like other aspects of spoken discourse such as pragmatic meaning and nonverbal communication. Wong (1987) states that in teaching, rhythm and intonation deserve greater priority than sounds.

Recently, researchers have insisted that teaching pronunciation should take another form; instead of learning phonology of isolated sounds, or decontextualized words and sentences, focusing on meaningful aspects of pronunciation in connected speech would be most needed. A question to be asked is: can pronunciation be taught? This is what Jones as cited in (Richards and Renandya, 2002) emphasized; she noted that two controversial assumptions stand with and against explicit teaching of pronunciation; the first relies on the critical period hypothesis. It revolves around the idea that foreign language learners can never acquire native like pronunciation though some surveys have shown that unlike children, adults have the “ability to compare and contrast and recognize patterns in speech” (Pennington, 1995, p. 102). So they are more qualified in the areas of pronunciation and sound discrimination during the first stages of learning, but only teenagers who are able to acquire a native like pronunciation (Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1977).

The second relies on Krashen’s (1982) idea that pronunciation is a skill which can be acquired through: the exposure to the language produced by native speakers, the aptitude to imitate them orally, and particularly motivation which creates an awareness of the importance of acquisition of L2 phonology. Hence focused practice and teaching grammar rules seem to be inefficient. In fact, with the dissemination of technological tools that facilitated the contact with native speakers and provided authentic audio and visual aids, foreign language learners can easily produce native like pronunciation. But are the so called technological tools sufficient for learners to possess good pronunciation? The answer is cited below by Kenworthy as rephrased by (Brown, 2001, p. 284-285).

1) Native language: the native language affects the students’ pronunciation. To overcome the problem, students are supposed to listen extensively to the target language, and to be familiar with its sounds, rhythms, and intonation.

2) Age: Students under the age of puberty have the chance to sound like natives due to the fact that the critical period is the best for language acquisition. Students who are adults or older can also maintain a foreign accent but if the other factors are equal.

3) Exposure: For people who live in a foreign country for a short period of time can take advantage of being there to speak with native speakers. The quality and intensity exposure are more important than the length of time spent there. Hence the more students are to exposed to authentic language, the more they improve their pronunciation

4) Innate phonetic ability: The talent of having an “ear” for language remains a point of strength for some students who can easily manifest their phonetic code ability when needed. For others who don’t have that talent, they have to be aware of their limitations, and with little effort and concentration they can improve their competence in pronunciation.

5) Identity and language ego: If students have positive attitude toward speakers of the target language, and if they are aware, not afraid, of the new identity that may be emerging within them, they would comfortably acquire good pronunciation.

6) Motivation and concern for good pronunciation: This will be perhaps the strongest influence of all the six listed factors if students have intrinsic motivation to improve their pronunciation. Students should know that clarity of speech is significant in shaping their self-image, and therefore realizing at least some of their objectives.

In order to acquire good pronunciation in their own, Bolton (2011) advises foreign language learners to: pick up a book in the target language which is not too far beyond their reading ability, and which deals with their interests. Read few paragraphs from that book every day. Read aloud for five to seven minutes, read slowly at least three times slower than the normal. While you do so, hold a pen between your teeth. It is obvious that pronouncing words well, with a pen in the mouth, is difficult and impossible, but the exercise has the objective to make them aware of how all the parts of the mouth should move to produce words perfectly, and force them strain the muscles of all the parts of the mouth in order to utter understandable words. After a while, when taking the pen out of their mouths, they will discover that they are able to pronounce words much more precisely than they could before the “pen” exercise. If they make this exercise a regular habit, learners, and after few weeks, they will easily read texts at a faster speed, and with better pronunciation.

1.5.3. Accuracy

Accuracy is defined as “The rules for constructing words and sentences in a particular language” (Trask, 1999, p. 73), and “The ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but may not include the ability speak or write fluently” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 204). Swan (2002) notes that there are two reasons for teaching grammar: comprehensibility and acceptability. The former is needed to communicate meaning successfully, so there is a necessity to know how to form and use structures such as basic verb forms, interrogative and negative forms, passive and active forms, and modal auxiliaries. The latter is particularly needed in some social contexts. The main reason is to respect the socio-cultural norms of the native speakers through the use of a higher level of grammatical correctness. Hence intercultural competence is so crucial in transmitting accepted grammar.

A main question to ask is how to teach grammar? Should it be taught inductively when language forms are presented to students, then they are left to find out their own rules and generalizations, or should it be taught deductively when these rules and generalizations are given to students by the teacher or textbooks then allowed to practice various language instances? This is what Brown (2001, p. 365) insists on, and states that controversy often arises between these two contrastive approaches, and in most contexts, the inductive approach seems to be more appropriate because:

- a) It is more in keeping with natural language acquisition (where rules are absorbed subconsciously with little or no conscious focus).
- b) It conforms more easily to the concept of inter-language development in which learners progress, on variable timetables, through stages of rule acquisition.
- c) It allows students to get a communicative “feel” for some aspect of language before possibly being overwhelmed by grammatical explanations.
- d) It builds more intrinsic motivation by allowing students to discover rules rather than being told them.

Harmer (2001) points out that accuracy requires correcting students’ mistakes. He distinguishes between two stages: in the first stage, the teacher informs the students that they have made a mistake. In the second stage he helps them to correct it in order to prevent fossilization. If the students cannot do it by themselves, the following alternative techniques can be provided:

- a) **Repeating:** the teacher asks the student to utter again what he has said for the sake of signaling the mistake done.
- b) **Echoing:** the teacher points directly to the student, repeats what has been said, and focuses on the wrong part of the utterance.
- c) **Statement and question:** to mention that something doesn’t work, the teacher can simply say “do you think it is right to say ...”, or “your sentence needs to be adjusted.
- d) **Expression:** the teacher can use facial expressions such as a raising eye brow, or a wobbling hand to indicate that something is wrong. But this should be done carefully in order to ensure that the student feels comfortable with the correction.
- e) **Hinting:** in order to recall rules they already acquired, students can be told a single word such as “tense” so they can recognize that the past simple used should be replaced by the present perfect.
- f) **Reformulation:** without dramatizing the student’s mistake, the teacher can implicitly make a correction through rephrasing what has been said. For example
The student: If I was you, I would buy a car.
The teacher: If I were you, I would buy a car.
The student: If I were you, I would buy a car.

In a case when the student cannot correct himself or cannot understand the teacher's reformulation, a direct correction becomes necessary. For example the student is informed that the final 's' sound is pronounced /S/ in words finishing with /P/, /T/, and /K/; however it is pronounced /Z/ in words ending with /B/, /D/, and /G/. Peer to peer correction is also advocated especially when there is a cooperative atmosphere between students who do not have the fear of doing mistakes or being corrected. The teacher can say "can anyone help john?" or "who knows the correct answer".

Larsen-Freeman (2001) states that there are two distinctive types of grammar: Formal grammar and Functional grammar. The former deals with the form or structure of language, with less or no stress on meaning (semantics), or context and language use (pragmatics). This type of grammar is based on the assumption of structuralism that considers language units should be connected together according to a prescribed and organized distribution rather than on meaning. By contrary, the latter deals with language but focusing largely on social interaction, and explaining how to choose different linguistic forms which correspond to particular communicative purpose in a given context. Functional grammar, therefore, doesn't classify language system only as autonomous set of rules and principles that should be respected, but it reaches the level of pragmatics where implied meanings cannot be seen in the surface structure of the language.

1.5.4. Fluency

The term 'fluency' is defined as "An ability in the second language to produce or comprehend utterances smoothly, rapidly, and accurately" (Segalowitz, 2003, p. 384). It is "The features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of , rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions" (Richards and Schmidt 2002, p. 204). Fluency includes four abilities: "(1) the ability to talk without awkward pauses for relatively long period of times; (2) the ability to talk in coherent and semantically dense sentences that show mastery of syntax and semantics; (3) the ability to say appropriate things in a variety of contexts; and (4) the ability to use language creatively and imaginatively" (Filmore as cited in Celce-Murcia et al, 2014, p. 122). But what does fluency exactly mean? What does the word 'fluent speaker refer to us? Do we mean by fluency the ability to speak fast? Yes it is the most important factor, but from listeners' perspective, pausing is also important. Why?

Bygate (2009) states that fluency takes two aspects: speed of delivery and regularity, the latter implies a natural amount and distribution of pauses. Hence speakers, even native ones need to breathe and stop from time to time in order to formulate an utterance with its

conceptualization. However, frequent pausing is considered as a sign of a struggling speaker. If pauses are placed at the intersection of clauses or after groups of words that form a meaningful unit, they are normal and accepted, but if they are placed midway between related groups of words. If the number of syllables between pause is too high, it may be tolerated because the ability to reduce the length of gaps between clauses is possessed only by abnormal fluent speakers such as auctioneers and horse-race commentators; they are able to take only short pauses for breath. Hence “the frequency of and the placement of pauses are more significant than the length of the pauses” (Tornbury, 2005). Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 204) note that fluency describes a level of proficiency in communication which includes:

- a) The ability to produce written and/or spoken language with ease
- b) The ability to speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation, vocabulary, and grammar
- c) The ability to communicate ideas effectively
- d) The ability to produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown of communication.

Harmer (2001) notes that fluency requires focusing on language content rather than on language form and errors are tolerated because what is needed is to enhance students’ ability to communicate and to converse with each other. The teacher’s role is to intervene in necessity; in other words when students face difficulties to carry on speaking. A distinction should be made between two types of errors: intra-lingual errors (errors within the target language such as overgeneralization). They take place due to a particular misuse of a particular of a particular rule of the target language. Inter-lingual errors (errors across languages in terms of intrusive or inhibitive interference); they often emerge due to the interference between L1 and L2; for example when the speakers use their knowledge of L1 and some features or rules of L2 (Hammerly, 1991). Corder (1967) notes that another distinction should be made between errors and mistakes; the former are systematic and should be corrected immediately, the latter are considered as slips of the tongue, and they are tolerated in language classroom. Harmer (2001) proposes the following techniques of error correction:

- a) Gentle correction: if a student cannot find the words to express an idea or to negotiate meaning, this will lead to a cut of communication, hence the teacher has to offer a form of correction and assistance in different ways. He might reformulate what the student has already said, and provides him with key words and needed vocabulary.
- b) Recording mistakes: while students speak, the teacher acts as observer and tries to mention all mistakes made by students to be corrected late on, but the problem is that the teacher may

forget them. Hence one useful way to give a feedback and avoid forgetting these mistakes is to write them down. The teacher can also record students' oral performance on audio or videotape, and then divides the students into groups to listen or watch this video so they can give their point of view about incorrect or inappropriate phrases. In this way all the class will be involved in the process of learning

c) After the event: after recording students' performance, a feedback can be provided in many ways. The teacher can provide an activity assessment to point out the strengths and weaknesses; he can also write the mistakes on the board but without mentioning who made them, and ask students if they can identify the problem, and whether they can give the right answer.

1.6. Types of Speaking Tasks

In oral expression session, classroom activities have objectives that cannot be attained only by interaction among students. These activities are often referred to us as “tasks”, they are designed depending on students' needs in order to engage them in the learning process. Classroom tasks are so important to stimulate students' interests and offer them a space for expressing their ideas and feelings. A task prompts students to focus much more on meaning rather than on form. What is really meant by a task?

1.6.1. Definition of Task

Teaching speaking in classroom remains one of the teachers' central roles to enable learners to communicate in a second language clearly and efficiently. One main way to do it is to provide these learners with the needed tasks to achieve an outcome or attain an objective. Unlike Traditional teacher-centred classes where isolated structures with no real-life reference are introduced, communication tasks are defined by Nunan as cited in (Ellis, 2007, 2009) as tasks that “involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form”. They use meaningful real life situations such as booking a room in a hotel, inviting someone to a party, asking for a direction or answering an invitation letter. The main objective of these tasks is to train learners not only to be linguistically competent but also communicatively and socio-linguistically competent. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 539) defines task as “(in teaching) an activity which is designed to help achieve a particular goal”. Nunan (1989) also considers communicative task as:

“a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right” (Nunan 1989, p. 10)

A similar definition provided by Prabhu (1987, p. 24) in which he defines task as “an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some processes of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process”. A task, of course should be meaningful as Ellis (2003.16) says “a task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or propositional content has been conveyed.

1.6.2. Task Components

Nunan (1989) claims that a task should include six components: goals, input, activities, teacher role, learner role. The following figure shows the components of communicative tasks.



Figure 4. A frame for analyzing communicative tasks (Nunan, 1989, p. 11)

-Goals are the general intentions behind any given task such as exchanging information. They may relate to a range of general outcomes or may directly describe teacher or learner behavior.

-Input refers to the data that form the point of departure for the task. It might be verbal (for example a dialogue, a discussion or reading a passage) or non-verbal (for example realia).

-Activities specify what learners will actually do with the input for example: reading or speaking.

-Teacher role which is always facilitation and guidance.

-Learner role which is always participation in interaction and conversation.

-Setting refers to the classroom arrangements specified and it also requires consideration of whether the task is to be carried out in pair or group work and wholly or partly inside the classroom.

Shavelson and Stern (1981) as cited in Nunan (1989, p. 47) suggest that task design should take into consideration the following elements: Content which is the subject matter to be taught, materials which are the things that learners can observe or manipulate, activities which are the things the learners and teacher will be doing during the lesson, goals refers to the teachers' general aim for the task (these are much more general and vague than objectives), students (their abilities, needs and interests are important), and social community which is the class as whole and its sense of "groupness".

Different types of tasks can be applied by teachers in teaching speaking, Goh and Burns (2012), for instance, propose the following ones: communication-gap tasks, discussion tasks, and monologic tasks. In communication gap and discussion tasks, learners work in pairs or small groups, they look for information through transactional and interpersonal interactions, they cooperate with each other, exchange ideas and opinions, and use strategies to improve their communication skill. However, in monologic tasks, learners are supposed to produce pieces of long discourses individually. Since the objective is to send a message to the audience and to convince them (oral presentation), the interaction then, is transactional.

1.6.3. Communication-Gap Tasks

Communication gap tasks encourage learners to speak and listen to each other, to express and exchange ideas, to find information, and to break down barriers. It is obvious that learners possess different background knowledge and culture that they always use when communicating, and their different cognitive potentialities should be exchanged to negotiate meaning and to close gaps between them. If someone has information that another one does not, and possibly vice versa, then there is a gap between the two, so they need to communicate to overcome the problem, and this refers to us as "Information gap". For example: Student A has information about the prices of clothes. Student B needs to know these prices and so asks student A to find the formation.

Harmer (2001) notes that what enhances the desire to communicate is the information gap and he provides the following example: if student A has a map which does not include the name "bank", while the student B has another map which includes the name " post office" written on the right building, but which student A cannot see. This means that there is a gap between the information the two students have. Once the first student recognizes the location of the bank on the map, the gap is then closed. The information gap may be translated through the use of printed hand-outs, recorded audio or video texts, short reading texts, pictures or diagrams, and printed texts with illustrations, and it is suited to pair and small groups in order to attain a presupposed goal and typically respect the following steps as Goh and Burns (2012,

p. 203) suggest : understand the information that they had, explain to one another the type of information they need, orally communicate with their partners or members in the group the information they have processed, ask questions to clarify or confirm when meaning is not clear, ask for repetition as often as necessary, and complete the gap in the information in whatever form is required.

Context-gap tasks are also another type of pair and group speaking tasks where learners are provided with the same information and are asked to use them to construct meaning and create a context for listeners. For example: two students A and B are given a list of food ingredients (illustrated with pictures) and they have to suggest and describe a dish by using all the ingredients. Each student can ask questions for clarification while listening to the description. Weak students can be given jumbled sentences referring to various stages in the process and they can work on the task collaboratively by sequencing the stages in a process.

1.7. Activities to Develop the Speaking Skill

Speaking is a crucial part in second language teaching and learning, hence it is necessary for students to learn speaking skills and have opportunities to practice the target language and make their voices heard. They need to learn by doing and to be involved in speaking rather than in listening. Harmer (2007) states that there are three main reasons why it is useful to provide students with speaking tasks to stimulate them to use all and any language at their command. The first is rehearsal; when students are given the opportunity to hold conversations with each other as in role-plays, they are encouraged to rehearse real-life events that they may face in the future. The second is the feedback; the students' language that emerges in the classroom provides feedback for the students and the teacher as well. The teacher can notice how the class is doing, and what kinds of language problems that often raise. As a result of the teacher's support and guidance, the students can gain confidence and satisfaction. The third is engagement; if a speaking activity is selected properly by the teacher, then the students will intrinsically enjoy and engage in oral participation. Oral expression teachers have a variety of activities to practice in the classroom. Activities such as discussion, role plays, simulation, information gap, storytelling and games are useful to improve students speaking skill.

1.7.1. Discussion

Discussion can be held for various reasons; students can share ideas, thoughts, and present events for the aim to arrive at a conclusion. It is essential that the purpose of discussion activity is set by the teacher. In this way, discussion points should be relevant to this purpose so that students do not spend their time chatting with each other in irrelevant topics. Lazaraton

(2001) states that discussion remains the most useful classroom activity to promote students' speaking skills. Students are introduced to a topic through reading or listening passage, and then they are divided into pairs or groups, and asked to discuss it in order to come up with a solution. For example, students can be involved in agree/disagree discussions where teachers form groups of students, preferably four or five in each group, and provide controversial sentences like "people learn best when they read VS people learn best when they travel" then each group works on their topic for a given time period and presents their opinion to the class. It is essential that speaking should be equally divided among group members. At the end, the class decides on the winning group who defended the idea in the best way.

Discussion activity encourages critical thinking and quick decision making, and students learn how to express and justify their ideas in polite way while disagreeing with others. For efficient group discussion, Nunan (1989) states that it is always better not to form large groups. The group members can be either assigned by the teacher or the students may determine them by themselves, but groups should be arranged in every discussion activity so that students can work with various people and learn to be open to different ideas. In class or group discussions, whatever the aim is, the students should always be encouraged to ask questions, paraphrase ideas, express support, check for clarification, and so on.

Harmer (2001) states that many students do not feel confident and comfortable when exposed in discussion situations, they are reluctant to give an opinion in front of the whole class. One main way for the teacher to avoid such difficulties is the "buzz group". It advocates that students should have a chance for quick discussion in small groups before asking them to speak individually in front of the public. As an example is to ask them to predict the content of reading text, or to show their reactions after reading it. Once they gain confidence, students can be involved in informal debate when they are asked to prepare arguments in favour or against various propositions (ibid). The following are the four common types of discussion procedures suggested by Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 164): recitation, guided discussion, reflective discussion, and small group discussion. Whereas Ur (1991) suggests the following discussion activities: describing a picture, picture differences, things in common, shopping list, and solving a problem.

1.7.2. Role Plays

Role plays require "repeating the words of certain characters in a story while role play means to add something new, individual to the words of the characters in the story" (Sarosdy et al, 2006, p. 59). They are another way to get students speak. Students pretend they are in various social contexts and have a variety of social roles. In role play activities, the teacher

gives information to the learners such as who they are and what they think or r feel. Role play activity involves interpreting a text in a form of speech, from the apparently simple (and not always exciting) textbook dialogue to a scene from a play. This kind of activity is far from easy: the learners not only have to bring the text alive, translate it from a printed page into speech, but also work out an interpretation that is consistent with the text (Byrne, 1986).

Richards and Schmidt (2002) describe Role plays as drama-like activities and state that:

“in language teaching drama-like classroom activities in which students take the roles of different participants in a situation and act out what might typically happen in that situation. For example, to practice how to express complaints and apologies in a foreign language, students might have to role-play a situation in which a customer in a shop returns a faulty article to a salesperson” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 460)

Role plays represent a good opportunity to practice improvising real life spoken language in the class. They are good for confident and cooperative students; however, inhibited or anxious ones find them difficult to perform. Hence to make them successful, the teacher should make sure that the language required must not exceed the students’ abilities. He has to create enthusiasm among students, and to provide them with careful and clear presentation and instructions. Ur (1991) and Harmer (2001) state that Role plays have three main distinctive advantages. First, they can be good fun and motivating. Second, they enhance hesitant students to be more audacious not only when they speak about themselves, but also when they express their opinions. Third, by adopting situations and events from the outside world, students will be able to practice a much wider range of language than used in classical classroom activities. The following are some guidelines about how to run a role play summarized from by (Scivener, 2011, p. 222): -Make sure the students understand the idea of role play, make sure the context or situation is clear, allow reading dictionaries and thinking time, encourage improvisation instead of prepared speech and notes, at the end of role play, make students feel they have achieved something through positive feedback.

Haycraft (1978) notes that students learn language well when they approach it indirectly. They concentrate on a role with movements and stage ‘business’, and therefore produce natural language than those with purely linguistic objectives. Even the students who are often reluctant to speak can shield their own personalities with the role they are playing. This opinion is shared by Ur (1991) who argues that “Rehearsal and other preparations are rather time-consuming, but the result can contribute a great deal both to learning and to learner confidence and morale” (Ur, 1991, p. 132).

1.7.3. Simulation

Simulation is defined as classroom activities through which students reproduce or simulate real situations and which often involve dramatization and group discussion; students imagine themselves in a situation which could occur outside the classroom, to adopt a specific role in this situation, and to behave as if the situation really existed, in accordance with their roles (Littlewood, 1981). In simulation activities, learners are given roles in a situation, tasks, or a problem to be solved, and are given instructions to follow (for example, an employer–employee discussion over wage increases in a factory) (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 487), or “You are the managing committee of a special school for blind children. You want to organize a summer camp for the children, but your school budget is insufficient. Decide how you might raise the money” (Ur, 1991, p. 132). The students are asked then to provide decisions and suggestions, and to discuss their actions and feelings. Hence simulation is considered as “a problem-solving activity in which several students can take part” (Sarosdy et al, 2006. 59).

Simulations are similar to role plays, but what makes simulations different is that role plays are more elaborate. In simulations, students can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. For instance, if a student is acting as a singer, she brings a microphone to sing and so on. Role plays and simulations have many advantages. First, since they are entertaining, they motivate students. Second, they increase self-confidence of hesitant students because in role plays and simulations, students will have different roles and do not have to speak for themselves; which means they do not have to take the same responsibility (Bygate, 80).

Jones, as cited in (Harmer, 2001), states that simulation must have the following characteristics: a) reality of function which means that students must think of themselves as real participants in the performed situation. b) a simulated environment should be imagined by the students such as acting in the classroom as if it is an airport, a supermarket, or police station. c) the structure of the activity should be known by the students who should be given the necessary information to perform the activity.

Simulations have benefits; they make students recognize people, places, and historical events as well as understand the motives and attitudes of people in the past, they stimulate effective reading. Simulations promote critical and evaluative thinking, and encourages students to contemplate the implications of a scenario. they promote concept attainment through experimental practice, and help students appreciate the different topics and gain a detailed understanding about them. They are more effective than traditional methods in

developing positive attitudes toward academic goals. It is more motivating because most students express satisfaction with the participation in simulation, and are excited about the learning that took place

1.7.4. Information Gap

Information gap is an activity whereby each student is some information and therefore must work in collaboration with other classmates who have their own information in order to solve a puzzle, understand a phenomenon, or build a meaning of an academic concept. Information gap activity “involves a transfer of given information from one person to another- or from one form to another or from one place to another-generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language” (Nunan, 1989, p. 66). A pair work is an example of information gap activity in which each participant has a part of the total information such as incomplete picture then tries to convey it verbally to his or her partner.

To complete a tabular representation with information of relevant information is also another type of information gap activity in which students exchange information and correct each other’s wrong or incomplete information (ibid). Students often practice information gap activity unintentionally. For example when they have an exam, they use to sit together in order to give and receive details about the expected issues in the exam.

Among various activities used in communicative approach, ‘information gap’ remains one of the most practiced ones; it takes students’ attention away from the form and directs it towards meaning. It is an interesting activity which is based on the need to understand and to transmit information; for example to find out what is in a partner’ picture. Information gap activities are useful because all the students are equally involved in the same task and they are all moving towards a specific purpose. They help students to move from working in a more structured environment into a more communicative environment and surely with lots use of the target language. Hence teachers should search for activities to make their course more interactive, and where students freely ask one other in a meaningful and authentic way. Nunan (1989, p. 122) states what information gap activity should include the following steps: introduction, vocabulary and idioms, small group listening, discussion and note taking, small group problem solving, and feedback:

1.7.5. Storytelling

Storytelling is a useful classroom activity, it provides highly motivating, engaging and realistic source of language interaction. The students as a storyteller becomes the source of input and the listeners are actively involved in understanding. It has been argued that

everyone can tell stories convincingly and “everyone tells stories in everyday life. Whether you think of yourself as ‘storyteller’ or not you tell people what happened to you” (Lipman, 1999, p. 11). Nelson (1989) notes that experiencing storytelling is a vehicle for enhancing understanding, motivating oral discussion, increasing and prompting interesting language usage. Storytelling is an effective teaching and learning tool that needs to be used frequently in the classroom setting. It is worth noting that the most natural way in which we organize our experience and our knowledge is in terms of the narrative form (Bruner, 1997)

Students can briefly summarize a tale or story they read or heard from somebody beforehand, or they may create their own stories to tell their classmates. Storytelling encourages creative thinking, and the storyteller becomes the source of language, and the listeners are actively involved in understanding (Morgan, 1983). Hellerman (2006) states that telling stories can develop students’ interactional competence and increase engagement in the classroom setting through their socialization into a literacy event. For example, reading a book and retelling the story to a classmate. Storytelling also helps students express ideas in the format of beginning, development, and ending. Students can tell riddles or jokes. For example, at the very beginning of each class session, the teacher may ask students to tell short riddles or jokes as an opening. In this way, not only will the teacher address students speaking ability, but also get attention of the class.

There are different types of storytelling such as: a true story from your own, a true story from the life of someone you know, like a friend, family member, or neighbour, a story from the news or current event, a fictional story, which made up characters or events, and “Imagine if...” story that sets up a hypothetical situation. In order to stimulate students’ interaction, the teacher can also tell stories in different ways such: sharing personal experience especially when teaching a difficult concept and telling them how he managed to understand and remember that concept, using a story as a way of introducing a new topic for the purpose of attracting less motivated students. Guargiulo (2007) states that a storyteller needs to put the following nine ideas before getting started: 1) Answer peoples’ questions with a story 2) Elicit stories from the group 3) Use a metaphor or analogy 4) Tell a story to change the group’s energy 5) Tell a story with your voice and body language 6) Validate and transform emotions with a story 7) Tell a story to change people’s perspective 8) Use people’s stories to build role plays on the fly 9) Use a joke or a tangent:

1.7.6 Games

Games are defined as “a form of a play governed by certain rules or conventions. They are meant to be enjoyed wherever they are played. In the language classroom, however; games

are not just diversion, a break from routine activities. “They must also contribute to language proficiency in some way by getting the learners to use language in the course of the game” (Byrne, 1986, p. 100). Games are described to be an enjoyable exercise to be solved by students who are supposed to practice the language. Curiosity, challenge, or the desire to win often pushes the students to interact with each other. The context in which a game is employed is always admired by most students because it lets them relax, entertain, and practice the language while playing them as it claimed that game is an activity which is entertaining and engaging, often challenging, and an activity in which the learners play and usually interact with others (Wright et al, 2006.). Games should not be competitive because competition can positively stimulate some students, but they can destroy others. Students as players always want to have a turn, but if a competition is used excessively, shy students will be eliminated.

There are many reasons why it is so important to use games in classroom. Games are practical and powerful teaching tool since they provide students with opportunities to use the target language in a good context. Baek (2010) states that games mean a great deal for students, nothing is more fun than playing games for them. Games strengthen language skills, and students develop social skills and good relationships while they interact with each other. Games add variation to a lesson and increase motivation by providing a plausible incentive to use the target language.

Through playing games, students can learn English the way children learn their mother tongue without being aware they are learning and therefore they are speaking. Scannel and Burnett (2010) claim that the shorter, the better; games should be brief from few minutes to twenty or thirty minutes. They are always an appetizer or dessert, but not the main part of the meal. They should be used at and only at the appropriate time and not to kill time, and they should be presented as they are presented in books with little change if necessary. The following are some popular activities proposed by (Sarosdy et al, 2006, p. 59): interviews, roleplaying, monologues, miming, simulation, for and against debate, memory games, picture cues, and jigsaw tasks

1.8. Strategies for Developing the Speaking Skill

It is often believed that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language process. Effective teachers provide students with speaking strategies using minimal responses, recognizing scripts and prepared

talks. These strategies are very helpful for students to extend their knowledge of the language as well as their self-confidence.

1.8.1 Using Minimal Pairs

Students, who are not self-confident, often keep silent while the others speak. One way to encourage them to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that can be used in different types of exchanges. This strategy enables the student to focus on what his interlocutor is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response. Minimal responses are predictable, often formulaic expressions or fillers and hesitation devices. Formulaic expressions are expressions used very frequently such as idioms and phrases. Sometimes the words included in these conventional expressions are difficult to change, so they always keep the same form when spoken. Conversation participants can use them to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses. (Bygate, 1987) believes that speakers can benefit from this strategy and notes that “they do not have to construct each new utterance afresh, using the rules of grammar and their knowledge of vocabulary in order to vary their expression for each fresh occasion” .

Examples:

- I don't think so!
- I completely agree with you
- It's very nice to meet you

Fillers and hesitation devices are called “time creating devices” speakers use them while they are thinking about what they would say next. The main fillers are the use of phrases like “alright”, “erm”, “you know”, or repeating and rephrasing what have been said before and keeping pauses between expressions. Hesitation consists of stalling and repeating words while trying to find a needed word and to organize ideas.

1.8.2. Recognizing Scripts

In some communication situations such as compliments, apologies, greetings and complaints, participants can predict of a set of spoken exchanges that are influenced by social and cultural norms, they often produce utterances using the same patterns or scripts. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated. (Yule 1985, 150) states that “a script has a series of conventional actions that take place. You have a script for ‘going to the dentist’ and another script for ‘going to the movies’. We all have versions of an ‘eating in a restaurant’ script”.

Teachers can help students develop speaking abilities by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, teachers can give students practice in

managing and varying the language that different scripts contain. Harmer (2001) gives much importance to the use of scripts, he notes that students can improve their speaking if they act from a script, they can perform scenes from plays or text books and sometimes they can practice an oral task that they have written themselves such as: dialogues, story-telling or games. For example, when students read a story, they build what is called schema and script through interpreting what is read into mental pictures of dialogues, discourses, scenes, and events. A good way to get them live the script is to encourage them to create their own version of the text, with some changes if they want, and to perform it directly on the stage. Later on, discussion and debate take a part in the classroom, students can tell their remarks, ask questions, and therefore interact with each other.

1.8.3. Prepared Talks

It is one of the best ways to make students present oral tasks in front of their classmates, students are given plenty of time to prepare themselves in advance, to rehearse and to repeat. So, once they are in the class, they can easily speak and gain confidence in the same time. Prepared talks is an excellent preparation for real- life speaking. Harmer (2001) claims that prepared talk is a popular kind of activity where students make preparation of a topic of their own choice, and they represent “a useful speaking genre, and if properly organized, can be extremely interesting for both speaker and listeners” (Harmer, 2001, p. 274).

Practicing a prepared talk is a useful technique to gain confidence and ensure a good oral presentation, it requires from the student, particularly who is nervous or who is not really self-confident, to be a member of a Learning Cycle (to gather some friends to listen to him), to prepare a short talk (less than five minutes), to write down only keywords and phrases to be used, and to read aloud from notes only. After the talk, the student asks one of the present friends to give him or a comment and feedback in order to know how successful his talk was. Hence rehearsing what is wanted to say in front of the audience will enable the speaker to be familiar with oral presentation and therefore to speak with enjoyment and enthusiasm

1.9. Communication Strategies

Communication plays a vital role in life, it is a mean of exchanging ideas and thoughts, discussing problems, and gaining people. Hence the ultimate goal of language learning is to acquire communicative competence (Widdowson, 1990), and speaking takes the account of 30% in the process of communication (River, 1979). No one denies that EFL learners often struggle with problems and difficulties when they need to express their ideas in English but they possess limited vocabulary. In order to get their message cross, they may use different

oral communication devices to solve their deficiency in vocabulary. Such devices are commonly known as communication Strategies (CSs), and which are defined as “the way in which an individual speaker manages to compensate for this gap between what she wishes to communicate and her immediately available linguistic resources” (Faucette, 2001, p. 1), or “Techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language” (Stern, 1983, p. 411). The advantages of CSs have been supported by many researchers such as Dornyei (1995) and Nakatani (2005) who advocated the learners’ need to use these strategies.

Kormos (2006) identifies four approaches to conceptualizing communication strategies (CSs): the first is the traditional view, which CSs are seen as verbal or non-verbal devices that can be used to compensate insufficient knowledge of the target language system. The second is the interactional view, which employs CSs to solve difficulties involved not only in production but also in comprehension that may include negotiation of meaning particularly when basic meaning structures do not seem to be shared by interlocutors. The third is the extended view, which stresses on every potentially intentional attempt to cope with any language problems; it may include problem solving devices related to the lack of target language proficiency and difficulties in output production, and strategies used to gain time. The fourth is the cognitive view, which focuses on psycholinguistic processes underlying the use of CSs; it describes strategic devices such as alternative speech plan when the original plan cannot be successfully encoded.

Dornyei and Scott (1997) list four types of difficulties that may be encountered by interlocutors: a) Resource deficits pertaining to the lack of target language proficiency. b) Speaker’s oral performance problems that lead to incorrect output. c) Hearer’s inability to comprehend the speaker’s message because it contains inaccuracies and therefore it cannot be fully understood. d) Pressure of time under which interlocutors feel unable to carry on a conversation, so they need to use time gaining strategies such as fillers and hesitation devices.

Two major approaches compete to study communication strategies: the interactional approach, also known (sociolinguistic approach) influenced by Tarone (1980) who focuses on the way learners use strategies during conversation that enables them to negotiate meaning and send message effectively. He classifies CSs into five main categories: paraphrasing, borrowing, appeal for assistance, mime, and avoidance (Tarone, 1977). The psycholinguistic approach, also known (cognitive approach) influenced by Faerch and Kasper (1983) who define CSs as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (Faerch and Kasper, 1983, p. 81). They divide them into two major types: reduction strategies which are the attempt to avoid

communication problems, and achievement strategies which are the attempt to solve a problem by expanding the learner's communicative resources (ibid, 1983). The following is a table of typology of communication strategies proposed by Dornyei (1995) as cited in (Dornyei & Slade, 2006, p. 221).

Avoidance or reduction strategies

1. Message abandonment: leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties.
2. Topic avoidance: avoiding topic areas or concepts which pose language difficulties.

Achievement or compensatory strategies

3. Circumlocution: describing or exemplifying the target object or action (e.g. *the thing you open bottles with* for *corkscrew*).
 4. Approximation: using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g. *ship* for *sail boat*).
 5. Use of all-purpose words: extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g. the overuse of *thing*, *stuff*, *make*, *do*, as well as using words like *thingie*, *what-do-you-call-it*).
 6. Word-coinage: creating a non-existing L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g. *vegetarianist* for *vegetarian*).
 7. Use of non-linguistic means: mime, gesture, facial expression or sound imitation.
 8. Literal translation: translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2.
 9. Foreignizing: using an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically (i.e. with an L2 pronunciation) and/or morphologically (e.g. adding it to an L2 suffix).
 10. Code switching: using an L1 word with L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with L3 pronunciation in L2.
 11. Appeal for help: turning to the conversation partner for help either directly (e.g. *What do you call . . . ?*) or indirectly (e.g. rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression).
- Stalling or time-gaining strategies**
12. Use of fillers/hesitation devices: using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g. *well*, *now let me see*, *as a matter of fact*).

Table7. Typology of communication strategies (Dörnyei, 1995) cited in (Dornyei & Slade, 2006, p. 221)

The interactional approach was adopted by Dornyei and Scott (1997) who developed a paradigm of 33 communication strategies divided into three main groups. Each group reflects how CSs help learners to resolve communication breakdowns and to ensure mutual understanding. Direct strategies (circumlocution, approximation), indirect strategies (using strategy markers or hedges), and interactional strategies (request or clarification). The following are the 33 communication strategies suggested by Dornyei and Scott (1997):

1)Message abandonment, 2)Message reduction, 3)Message replacement, 4) Circumlocution (paraphrase), 5)Approximation, 6)Use of all purpose words, 7)Word coinage, 8)Restructuring, 9)Literal translation (Transfer), 10)Foreignizing, 11)Code switching (Language switch), 12)Use of similar sounding words, 13)Mumbling, 14)Omission, 15)Retrieval, 16a)Self-repair, 16b)Other-repair, 17)Self-rephrasing, 18)Over explicitness (Waffling), 19)Mime Nonlinguistic/Paralinguistic strategies, 20)Use of fillers, 21a)Self-repetition, 21b)Other repetition, 22)Feinining understanding, 23)Verbal strategy markers, 24a)Direct appeal for help, 24b)Indirect appeal for help, 25)Asking for repetition, 26)Asking for clarification, 27)Asking for confirmation, 28)Guessing, 29)Expressing non-understanding, 30)Interpretive summary, 31)Comprehension check, 32)Own accuracy check, 33a)Response repeat, 33b)Response repair, 33c)Response rephrase, 33d)Response expand, 33e)Response confirm, 33f)Response reject.

1.10. EFL Students' Speaking Difficulties

During the speaking process, foreign language learners may face many difficulties concerning the language itself (the form, the structure, the context... etc.) so learners have great deal to do to overcome these linguistic problems. Crystal (2003) notes that if English is not your mother tongue, you may still have mixed feelings about it; you may be strongly motivated to learn it, because you know it will put you in touch with more people than any other language; but at the same time you know it will take a great deal of effort to master it. What are the main speaking difficulties often encountered by EFL learners in terms of language itself?

1.10.1. Slip of the Tongue

When learning a second language, speakers produce sounds which are different from those of their mother tongue, the articulation of some of them is sometimes difficult, that's why pronunciation mistakes are often committed. Every day speech is full of different types of errors, and everyone seems to produce some of them when speaking. Fromkin, as cited in (Dell & Oppenheim, 2015, p. 404), notes that "Speech errors are the product of linguistic knowledge... and Linguistic units of all sizes can slip, and the resulting slips are profoundly sensitive to linguistic constraints". The phenomenon of doing such errors is called slip of the tongue. It is claimed that speech errors results from misordering abstract phonological units that leads to non meaningful or inappropriate words.

Yule (1985) defines slip of the tongue (SOT) "as a speech error in which a sound or a word is produced in the wrong place; as in black bloxes instead of 'black boxes'". Jaeger (2005, p. 2) defines it as "a one-time error in speech production planning; that is, the speaker intends to

utter a particular word, phrase, or sentence, and during the planning process something goes wrong, so that the production is at odds with the plan". It can be defined also as "an unintended, non-habitual deviation from speech plan" (Dell, 1986, p. 284). So the problem doesn't pertain to memory slip, lack of linguistic competence, false start, or wrong articulation, because speakers often correct slips of the tongue immediately.

SOT is considered as a result of the absence of accordance between the brain and sound production. According to Dell (1986) as cited in (Poulisse, 1999, p. 91) "A slip of the tongue can be defined as an unintended, non-habitual deviation from a speech plan. There are three main types of SOT; sound error, morpheme errors, and word errors. A sound error occurs when sound in words are exchanged as when saying a 'power flot' instead of a 'flower pot'. A morpheme error, occurs when morphemes are switched in words close by. For example, 'the dear old queen' instead of 'the queer old dean'. Another common example is 'you have wasted the whole term' instead of 'you have tasted the whole worm'. A word error occurs when words in an utterance are rearranged, as when saying 'reading a boy to my book' instead of 'reading a book to the boy' instead of.

1.10.2. Slip of the Ear

Slip of the ear is a term that is closely related to the term "Mondegreen" which was introduced for the first time in 1954 by Sylvia Wright, a freelance writer who wrote an article in New York Times where she said she misheard the folk lyric "and laid him on the green" as "lady mondegreen". The article used the term to refer to any audible misinterpretation of a song lyric, advertising slogan, and the like. For example; hearing the utterance 'Varicose vein' as 'Very close vein'. So, "Mondegreen" means a word or a phrase which results from mishearing of something said or song. Listeners, sometimes, perceive stretch of speech which doesn't correspond to the speaker's actual utterance. They have to decode speech to recognize the ambiguous words which the speaker originally encoded. Bond (2005) notes that Slips of the ear are misperceptions or misunderstandings reflect the way through which listeners use phonetic, phonology, lexicon, and syntax to understand speech. Hence, the misperception occurs when the utterance heard is not clear enough, or it is produced so fast. Slip of the ear can be a result of contraction, juncture, elision, assimilation, or vowel weakening. (Bond, 2005, p. 290) cites that:

"At a doctoral dissertation defense, a member of the audience heard the candidate say "chicken dance," a phrase that had absolutely no connection with the dissertation topic of early literacy. Then she saw a proper name on a graphic:

Schikedanz. The listener suspected that something was wrong from the inappropriateness of what she had heard and recovered the speaker's intended utterance from subsequent information."

Being able to recognize and discriminate between words that are phonetically similar requires "identifying sequences of segments and features from acoustic-phonetic properties in the speech signal" (Houston, 2005, p. 417), so a great deal to do by listeners to avoid falling in confusion during the input. Interlocutors have to understand each other to keep their conversation go without cut, but if their utterances are heard wrongly, then, slips of the ear occur and stand as an obstacle to exchange and negotiate meaning. Yule (1985) considers slips of the ear as errors when words or phrases are heard in a wrong way; as when the utterance is "gray tape", while the intended phrase is "great ape". In the song 'purple haze' of Jimi Hendrix, the intended sentence 'Scuse me, while I kiss the sky' can be perceived as 'Scuse me, while I kiss this guy'. Another example derived from the song 'Lucy in the sky with diamonds' of the Beatles, when the sentence 'The girl with kaleidoscope eyes' is heard as 'The girl with colitis goes by', and 'Hold me closer, tiny dancer' from Elton John's song 'Tiny Dancer' is heard as 'Hold me closer, Tony Danza'.

1.10.3. Tip of the Tongue Phenomenon

The Tip of the tongue (TOT) is a particular natural phenomenon that can touch human beings, but it is very difficult to understand its mechanism because the human brain is a complex apparatus to analyse. In foreign language learning, TOT is often encountered by learners. The English vocabulary, for instance, includes thousands of words that we cannot memorize all of them, and of course we do not use all of them regularly, so sometimes we forget some of them. The phenomenon of knowing a word, but being unable to recall it, can stand as an obstacle for the speaker to communicate.

The TOT is equivalent to the French word "presque vu" which indicates a state of being unable to extract the wanted word. Pechman & Zerbst (2000,) define the tip of the tongue phenomenon as knowing exactly what we want to express, but failing to use the appropriate word .It is the inability to retrieve a familiar word from the memory. Schwartz (2002, p. 5) notes that "A TOT is a strong feeling that a target word, although currently unrecalable, is known and will be recalled." Though sometimes we know some of the letters in the missing word, the number of syllables and the position of the primary stress, and we can also recall words of similar sounds and meanings but we still unable to utter the target word we are seeking for.

TOT is closely related to the terms “feeling of knowing” which means the ability to predict whether we could recognize the correct answer or question, and “meta-cognition” which means to know and, to think of, and to control our cognitive processes. Brown and Mcneil as cited in (Schwartz, 2002, p. 6) have experienced the TOT for the name of a street, one of them suggested the words; Congress, Corinth, and Concord for the forgotten word which was Cornish Street. They noted that “they could sometimes recall first letters, syllabic stress, and number of syllables when they were experiencing a TOT, although they could not recall the actual target word.”. As in the following example, a speaker who experiences TOT, often regrets his or her inability to produce the target word or phrase, and reacts in the same way:

-What’s the name of drug I want to tell your father about?

-Wait a moment, I know.

- Damn it! It’s on the tip of my tongue.

Though People of all ages have experiences TOT, but psycholinguists couldn’t till now provide an exact and clear explanation of its occurrence which is often referred to the weakness of the memory. Some experts claim that TOT can be a result of a breakdown between lexical selection and phonological encoding. Sometimes, memorizing incorrect and similar sounding words can block the retrieval of the word. if words are not perfectly memorized, the memory, then, is not completely activated, if there is a wrong connection between the signifier and the signified, in other words, what is heard (the sound) and what is understood (the meaning) are situated in different parts of the memory, if a memory is left inactive for a long period of time, receiving and sending lexical data will be so difficult.

1.11. Psychological Difficulties Affecting EFL Students’ Speaking Skill

While learning second or foreign languages, learners often struggle with some psychological speaking difficulties. These difficulties prevent them from producing the target language comfortably. Even the learners who possess a good cognitive ability still have a speaking difficulty that can be a consequence of psychological factors such as anxiety, shyness, lack of motivation, and fear of doing mistakes. Shyness and motivation, or instance, are considered as the main causes of students’ reluctance to speak (Brown, 2001). Some students find it difficult to join a discussion because of the fear of doing mistakes which is linked to teachers and classmates’ correction and negative correction. Students with lack of self-confidence suffer from communication apprehension (Nunan, 1999), and prefer to keep silent because they have realized that they neither understand their interlocutors nor they are

understood by them. The lack of self-confidence often pertains to the students' weak speaking ability or teachers' encouragement. Hence we aim to put stress on the so called psychological problems that hinder students from speaking as well as the possible solutions to overcome them. Let's examine the following passage:

“Poor, Paul. He just got so nervous when Professor Montrose pointed at him and asked him the question that he couldn't remember a thing.” And perhaps he did suffer from severe speech anxiety—or stage fright. But then why was Sylvia able to look Professor Montrose in the eye, tell him there are three steps, and then discuss each? One answer might be, “Well, she doesn't suffer stage fright, so she was able to answer the question.” Although that might well be true, there's another answer as well: Paul hadn't prepared well for class, while Sylvia had not only read the text material but had also outlined the key points and reviewed them over a cup of coffee before class.”(Verderber, Verderber & Sellnow, 2008, p. 17)

The passage clearly shows that though students may possess almost the same linguistic skill but their psychological abilities make a difference and play a great part in speaking. Horwitz et al (1986) claim that in language learning, the psychological factor is so important than the linguistic one. In other words, besides linguistic components such as phonology, syntax and semantics which are crucial in speaking, psychological factors such as anxiety, shyness, lack of self-confidence, and lack of motivation may stand as negative barriers for speakers whatever their social status. Famous stars, for instance, who are experienced to speak to large public, and who are used to employ strategies to manage anxiety, nervousness, or fear of speaking, claim they feel fearful before any speech presentation. Award-winning actor Meryl Streep, singer Barbra Streisand, and evangelist Billy Graham, for example, have experienced fear of public speaking.

It is assumed that there are four types: avoider who escapes from speaking in front of audience, a resister who has a fear but obliged to speak in front of people because it is a part of his or her job. An acceptor who gives an oral presentation as a part of job but he doesn't seek for this opportunity, and finally a seeker who looks for opportunities to speak (Mandel, 1987). The table below shows the categories and characteristics of speakers.

| CATEGORY | CHARACTERESTICS |
|-----------------|--|
| AVOIDER | An avoider does everything possible to escape from having to get in front of an audience. In some cases, avoiders may seek careers that do not involve making presentations. |
| RESISTER | A resister has fear when asked to speak. This fear may be strong. Resisters may not be able to avoid speaking as part of their job but they never encourage it. When they do speak they do so with great reluctance and considerable pain. |
| ACCEPTER | The acceptor will give presentations as part of the jobs but doesn't seek those opportunities. Accepters occasionally give a presentation and feel as though they did a good job. They even find that once in a while they are quite persuasive, and enjoy speaking in front of a group. |
| SEEKER | A seeker looks for opportunities to speak. The seeker understands that anxiety can be a stimulant which fuels enthusiasm during a presentation. Seekers work at building their professional communication skills and self-confidence by speaking often. |

Table 8. Categories and characteristics of speakers (Mandel, 1987, p. 3)

1.11.1. Anxiety

Despite we all have experienced feelings of anxiousness, but no one can define anxiety in simple words. Psychologists and psycholinguists attempted to provide a deep explanation of the term and to seek for its causes. “Anxiety is quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process”; this is the definition of anxiety of Arnold and Brown which cited in Dornyei (2005, p. 198). It is a subjective feeling of nervousness, worry, tension and apprehension. It is a fear of speaking failure that touches many students who always take into consideration the reaction of the public, so they are afraid to be criticized and negatively evaluated or they feel that their reputation is on the edge. Monarth & Kase (2007) state that anxiety is linked on the belief that other people are likely to judge us to have a low speaking level. Mandel (1987) defines anxiety as

“A natural state that exists any time we are placed under stress. Giving a presentation will normally cause some stress. When this type of stress occurs, psychological changes take place that may cause symptoms such as a nervous stomach, sweating, tremors in the hands and eyes, accelerated breathing and/or heart rate” (Mandel, 1987, p. 7).

In order to reduce anxiety, he proposes the following tips:

-Organizing your thoughts will give you more confidence, which will allow you to focus energy into your presentation

- Imagining the scene of the presentation with all the details will help you to determine your weaknesses
- Practicing your oral presentation in advance, several times and standing up as if an audience were in front of you and using visual aids if possible.
- Breathing deeply a number of times till you feel relaxed
- Releasing tension by doing some physical movements
- Moving when speaking to stay relaxed and natural
- Eye contact with the audience will help you relax because you feel less isolated from them and you learn to react to their interest in you.

A significant experiment was made by MacIntyre and Gardner, as cited in Dornyei (2005, p. 200). To investigate the relationship between anxiety and academic performance, they intentionally used a video camera at various points in a vocabulary learning task. They took a sample of students divided into four groups; the first three groups were put under the control of a camera at different phases of task completion, while the fourth group was not exposed to the camera; the result was a significant increase of state anxiety and deficits in vocabulary upon the students of the first three groups, however; anxiety was almost absent in the fourth group. The experiment proved that anxiety can lead to performance failure which implies that language anxiety is not merely a function of poor performance due to insufficient cognitive skills and abilities.

1.11.2. Lack of Self Confidence

Teachers have an important role in strengthening students' confidence by giving them support and positive feedback, providing them with opportunities to express their feeling thoughts and ideas and helping them to reduce their anxiety. Students cannot build their self-confidence unless they are audacious and involve themselves in different types of interactions. They should not be ashamed of their mistakes or their hesitations while they speak, because the more they speak much the more they gain confidence in themselves. Students' confidence can be improved when these students are provided with experience of success, and encouraged to impose themselves so they can reduce their anxiety. Confident speakers are perfectly willing to admit when they are wrong because they know that admission doesn't diminish their value or their ability.

Anthony (2003) claims that students should take responsibility, look at their own problems and try to solve them through constructive actions such as reversing failure into success by insisting on correcting their mistakes. Pleuger (2001) adds that most of students find speaking to an audience intimidating even when using their mother tongue and if fear of

failure is normal, how can we get rid of it? Creating confidence among learners goes through the following suggestions to the teachers: have a friendly chat with the class before any teaching and share the students' anxiety, make it clear that what they are feeling is a normal phenomenon, then point that we are all born with an innate speaking ability which varies from person to person and is not under our control and this speaking ability is not a matter of intelligence

Ridley and Walther (1995) provide some suggestions of how can teachers help students feel more confident. The teacher should be willing to give extra assistance if it is needed or desired because many students are afraid or embarrassed to ask a teacher for help. The teacher should be patient otherwise the student may feel anxious and stop trying to understand the material, so it is important to look for ways to help them understand difficult concepts (e.g., watching video, role playing or doing an outline or other hands-out activity). It is known that the pressure to cover a great of material pushes many teachers to move too quickly, they are too often forced into accepting only faster students understanding the material while other students fall further and further behind, then slower students become apathetic toward learning and may become discipline problem.

1.11.3. Shyness

Holding a classroom conversation with a teacher or even a classmate seems to be embarrassing for some students who have low self-esteem, and who are afraid of being criticized or laughed at, their behaviour is easily recognized though they always try to hide it. They are often more likely to feel anxious about speaking than their less shy classmates, they are not able to perform some oral tasks such as: storytelling, role plays, and monologue.etc. This avoidance of speaking increases their anxiety. Introspective students are more likely to be thoughtful and quiet, who have less experience in speaking in front of public. "They tend to be observers rather than participators" (Monarth & kase, 2007, p. 12). "Shyness probably is most commonly used by lay persons and professionals to describe individuals who are reticent to engage in social interactions or who are socially withdrawn." (Beidel & Turner, 1999, p. 203-204).

Shyness often overlaps with terms such as timidity, bashfulness, and diffidence. It is experienced in varying degrees depending on the speakers' personalities and their ability to resist and face any unexpected negative reaction from people they are addressing to. (Van Der Molen, 1990, p. 258) thinks that "shyness is primarily a question of personal experience, the individual's feelings and self-image. We believe that the individual is the most reliable expert

on his or her own shyness; what others have to say about it is based on enquiries or (fallible) observations of behaviour”

Teachers have to be heedful of how to cope with shy students to reduce their shyness to the minimum. McIntyre (1989) suggests that designating specific roles to stimulate shy students to speak, interfering and supplying them with needed information, talking with them regularly, valuing their works and showing them to the rest of the class are useful strategies to overcome the problem of shyness in the classroom. Teachers can involve shy students in small group activities and cooperative interactions with peers without forcing them to communicate, giving them the right to seat with a friendly and helpful classmates near the front of the class so they can ask and answer question with less aware of the students around them, standing near them and providing them with support when they cannot express their thoughts and ideas. Teachers give the floor equally to the students in order to promote familiarity between shy students and the most dominant ones, and avoid critics for any wrongdoing, and use a positive reinforcement instead. The type of activities selected by teachers also play a great part in establishing self-confidence and comfort, group discussion, interactive games, ice breakers, and paired activities for instance, are the main useful tasks that can easily minimize shyness.

1.11.4. Fear of Speaking and Making Mistakes

“One on the list of people’s greatest fears is not death (as you might imagine), but public speaking. Death is down around Number Four” (Harrison, 2008, p. 1). The fear of speaking in front of people and doing mistakes stands as a nightmare for many EFL students, who often give much importance to the audience impression and think they are responding negatively to their mistakes; this is a symptom of perfectionism This feeling may take a long time, and may never disappear because they learned to think of mistakes as something bad, however; making mistakes is part of human condition, and it should be seen from a positive side, because the longer they avoid speaking, the bigger they develop their fear and anxiety. (Wilder, 1999, p. 9) asks the following question:

“Why do you have a fear of speaking? “You’ve probably asked yourself that question many times and found no satisfactory answer. The only thing you know for sure is what happens when it comes time to speak in public: the panic, the dry throat, the struggle to remember everything you meant to say, the fear that the words might not come.”

Baldwin (2011) states that the phobia of speaking in front of people is the main feature of shy students and Esposito (2000) proposes that to prevent ourselves from the fear of speaking and doing mistakes, many strategies are available; the first strategy is to make peace with fear, how? Instead of saying “Oh no, here it comes again. I can’t speak in front of this crowd, what if people classify me in a low grade? We need to be optimistic and say “I feel good, no matter what happens, this is not the end of the world, it is only an uncomfortable feeling, everything is going to be alright”. The second strategy is to shift from feeling like the biggest fool there ever was to creating a comfort and reassurance for ourselves, how? Imagine we are doing our favourite thing with our favourite friend, exchanging love with a special person, visualizing ourselves in a good place and setting, and making sure that the actual event of performance is going to be a part of the past. The third strategy is to contemplate much more on the people and the things surrounding us, which will help us to break the scary images and wrong and threatening thoughts predicted before speaking. The fourth strategy is ‘deep breathing’. The feeling of fear makes us feel in danger, afraid of panic attack, so we need to protect ourselves. Our body, then, starts to react through different physical changes.

1.11.5 Lack of Motivation

Motivation is viewed as one of the significant backbones of learning process. Without desire and willingness, it is difficult to achieve effective and fruitful learning, so students’ speaking skill develops best in a motivational atmosphere in which students’ needs are satisfied. Harmer defines motivation as “Some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something” (Harmer, 2001, p. 51). Reeve as cited in (Robinson, 2001, p. 46) shows that motivation “gives behavior its energy and direction”. Students who are motivated to practice the language are apt to contribute in classroom activities they feel helpful to promote their cognitive abilities, they regularly respect their teacher’s instructions, they take notes and check their level of understanding and ask for help in case of necessity.

Dornyei stresses on motivation and says “It is easy to see why motivation is of great importance in SLA: It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process” (Dornyei, 2005, p. 65). By contrast; unmotivated students often do not perceive the classroom climate as supportive, pay little attention to the course, do not organize or rehearse the material to be learned, and have other priorities to achieve their goals. Psycholinguists classify motivation into two types: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Brown (2000) states that students who are intrinsically motivated are those who carry out a given task because they enjoy it and find it

exciting and have an internal desire to participate, however; the students who are extrinsically motivated are those who are given a task to solve for the sake of obtaining external rewards such as: they need to pass an exam to satisfy their parents, to compete in a contest to win a scholarship, they hope a financial reward as Brown states”(it is) quite simply the anticipation of reward”(Brown, 2000, p. 160).

Allowing students to have some choice and control over the topic they want to discuss will give them much freedom to interact, and any success from their side should be praised and even rewarded. Slavin (2006) affirms that “classroom interaction should enhance Intrinsic motivation as soon as possible” (Slavin, 2006, p. 336). The teacher has to prove he is person who is worth listening, trusting and respecting by keeping students updated with recent development regarding the topic under study, applying fun activities to kill boredom, providing clear and meaningful feedback and giving opportunities for success equally to his students. Nunan notes that feedback can be positive and can be shown through interjections like ‘okay’ or ‘good’ or negative through repeating the students’ answer with a rising intonation (Nunan, 1991).

Conclusion

Speaking is a crucial aspect for language communication; its mastery has become the priority for the majority of foreign language learners who often refer success in language learning to the proficiency of spoken language. However gaining proficiency in speaking is not a matter of acquiring linguistic skill; but it requires knowing its complicated nature and diagnosing factors that may affect it. In this chapter, we tried to emphasize the main elements involved in the process of teaching and learning speaking. We also shed light on the most useful classroom activities and the different communication strategies that enable students to expend their knowledge of how to improve their speaking. We also insisted on the psychological difficulties that students often struggle with and how to overcome them. We believe that the ability of speaking English fluently and comfortably begins with recognizing its speaking sub skills and its speaking strategies as well.

Chapter Two: Dogme ELT

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Chapter Two: Dogme ELT

Introduction

Teaching speaking has had a long history in language teaching methodologies. Researchers and scholars from different trends struggled with how a given foreign language should be taught and therefore spoken effectively. In classroom setting, foreign language teachers often search for various teaching methods and approaches that meet learners' particular needs. Dogme ELT is perceived to be a revolutionary movement that is alternative to previous methods and approaches; it paved the way for teachers to be skeptical about heavy materials such as course book-based lessons and to focus instead on conversation among participants in the classroom. This chapter introduces two main models about how languages are learnt (Anthony's & Richards and Rodgers' models). It tends to give a description and discussion of the most dominating methods in the last century; it examines their similarities and differences, evaluates their effectiveness, and determines the status of the speaking skill in each one. The chapter analyses Dogme ELT tenets and discusses its merits and demerits as well.

2.1. Anthony's Terminology

In 1963, the American applied linguist Edward Anthony proposed a model to describe various language teaching methods. The model states that "Language teaching is sometimes discussed in terms of three related aspects: approach, method, and technique" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 30). Richards and Rodgers (2001) note that

"According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are presented" (Richards & Rodgers, 19, p. 2001)

Brown (2001) clarifies the notion of 'Approach-Method-Technique' by giving the following example: at the level of 'approach', the teacher may assert the importance of relaxation, mental awareness, and consciousness in the learning process besides a maximum retention of material. The most appropriate method that goes in the same trend is undoubtedly 'suggestopedia', hence the best technique is reading a text simultaneously with a soft playing of baroque music which is characterized by its specific rhythm, and using the yoga sitting while listening and

memorizing new vocabulary. The following figure shows the classification and description of “Approach-Method-Technique” proposed by Burnham (1999).

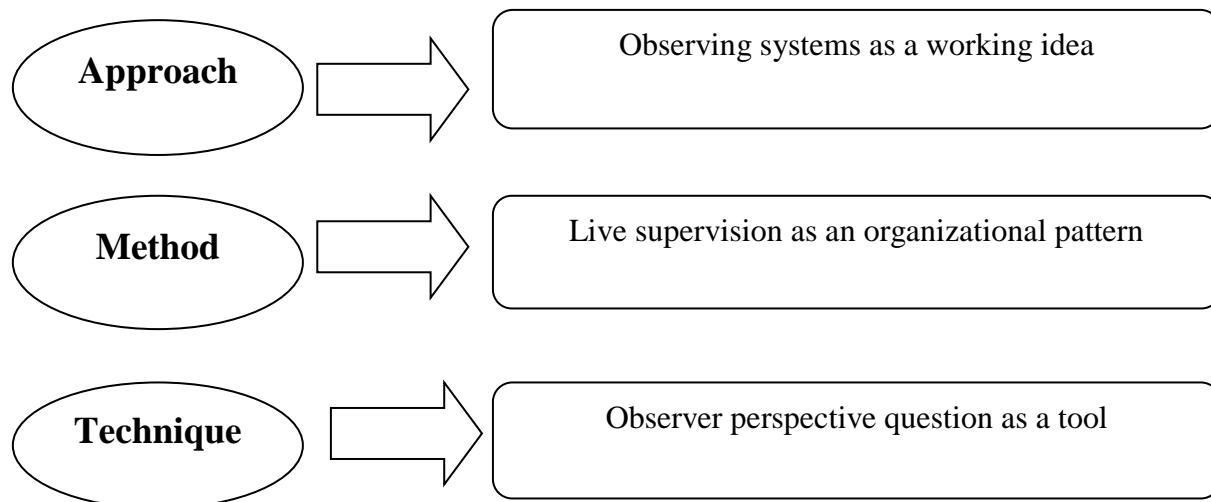


Figure5. Classification and description of “Approach-Method-Technique” (Burnham, 1999, p. 7)

2.1.1. Approach

In generally speaking, Van Patten and Williams (2015) state that the main concern of a theory is to explain observed phenomenon, and predictions about what would occur under specific conditions. However; in language teaching, an approach is “the theory, philosophy and principles underlying a particular set of teaching principles” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 29). Anthony as cited in (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 20) refers approach to “nature of language and language learning that serve as the sources of practices and principles in language teaching”. In the same trend, Burnham (1986, 1999) states that ‘approach’ is the highest level of inquiry and research, it exceeds the collection of theories, concepts and ideas to the investigation of learners’ needs and concerns. An approach circle includes the connection of ideas related to the nature and teaching of a given language. It provides a description of how people acquire the knowledge of a language, and makes statements about conditions that leads to successful learning. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that “An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught” (Richard & Rodgers, 2001, p. 19).

2.1.2. Method

A method is considered as an umbrella term referring to a broader relationship between theory and practice. In the field of language teaching, a method prescribes what materials and activities should be employed, and how they should be employed by the teacher. A method is defined as “an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural” (Richard & Rodgers, 2001, p. 19). To embody the ideas and assumptions of an approach in real life learning setting, Burnham (1999) notes that a method is selected and applied in the field to set forth the aspects of the approach and to facilitate its enactment.

Anthony (1963) claims that within one approach, many methods can be derived. The construction of a method is influenced by many factors such as the differences between learners in terms of race, age, cultural background, and previous experience with English. The teacher’s experience and ability to select methods with accordance with the approach is also so important. The determination of course aims and the time allocated for it remains a factor to shape the method. An example of a method is the grammar translation method which is inspired from the approach that knowledge should be acquired and shaped through intellectual tasks.

2.1.3. Technique

Techniques are immediate strategies to implement a method basing on the modalities and manipulations used by both teachers and learners. They are therefore tools used to obtain an immediate result. Anthony (1963) as cited in (Richard & Rodgers, 2001, p. 19) states that a technique a particular trick implemented in a classroom to accomplish an immediate objective. It is “Any of a wide variety of exercises, activities or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives” (Brown, 2001, p. 16). Anthony (1963) notes that it’s up to the teacher to look for appropriate and useful devices to achieve the required objectives, and he provides the following example: in phonetics lecture, different techniques can be used to solve the same problem as when teaching the pronunciation of /l/ and /r/ to oriental students. The teacher can ask the students to imitate him, but if this technique doesn’t work, he can ask them to put a pencil in their mouths so that they cannot touch their alveolar ridges and therefore to inhibit the pronunciation of /l/. The teacher can also illustrate his explanation by drawing a human vocal apparatus.

Brown (2001) States that there are two main types of techniques that can be used by the teacher: controlled technique and free technique. The former is manipulative but sometimes it

has communicative elements. For example the teacher gives a question, and each student is given a short time to reply. So the teacher maintains control over the learning activity. However a free technique is a technique in which students are given much freedom to shape it, and to answer questions with unstructured answers. The following table shows the two types of techniques and their characteristics as well.

| Controlled technique | Free technique |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| Teacher centered | Student centered |
| Manipulative | Communicative |
| Structured | Open-ended |
| Predicted student responses | Unpredicted responses |
| Pre-planned objectives | Negotiated objectives |
| Set curriculum | Cooperative curriculum |

Table 9. Types and characteristics of “technique” (Brown, 135, p. 2001)

2.2. Richard and Rodgers’ Terminology

Another model of language teaching was proposed; Brown (2001) states that Jack Richards and Theodore Rodgers proposed the reformulation of the concept ‘Method’ already set by Edward Anthony (1963), and therefore his terminology named ‘approach method and technique’ was renamed respectively “approach, design, and procedure” under a super ordinate term that they called ‘Method’. Richards (1985) prefers to use the term ‘method’ for specifying and interrelating theory with practice, and defines it as “a language teaching philosophy that contains a standardized set of procedures or principles for teaching a language that are based upon a given set of theoretical premises about the nature of language and language learning” (Richards, 1985, p.32). So a method is “the output of approach, design, and procedure” (Johnson & Johnson, 1999, p. 12). Approach is theory of language and language learning. Design is determination and definition of linguistic content, a specification for the choice and organization of content, and the description of the role of teacher, learner and teaching.

2.2.1. Approach

A comparison of views of Richards and Rodgers, and Anthony demonstrates that they are more complementary than contradictory. For Richards and Rodgers, the term ‘approach’ is placed to indicate a theory of language and a theory of the nature of language learning, but it is not put at the top of a hierarchy as Anthony does. However; Anthony’s technique falls under the concept ‘procedure. Johnson and Johnson (1999) disambiguate the terms ‘approach’ and ‘method’ because they seem to be similarly understood. They state that there are some language teaching approaches that do not lead to any established method. CLT, for instance, doesn’t advocate a specific method since it has no learning theory, and D.A Wilkins who was one of its proponents didn’t suggest the terms ‘method’ and ‘technique’ but language teaching objectives instead.

2.2.2. Design

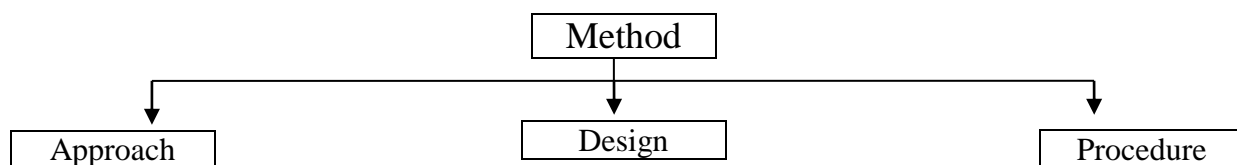
Developing a design is a necessary step for an approach to reach a method. Richards and Rodgers (2001) describes six important features of design. The first is the general and specific objectives of the method such as arranging language skills to teach depending on needs priority. The second is the syllabus which refers to the criteria to select language content in relation to both subject matter and linguistic matter. For example, ALM is a necessarily language matter focused whereas ESP is necessarily subject matter focused. The third is the types of learning and teaching activities to be used in the classroom.. The fourth is the learner roles. The fifth is the role of the teacher which depends on the following five issues: which type of functions is the teacher supposed to perform? Is it a director, a counselor, or a model? The sixth is the role of instructional materials. It is very important to fix the primary function of the needed materials, and to make it clear to learners that these materials are presented to achieve certain objectives.

2.2.3. Procedure

Procedure appears to be alternative to technique. At the level of procedure, teachers are much more concerned with the application and integration of certain teaching activities within lessons with regards to theoretical ideas about language teaching and learning. In classroom setting, procedure is “the level at which we describe how a method realizes its approach and design in classroom behavior” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 31). Kumaravadivelu (2006)

states that procedure is the current classroom activity which includes “a specification of context of use and a description of precisely what is expected in terms of execution and outcome for each exercise type” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 86).

The following are the elements and sub-elements of method as proposed by Richards and Rodgers (1986).



a . A theory of native language

- an account of the nature of language proficiency
- an account of the basic units of language structure

b. A theory of the nature of language learning

- an account of the psycho-linguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning
- an account of the conditions that allow for successful use of these processes

a. general and specific objectives of the method

b. A syllabus model

- criteria for the selection and organization of linguistic and/or subject-matter Content

c. Types of learning and teaching activities

- Kinds of tasks and practice activities to be employed in the classroom and in materials

d. Learner roles

- types of learning tasks set for learners
- degree of control learners have over the content of learning
- patterns of learner groupings that are recommended or implied
- degree to which learners influence the learning of others
- the view of the learner as processor, performer, initiator, problem solver, etc.

e. Teacher roles

- types of functions teachers fulfill
- degree of teacher influence over learning
- degree to which teacher determines the content of learning
- types of interaction between teachers and learners

f. The role of instructional materials

- primary function of materials
- the form materials take (e.g., textbook, audiovisual)
- relation of materials to other input
- assumptions made about teachers and other learners.

a. Classroom techniques, practices and behaviors observed when the method is used

- resources in terms of time, space, and equipment used by the teacher
- interactional pattern observed in lessons
- tactics and strategies used by the teachers and learners when the method is being used.

Figure 6. Elements and sub-elements of method (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) cited in (Brown, 2000, p. 17)

2.3. The Traditional Language Teaching Approaches

Traditional approaches to language teaching gave much importance to linguistic competence. They advocated the idea that grammar could be learned through direct instruction and use of repetitive practice and drilling. Language learning was viewed as a process of building up a large repertoire of sentences and linguistic patterns, and learning to use them accurately and spontaneously in appropriate situations. Memorization of dialogs, question, and answer practice, and substitution drills were the most employed techniques. Students' errors were not tolerated; hence accurate mastery of language was strongly needed in the beginning stages of language learning. We will examine the main dominant traditional approaches for language teaching: GTM, DM, ALM, and SLT which preoccupied scholars and applied linguists until the first half of the twentieth century. These approaches were non communicative, teachers centered, too much spoon feeding, and didn't allow students' creativity.

2.3.1. The Grammar Translation Method

The grammar translation method (GTM) is an old method of teaching dead languages (Latin and Greek) which were widely spread and prominent in business, politics, art and academia in the 18th and 19th century. "As the name already suggests, grammar was seen as the starting point for instruction" (Thornbury, 2000, p. 21). It was designed to develop learners' reading and writing skills as well as to develop their general mental discipline; it involved much engagement of the mind (Johnson, 2001).. Cook (2003) notes that it was assumed to bring students into contact to great national civilizations and their literature. The best example was to learn about Shakespeare for English, Dante for Italian, and Pushkin for Russian.

In Grammar translation classes, students are permitted to use their mother tongue, grammar rules are learned by rote, and then practiced by applying grammar drills and translating sentences or texts from and to the target language, difficult texts are read early in the course, vocabulary items are taught in the form of word lists, morphology and syntax are more emphasized, and explanation of grammar is elaborated. Richards&Shmidt (1985) and Stern (1983) state the lesson procedure consists of presenting grammatical rules, providing list of vocabulary, and finally translating words.

Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979), Larsen-Freeman (2000), and Ground and Guerrero (2014) note that GMT has the main following features: translation of texts from target

language to native language, vocabulary is memorized through lists of isolated words, difficult classical texts are read in early stage, content of texts are paid little attention, pronunciation is given little or no importance, grammar rules are rehearsed through applying them in new examples, and comprehension is acquired through reading. Roulet (1972) mentions many disadvantages of GMT; focuses on translations which are often misleading, doesn't tolerate mistakes, gives priority to morphology and neglects syntax, orders students to memorize huge number of words, and prevents them from holding an active role in the classroom.

2.3.2. The Direct Method

The establishment of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) was a starting point for describing sounds and bringing new insights into speech processes, linguists believed that spoken language should be reflected in an oral-based methodology where learners should first hear the language before they perform it in a written form. "The findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching, learners should hear the language first, grammar rules should be taught inductively, translation should be avoided" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 8). In the late 1860s, Lambert Sauveur (1826-1907) opened a language school in Boston where he applied new principles to language classes that focused on the use of intensive oral interaction in the target language as a main means of instructions, and questions as a way of presenting and eliciting language, the method became known as the natural method (Richards and Rodgers, 2007). Maximilian Berlitz (1852-1921), from his side, established his first school in Providence, Rhode Island, and a second one in Boston in 1880 where he applied a method that took his name (the Berlitz method).

Rivers (1968) distinguishes between GMT and DM, and he points that the latter enables students to comprehend the text by inferring meaning of unknown elements from the context, rather than to search synonyms in dictionary. The DM was the first oral-based method to become widely spread based on the idea which claims that Language is considered as system of communication, which is primarily oral (Davies and Pearse, 2000). It produces learners who could communicate without using the mother tongue (Celce-Murcia 2001). It is characterized by the use of the target language and translation as a technique (Stern, 1983). Cook (2003) states that success in the direct method was not measured by the knowledge of the target language but by the degree to which the learners' language performance approximated to that of the native speakers. DM stresses on speaking and listening, it often relies on reading aloud, asking and answering questions with self-correction of mistakes in the target language (Freeman, 1986)

2.3.3. The Situational language Teaching Method

The situational language teaching method (SLT), also called the oral approach, is an approach to language teaching that was developed by Harold Palmer, A.S. Hornby, and Mickael West from 1930s to 1960s. It is a kind of teaching method which is suitable for students to learn a language in a relaxed environment based on vivid scenarios. It is based on a structural view of language and the behavioristic language learning. The former gives much importance to basic vocabulary needed for language practice. The latter stresses on the avoidance of mistakes in order to build good habit formation, it focuses also on the repetition of the spoken structures to fix them in memory, and the use language or material in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill. Richards and Schmidt (2002) state that SLT refers to a teaching program that focuses on the selection, organization, and representation of language items with regards to the practice and simulation of real situations such as dialogs and conversations at a bank, at a supermarket.

Pittman (1963) explains the term ‘situation’ as the use of concrete objects, pictures, and realia with actions and gestures in order to define and clarify new language item. SLT has as objectives the ability to accurately use vocabulary items, pronunciation, and grammar rules to perform language skills, and therefore to respond quickly in conversation with automatic control of basic structures and sentences patterns. He adds that language is learnt effectively if it is presented orally first then in a written form, and “Before our pupils read new structures and new vocabulary, we shall teach orally both the new structures and the new vocabulary” (Pittman, 1963. 86). For example, learners know the meaning of ‘door’, not because they have checked it in a dictionary, but because they have learned the word in situations; by hearing commands such as ‘close the door’ or ‘open the door’. So there is a link between the word ‘door’ and the action of ‘opening’ and ‘closing’ it.

2.3.4. The Audio-Lingual Method

The audio-lingual method (ALM) emerged during the Second World War, when armies needed to become orally proficient in the languages of their allies and enemies as quickly as possible. To fulfill their needs, the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was set up in 1942, that’s why it was called the army method (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). It is also called the aural-oral method because it focuses more on the speaking and the listening skills.

The ALM is based on the structural view of language led by Leonard Bloomfield and Ferdinand de Saussure who introduced his notion of “parole” as the only element that shapes the actual use of the language, and the behaviorist theory of language learning led by B.F.

Skinner who believed that all behaviors including language are learned through repetition and positive or negative reinforcement (Brown, 2001). Davies and Pearse (2000) considered them as the twin foundations of a new scientific approach to foreign language teaching. The figure below is used by Richards and Rodgers to describe the stimulus-response reinforcement scheme:

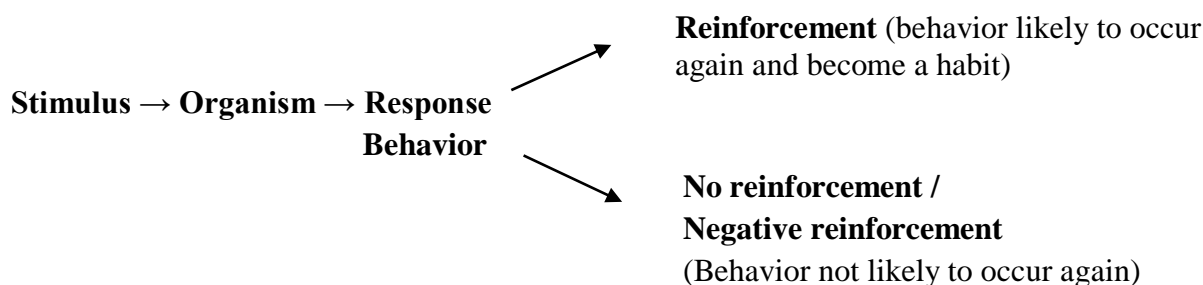


Figure 7. Stimulus-response reinforcement scheme (Richards & Rodgers, 2007, p. 57)

The ALM is viewed as a teacher dominated -method that does not give equal importance to four language skills. Though the method focused on syntactical progression, but in terms of language theory and language learning, it lost its efficacy by the emergence of Chomsky’s notion; the transformational generative grammar (TGG), who considered language as a system of rules that generate combinations of words to form new sentences from existing ones. He also argued that “language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules o great abstractness and intricacy” (Chomsky, 1966, p. 153)

2.4. Classic Communicative Language Teaching (1970s to 1990s)

The second half of the last century, foreign language teaching methods confronted many challenges; they were criticized for their incapacity to develop students’ speaking and communicative abilities. In the 1970s, there was an increased demand for language learning, particularly in Europe. Immigrants needed to learn foreign languages of the host communities mainly for work, and other personal and social reasons. That situation pushed scholars and educators to search for effective alternative methods that can improve learners’ communication skills. Schools shifted from passive learning to active learning where students were offered opportunities to practice the target language in an integrated context where they can embody real world actions and events. The suggested teaching methodologies aimed to provide learners with realistic communicative tasks, and to motivate them through allowing

them to use their own topics and materials to satisfy their needs and interests. Approaches such as Communicative language teaching, Total physical response, Suggestopedia, and the Silent way were widely adopted and practiced in the educational field

2.4.1. Total Physical Response

In the early 1970's, James Asher who was a professor of psychology at Saint Jose state University of California, developed his method called the Total Physical Response (TPR). The method is based firstly on behaviorism principles proposed by B.F Skinner who considers that learning is shaped through imitation, reinforcement and habit formation, which means that a learner shows a repetitive behavior that will become a habit because he receives positive feedback (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Secondly, TPR is also related to the 'trace theory' in psychology which says "the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.73).

Asher noticed that when interacting with their Parents, children often respond physically before they respond verbally, and parents reinforce their children's actions (Larsen-Freeman 1990). Before being able to utter words, children focus on their parents' commands and orders such as 'close your eyes' or 'shake my hand', they look, observe, and listen to the instructions then they perform the required actions. TPR is "a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical activity" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 73). TPR is based on the principles of the comprehension approach which revolves around the idea that listening is the most important stage of language development, and students are not obliged to speak spontaneously until they build sufficient knowledge about the language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

. Asher claimed that the process through which adults acquire their L2 must be similar to the one of children when they acquire their L1. TPR "worked from a premise that adult second language learning could have similar developmental patterns to that of child language acquisition" (Harmer, J, 2001, p. 90). Asher (1977) indicates that TPR has many features: listening and motor response are emphasized over speech, the imperative mood is often applied in language practice, speaking is not performed unless students gain confidence and sufficient knowledge, and the main role of the teacher is directing whereas the role of the student is acting, "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors" (Asher, 1977, p. 43).

Like many other methods, TPR has its limitations, and it was criticized for being effective and suitable for beginner learners only, while intermediate and advanced learners who have already acquired communicative competencies do not need to receive imperatives, do not need to use their body movements to prove their understanding or to convey their message. “In a TPR classroom, after students overcame the fear of speaking out, classroom conversations and other activities proceeded as in almost any other communicative language classroom (Brown, 2000, p. 30). TPR seems to be difficult to apply especially when dealing with abstract language which cannot be expressed through physical movements. TPR, as Asher himself confessed, should be associated with other techniques and methods (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

2.4.2. The Silent Way

The Silent Way (SW) is a method of foreign-language teaching developed by Gattegno in the early 1970's, who believed that “teaching should be subordinated to learning”(Larsen-Freeman,2000, p. 53). It is a learner centered method that is defined by (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 191) as a method which is based on “the hypothesis that discovery and problem-solving produce much better learning than imitation and repetition”. It revolves around the idea that the teacher must be as silent as possible during the lecture and let the learners take responsibility in order to discover, create, and solve problems. The purpose of using silence is to attract the learners' attention, to wait for their responses, to let them correct their errors or to correct them using hand and finger gestures. Learners are often assisted by physical actions and objects such as the use of “gesture, mime, visual aids, wall charts, and in particular Cuisenaire rods (wooden sticks of different lengths and colors) that the teacher uses to help the students to talk. The method “takes its name from the relative silence of the teacher using these techniques” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 486).

In a classroom setting, teaching through the SW requires the use of Cuisenaire rods and colorful wall charts to introduce vocabulary through the presentation of linguistic items such as: colors, numbers, adjectives, verbs, and syntax. Larsen-Freeman (2000) suggests the following techniques: sound-color chart, word chart, Fidel chart, rods, teacher's silence, peer correction, teacher's correction gestures, and structured feedback

The main objectives of SW is to enable students to speak appropriately and freely and with accent about their personal experiences, education and beliefs, to provide a description of a picture through speaking or writing, to answer questions about cultural and literary issues that concern native speakers, and to improve their writing, reading comprehension, grammar and pronunciation (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 84).

In the SW, the learner is supposed to play an active role through discovering, creating, and solving problems, Bruner (1966), as cited in (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 81) shows that the benefits of discovery learning are improving students' intellectual level, moving from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, experimenting and evaluating possible answers and solutions by trial or error, and memorizing data. Rods and charts remain also useful tools by which students can easily memorize and recall what had already been learned. Problem solving is the core of learning, and learning occurs when students encounter problems and new difficult situations, then they try to exchange ideas and methods for solutions which will create a fruitful interaction. Cattegno believes that "The teacher works with the students while the students work on the language." (Larsen-Freeman, 1990, p. 32)

Though the SW has many advantages, but it is criticized of being a harsh method, there is always a lack of communication between students and teacher since there is a minimum assistance from the side of the teacher, and the activities applied in the classroom seem to be "much less revolutionary than might be expected" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 88). Students may waste much time to understand a concept that can be explained directly and explicitly by the teacher. Except the use of rods and charts that are sometimes confusing and focusing more on the language structure rather than the cultural input, other materials that are less expensive and do not take long time to be prepared, have to be used in order introduce all aspects of language. The SW might be suitable only for beginner and intermediate learners and not for big classes where communication is difficult to be performed by all students.

2.4.3. Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia (US English) or Suggestopaedia (UK English) is an innovative language teaching method developed by the Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov who believes that it enables to teach languages until five times as quickly as conventional methods and "Language learning can occur at a much faster rate than ordinarily transpires" (Larsen-Freeman, 73, p. 2000), and "Memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method seems to be accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods" (Lozanov 1978, p.

27). It is argued also that “Learning is facilitated in a pleasant, comfortable environment. The more confident the students feel, the better they will learn. Communication takes place on two planes. When there is a unity between them, learning is enhanced. The means of activating the material should be varied and playful.”(Larsen-Freeman, 26. 1990). Because of psychological barriers, learners feel chained, unable to progress, and use only a small portion of their whole mental abilities, so they need to be released (desuggested) of their limitation.

The main characteristics of suggestopedia are “the decoration, furniture, and the arrangements of the classroom, the use of music, and the authoritative behavior of the teacher” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 100). Suggestopedia adopts insights from yoga and Soviet psychology. The former stresses on the importance of relaxation, concentration, and breathing, and the latter claims that “all students can be taught a given subject matter at the same level of skill”(Richards & Rodgers. 2001, p. 100).

Davies and Pearse (2000) note that through the presence of physical surroundings such as pleasant decor, comfortable furniture, adequate music rhythm for the topic to be discussed, and the teacher who should not be directive and acts as a partner who participates in different activities such as songs and games, the affective filter then, is lowered , and learning is strongly facilitated. One main feature of suggestopedia is ‘infantilisation which means that “The teacher and students exist in parent-children relationship, where, to remove barriers to learning, students are given different names from their outside real ones, traumatic themes are avoided, and the sympathy with which the teacher treats the students is vitally important”(Harmer,2001, p. 89).

2.4.4. Community Language Learning

Community language learning (CLL), also known as ‘counseling learning’, is a language teaching method which is designed to improve students’ listening and speaking skill, it is founded by Charles Arthur Curran, an American Jesuit priest and a professor in psychology, who redefined the roles of the teacher and learner. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state CLL considers the teacher as counselor and the student as a client, and stresses on the development of the relationship between the two. The term counseling means “one person giving advice, assistance, and support to another who has a problem or is in some way in need” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 90).

CLL is an example of an innovative model that primarily considered affective factors as paramount in the learning process. Curran (1972) adopted the principles of the humanistic

approach which claims that human learning is cognitive and affective; it deals with the emotions and feelings as well as with linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills. He focused on building a warm and supportive community among learners, gradually moving from dependence on the teacher to complete autonomy. Students are whole persons, they learn best when they feel secure, they should have the opportunity to generate the language they wish to learn, and the teacher should skillfully understand what the students are feeling, and to recognize and accept their struggles as well (Larsen-Freeman, 1990)

The classroom procedures in CLL, as described by Brown (2001), require students to have seats in a circle of chairs (from five to twelve) around a microphone in the center of the room. When a client (one member of the group) wants to say something he or she whispers and says it in the native language after the counselor (teacher) moves round outside the circle and stands behind the client, whispers and translates it into the target language. The client repeats the English sentence as accurately as possible. After hearing the sentence, the other clients (students) have the chance to answer, comment on their classmate's words, and therefore hold a conversation with each other. The conversation can be recorded and replayed as many times as the client wants, it can be also written on the board, and analyzed with the guidance of the counselor.

To sum up, the steps applied in CLL classroom activity should be presented in the following way: the client speaks in native language, counselor translates into target language, client repeats in target language, and then the clients record in the target language. In this way, the student will gain confidence and the ability to speak some words, phrases and sentences in the target language without teacher's translation. He will also unchain himself from the dependence to the counselor and gain familiarity with spontaneous communication with peers and teacher as well. Richards and Rodgers (1986) note that CLL combines innovative learning tasks with conventional ones, and that should include translation, recording, transcription, analysis, listening, reflection, observation, and free conversation.

2.5. Communicative Language Teaching Approaches Shaping Dogme ELT

The emergence of communicative language teaching was strongly accepted as a major paradigm shift within language teaching around the world in the twentieth century. However, at the turn of the twenty one century, some of the principles of the so called approach were reviewed and questioned. For example, minimizing grammar components of students' foreign language practice, and tolerating students' errors in favor of building only communicative

skills that often lead to fluent but grammatically incorrect or misleading speech were under critiques. Hence, many scholars appealed to compensate these drawbacks with traditional or innovative language teaching ideas. Various suggestions were applied to replace the current ideologies of teaching English in terms of the theory of language, theory of learning, design, syllabus, types of learning and teaching, learner roles, teacher roles, the role of instructional materials, and procedure. We will tackle four main language teaching approaches from which many of the Dogme ELT principles have been inspired: Communicative Language Teaching, Task Based Learning and Whole Language Learning, and Learner Centered Teaching .

2.5.1. Communicative Language Teaching

As in many other fields, language teaching knew new movements that stood against the shortcomings of old ones. Communicative language teaching (CLT) was the best example; it is defined as “An approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasizes that the goal of language learning is communicative competence and which seeks to make meaningful communication and language use a focus of all classroom activities” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 22). The communicative approach was developed particularly by British applied linguists in the 1980s as a reaction away from the grammar-based approaches” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 90) .It stressed more on the function of the language besides its notion (Nunan, 1989).

CLT led to change views of syllabuses and methodology. Grammar based syllabuses were replaced by communicative ones built around notions, functions, skills, tasks, and other non-grammatical units of organization. Fluency became a goal for speaking courses and this could be developed through the use of information-gap and other tasks that required learners to attempt real communication despite limited proficiency in English. Unlike in traditional methodologies where speaking often meant repeating, memorizing, and responding to drills (Richards, 2008), learners would develop communication strategies and engage in negotiation of meaning, both of which were considered essential to the development of oral skills.

Berns (1990) as cited in Savignon (2002) describes the core tenets of CLT, and notes that language teaching is based on the view that language is learnt through communication. Diversity is accepted as a part of language development. Correctness is not an absolute but a relative factor to learners’ competence. All varieties of language are accepted as a model for learning and teaching. Intercultural competence plays a central role in developing communicative competence. Teachers have the right to select the methods and techniques they think they are suitable for the learners. The learners’ competence development is based

on the ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions of the language. Finally, learners engage in doing things for a variety of purposes with language.

The main goal of CLT activities is to “extend the range of communication situations in which the learner can perform with focus on meaning, without being hindered by the attention he must pay to linguistic form” (Littlewood, 1981, p. 89). For example if a learner is asked to recall what another one said, he is not supposed to remember all the words being used, but to remember the message being conveyed. The teacher’s role is to facilitate the learning process, offer advice, provide necessary language items, solve learners’ disagreement, monitor their strengths or weaknesses, and correct implicitly repeated errors. Harmer (2007) notes that, in CLT classroom, the teacher and learners should use a variety of language, and focus on the content of what being said or written rather than a particular language form. The teacher should not impose a pre-selected specific language to conform the materials he uses, but let the students use their communicative language freely. The following figure describes the characteristics of communicative and non-communicative activities.

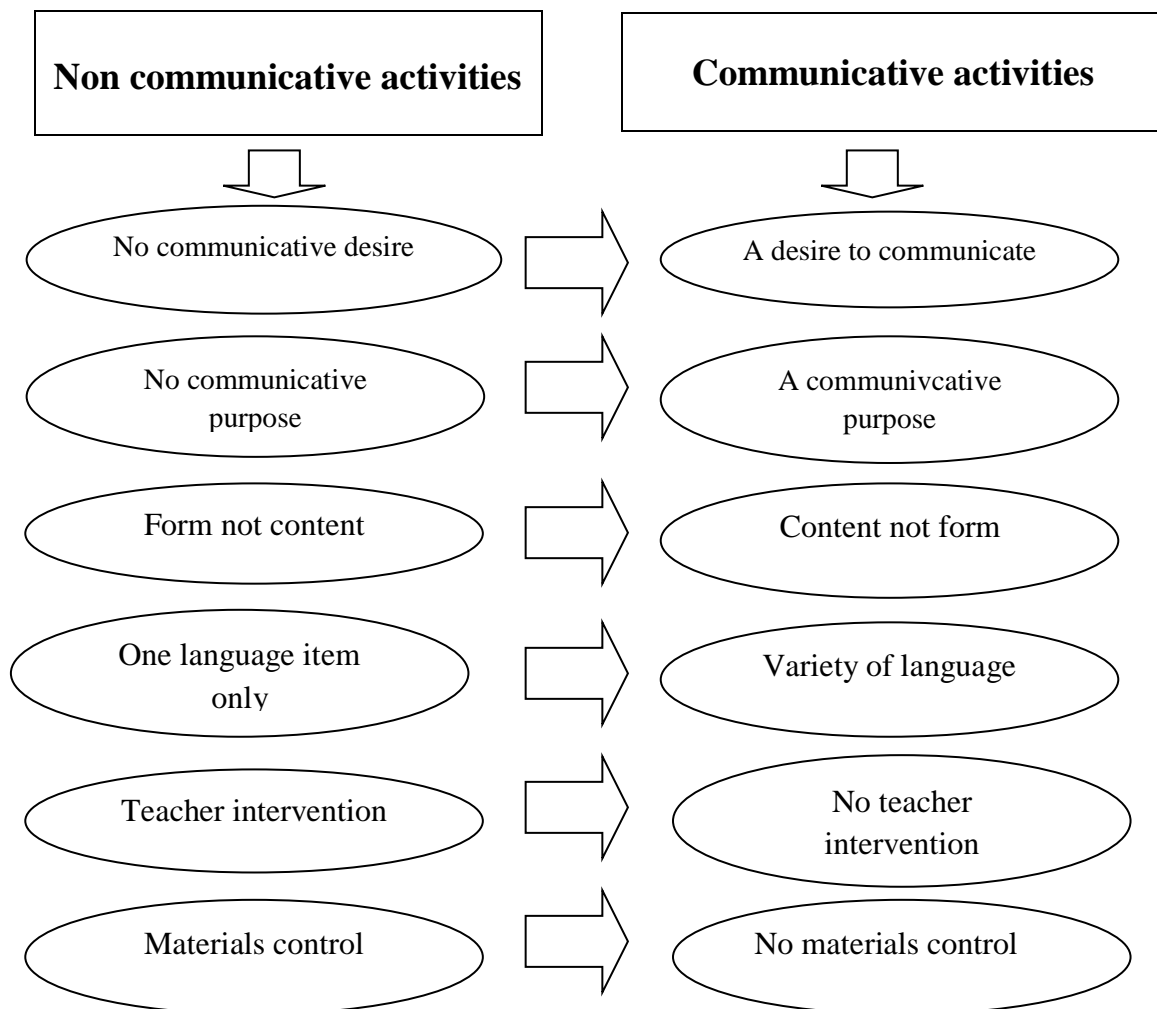


Figure 8. The Communicative Continuum (Harmer, 2007, p. 70)

2.5.2. Task Based Learning

Task based learning (TBL), also called task based language teaching (TBLT), task based language learning (TBLL), or task based approach (TBA) has gained popularity in the field of language teaching since the last decade of the 20th century. It has been strongly advocated and prompted by many world-leading linguists especially N. Prabhu (1987) who observed that his students could learn language easily and without linguistic difficulties when they focus on linguistic questions. TBL is a subcategory of communicative language teaching, both they share the general assumptions about the nature of language learning. It advocates learning through the completion of meaningful tasks, and focuses on the authentic use of language for genuine communication. It enables students to do something in the class which would do in everyday life using their own language. Students are free to use any language they like; and to focus on meaning to achieve a specific objective. Playing a game, exchanging information or experience, or playing a game can be considered as relevant and authentic tasks. As its name indicates, TBL principles revolve around the term ‘task’ which is the main core of the theory, and which is already defined by Nunan(1989) in the first chapter as:

“a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right”. (Nunan, 1989, p. 10).

Ellis (2003) states that a task has four main characteristics; it focuses primarily on pragmatic meaning, fulfills students’ gaps, leads to a clearly defined non-linguistic outcome, and finally offers students the choice to select the linguistic resources needed to complete the task. He reports that the principles of TBL have emerged in response to some shortcomings of the traditional PPP approach (presentation, practice, performance). In this model, language items such as phrasal verbs are introduced by the teacher, then practiced in oral and written expression, and used by the students in less controlled speaking or writing activities. PPP approach has been criticized for its arbitrary grammar selection which doesn’t surely meet the students’ needs, and for its performance stage which is often stresses on inauthentic language. PPP is a centered-teacher method that focuses much more on accuracy rather than on fluency, so it may not please the students who, instead, want to burst their potentials through language practice. Hence, TBL stands as an efficient alternative that advocates Test-Teach-Test approach (TTT) in which the production stage is put first.

Willis (1996) states that TBL framework consists of three phases: pre-task, task cycle and language focus. The pre-task phase introduces the class to the topic and the task, and proposes words and phrases related to the chosen topic. The teacher gives students clear instructions on what to do in this stage, and helps them to recall some language that may be used during the task. The teacher can play a recorded TBL lesson as a model to take notes and prepare themselves for the task. The task cycle provides students with the opportunity to select their preferable language that will be scaffolded by the teacher whose typical role is an observer and counselor. Language focus permits students to study some specific features that occurred in the language being contextually used during the task cycle. For example if students have performed new and realistic language product such as developing a text, holding an interview, or exchanging information through discussion, they can review each other's work and provide fruitful feedback.

Herrera and Murray (2011) propose communicative activities such as describing a person or an event, asking or giving directions, making appointments and invitations, and conducting an interview. They assume that these activities should be practiced with respect to the students' English proficiency level, and the targeted syntax content of the lesson. The role of the teacher, as Van den Branden (2006) proposes, is to motivate the learners to invest as much possible as they can their mental energy, and to support their performance when they negotiate meaning and content, comprehend a rich input, or produce an output. Therefore, students can gain confidence to speak spontaneously, practice turn taking and communication strategies, acquire discourse skills Willis (1996).

2.5.3. Whole Language Learning

Whole language learning (WLL) is a philosophy of education advocated by many scholars particularly Kenneth Goodman. It describes how language, literacy, teaching and learning are viewed. It has traditionally been based on what is often referred to as a "top-down model" of language learning, and considered as an alternative approach to "bottom-up model". So it is worth understanding the difference between the two. The "bottom-up model" refers to learning observed implicit specific knowledge and then learning general explicit knowledge through inductive learning. It considers that the process of learning to read begins with the gradual mastery of letters, the clusters of letters, then words, then phrases, then sentences, and finally a whole texts It's only after students have mastered these specific language items and rules that they move on to speaking and reading (Gough, 1972).

The "top-down model" refers to learning general explicit knowledge first and then learning implicit specific knowledge through deductive reasoning. Students are first immersed in all

aspects of language learning, pronunciation, writing and reading without details and complexities such as prepositions, phrasal verbs and collocations, but later on they will be gradually taught the building blocks of the target language. In other words students should practice language wholly before examining its components (Brockman, 1994).

A distinction should also be made between WLL and Phonics- based methods of teaching and writing. The latter is often contrasted with the former, it is a method of teaching reading and writing designed to enhance learners' phonemic awareness. It advocates learning through breaking language down into small and simple components such as hearing, identifying, and manipulating phonemes in order to recognize the correspondence between them the spelling patterns that represent them. However; WLL rejects the idea that reading is only a connection between sounds and symbol is based on aspects of language learning such as: listening, speaking, thinking, remembering, reading, and writing. These aspects are interrelated and interactive with each other, and "The skill of reading and writing does not begin with letters of the alphabet; it begins with the desire to get information, send messages, record knowledge and develop ideas" (Dixon and Tuladhar, 1996, p. 11).

Weaver (1998) and Goodman (1986) note that WLL advocates learning through using all language skills with a focus on making meaning in reading and expressing meaning in writing. Brown (2001) states that WLL is used to emphasize a) the wholeness of language which is opposed to fragmented language, b) the interaction and interconnection between the aural medium language skills (speaking and listening) and the visual language skills (writing and reading). c) the written language and the spoken language are both important. Dixon and Tuladhar (1996) give an analog example of a man who dictates a letter to his son through combining sounds which form words. The son writes what he has heard. The receiver of the letter may read it aloud to the family surrounding him. Both literate and non literate people contribute in the interpretation of the meaning of the message. Hence, the one who reads and writes, his ability to listen, think, speak, and then communicate is easily improved.

2.5.4. Learner Centered Teaching

The learner centered teaching (LCT) stands in contrast to teacher centered teaching. It is a paradigm based on constructivist theory which is developed from Piaget's dynamic constructivist theory of knowing, Bruner's social cultural constructivism, and Vygotsky' social constructivism (Harris and Cullen, 2010). The theory emphasizes the students' critical role in constructing meaning from new information and prior experience. Learning represents

the main tenet of the theory as Toffler (1970) notes that “The illiterate of the 21st century will not be those who cannot read and write, but those who cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn” cited in (Doyle, 2008, p. 9). McCombs and Whisler (1997) as cited in Reigeluth, Beatty, and Myers, 2017, p. 17-18) define LCT as:

“the perspective that couples a focus on individual learners (their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning, and achievement”

LCT has an objective to improve learner autonomy and independence and to put the responsibility of learning in the hands of students. It requires students to adopt new learning roles and responsibilities that go far beyond receiving data and passing exams. LCT is a space where students can take some control over their learning process through the fusion of their experiences with the way how they want to learn. Weimer (2002) states that in order to be learner centered, five key changes to practice must be taken into consideration: The balance of power, the function of content, the role of the teacher, the responsibility for learning, and evaluation purpose and processes.

The first change revolves around redistributing power in the classroom through making balance between the roles of the students and the teacher. Hence students cannot develop sophisticated learning skills unless they are given the chance to be a part of their learning process. The second change tresses on the content presented by the teacher as Fosnot (1996) claims that the interaction between content and students should be encouraged by the teachers. The third change is the role of the teacher who should involve the students in the process of acquiring and retaining knowledge (Kember and Gow 1994). The fourth change is to motivate students by giving them some control over their learning process. Bound (1981) believes that autonomy and self-direction in learning make students independent learners. The fifth change is evaluating students’ learning advancement. It is worth noting that “Evaluation is not just something used to generate grades; it is the most effective tool teacher has to promote learning” (Weimer, 2002, p. 17). Campbell and Kryszewska (1992) describe the following advantages of LCT:

- 1) **The potential of the learner:** Students bring and express their own ideas, opinions, experiences, and areas of expertise.
- 2) **Constant needs analysis:** The activities are chosen to meet the students’ current needs.

- 3) **Topicality:** Topics introduced cover local or international issues and ideas such as: elections, cultural events, or scientific development.
- 4) **Previous learning experience:** Students expose their previous learning experience with details, and make new discoveries every time they collaborate with each other.
- 5) **Learners as authors:** In such activity, if students prepare lists of words to use as a basis for writing a text, they will be interested in how their words have been exploited.
- 6) **Pace:** Lengthy preparation work can be replaced by delivering handout texts to gain time.
- 7) **The element of surprise:** Materials used by students creates a strong element of surprise. Students can not predict how the lesson will develop, and how their materials will be used.
- 8) **Peer teaching and correction:** Students are encouraged to learn from each other. Since they come from different learning backgrounds, they can teach and correct each other
- 9) **Group solidarity:** Collective work creates solidarity between learners who develop their learning style in safety way and not in a competitive one

We have already made a review of the different language teaching methods and approaches, we have highlighted major developments and rationales behind them. The era of traditional language teaching methods traditional methods such as Grammar translation method, Audiolingual method, and situational language teaching method, and which was characterized by giving much interest to linguistic competence, lasted till the 1950s, then it got overshadowed by a a new trend of language teaching that advocated communication as a main objective rather than language structure. That alternative was promoted under such titles as Silent way, Suggestopedia, Total physical response, and communicative language teaching in 1980s.

The emergence of CLT marked the beginning of a major paradigm shift within language teaching in the twentieth century. Different innovative language teaching approaches such as Task-based learning, Whole language learning, Learner-centered, and Dogme ELT fell with the general framework of CLT. They advocated learning through engaging students in meaning-centered communicative tasks which provide the chance to practice the language in real life situations, and therefore acquire knowledge and skill. The following table shows the difference in characteristics between traditional and communicative language teaching approaches.

| Traditional approaches | Communicative approaches |
|--|--|
| 1) Focus on learning Focus is on the language as a structured system of grammatical patterns | Focus is on communication |
| 2)How language items are selected This is done on linguistics criteria alone | This is done on the basis of what language items the learners need to know in order to get things done |
| 3)How language items are sequenced This is determined on linguistic grounds | This is determined on other grounds, with the emphasis on content, meaning and interest |
| 4)Degree of coverage The aim is to cover the ‘whole picture’ of language structure by systematic linear progression. | The aim is to cover, in any particular phases, only what the learner needs and sees as important. |
| 5)View of language A language is seen as a unified entity with fixed grammatical patterns as a core of basic words. | The variety of language is accepted, and seen as determined by the character of particular communicative contexts. |
| 6)Type of language used Tends to be formal and bookish. | Genuine everyday language is emphasized. |
| 7)What is considered as a criterion of success Aim is to have students produce formally correct sentences. | Aim is to have students communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working in. |
| 8)Which language skills are emphasized Reading and writing. | Spoken interactions are regarded as at least as important as reading and writing. |
| 9)Teacher/student roles Tends to be teacher-centered. | Is student-centered. |
| 10)Attitude to errors Incorrect utterances are seen as deviations from the norms of standard grammar. | Partially correct and incomplete utterances are seen as such rather than just ‘wrong’ |
| 11)Similarity/dissimilarity to natural language learning Reverses the natural language learning process by concentrating on the form of utterances rather than on the content. | Resembles the natural language learning process in that the content of the utterance is emphasized rather than the form. |

Table 10. Characteristics of traditional and communicative approaches (Quinn, 1984) cited in (Nunan, 2013, p. 20).

2.6. Dogme ELT

Despite the dominance of the communicative approach in the last decades, many scholars insist on the need of innovation in foreign language learning to meet the learners' actual needs. By the end of the last century, many linguists such as Prabhu (1990) and Pennycook (1989) asserted that there is no perfect method in language teaching, and all previous methods have shortcomings. Hence, teachers had to think about how to teach efficiently so they can satisfy their students' needs. A new assumption led by Kumaravadivelo introduced the term "post method pedagogy" for the first time, and defined it as "the construction of classroom procedures and principles by the teacher him/herself based on his/her prior and experimental knowledge and/or certain strategies Kumaravadivelo (1994, p. 2). At the turn of the third millennium, a new language teaching philosophy has been put forth by Scott Thornbury and Luke Meddings. It is a learner centered way of teaching English as a foreign language with minimum reliance on materials such as: course books and technology, and maximum exploitation of language as it emerged in the classroom. It is the Dogme ELT which is based on three fundamental tenets: it is conversation driven, materials-light and focuses on emergent language. It revolves also around the idea that a successful lesson can be driven by the materials brought by the students themselves in the classroom. In their book 'Teaching Unplugged' published in 2009, Thornbury and Meddings (2009) suggest 100 lesson ideas for teachers to develop and apply. Dogme became associated with English Language Teaching when Scott Thornbury adapted the philosophy of the 'Dogme 95 film movement' to English Language Teaching. So what is 'Dogme 95 film movement'?

2.6.1. The Dogme 95 Film Movement

During their participation in the festival of Cannes (France) in 1995, the two Danish filmmakers; 'Lars Von Trier' and 'Thomas Vinterberg' announced their remarkable movement (Dogme 95 film movement) when they claimed that cinema had been heavily invaded by artificiality, and film-making should be purified from expensive and spectacular special effects and post-modifications and other technical tricks. They challenged what they saw as cinema's dependency on special effects, technical wizardry and fantasy, and suggested to return to a purer style of film-making, a more traditional emphasis upon story and character, and to exclude the use of elaborate special effects or technology. They wanted to prove that Hollywood films high budgets do not define quality, and films should focus on telling a story as naturally as possible without technical aids. In order to further this goal, Trier and Vinterberg (1995) developed a set of ten rules that a Dogme film must conform to.

They co-signed a Manifesto entitled ‘The Vow of Chastity’ which included the following rules drawn up and confirmed by DOGMA 95: Props and sets are forbidden, sound and image must be produced simultaneously and without use of special lightening, optical work, or filters. The film format must be Academy 35mm, in color, without indication of time and place, and must not contain superficial actions such as: murders and weapons. The camera must be hand-held, and the director must not be credited.

2.6.2. Emergence of Dogme ELT

The advent of Dogme ELT is related to the inspiration obtained from Dogme 95 movement. Scott Thornbury (2000) adopted the principles of the Dogme 95 film movement and begun to adapt them to English Language Teaching when he published his first article ‘A Dogma for EFL’. He criticized the overreliance on materials such as textbooks which are easily hi-jacked from the internet or illegally photocopied from conventional sources, self-study grammar books, personal vocabulary organizer, phrasal verbs dictionaries, and technological devices and instruments such as CD-ROMs, and videos which, in most of times, are not selected and brought by the students. Hence, the question is asked “Where is the inner life of the student in all this? Where is real communication? More often as not, it is buried under an avalanche of photocopies, visual aids, transparencies, MTV clips and cuisenaire rods”. (Thornbury, 2000. p .2). The idea opposes the old education paradigm of language transfer that views learners as possessing a tabula rasa that the teacher is responsible for filling with learning. In order to be fruitful, lessons must include communicative interaction between all the participants in the room, which emerges spontaneously during the lecture, and which result from students’ interests and needs (Meddings & Thornbury, 2003).

In 2001, Scott Thornbury and Luke Meddings wrote an article ‘The roaring in the chimney: or what course books are good for’. The main idea they wanted to convey is that the notion of course books had been mistakenly viewed from another educational paradigm; teaching language using only books is a sure way of paralyzing its capacity, they assumed that “Maybe other subjects like geography or history, or mathematics do need textbooks, but we are not sure that language does. For a start, language is not a subject, it is a medium” (Thornburg & Meddings, 2001, p. 1). Indeed, if learners show no interest to the material introduced by the teacher, they will not improve their learning and therefore all material should be generated by them. Consequently, the usefulness of textbooks should be requested and the assumptions on the importance of student-produced material should be tested.

The main linguistic issues such as grammar and vocabulary can be found in books and dictionaries which are available with low prices in markets rather than to devote whole series of expensive course books. Moreover, the language practiced through textbooks activities can emerge more spontaneously and explicitly if learners are given opportunities to talk about themselves. Another element in language teaching process which is always seen as a crucial guide to cover learners' academic requirements is syllabus design. This latter has become as a process of reproduction of the same items with the same structural complexity as the so called linguists claimed, and there is no evidence that grammar units are internalized in the order and at the same pace they are delivered. So what if course books are thrown away, what if learners are left free to converse as Ashton- Warner (1963, p. 119) said "teaching is so much simpler and clearer as a result. There's much more time for conversation".

In an another article entitled 'Dogme: Dancing in the dark', Thornbury (2005) drew up a checklist of ten features that Dogme textbooks(if they must be used) must have: interactive speaking and writing activities should be the main feature of the book, texts should be used as stimuli for production and data for contextualized language focus, learners' communicative needs should be the source of the emergent language, the grammatical, lexical, and discourse means delivered in speaking and writing activities should not be considered as input to be received by learners but also to be owned by them and used in need, in books, learners should be provided with white space where to take notes, tell comments, reflect on the activities, and set new goals, a distinction should be made, on the one hand, between recognition grammar and production grammar, and on the other hand, between grammar of writing and grammar of speaking, language tasks should pose problems without necessarily providing readymade answers and learners would be invited to search and exchange their own data, the book design should encourage teachers and learners to feel free to start anywhere, learners should be encouraged to read extensively outside class according to their own needs and interests, and finally books should be produced to ensure the lowest possible cost to the customer.

From 2000 to 2009, Scott Thornbury and his colleague Luke Meddings who shared the same philosophy about how must language teaching be, attempted to explain their beliefs and suggestions through publishing many articles such as: 'Using the raw materials' (2001), 'Dogme still able to divide ELT' (2003), 'What Dogme feels like' (2003), and 'Throw away your text books' (Meddings.2004).They set up their teaching movement and could attract many followers all over the world. Consequently, the ELT Dogme Yahoo group was created in response to the reaction provoked by Thornbury's article (2000). It became the most

important forum where the opponents and the proponents of the Dogme ELT teaching approach can exchange ideas, debate, and convince each other.

2.6.3. The Full Dogme ELT “Vow of Chastity”

Dogme ELT invites teachers to take a ‘vow of chastity’ which prescribes conditions to be respect. It calls for purifying learning from unneeded material and content, and places instead a great value on encouraging conversational communication to promote social interaction. It stresses on determining learners’ specific needs and stimulating talk which is constructed cooperatively and which deals with relevant topics. The following are the full Dogme ELT “Vow of Chastity” mentioned in Thornbury’s article : It’s for Teachers (2001) which I summarize below from (Banegas, 2012, p. 1-2):

Teaching should focus only on resources brought by teachers and students, and if a needed piece of material is found outside the classroom such as library or club, it has to be visited. Imported recorded listening material is forbidden, however; it is advocated to record students in pairs or group work for later re-play and analysis. The teacher must sit down at all times that the students are seated, except when monitoring. All the teacher’s questions must be ‘real’ such as ‘What did you do on Saturday?’, but not questions such as ‘What is the past of the verb to go?’ Slavish commitment to any language teaching method is unacceptable. Topics and grammar items should emerge from the lesson content and, and not retrieved from preplanned syllabus. Students should be free to join the class that they feel most comfortable in. The criteria procedure of testing students must be negotiated with them. Teachers will be evaluated according to only one criterion: that they are not boring.

2.6.4. Teaching Unplugged

‘Teaching unplugged’ is a term that refers a philosophy of teaching in a different way; it explains why reliance on materials and sources should be shunned, why classroom conversation should be prioritized, and why learners’ emergent language should be promoted. ‘Teaching unplugged’ also refers to a book introduced in 2009 by Scott Thornbury and Luke Meddings, and which was published by DELTA Publishing and part of DELTA Teacher Development Series. The book is divided into three sections. Section A introduces the three tenets of Dogme. The first is ‘**conversation driven**’, and where conversation is language at work and described as a discursive, interactive, dialogic, and communicative process that scaffolds learning and promotes socialization. The second is ‘**materials light**’ which is

teaching that frees the teacher from dependence on course books and technology, foregrounds classroom interaction, and gives learners a voice. The third is ‘**the focus on emergent language**’ where imposed external syllabus and artificial communicative activities are seen as obstructive and unnecessary, and should be replaced by teacher’s and learners’ shared knowledge interpreted through authentic conversation.

Section B provides nearly 100 activities in a form of lesson ideas which have been used and tested by Thornbury and Meddings over many years. The activities vary from short warmers to extendible tasks which can be tried out in unplugged class with a minimum of preparation. Section C is devoted to examine the practical implications of implementing the Dogme ELT in classroom and incorporating it in the syllabus. Many questions are asked, is it possible for non native teachers to use the methodology, and with young learners? Is it possible to prepare an exam class based on Dogme principles and to apply it in an entire school? How can some insightful indications help?

2.6.5. Defining “Dogme ELT”

Dogme ELT is a communicative approach to language teaching that goes beyond the traditional way of teaching languages, it was launched by Scott Thornbury in his article, ‘A Dogma for EFL’ (2000) when he criticized English language teaching’s over usage of supportive published materials and information technology in classroom which complicate the language learning process, and called on fellow teachers to join him in an attempt to restore teaching to its natural root. Dogme is not a method, rather it is a ‘Movement’ and ‘state of mind’, and it is “More than simply a new set of techniques and procedures. It is more an attitude shift, a state of mind, a different way of being a teacher” (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 21).

Dogme ELT claims that classrooms had been heavily invaded by materials in the form of copious photocopies, work books, tapes, tapes-scripts, flashcards, transparencies and technological gimmicks, and advocates teaching that doesn’t rely on published text books but relies on conversational communication in the classroom which helps language to emerge from the learners’ intellect. It focuses on learners’ actual needs, and considers learners as the primary sources of teaching and who can internalize and recall language with more success if it is spontaneous and relevant to them. The following are the ten key principles that characterize the Dogme ELT paraphrased from (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 7-8).

- 1 **Interactivity**: the direct route to learning is found in the interactivity between teachers and students, and between the students themselves.
- 2 **Engagement**: Students are most engaged by content they create themselves.

- 3 **Dialogic process:** learning is social and dialogic process, where knowledge is co-constructed rather than imported from teacher/course book to student.
- 4 **Scaffolded conversation:** learning takes place through conversation that is assisted by the teacher.
- 5 **Emergence:** language emerges from the leaning process unlike the acquisition of language
- 6 **Affordance:** the teacher's role is to optimize language learning affordances; he directs attention to emergent language.
- 7 **Voice:** students' beliefs, knowledge, experience, concerns and desires are given recognition and importance.
- 8 **Empowerment:** freeing the classroom of imported materials empowers students and teachers.
- 9 **Relevance:** materials, when used should have relevance for the students.
- 10 **Critical use:** published materials should be used by students in a critical way that recognizes their cultural and ideological biases.

From the above ten key principles, emerge the following three axiomatic tenets

Dogme is about teaching that is **conversation- driven**.

Dogme is about teaching that is **materials light**.

Dogme is about teaching that focuses on **emergent language**.

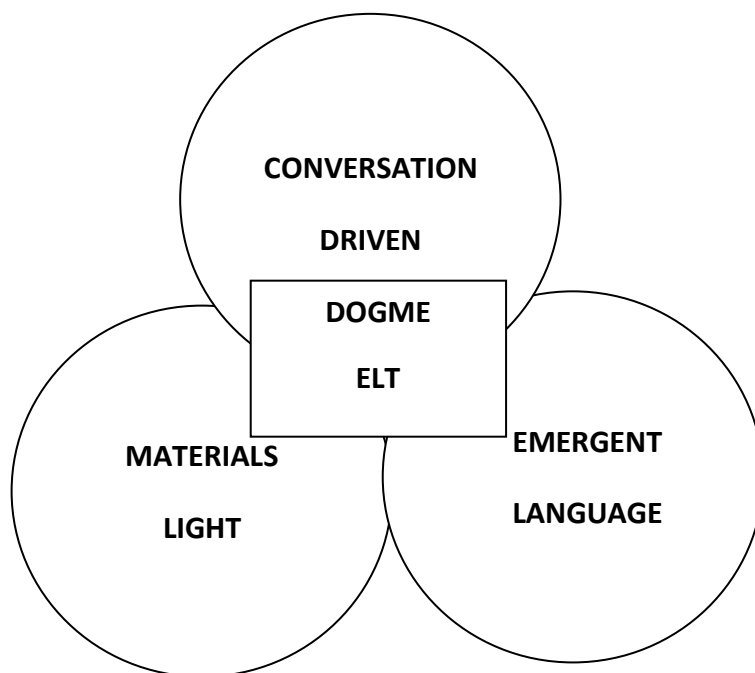


Figure 9. Tenets of Dogme ELT (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 8)

Brown (2001) displays an important concept: “unplanned teaching”. He asks teachers to suppose that just after entering the class, and beginning the lesson successfully, one student asks about the political campaign happening right now, another provides his opinion, another stands against, and suddenly all the students engage in a heated debate about the political matter. Students are participating, debating each other, and therefore producing spontaneous and meaningful complex language. Though the discussion is related to the lesson topic, but it is not as what you have planned in advance. You realize that, in order to satisfy your students’ needs, your lesson will have to change in some way. What would you do now? Should you stop the conversation? Or let it continue and reject yours? Hence preplanned and structured lessons don not always fit the students’ interests, and you should expect the unexpected such as explained below by Brown (2001, p. 195).

- your students digress and throw off the plan for the day.
- you digress and through off the plan of the day.
- an unexpected but pertinent question comes up.
- some technicality prevents you from doing an activity (e.g., a machine breaks down, or you suddenly realize you forgot to bring handouts that were necessary for the next activity.
- a student is disruptive in class.
- you are asked a question you don’t know the answer to (e.g., a grammatical point).
- there isn’t enough time at the end of a class period to finish an activity that has already started.

Dogme ELT provides solutions to theses kinds of difficult teaching situations, it advocates teachers to treat them with tolerance, and to permit students to carry on their preferred topics. It is another way of teaching English with more focus on students’ needs and interests, and with more practice of interaction that leads to the emergence of spontaneous language. Dogme ELT views its three tenets as crucial elements for learning English ; conversation,for instance, is a universal form of communication that prepares students for real life interaction between people. Hence Allright, as cited in (Meddings and Thornbury, 2009, p. 8), states that “ the importance of interaction is not simply that it creates learning opportunities, it is that it constitutes learning itself ”. Dogme also prefers students’ produced materials rather than published materials and textbooks. the former provide enjoyable topics and issues to investigate. The latter often focus on linguistic competence, and not on communicative one.

The language produced by students in the classroom is often a result of communicative activities, and it is not necessarily taught before. The core principles of Dogme ELT are described below with more details.

2.7. Dogme ELT Principles

2.7.1. Conversation Driven

Unlike traditional language learning methods which have always viewed conversation as a product of learning, however “language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on a conversation” (Hatch, 1978, p. 404). Modern ones view it as the most fundamental and widespread means of human communication, and give it much priority that’s why “Most language learners feel cheated if their course includes little or no conversation practice”(Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 8). It is often believed that “To most people, mastering the art of speaking is the single most important aspect of leaning a second or foreign language, and success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the language” (Nunan, 1991, p. 39). Conversation is “the kind of speech that happens informally, symmetrically and for the purposes of establishing and maintaining social ties” (Thornbury & Slade, 2006, p. 25). Dogme highlights the centrality of communication and dialogue within every lesson, and considers learners able to practice language if they are simply asked to talk about themselves; hence it opposes the transfer of knowledge unlike the old models of educations. Barnes, Britton and Rosen (1986) note that classroom talk and conversation can make a good learning; they stand against the old model of transmitting knowledge from the teacher to learners, they believe that learning is basically founded upon dialogue between the teacher and the learners and the learners themselves, and “The teacher is no longer merely the –one-who-teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn while being taught also teach” (Freire, 1993, p. 80).

The most prominent tenet of Dogme ELT is “conversation” which is put at the heart of language learning, “It is language at work, conversation is discourse, conversation is interactive, dialogic and communicative, conversation scaffolds learning, and conversation promotes socialization” (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 8). Language at work implies that conversation is both the process and the product of language learning, and therefore accuracy is the result of fluency practice “‘fluency first’ approach works well” (Ibid, 2009. 8). Discourse is built and transmitted upon conversation which enables students to work together coherent and meaningful

connected sentences. Interaction is achieved through the exchange of interpersonal meanings. Finally, conversation provides students interactional support to improve their communicative competence. Swain and Gass, as cited in (Tsui, 2001), state that negotiation of meaning through classroom interaction facilitates SLA because it provides students with comprehensible input and express concepts and ideas which are often beyond their linguistic capability. Hence, learning takes place through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978).

Communication is considered as a crucial element in the learning process. Allright, as cited in (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 17) notes that teaching communication exceeds the level of teaching grammar and vocabulary, and if the latter is the aim, it should be the major element in the process, and suggests that the best way to learn how to communicate is by communicating. So conversation is not “evidence of grammatical acquisition, but a pre-requisite for it” (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 9). Krashen (1981) states that learning foreign language is similar to acquiring first and second language. A natural and meaningful interaction is so necessary in the two processes, the speakers are not interested in the form of the language, but on the messages they convey and understand. Dogme language also is not transactional, but also interactional, it provides learners with opportunities to converse, to negotiate concepts, to exchange experiences, and to tell jokes (Corbett,2003). Acka (2012) states that the teacher has to take advantage of any incidental conversation, and scaffolds information for the learners to reformulate, repair, or refine the emergent language. Kumaravadivelo as cited in (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 11), for instance, states that “teachers and learners are co-participants in the generation of classroom discourse”. Ushioda (2011, p. 205) has the same point of view and asserts that:

“The Dogme approach places a premium on conversational interaction among teacher and learners where communication is authentic and learner-driven rather than pedagogically contrived and controlled by the teacher. Choice of learning content and materials is thus shaped by students’ own preferred interests and agendas, and language development emerges through the scaffolded dialogic interactions among learners and the teacher”.

In Dogme ELT class, “The conversation class is something of an enigma in language teaching” (Richards, 1990, p. 67). It is the core of teaching, and the content of the lesson is not preplanned around a course book. On the contrary, it emerges from real conversation, and it is often shaped by students. Dogme ELT focuses on language that is not solely transactional but also interactional and which includes social elements such as greetings, casual

conversations (Corbett, 2003), and “language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on a conversation” (Hatch, 1978, p. 404). MacCabe (2005) proposes that conversation should focus on the context students and teacher are inscribed using the most important resources in classroom. The paradigm of a dominant teacher who transmits knowledge and who is the only source of input is unaccepted, however; learning is co-constructed through communicative interaction held by all the people in the room (Meddings & Thornbury, 2003). Meddings and Thornbury (2009) point that far from traditional language teaching that stresses primarily on the sentence level such as parts of speech and verb models, the Dogme approach offers a large space for students discourse to fulfill their specific communicative needs, to engage in conversation, to co-operate, to become members of discourse community, and therefore to be acquainted and familiar with the semantic and pragmatic level of connected and coherent text. So what does the word “interaction” imply?

“Interaction is an important word for language teachers. In the era of communicative language teaching, interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication; it is what communication is all about. We send messages, we receive them, we interpret them in a context, we negotiate meanings, and we collaborate to accomplish certain purposes. And after several decades of research on teaching and learning languages, we have discovered that the best way to learn to interact is through interaction itself” (Brown, 2001, p. 165).

After researching an EFL classroom in Algeria, Slimani, as cited in (Thornbury and Slade, 2006) found that nearly 80% of topics introduced in the lessons were initiated by the teacher, who also performed 45% of the classroom talk. The situation is traditional, and proves that teacher-driven lessons provide little opportunity for students to participate in the language of the classroom. A distinction should be made between classroom talk and conversation. Classroom talk is product-oriented since there is a need to achieve a pre-selected pedagogical goal, it is transactional because the main goal is the transmission of subject-matter knowledge from the teacher to the students, and it is asymmetrical because the speakers’ rights are unequally distributed; the teacher takes the floor for most of the session time, nominates the turns, and repairs communication breakdown. Conversation is process-oriented; it is motivated by constructing and maintaining interpersonal relationship and less by the need to achieve a specified objective. It is symmetrical, topicalized, and constructed by all the participants in the classroom. Turns are self-taken, and any communication deficiency is repaired by the students themselves in a form of immediate correction. (ibid). The following table shows the differences between classroom talk and conversation features.

| Classroom talk | Conversation |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Product-oriented ● Transactional ● Asymmetrical ● Teacher-led ● Topicalization by the teacher ● Display questions ● IRF sequence predominant ● Turns dominated ● Other repair ● Low contingency | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Process-oriented ● Interactional ● Symmetrical ● Jointly constructed ● Topicalization shared ● Referential questions ● Adjacency pairs; ‘chat -and -chunk’ ● Turns self-selected ● Self repair ● High contingency |

Table 11. Ways in which classroom talk contrasts with conversation (Thornburg & Slade, 2006, p. 240)

One main useful way to empower students’ communicative interaction is information gap activities which enable students to access information that other students do not have, and vice versa. Conversation often provides opportunities for students output that leads to feedback, scaffolds learning, and promotes socialization. Another purpose of holding conversation besides exchanging information is establishing and maintaining social relations, so a Dogmatist teacher often devotes the first minutes of the lecture to chat with the student to relax them and to create a group dynamic that is conducive to learning though it is not a part of the lesson. Conversation reflects the students’ previous experience and their construction of the language system as Andrews (2001) claims “interaction between learners who are predisposed to make sense of their experience, including their experience of linguistic communication and a community of more mature language users who provide the evidence on which the learners construct their representation of the language system” (Andrews, 2001, p. 26). The teacher can use many strategies to encourage classroom conversation, to stimulate discussion, and to create nonthreatening classroom environment. For example to ask students open-ended questions that require more than yes/no response, these questions serve as a scaffolding tool to reinforce oral routines (Sasson, 2013).

2.7.2. Materials Light

Materials, particularly textbooks, also called ‘course books’ are defined as materials of which the teacher, and usually each student possess a copy, and which are to be followed systematically as the basis for language course (Ur, 1991). They have been criticized for creating teachers who rely too heavily to them to make principled decisions in the class without critical thinking (Swan, 1992). Lazaraton (2001), for instance, notes that it is important that teachers as well as selection committees take a critical look at published materials because not all of them guarantee the promotion of language teaching in terms of language content, teaching methodology, and task or textual authenticity. Skeptical questions can be asked; is the text appropriate or the level of students being taught? What types of topics are used? Do they fit the needs of the students? Does the text require authentic language use?

Materials cannot inspire many students to reflect what they grasped from them. Consequently, Dogme ELT advocates materials light as a paradigm of teaching that frees the teacher from independence on course books and technology, and “if not actually to burn course books, at least to banish them from the classroom” (Medding & Thornbury, 2009, p. 11). Though this opinion seems to be negative, but it is agreed upon it by many linguists such as Bell and Gower (1998) who note that creativity of the teacher as well as the learner is destroyed by materials, and Butzkamm (2003) who considers the problem of language learning as a result of abundant irrelevant materials which are used in language teaching.

The originators of Dogme argue that they are not totally against the use of course books, but they believe that materials imposed by the teacher are useless, and they welcome instead the ‘Dogme-friendly’ materials imported by the students themselves such as pictures, photos, magazines and newspaper articles, authentic texts written or recorded by the learners, or music selected and available on the learners’ mobile phones which ensure that they could establish an atmosphere of mutual discourse. It is noted that “The more material there is for a child, the less pull there is on his own resources” (Ashton-Warner, 1963. 118). So student-produced material is preferable to published materials and text books which focus on grammar more than communicative tasks and which often show cultural biases. Meddings and Thornbury (2009) do not see Dogme as being opposed to technology, but refuse technology which does not enable teaching that is both learner-centered and is based upon authentic communication.

Meddings and Thornbury describe the Dogme classroom as “a room with a few chairs, a blackboard, a teacher and some learners, and where learning is jointly constructed out of the

talk that evolves in that simplest and most prototypical of situations” (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 12). They claim that though materials could provide stimulus for real communication, but most of them have an agenda of delivering and consuming pre-selected, pre-graded, and pre-digested grammatical structures and vocabulary such as verb tenses which are not relevant to learners. Because of global spread of English, ELT has become global industry with predetermined economic perspectives, so course books are materialistic and non neutral and often diffuse cultural and educational values and styles of thinking owned by local communities that do not overlap with the learners’ needs.

It is advised to discuss course books topics from learners’ linguistic and cultural perspectives so they can connect their own world with the world of English, to use locally produced materials if they are available, or to invent and compose their own texts. Another shortcoming of text books is that they are affected by colonialist discourse which has a positivist aspect, this latter is based on the idea that knowledge exists beyond the learner as facts should be transferred only by a text book or a teacher. The idea is rejected by many linguists such as the Brazilian reformer Paulo Freire as cited in (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009), who advocated a dialogic pedagogy that focuses on the local needs and concerns of the students

In 1960, when he was devoted to teach alone in an Australian government primary school located in a far rainforests in New Guinea, John Wade, as cited in (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, p. 13), tells what happened to him in his way to the school, he lost his few materials in an accident. He was obliged to teach the children and to cover the curriculum, but with no materials. So he asked the children to tell him what they wanted to learn about, and he taught them English according to their responses. When later on was given a copy of the syllabus, he recognized that he had covered just about every item listed, and continued teaching without syllabus. He could develop a text book with free pedagogy that scaffolded his pupils and made of his teaching more fun and much easier. Ashton-Warner (1963, p.118), from her side, defends the same idea and assumes that “the more material there is for a child, the less pull there is on his own resources”. Hence, the rejection of external input leads to transparency between the teacher and the learner, and facilitate the learning process, as the humanist English teacher and thinker (Searl Stevic), cited in (Meddings & Thornbury,2009, p. 7) reports that “ Success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes inside and between the people in the classroom”.

Warschauer and Wittaker (2002), from one hand, note that using technology such as network involves many difficulties and complexities. Hence the teacher has to be aware when implementing it, and he has to take into consideration the students' opinions. One main way to determine whether such technology will be appreciated or rejected by the students is the use anonymous surveys, questionnaires, or class discussion. So communicating with students and respecting their decisions will surely lead to the kind of atmosphere optimal for language learning. From the other hand, it is claimed that

“Materials' include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinesthetic, and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display, or on cassette, CD-ROM, DVD or the internet. They can be instructional in that they inform learners about the language, they can be experiential in that they provide exposure to the language in use, they can be elicitive in that they stimulate language use, or they can be exploratory in that they seek discoveries about language use” (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 66).

Are textbooks important? Yes. Are textbooks important? No. Can textbooks meet the learners' individual needs? This is a dilemma teachers often encounter. Proponents of textbook assume that it is the most appropriate form of presenting materials since it provides students with systematic and organized data, and helps teachers prepare with ease. However; the grounds for criticism are wide ranging. Textbooks reduce the teacher's role to managing preplanned situations. Textbooks are for poor teachers. They fail to present realistic models of language and to contextualize language activities. “Opponents counter that a course book is inevitably superficial and reductionist in its coverage of language points and in its provision of language experience, it cannot cater for the diverse needs of all its users, it imposes uniformity of syllabus and approach, and it removes initiative and power from teachers” (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 67). Ur (1991) states that:

“In some places course books are taken for granted. In others they may not be used at all: the teacher works according to a syllabus, or according to his or her own programme, using text books and supplementary materials as the need arises. A third, 'compromise', situation is where a course book is used selectively, not necessarily in sequence, and is extremely supplemented by other materials” (Ur, 1991, p. 183).

The following two tables show the arguments of the ones who are in favour of using course books and the ones who are against using them.

| IN FAVOUR OF USING A COURSEBOOK | |
|--|---|
| 1. Framework | A course book provides a clear framework; teacher and learners know where they are going and what is coming next, so that there is a sense of structure and progress. |
| 2. Syllabus | In many places the course book serves as a syllabus; if it is followed systematically, a carefully planned and balanced selection of language content will be covered. |
| 3. Ready-made texts and tasks | The course book provides texts and learning tasks which are likely to be of an appropriate level for most of the class. This of course saves time for the teacher who would otherwise have to prepare his or her own. |
| 4. Economy | A book is the cheapest way of providing learning material for each learner; alternatives, such as kits, sets of photocopied papers or computer software, are likely to be more expensive relative to the amount of material provided. |
| 5. Convenience | A book is a convenient package. It is bound, so that its components stick together and stay in order; it is light and small enough to carry around easily; it is of a shape that is easily packed and stacked; it does not depend for its use on hardware or a supply of electricity. |
| 6. Guidance | For teachers who are inexperienced or occasionally unsure of their knowledge of the language, the course book can provide useful guidance and support. |
| 7. Autonomy | The learner can use the course book to learn new material, review and monitor progress with some degree of autonomy. A learner without a course book is more teacher-dependent. |

Table 12. Course books usefulness. (Ur, 1991, p. 184)

AGAINST USING A COURSE BOOK

1. Inadequacy

Every class-in fact, every learner-has their own learning needs; no one course book can possibly supply these satisfactorily.

2. Irrelevance, lack of interest

The topics dealt with in the course book may not necessarily be relevant or interesting for your class.

3. Limitation

A course book is confining: its set structure and sequence may inhibit a teacher's initiative and creativity, and lead to boredom and lack of motivation on the part of the learners.

4. Homogeneity

Course books have their own rationale and chosen teaching/learning approach. They do not usually cater to the variety of levels of ability and knowledge, or of learning styles and strategies that exist in most classes.

5. Over-easiness

Teachers find it too easy to follow the course book uncritically instead of using their initiative; they may find themselves functioning merely as mediators of its content instead of as teachers in their own right.

Table13. Course books uselessness. (Ur, 1991, p. 185)

Should we teach from a textbook or should we rely on other sources? Some teachers over-depend on textbooks because they think their way of teaching should be structured in a well-determined framework. For them, a textbook covers the syllabus content and transmits knowledge gradually to learners; it provides novice teachers with guidance and support to ensure learners' input. However, some teachers stand against the use of textbooks because they believe they are outdated, they do not cover topics sufficiently, they are not surely relevant for learners, or they create boredom and restrict both learners and teachers' creativity since they include answers to all questions. In other words, they do not take learners' background into account. Hence, teachers who prefer teaching through Dogme ELT often select textbooks that meet their learners' needs and accept the ones brought by learners themselves

2.7.3. Emergent language

The emergent language is viewed as a main source by which teachers are able to accelerate the learning process, and it is the third interesting principle of Dogme ELT which advocates that the language content of the lesson should emerge from the communicative needs and the interaction between the participants in the classroom (Meddings & Thornbury, 2001), and learners are not intrinsically motivated and engaged in their learning process unless their emergent language is used as the source of the lesson. But how does language emerge? Meddings and Thornbury (2009) state that language emerges at two levels; it emerges out of interpersonal activities when students produce language output through collaborative conversation directed and activated by the teacher, and it emerges out of intrapersonal language when students produce language they were not taught before. The process of language emergence, as Nick Ellis suggests, includes the ability to pick up patterns from a massive input, to build and to chunk sets of already formed associations into large units such as sound and word sequence (ibid.2009). Hence “the language focus should emerge from and not determine the communicative needs of the learners” (Thornbury, 2005, p. 4).

It is worth noting that traditional language lessons which respect grammar-based syllabus are not useful enough for language learners to attain accepted proficiency in English (Van Lier, 1996), however in Dogme lesson, interaction is the corner stone for language emergence, it provides the teacher with the opportunity to scaffold the students’ language, and to help them notice their actual language and to compare it with the target language system. This goes along with Vygotsky’s ZPD theory of scaffolding with language learning (Thornburg, 2001). Students request assistance and guidance from the teacher with grammar and vocabulary, and the teacher responds to their inquiry. This proves that teacher’s role is to support the emergent language when it arises in the classroom. Dogme highlights the importance of implicit immediate or delayed error correction techniques. It depends on the type of the error, the stage of the lesson, and the students’ aptitude to accept the correction.

Dogme shares many of its belief with communicative language teaching which focuses on the syllabus of tasks rather than discrete linguistic items. They both focus on meaning and communication through which language form also is learnt, and learners can improve their accuracy, and their errors are tolerated and considered as a part of learning process as Allright (1979) claims “if the language teacher’s management activities are directed exclusively at involving the learners in solving communication problems in the target language, then language learning will take care of itself”. The proponents of Dogme argue that language learning is an emergent process, and there is no need to cover items on syllabus, but what is

needed is to motivate students through providing them with opportunities to practice the language rather than to acquire it. Stephen Krashen, as cited in (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, 17), believes that “Speech cannot be taught directly but ‘emerges’ on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input”.

The process of language learning in Dogme is similar to the one advocated by the whole language learning which sees the materials selected and needed by the class are more fruitful than the curriculum itself. Task based approach and Dogme ELT argue that through fluency, accuracy is acquired and developed, and classroom activities lead to collaborative communication amongst learners, and language produced is not necessarily taught. So communication remains the core of Dogme ELT as Herbert Puchta and Michael Schratz report “Process in teaching and learning is principally a matter of the quality of communication between teacher and students and, especially, between students” (Ibid, 2009, 18). Hence learner-centered curriculum is less based on the knowledge of grammar but on the process of communication and learning, and instead of designing syllabus including pre-selected items, Dogme ELT calls for a post-lesson plan and a syllabus based on the students’ needs. The following are ten crucial strategies through which the teacher can encourage learners to engage with emergent language summarized from (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009, 20)

- 1- **Reward** emergent language. Show learners that you value their output
- 2- **Retrieve** it. Making notes or writing a learner’s utterance on the board.
- 3- **Repeat** it. Repeat it yourself; have other learners repeat it-even drill it.
- 4- **Recast** it. Reformulate learners’ language production into a more target-like form.
- 5- **Report** it. Ask learners to report what they said and heard in group work.
- 6- **Recycle** it. Encourage learners to use the emergent items in new context.
- 7- **Record** it. Make sure learners have a written record of the new item.
- 8- **Research** it. Help learners to find regularities and patterns in the emergent language.
- 9- **Reference** it. Link emergent language to the ‘external’ syllabus objectives.
- 10- **Review**. At the end of the lesson, ask learners to write five words they have learned.

As already mentioned, Dogme ELT has many similar features with other language teaching approaches such as communicative language teaching, task based language learning, learner-centered teaching and whole language teaching as illustrated below:

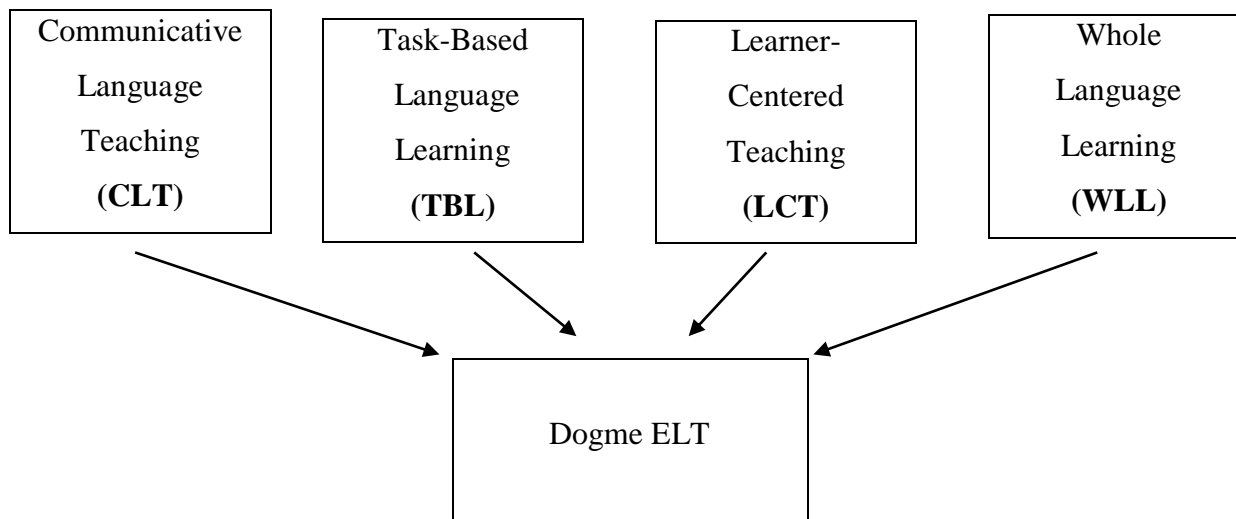


Figure 10. Approaches influencing Dogme ELT, adapted from (Maddings & Thornbury, 2009)

2. 8. Developing a Method for Teaching Unplugged

Most of EFL learners feel they need more conversation practice, but do students engage with each other, exchange ideas, build relationships, and learn together? Do teachers converse face to face with their students? Is there any strategy through which conversation can be built and managed to improve students' speaking skill? Yes among the effective methods used to establish a useful classroom conversation; a conversation Activated Teaching (CAT) which is a method for teaching unplugged developed by Lackman (2012), it proposes that an unplugged lesson can be presented in three steps. In the first step, students are given few minutes think of topics they want to discuss. They report their topics, and vote on the most accepted ones. Once the first topic has been chosen, the students are asked to work in pairs, and each one asks the other questions about the topic. In the second step, a volunteer student stands in the front of the class to be asked by his classmates; meanwhile the teacher directs the conversation, recasts the language that has emerged, and asks all the class to write what they have heard. In the last step, students compare their remarks and notes whereas the teacher records the students' language produced during the conversation in the board. The main focus will be on meaning, form, and usage of expressions. After some language focus has been done, the students are asked to re-perform their conversation from the start of the lesson

2.9. Advantages of Dogme ELT

Since the Dogme class is based on learners' desires, beliefs and experiences without the use of drilling and fixed control forms, little preparation is required from the teacher who can apply Dogme lessons regardless of the age of the students and the size of the class. Students are most engaged by content they have created themselves, and assisted by the teacher through scaffolding with a low-affective filter environment in the classroom. Teachers and students free themselves from models of teaching and learning imposed by textbooks writers. Therefore they have the opportunity analyze, internalize, and practice the language through conversation. Sketchley (2012) believes that teaching unplugged breaks the barriers that exist between the teacher and students, and prevents them from hiding behind texts. These texts retrieved from course books restrain potential exploratory and reactive teaching, and provide the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary in an unpredictable Harmer (1983) criticizes the use of course books, and states that they can have negative effects on teaching since they tend to concentrate on introducing new language and controlled work, and to follow the same format.

Harmer (2007) notes that in such circumstances, textbooks become like a millstone in the necks of students and teachers. Sometimes when they see the way textbooks treat a piece of language or a reading text, they feel able to do it much better themselves. Hence they don't want to be locked into these textbooks which often present their contents as if they are the only materials to be followed and accepted in the classroom. Students prefer to use their own snippets, articles retrieved from magazines, newspapers, and other sources. As a result, teachers decide to teach without textbooks especially if they have the experience and sufficient cultural knowledge by which they can cope with the different topics the students propose.

Dogme ELT advocates conversation which often leads to transparency between the teacher and the learners who are given a platform to use connected speech and focus on meaning which is relevant to the topic. Students are more motivated when they feel in control of their learning process. They are involved in making decision on their priorities. Dogme ELT is considered as an eclectic approach, it combines useful pedagogies of different communicative approaches that trigger teachers' autonomy. It reduces the role of the teacher, and therefore permits the students to guide the direction of the lesson without any fear which will increase their activity as individuals. From teachers' point of view, the big advantage of Dogme is that there is little or no lesson preparation. They are motivated because they are not

obliged to have materials to teach, but they are free to adapt to whatever situation or environment they find themselves in.

Dogme ELT proponents claim that there are several problems with course books such as uninteresting topics, repetitive activities, and not enough language exposure which affect students' learning attitudes and motivation. They suggest that if EFL course books are to be used, it is necessary for teachers to develop and propose other activities to keep the classroom atmosphere more interesting for both students and teachers who can behave in a natural way. Harmer (2007) notes that students' extrinsic motivation is sustained through varied class activities that overlap with students' interests and wishes, however if the content of the course book is boring, then learning will be problematic for all the participants in the classroom.

2.10. Criticism of Dogme ELT

The opponents of Dogme ELT have criticized its first component 'conversation', and asked whether the students of low level of language proficiency can involve themselves in real life communication without a need to benefit from authentic textbooks that provide them with lexical input. They also challenged the objective of conversational lesson which often deviates from the syllabus since students' different interests cannot be limited and restricted to the type of the lesson. Moreover, some fields in applied linguistics such as teaching English for specific purposes (ESP) requires defining new professional terms and concepts, and lexical structures that cannot be discovered and developed by the student in an independent way. Though Thornbury (2009) doesn't consider Dogme as being totally opposed to materials such as textbooks and technology, and advocates teaching that is learner-centered and based on authentic communication, but some students may not appreciate the lesson which is not unorganized and presented spontaneously. As a consequence, the teacher will be viewed as lazy one who lacks professional loyalty.

Sketchley (2012) notes that among the advantages of materials such as course books: they provide newly teachers structure, they introduce grammar and vocabulary in manageable bite sized chunks, and students can view their progress. Indeed, a course book can give the students a sense of security and an overall plan of structure of series of lessons they are supposed to accomplish during the whole period of their study. A course book can also present language items in a logical progression and makes a good balance of language skills. Hutchinson and Waters claim that there is often a necessity to use materials in the classroom, and identifies the following purposes of using them:

- Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn.
- Materials help to organize the teaching-learning process, by providing a path through the complex mass of the language to be learnt.
- Materials embody a view of the nature of language and learning.
- Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which both reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.
- Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training, by introducing teachers to new techniques.
- Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use”
(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 107-108).

Technology is not given much importance in Dogme ELT though the benefits that can provide to both students and teachers. The widespread adoption of technology has completely changed how teachers teach and students learn, and it is assumed that “Rapid evolution of communication technologies has changed language pedagogy and language use, enabling new forms of discourse, new forms of authorship, and new ways to create and participate in communities” (Kern, 2006, p. 183). Learning in a formal context using only traditional materials, and neglecting contemporary technological devices seems to be boring for many students. However having access to technology will provide students with much autonomy in what they select to focus on, and students are likely to use the language for: “... ongoing identity formation and personally meaningful communication in the service of goals that extend beyond ‘practice’ or ‘learning’ in the restrictive senses associated institutional settings” (Thorne, 2006, p. 14).

Getting information over the internet, for instance, can enable teachers and students to look for authentic written, audio, and visual texts that fit their interests. It is worth noting that the new generation cannot live without being plugged to the technological means of communication with people over the world. Face book, Blogs, and You tube have become so necessary in their daily life and particularly inside the classroom. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) note that technology in its different forms such as Blogs, CALL software, Social Networking Sites, You tube, Wiki, digital portfolios, distance education, electronic chatting, E-Pen Pals, electronic presentation (power point), Electronic Text Corpora. Podcasts, Social Networking, and Cell Phone-based Applications (Text Messaging and Twitter) has become a necessity and “Technology is no longer simply contributing machinery

or making authentic material or more resources available that teachers can use; it also provides learners with greater access to the target language” (Ibid, 2011, p. 250).

Dogme can be a big problem for non-native and novice teachers who may be extremely uncomfortable with abandoning the security of textbooks, they are removed from a position of power, and challenged to teach with less resources, they cannot cope with all the different topics proposed by the students who have a different cultural background and perspectives; hence they need to use textbooks as a tool to cover their teaching. Moreover, teaching without having a syllabus to fall back on, teachers will surely experience anxiety that may impede language development. (Dellar, 2012). Though Dogme is helpful for teaching students conversational skills, students from their side cannot manage in the exam since these exams are based on specific syllabi. Though a course without technology may have some benefits, but it may also ignore and loose important resource. For some students, a Dogme lesson may be seen as an old fashioned method since they are living in a digital age where access and acquisition to information needs technological devices. Hence banning textbooks, internet articles, newspapers, magazines, and all the other language input from classroom seem to be an obstructive step in the learning process.

Dogme ELT is considered as an eclectic approach since it picks out the needed principles and techniques from the different approaches and methods; however this is viewed as a disadvantage. Stern (1992) claims that eclecticism offers no criteria and features to determine the best theory of language learning, and the choice of the method is left to the teachers’ individual judgment which is often broad and vague. They only take the most suitable ideas from each to construct a method of their own though they know these methods’ limitations. Teachers cannot direct the lesson since it is difficult to predict and control students’ output; they prefer to be constricted by their school’s syllabus and therefore do not have the freedom to use Dogme lesson. Another question is often addressed to Dogme about how teachers deal with students with low levels. How can these students express their interests, beliefs and wishes since their linguistic, cognitive and cultural abilities are limited?

Conclusion

The dissemination of the new teaching methodologies has changed the educational systems around the world. Teachers now try to adjust their teaching styles and to forge new techniques depending on their students’ needs to drive better academic performance among students. They have become aware of the intricacies, the limitations, and the merits of each method and

approach. In this era of innovation, Dogme ELT is seen as an alternative teaching approach that listens to students' voices and encourages students to take a vital part in their learning process. The approach recommends classroom conversation to promote students' emergent language with little reliance on materials such as textbooks and technology. The approach rejects the authority model of teacher-centered and proposes instead learner-centered model in order to improve classroom participation and fosters collaborative learning. Despite its popularity in many countries, Dogme ELT received some critics from its opponents. It is viewed to neglect the usefulness of syllabus interpreted through prescribed textbooks, and to focus on conversation that can deviate from the lesson objective. Hence, what is needed is to test its efficacy through its implementation in different contexts and settings and therefore to generalize the findings of this research.

Chapter Three: Research Situation Analysis

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Chapter Three: Research Situation Analysis

Introduction

Prior to carrying out experiments in this research, it is strongly required to build a wide idea about the subject under study as well as the participants from whom data will be gathered. Questionnaires remain useful tools to address to the investigated sample; they provide respondents with a series of questions to answer and statements to choose one or more among given ones. Questionnaires offer three types of data from the respondents: factual, behavioral, and attitudinal. Factual questions seek for information about the respondents such as gender, age, qualifications, and experience. Behavioral questions seek for what the respondents do or have done before. For example: their foreign language learning strategies, frequency of target language use, and management of difficult speaking situations. Attitudinal questions seek for respondents' attitudes, assumptions, interests, and values. We opted for the use of questionnaire because it has many advantages; it is less expensive method of data collection if compared to interview; it saves time as well as human and financial resources. It provides greater anonymity since there is no face to face between informants and interviewer. Moreover, the informants are more comfortable because they can answer sensitive questions and therefore information are accurately obtained.

3.1. Piloting the Questionnaires

It is often believed that testing a survey is a daunting work that takes a long time and big effort, but to ensure the appropriateness and effectiveness of questions, it is better to test at least with one person rather than no testing at all. To collect data, it is very important to pretest and pilot the questionnaire in order to evaluate if it measures what is supposed to measure and to eliminate questions that don't make sense to participants or that might lead to biased answers. Hence, it is advocated that "Pilot study should be undertaken for pre-testing the questionnaire. The questionnaire may be edited in the light of the results of the pilot study" (Khothari, 2004, p.118)

Before ensuring the accessibility of the questions, students' questionnaire was piloted by 10 students who belong to the population from which the sample had been randomly selected. Whereas teachers' questionnaire was piloted by 03 OE teachers who were not included in the sample. Some questions were omitted or reformulated because they were repeated or inadequately shaped. Teachers were given few days to answer the questionnaire because they needed to be out of working hours to do the task. However, students were given almost 15 minutes to answer the questions and to ensure that they fulfilled the questionnaire by themselves. The number of participants in the final questionnaire is 80 for students and 10 for

teachers. The size of the sample was determined in order to achieve the objectives of the study, “it should neither be excessively large nor too small” (Kothari, 2004, p. 174)

3.2. Aim and Description of the Questionnaires

The questionnaires are simple and clear so that they can be easily answered by informants (teachers and students). Each questionnaire is composed of thirty questions, grouped into three sections. Most of questions used in students’ questionnaire are close-ended questions that seek for quantitative data because open ended questions are often left unanswered or answered with fewer details by most of students. However some open-ended questions are used in teachers’ questionnaire that seek for qualitative data as Cohen et al state that “The larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be, the less structured, more open and word-based the questionnaire maybe” (Cohen et al, 2000. 247).

The open ended questions are intentionally used for the purpose of recognizing students and teachers’ perceptions about the actual situation of teaching speaking, and Dogme ELT principles which represent both the dependent and independent variables of our research. The main objective of questions addressed to students is to provide them with an opportunity to express their impressions about speaking difficulties, speaking strategies, classroom activities, preferred materials and technological devices, and suggestions for speaking development. The questions asked to teachers seek to know their qualifications, experience in teaching OE module, the applied language teaching methods, difficulties of teaching speaking, materials and technological tools needed in teaching, negotiation of syllabus and lesson content, error correction and feedback.

3.2.1. Population and Sample

The whole population of second year students of English at Mohamed Kheider University for the academic year 2016/2017 exceeds 400 hundred students. The population was chosen simply because students had already been taught Oral Expression module through which they had been exposed to the target language and therefore they had gained some experience about how to express themselves and to communicate with each other. Since it was not possible to address the whole population, we randomly selected the one fifth (80 students) among the ten existing groups. The whole population of second year Oral expression teachers consists of

five teachers; however we selected five other teachers of first and third years to have a deeper understanding of teachers' perceptions.

3.2.2. Validating the Questionnaires

The validity is the extent to which an instrument, a research measures what it is supposed to measure; it is an assessment of its accuracy. The validity of a questionnaire is obtained when questions are carefully designed and the sample is appropriately selected. It is stated that "In quantitative data validity might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatments of the data" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005, p. 105). To ensure validity, many steps were followed. The first step we proceeded through was consulting three experienced teachers who had already dealt with a similar topic and who are expert on question construction. To ensure legibility and comprehensibility, they suggested the omission of some questions such as the age and the gender of the participants and the reformulation of some questions which are misleading, confusing or double barreled in order to make them more explicit. They all noted that nearly all the questions were explicit and effectively captured the topic under investigation. The second step was running a pilot test on a small sample in order to eliminate ambiguous questions that were not answered, and to see to what extent participants had reacted to the questions. The third step was revising the questions and making sure that they are consistent and correlated to each other and cover the research questions. In fact internal consistency is often realized by the application of many approaches such as Cronbach Alpha (Richards & Schmidt 2002), but the latter is expensive and difficult to develop. Hence we verified that all questionnaires items are homogenous, equivalent or consistent with each other and therefore answer the research questions and serve the objective of the research. We also opted for the statistical package for scientific research to ensure fast and exact analysis.

3.3. Results and Analysis of Students' Questionnaires

3.3.1. Items analysis

Part one: General information

Item one: Age

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid 18-25 | 72 | 90,0 | 90,0 | 90,0 |
| 26-35 | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 91,3 |
| 36up | 7 | 8,75 | 8,75 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 14. Students' age

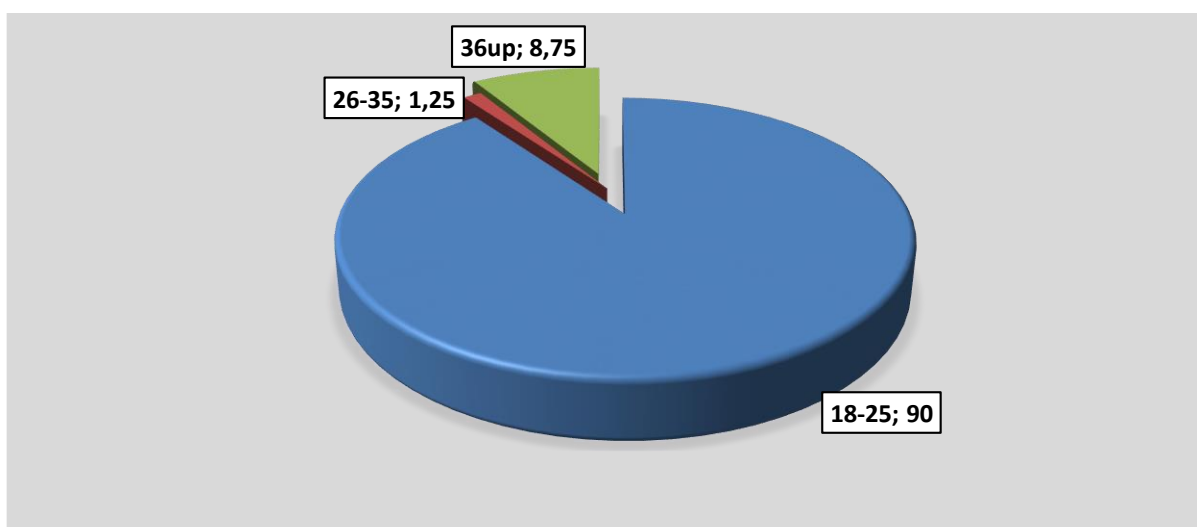


Figure 11. Students' age

The first question focuses on the age of the informants; the answers reveal that 72 students who represent 90 % of the whole sample are aged between 18 and 25 years, they are ready to learn a foreign language. One student is aged between 26 and 35 years. 7 students (8.75 %) exceed 36 years. We think that this category of students is studying English for specific purposes (ESP), and these students who often occupy different jobs want to master English to meet their professional specific needs. They are more likely to possess more effective strategies for learning because they are motivated by their desire to realize their objectives.

Item two: Your educational streaming

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Literary | 25 | 31,25 | 31,25 | 31,25 |
| Scientific | 24 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 61,3 |
| Other | 31 | 38,75 | 38,75 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 15. Students' educational streaming

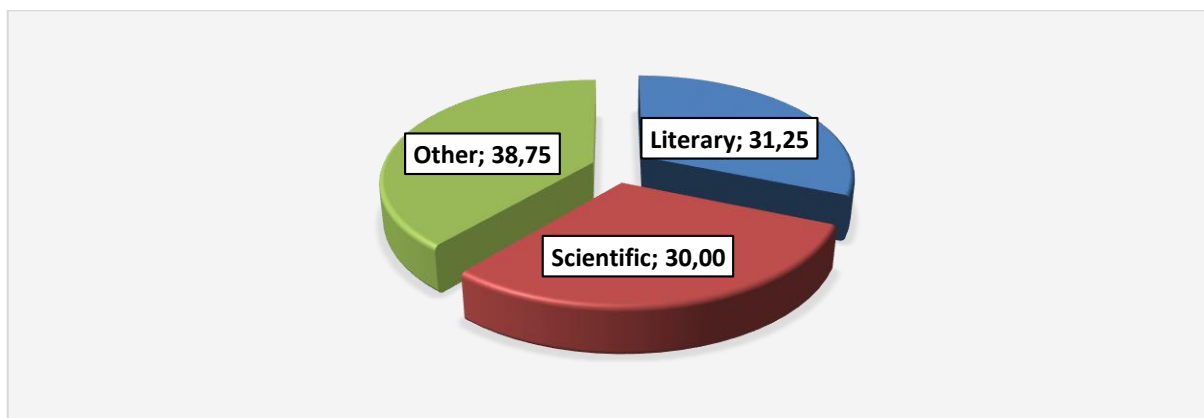


Figure12. Students' educational streaming

The main reason behind including this item was to determine the students' educational streaming at secondary school. 25 students who represent 31.25 % of the sample studied literature; this implies that they were deeply exposed to English language; hence they want to carry on their studies in the same stream. What is astonishing is that almost the same portion of students studied in scientific classes, they normally should join scientific branches but they preferred to study English. Their choice probably refers to the humble average of their baccalaureate which didn't allow them to enroll in advanced specialties. 31 students (38.75) came from other different branches; they are often impressed by English language and they want to satisfy their wishes. It is worth noting that teaching students of different educational backgrounds seems to be challenging for teachers. Students who have more advanced level feel bored when they hear what they already know about the basics of language, however the other students find what is being taught difficult to grasp. A great deal should be made by teachers to satisfy all students' needs through learning much more about teaching techniques and strategies.

Item three: Why have you chosen to study English at the university?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid To go abroad | 61 | 76,25 | 76,25 | 76,25 |
| To communicate with people | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 77,5 |
| You found no other choice | 16 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 97,5 |
| Because of parental pressure | 2 | 2,5 | 2,5 | 100,0 |

Table 16. Students' reasons for studying English

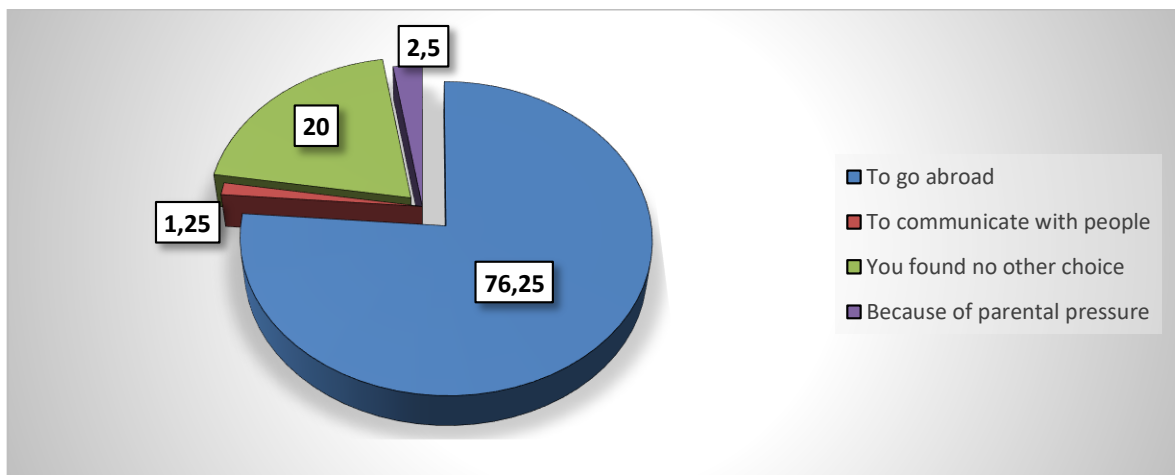


Figure 13. Students' reasons for studying English

Through this question, we wanted to know the main reasons that push students to study English. 61 participants representing 76.25 % of the sample state that they want to learn English in order to go abroad; it may be for study, job, immigration, or tourism. These students are ambitious and strongly believe that living abroad in English speaking countries requires the mastery of English. One participant (1.25 %) wants to learn English to use it for communication with people. Yes indeed, in this era of globalization, English as Lingua Franca, is the second most spoken language in the world (after Mandarin Chinese), it is often used as a default language for communication between people who speak different languages. Moreover, English is the language of the internet where more than half of the world's most visited websites are displayed in the English language. 2 participants (2.5 %) claim they were forced by their parents to study English. Though the number is small, but these students will never progress because their main interest is far away from studying English. Hence, students should be treated as adults who have the right to do what they think fit their needs.

Part two: Students' perceptions about their speaking skill.

Item four: Classify the following skills in terms of importance. (Use number from 1 to 4)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid speaking | 47 | 58,75 | 58,75 | 58,75 |
| writing | 25 | 31,25 | 31,25 | 90,0 |
| reading | 2 | 2,5 | 2,5 | 92,5 |
| listening | 6 | 7,5 | 7,5 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 17. Students' classification of language skills in terms of importance

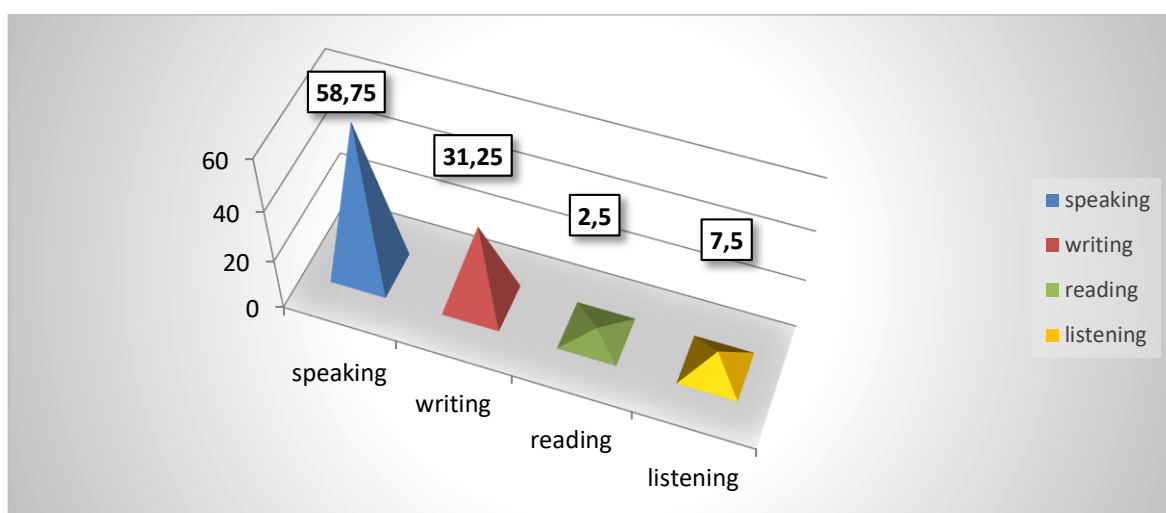


Figure14. Students' classification of language skills in terms of importance

The four language skills are perceived to be a set of capabilities that are acquired by students to comprehend and produce spoken language for effective interpersonal communication. The mastery of these skills varies from one student to another depending on their preferred objectives. Many students tend to put a lot more effort on certain skills and not enough on others. Hence the question above was asked to determine the degree of importance of language skills from the point of view of students. The results show that 47 students (58.75) prefer to improve their speaking skill first. Hence they believe that fluency is needed to hold any spoken interaction with others, and the higher their speaking level in English, the better it is for their learning process. 25 students (31.25 %) think that the writing skill is the most important. Yes the writing skill is often challenged when students pass exams; write a CV, report, grant or job application. Moreover, in this digital age, the need for writing has

increased. Emails, online chat conversation, faxes or website updates require good writing skill. Hence, when students learn how to write through the mastery of correct grammar, spelling and punctuation, they become more able to analyze what they read. 6 students (7.5 %) state that the listening skill is most important due to the fact that it precedes speaking and plays an important part in effective communication. If students are exposed to the target language, they need to develop their listening skill so they can understand what being said particularly by native speakers. The last 2 students (2.5%) believe that what they need to develop first is the reading skill. Reading books and articles, for instance, improves students' thinking and imagination as well their ability to decode hidden messages.

Item five: How do you consider your level in speaking English?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid very good | 20 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 25,0 |
| good | 20 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 25,0 |
| average | 25 | 31.25 | 31.25 | 31.25 |
| Poor | 15 | 18.75 | 18.75 | 18.75 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 18. Students' perceptions about their speaking level

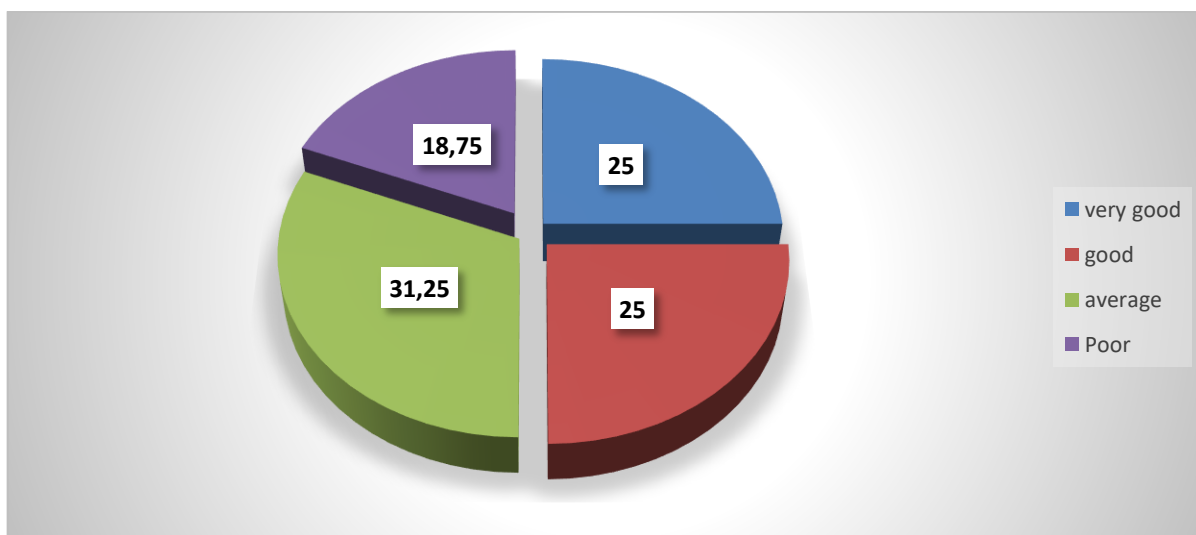


Figure 15. Students' perceptions about their speaking level

The question was asked to know how students perceive their speaking level. 20 students (25 %) think they are very good in speaking. The same number of students thinks that their level is good. 25 students (31.25) believe it is average, and 15 students (18.75) believe it is

poor. What can be deduced is that half the sample needs assistance to improve this skill due to its importance in their learning process. The situation requires teachers to allot much time to everyday speaking activities that involve either group and pair work, and to create a safe learning atmosphere that increases students' motivation and self-confidence.

Item six: How often do you speak English with classmates outside classroom?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Always | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 1,25 |
| Sometimes | 76 | 95,0 | 95,0 | 96,3 |
| Rarely | 2 | 2,5 | 2,5 | 98,8 |
| Never | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 19. Students' frequency of speaking English with classmates outside classroom

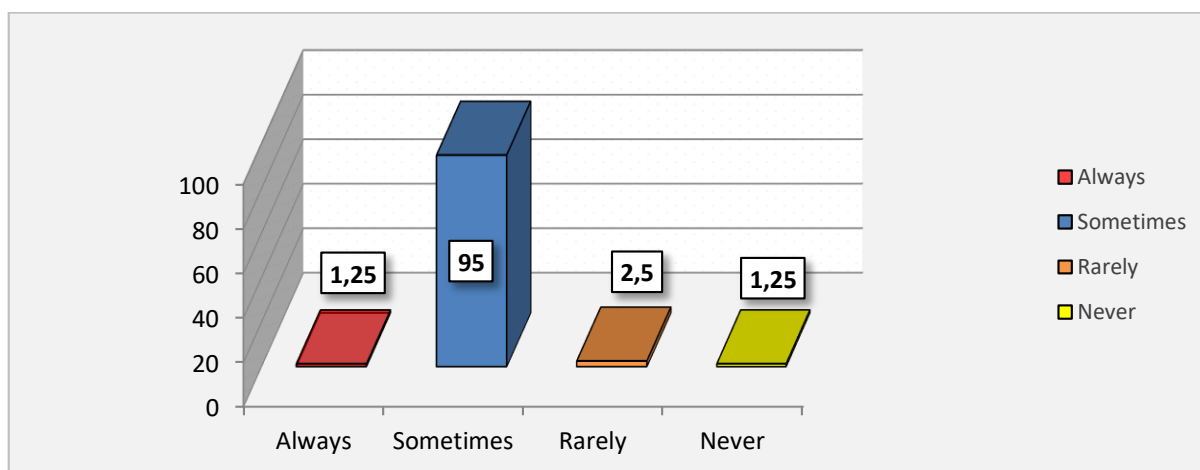


Figure 16. Students' frequency of speaking English with classmates outside classroom

One main way to maximize their foreign language practice, students should speak English outside classroom. So what happens when they leave class? The results show that 76 students ((95 %) state they sometimes speak English outside classroom, the remaining ones rarely or never do, and except one student never does. Students are responsible o their learning progress, hence they are asked to make of the following advices as habits in order to improve their speaking skill. They should agree to speak only English at specific times, such as after the lesson, they should frequently read an English language magazine and books which have been already read in native language or have been made into films, they should also watch

English language news programs on TV. They need to practice specific communication situations on their own, at home in front of the mirror and imagine introducing themselves to audience, giving an interview or asking for information.

Item seven: How often do you participate in Oral Expression session?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Always | 15 | 18,75 | 18,75 | 18,75 |
| Sometimes | 3 | 3,75 | 3,75 | 22,5 |
| Rarely | 61 | 76,25 | 76,25 | 98,8 |
| Never | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 20. Students’ frequency of participating in Oral Expression session

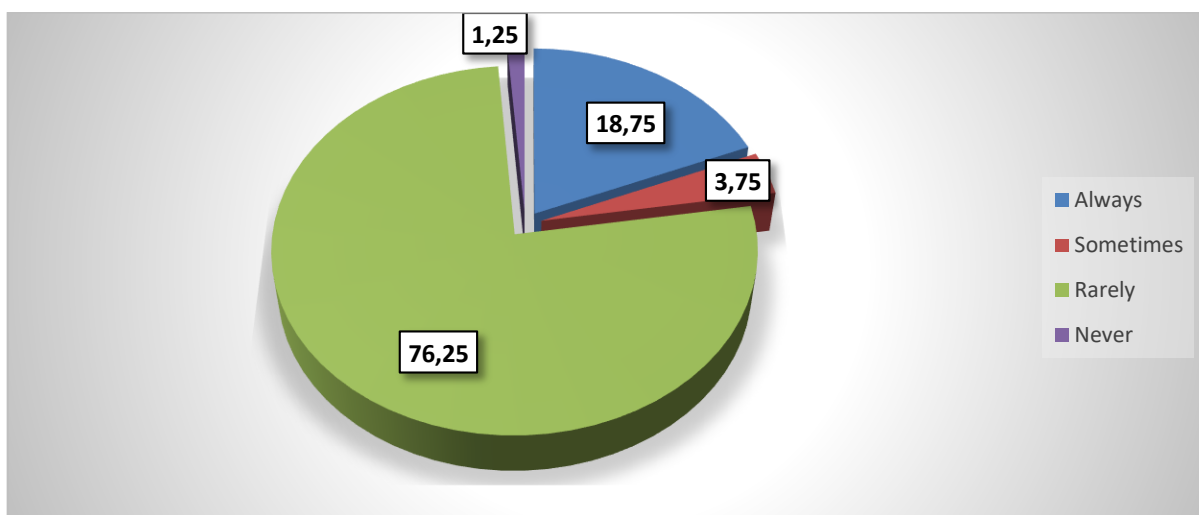


Figure 17. Students’ frequency of participating in Oral Expression session

The question above was asked to seek how often students participate in OE session, and to see whether they are aware of this important setting to practice the target language. The results are shocking; 61 students (76.25 %) declare they rarely participate. We believe that this problem is often related to students’ psychological problems such as shyness, anxiety, lack of motivation, and lack of self-confidence. But if students do not believe that interacting during the lecture is likely to improve their speaking skill, they will difficultly progress. So the reasons behind their hesitation to participate will be provided with details in the following item analysis. 4 students (5 %) state they rarely or never participate, however 15 students

(18.75 %) say they always participate, which means they are self-confident, motivated, and have specific objectives.

Item eight: If rarely or never, is it because of?

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|---------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | The poor level of English | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 1,25 |
| | Anxiety | 8 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 11,3 |
| | Lack of motivation and interest | 2 | 2,5 | 2,5 | 13,8 |
| | Lack of self confidence | 69 | 86,25 | 86,25 | 100,0 |

Table 21. Reasons of lack of participation in Oral Expression session

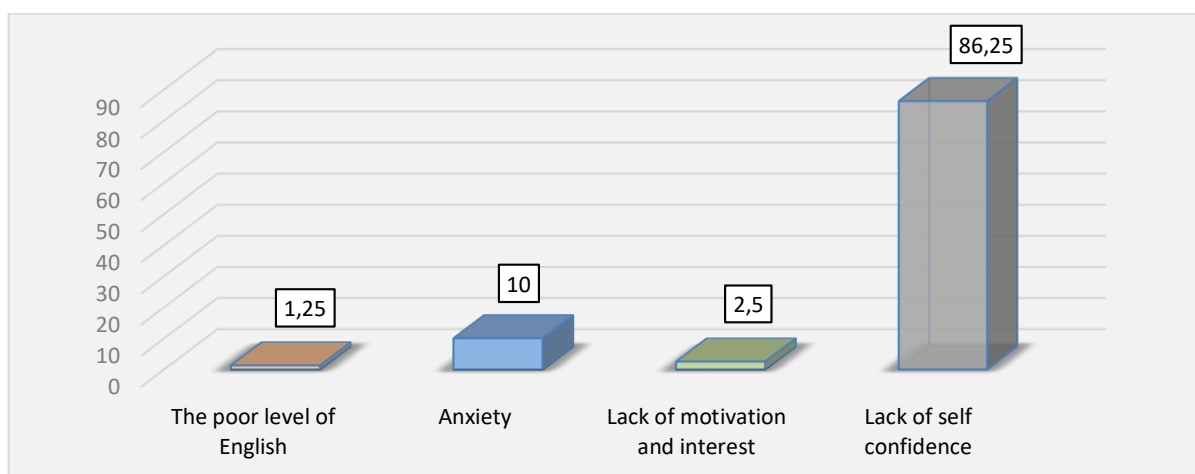


Figure 18. Reasons of lack of participation in Oral Expression session

As stated before, the reasons of students’ lack of participation are numerous. The majority of students; 69 students representing 86.25 % suffer from the lack of self-confidence. These students have low self-esteem, they often judge themselves to be inferior to others, and do not take the initiative to set or pursue personal goals. They are easily panicked and overwhelmed because of the fear of being criticized. It is agreed upon that self-confidence develops through what students hear about themselves particularly from their teachers. Hence the latter are asked to use supportive teaching strategies such as praising and acknowledging students’ accomplishments, both in private or in front of their classmates, avoid interrupting and correcting every single mistake they make, give them freedom to select their own activities, and show enthusiasm for both the subject being taught and students’ success. 8 students (10 %) confess they suffer from anxiety. Students should know that experiencing occasional anxiety is a normal part of life, and it can be diminished if its causes are recognized. Teachers

from their side have to treat them in a different way to increase their morale. They should encourage their output, accept videotape presentations instead of whole class ones, and teach them anxiety reduction strategies. 2 students (2.5 %) avoid participation because of lack of motivation and interest probably because studying English was not their personal choice, and one student refers the problem to his/her poor linguistic competence.

Item nine: Do you find difficulties when speaking English?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 78 | 97,5 | 97,5 | 97,5 |
| no | 2 | 2,5 | 2,5 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 22. Students’ speaking difficulties

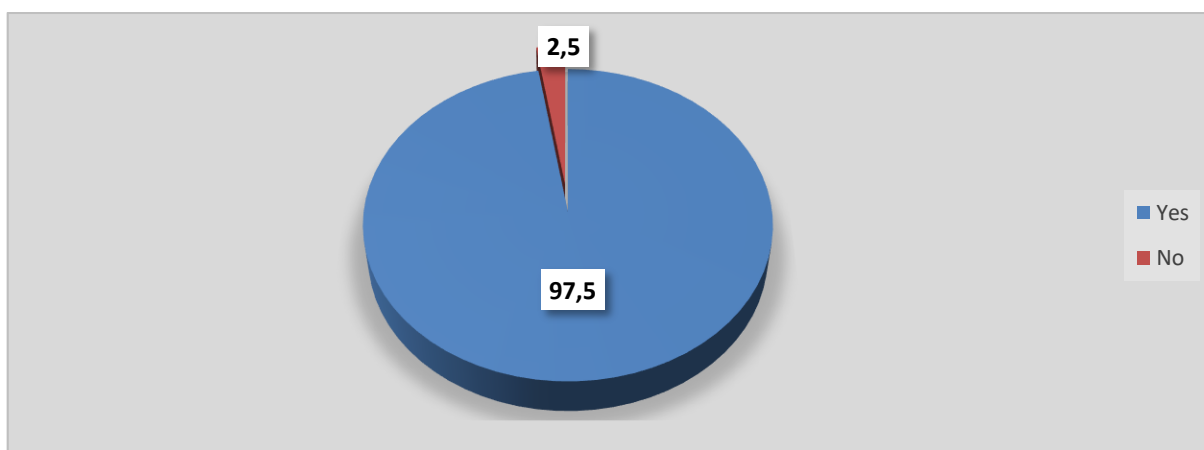


Figure 19. Students’ speaking difficulties

Item ten: If yes, is it because of?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Lack of vocabulary | 31 | 38,75 | 38,75 | 38,75 |
| Poor pronunciation | 14 | 17,5 | 17,5 | 56,3 |
| Lack of grammatical rules | 16 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 76,3 |
| Lack of fluency | 14 | 17,5 | 17,5 | 93,8 |
| other | 5 | 6,25 | 6,25 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 23. Reasons of students’ speaking difficulties

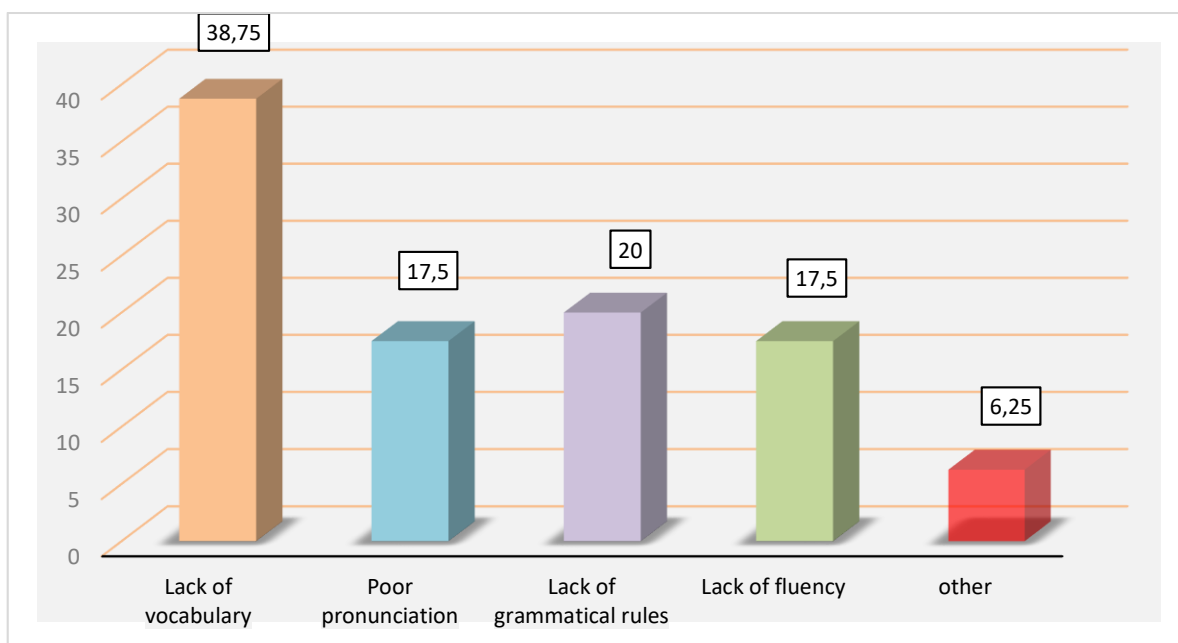


Figure 20. Reasons of students' speaking difficulties

Items nine and ten were administered to know whether students face speaking difficulties and the main causes that hinder them from speaking (from a linguistic perspective). 78 students (97.5 %) state they find difficulties, however only 2 students (2.5 %) claim they have no problem with speaking. 31 students (38.75 %) do not possess sufficient amount of vocabulary to speak comfortably. Poor vocabulary can be caused by weak reading and listening to authentic materials such as stories, movies and news. This category of students should learn much more about achievement strategies such as paraphrasing, topic avoidance, word coinage, or literal translation. 16 students (20 %) refer the problem to grammatical rules such as sentence structure and parts of speech, which should be acquired in early stages or learning a foreign language. The same number of students refers the problem to the lack of fluency. Students who are not fluent speakers regularly translate, repeat themselves, make pauses, and correct their grammar mistakes. To improve their fluency, they have to confident and to seize every opportunity in the class to speak English with classmates and teachers. When communicating, they should focus on meaning rather on form and to be clear about the message they want to convey. If they feel that their communication is going to be cut, they can compensate through using pause and fillers and other hesitation devices.

Item eleven: When facing difficulties in speaking, do you know any speaking strategies to overcome the problem?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 27 | 33,75 | 33,75 | 33,75 |
| no | 53 | 66,25 | 66, | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 24. Students' abilities to overcome speaking difficulties

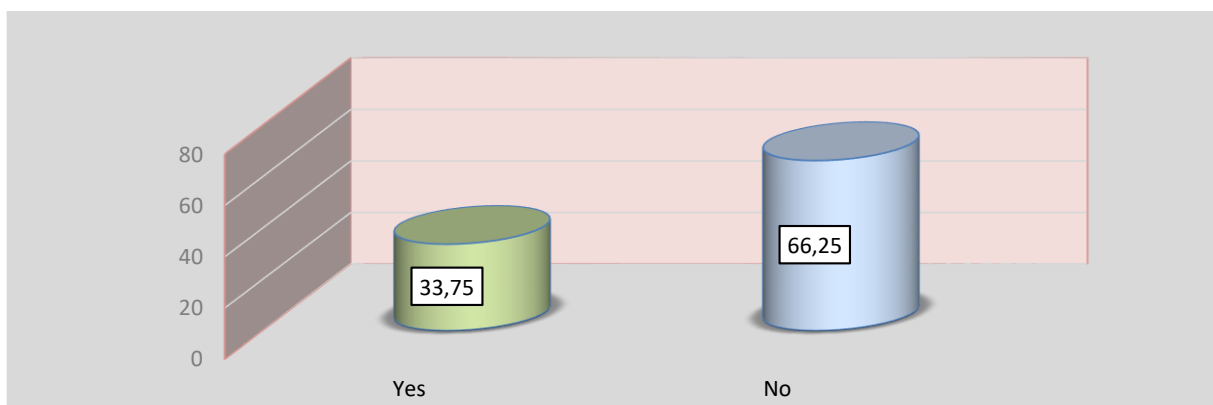


Figure 21. Students' abilities to overcome speaking difficulties

Item twelve: If yes, would you say how?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Paraphrasing (circumlocution) | 10 | 37.03 | 37.03 | 37.03 |
| Literal translation | 8 | 29.62 | 29.62 | 29.62 |
| Body language and miming | 6 | 22.22 | 22.22 | 22.22 |
| Ask for help | 3 | 11.11 | 11,11 | 11.11 |
| Total | 27 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 25. Students' strategies to overcome speaking difficulties

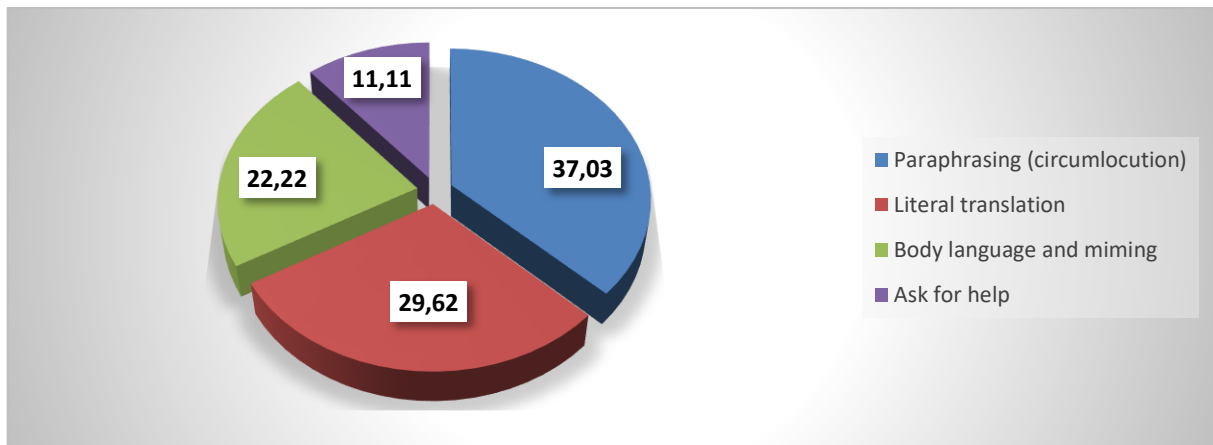


Figure 22. Students' strategies to overcome speaking difficulties

Items eleven and twelve are used to know students' awareness about communication strategies used in case of speaking difficulties. 53 students (66.3 %) state they do not any communication strategy. We think that students were not taught these communication strategies in the first and the second year too. 27 students (33.8 %) say they know some communication strategies. This category of students can be divided into 4 types: 10 students (37.03 %) use paraphrasing. 8 students (29.62 %) use literal translation. 6 students (22.22 %) use body language and miming, and 3 students (11.11 %) ask for help. These strategies are used to handle communication breakdowns and to communicate more effectively. The most needed ones are: avoidance (reduction) strategies and achievement (compensatory) strategies. Sometimes students need to use non-verbal communication strategies such as facial expression, body language, or voice tone to make their message more clear and understood.

Item thirteen: Do you feel comfortable in the Oral Expression class?

Table 26. Degree of students' comfort in Oral Expression class

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 54 | 67,5 | 67,5 | 67,5 |
| no | 26 | 32,5 | 32,5 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

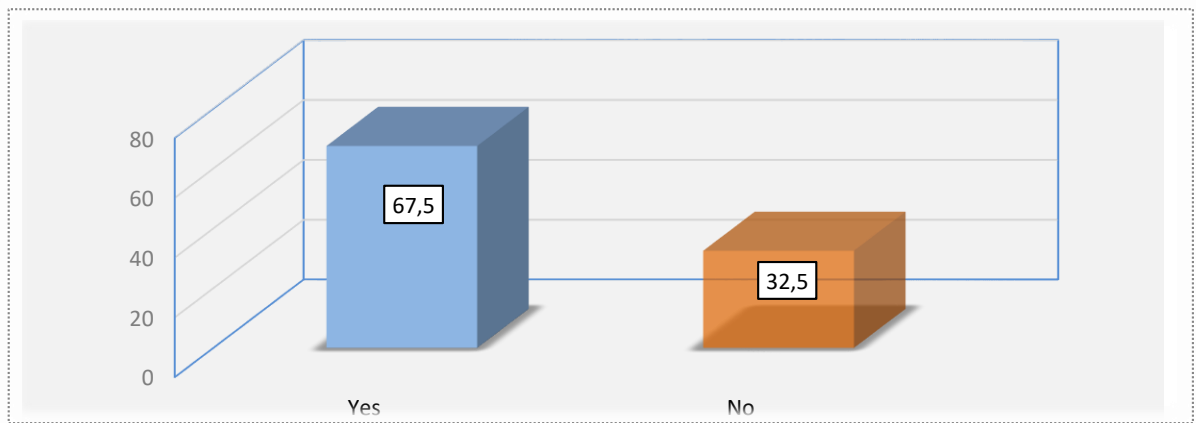


Figure 23. Degree of students comfort in Oral Expression class

Item fourteen: If no, what makes you feel so?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid the teacher | 16 | 61.53 | 61.53 | 61.53 |
| Your classmates | 3 | 11.53 | 11.53 | 11.53 |
| The activities proposed by the teacher | 7 | 25.92 | 25.92 | 25.92 |
| other | 2 | 7.40 | 7.40 | 7.40 |
| Total | 26 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 27. Reasons of students' discomfort in Oral Expression class

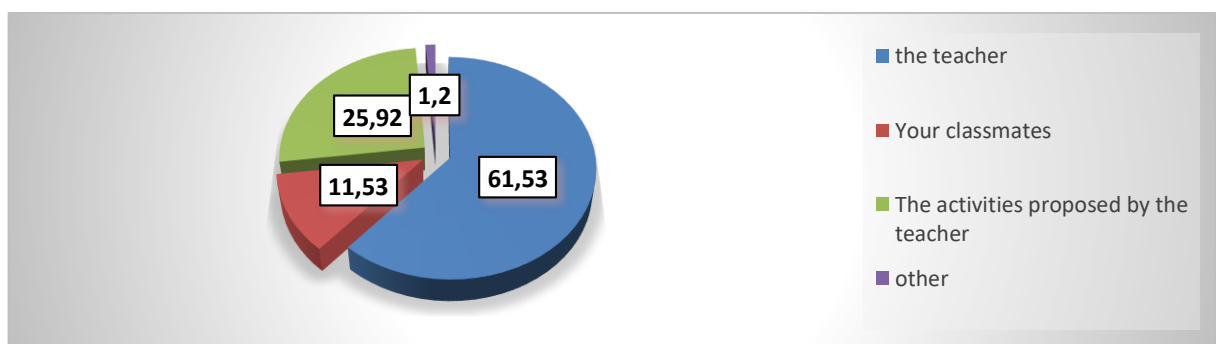


Figure 24. Table: Reasons of students' discomfort in Oral Expression class

Students' learning is often influenced most directly by classroom environment; hence creating a good classroom atmosphere for students is a crucial factor that leads to the improvement of their output. The items thirteen and fourteen were used to know to what extent students feel comfortable in OE session, and what makes them feel so. The results indicate that 54 students (67.5 %) claim they feel comfortable whereas 26 students (32.5 %)

don't. Among who said no, 16 students (61.53 %) claim that the cause refers to the teacher. This indicates that students' relationships with their teacher seem to be perturbed; hence if these students have close, positive and supportive relationships with their teachers, they will attain higher levels of achievements. Teachers have much responsibility to make students engage in learning through constructive guidance and praise. For example they should be enthusiastic to find out their interests, initiate casual conversation, listen to their propositions, compliment their reactions, incorporate humor in their daily lessons, and sharing jokes related to the content in order to make them respond positively.

7 students (25.92 %) state that their discomfort pertains to the activities proposed by their teacher. In other words, students do not appreciate these activities; hence the selection of learning activities is a crucial role of the teacher and needs to be directed by some principles. Teachers should give students a choice of assignments on a particular topic or ask them to design one of their own. They should also connect activities to the lives of students and what they already know in order to make them engaged, motivated, and self-regulated learners. 3 students (11.53 %) say that they do not feel comfortable because of their classmates. This category of students seems to be passive and negatively affected by dominant students. Indeed, students exhibit individual differences in the classroom participation reflected by silence and dominance depending on their personalities. Silence in interactional context may be interpreted as a negative politeness or an indicative of inability to speak in front of dominant classmate. It's up to the teacher to make a balance when distributing the floors in order to create a safe classroom that encourage students to participate particularly the ones who are resistant to speak. 2 students (7.40 %) claim that the problem refers to other factors.

Item fifteen: Are you satisfied with the way the Oral Expression course is presented?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 53 | 66,25 | 66,25 | 66,25 |
| no | 27 | 33,75 | 33,75 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 28. Students' degree of satisfaction with their teacher's presentation of Oral Expression course

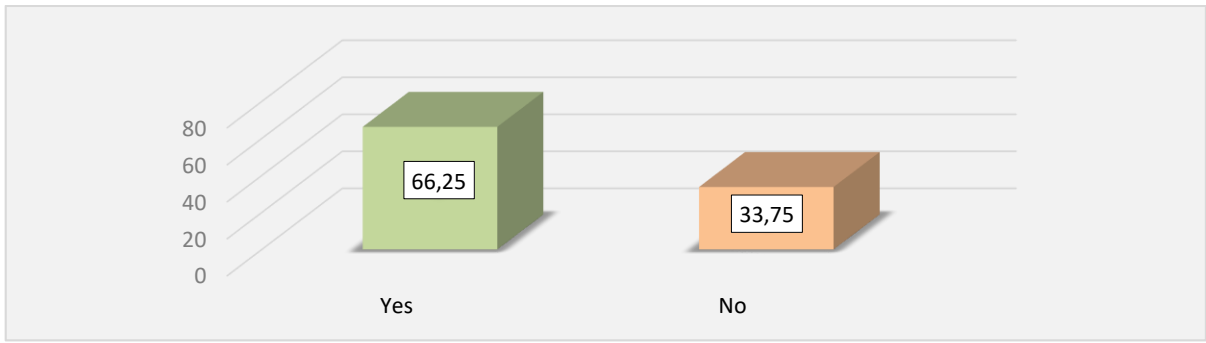


Figure 25. Table: Students' degree of satisfaction with their teacher's presentation of OE course

Item sixteen: If "no", give your comments

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | | | | |
| Absence of speaking opportunities | 11 | 40.74 | 40.74 | 40.74 |
| Lack of listening materials | 9 | 33.33 | 33.33 | 33.33 |
| Boring and uninteresting activities | 7 | 25,92 | 25,92 | 25.92 |
| Total | 27 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 29. Students' comments on their dissatisfaction with their teacher's presentation of OE course

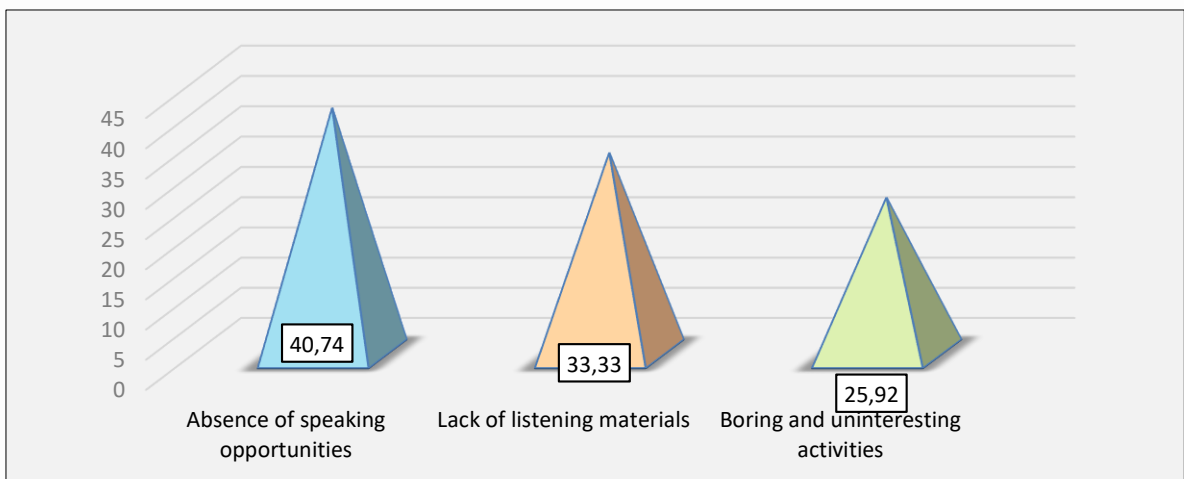


Figure 26. Students' comments on their dissatisfaction with their teacher's presentation of OE course

Items fifteen and sixteen seek for determining students' impressions about the teacher's presentation of OE course, and the main causes of their dissatisfaction. 53 students (66.25 %) state that they are satisfied with the way OE course is presented. 27 students (33.75 %) claim they are not satisfied. Among these 27 students, 11 students (40.74 %) refer their dissatisfaction to the absence of speaking activities. Speaking activities can and should be highly motivating. Teachers should create a classroom environment where students have real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful task. Among the activities students prefer to perform: discussion, role play, simulation, information gap, brainstorming, storytelling, interview, story completion, and games. Teachers are supposed to provide students maximum opportunity to speak, indicate positive signs when commenting on their responses, avoid immediate correction of mistakes, and provide needed vocabulary.

9 students (33.33 %) complain against the lack of listening materials. To be able to engage in real-life conversations and decode messages, students need to listen carefully to the speed, the intonation, and accent of the target language. Students cannot reach this stage unless they are provided with listening materials such as authentic materials and course book materials such as live and simulated lectures and seminars, radio emissions, and songs. 7 students (25.92 %) claim that the teacher's activities are boring and uninteresting. If they really want their students to be interested in what they are taught, teachers need to get them involved in interactive activities, hence the more interactive the lessons are, the fewer students will be bored. Teachers can create a choice menu for a subject, topic, or a concept, and provide students the option to choose the ones they want to tackle. Moreover, students should be allowed to use their own materials and technological devices instead of teachers' classical handouts and textbooks.

Item seventeen: How often are you given turns by Oral Expression (OE) teacher to express your ideas?

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Never | 27 | 33,75 | 33,75 | 33,75 |
| | Rarely | 7 | 8,75 | 8,75 | 42,5 |
| | sometimes | 29 | 36,25 | 36,25 | 78,8 |
| | Always | 17 | 21,25 | 21,25 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 30. Frequency of turns given by OE teacher to students to express their ideas

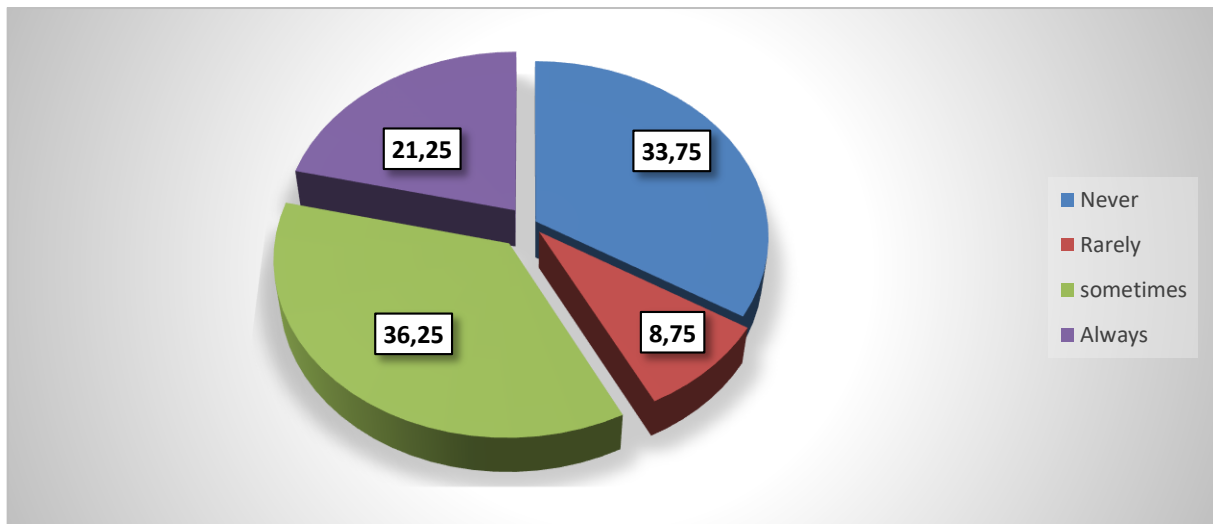


Figure 27. Frequency of turns given by OE teacher to students to express their ideas

The item above seeks to know to what extent students are given turns by their OE teacher to express their ideas. The results show that 27 students (33.75) note that they are never given the floor to speak. This type of teachers seems to play a dominant role in the classroom, students exclusively listen, and therefore collaboration is discouraged. If students are not allowed to express themselves, they will never direct their own learning. 29 students (36.25 %) state that their teacher sometimes gives them turns to speak. These teachers make a balance in delivering turns, they try to make of their teaching a mixture of teacher centered leaning which gives them the right to select the pedagogical ways transfer knowledge to the students, and learner centered teaching which directly involves students in their learning process . 7 students claim that their teacher rarely gives them turns to speak. They are not invited to contribute in their learning process which may have a negative impact on their learning behaviors such as lack of motivation and interest. Fortunately, 17 students (21.25 %) state that they are always given the opportunity to speak. Yes! This is what students need. Students consider themselves as partners, and want to be given voice in the classroom. To conclude, since teachers know their classrooms better than anyone, they should decide what works best for them and their students, they need to use a combination of approaches to ensure that all students' needs are met though providing them a space to interact and tell their opinions.

Item eighteen: Does your Oral Expression teacher provide you with opportunities to interact with your classmates?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 1,25 |
| Rarely | 17 | 21,25 | 21,25 | 21,25 |
| Always | 62 | 77,5 | 77,5 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 31. Students' responses about how often does their OE teacher provide them with opportunities to interact with each other.

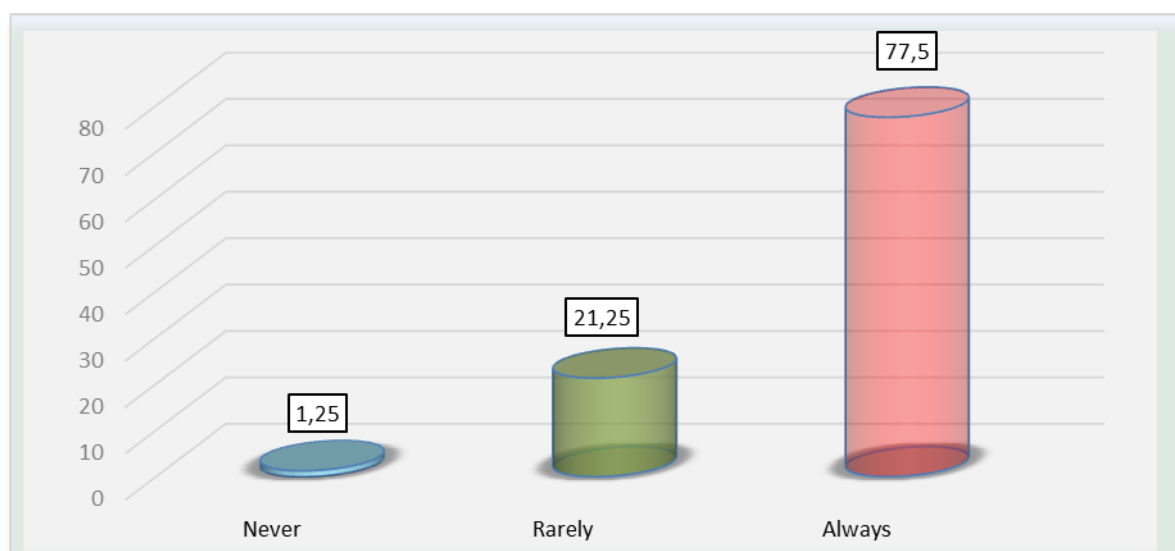


Figure 28. Students' responses about how often does their OE teacher provide them with opportunities to interact with each other.

The organization of students' classroom interaction is among the most important elements that provide a supportive learning environment and therefore ensure students' output particularly in terms of spoken language. Hence it is necessary for teachers to provide students with opportunities to interact with each other so they can practice the target language freely. From this perspective, the item above was used to recognize how often OE teacher

allows their students to interact with each other in the classroom. 62 students (77.5 %) state that they are always given the opportunity to interact. Unlike in the past, language teaching requires students' interaction rather than just listening to the teacher. It enhances the development of two important language skills: speaking and listening. Students' classroom interaction may take different forms such as conversation, discussion, and debate. Through small group interaction, or entire class interaction, students can gain insight about different people's personalities and conversational situations, and test their speaking skill and communication strategies as well. If students maximize the language practice through collaborative tasks, they will not only promote language development but also will foster the development of social skill such as politeness and turn taking. The 17 remaining students (21.25 %) claim they are rarely given the opportunity to interact. We think that the teacher uses language teaching approaches that stress on other elements such as content or tasks.

Item nineteen: How often is information gap activity used by your Oral Expression teacher?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 4 | 5,0 | 5,0 | 5,0 |
| Rarely | 12 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 20,0 |
| sometimes | 49 | 61,25 | 61,25 | 81,3 |
| Always | 15 | 18,75 | 18,75 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 32. OE teacher's frequency of using information gap activities

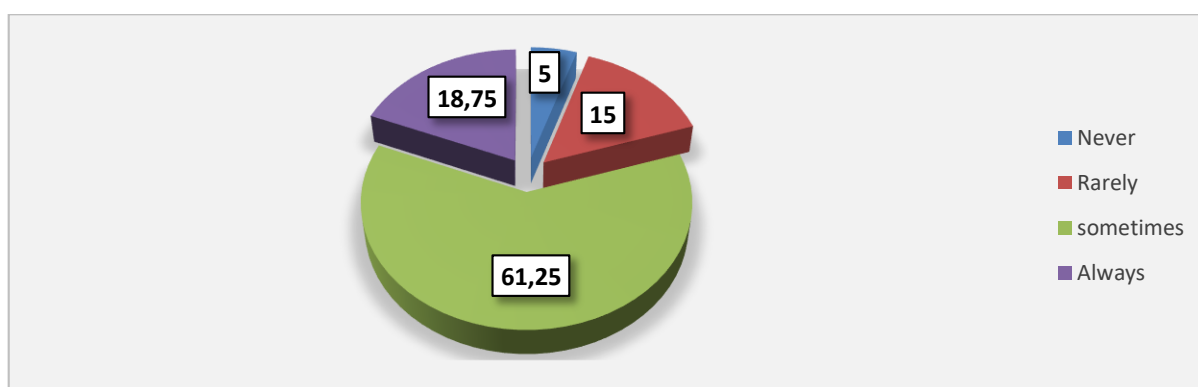


Figure 29. OE teacher's frequency of using information gap activities

To promote the target language use, OE teachers often search for activities that provide meaningful speaking opportunities, and make classrooms more interactive. Among these useful activities, information gap activities. Hence the item above seeks to know to what extent OE teachers use them. The results show that 15 students (18.75 %) claim that information gap activity is always used by the teacher, whereas 49 students (61.25 %) claim it is sometimes used by the teacher. The number seems to be important because the teachers are aware of its positive effect on the improvement of the students' communication skills. The activity is meaningful; all students are equally involved in the process, and they are all moving towards a specific purpose. Students deal with the same task to find out certain information, and they are also motivated because they shift from a more structured environment into a more communicative environment with extensive use of the target language. Teachers should use this activity since it requires very little preparation but can stimulate interaction between students and increase their confidence as well. 16 students (20 %) state that their teachers rarely or never apply this activity in the classroom.

Item twenty: Does your OE teacher use pictures, videotapes, audiotapes...etc. (scaffolding)?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 55 | 68,27 | 68,75 | 68,75 |
| Rarely | 16 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 88,8 |
| sometimes | 8 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 98,8 |
| Always | 1 | 1,25 | 1,25 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 33. OE teacher's frequency of using audiovisual aids

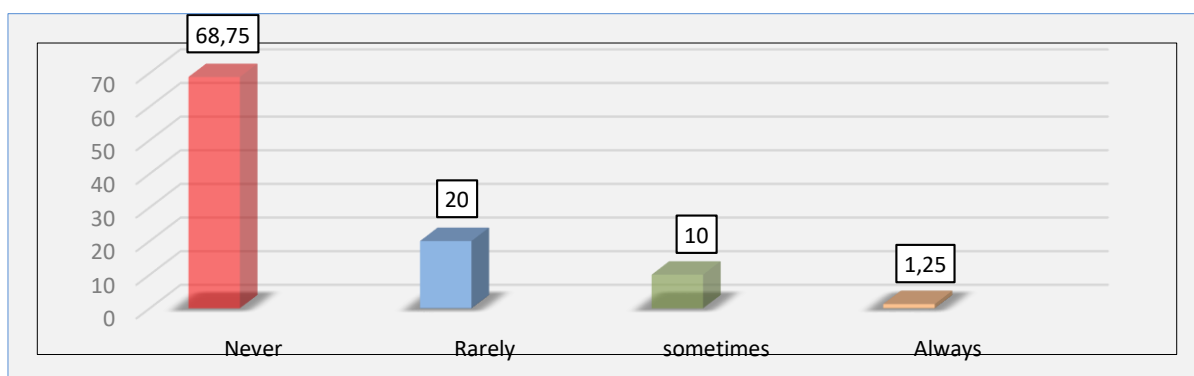


Figure 30. OE teacher's frequency of using audiovisual aids

It is widely advocated to diversify teaching materials particularly visual aids in order to facilitate the transmission of knowledge into students' minds. While words tend to be abstract and difficult to memorize, visual aids are more concrete, easier to recall, and can have a positive impact on how students retain information. The item above tackles the importance of visual aids as scaffolding tools and how often OE teachers use them in their teaching. The statistics show that except one teacher who always uses visual aids, 55 teachers (68.75 %) never use them, 16 teachers (20 %) rarely use them, and only 8 teachers (10 %) sometimes do. The situation is not encouraging to promote teaching because in this era of technology, visual aids such as data show, projectors, audiotapes, videotapes, and posters have become indispensable in teaching. Longer explanations provided in books which are often boring for many students should be replaced by illustrated presentation of issues under study. In other words, learning is better enjoyed if the visualization of data and images are clearer and understandable.

Item twenty one: Which of the following do you prefer to use in the classroom?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Published textbooks | 20 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 25,0 |
| teacher' s topics | 20 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 50,0 |
| students' topics | 40 | 50,0 | 50,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 34. Students' preferred materials

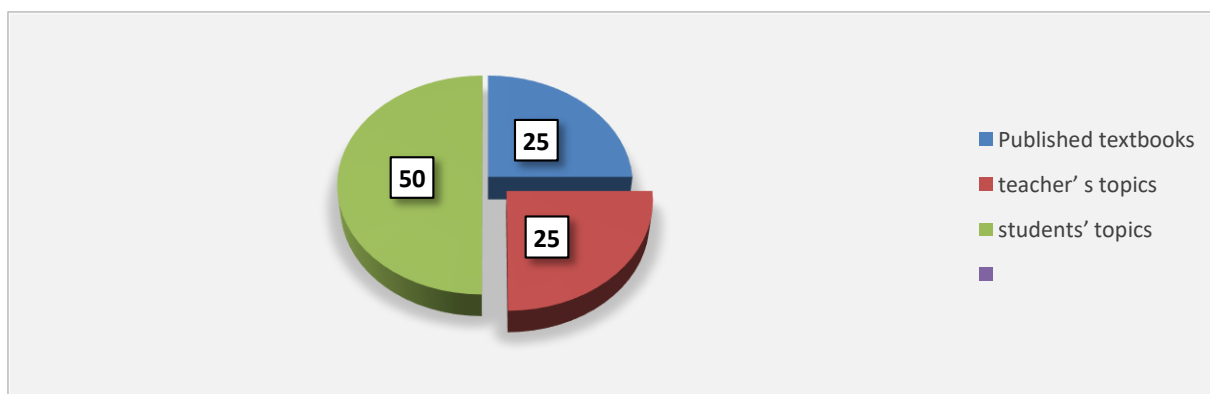


Figure 31. Students preferred materials

The item above deals with one of the tenets of Dogme ELT which is materials light (minimizing the use of published textbooks), and to look for the preferences of students. 20

students (25 %) prefer to be taught through using published textbooks. These students prefer ready-made textbooks because these textbooks provide them with a set of visuals, activities, readings which are considered as a kind of road map of the course and a framework or guide that help them organize their learning. Students also can prepare in advance for the lesson and to set a plan to cover a topic in some detail. 20 students (25 %) prefer their teacher’s topics. Although there has been a shift from traditional teacher centered approach to student centered approach, but these students still trust in their teachers as a source of input. They feel that their topics can satisfy their needs and provide them with sufficient information through which they can enrich their knowledge. 40 students (50 %) prefer to use their own topics. Indeed, students are more motivated and engaged in their learning if they choose their own topics where they can express their ideas, feelings, and interests with comfort.

Item twenty two: Does your OE teacher chat with you at the beginning of the lesson?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 10 | 12,5 | 12,5 | 12,5 |
| Rarely | 12 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 27,5 |
| sometimes | 42 | 52,5 | 52,5 | 80,0 |
| Always | 16 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 100,0 |

Table 35. OE teachers’ frequency of chatting with students at the beginning of the lesson

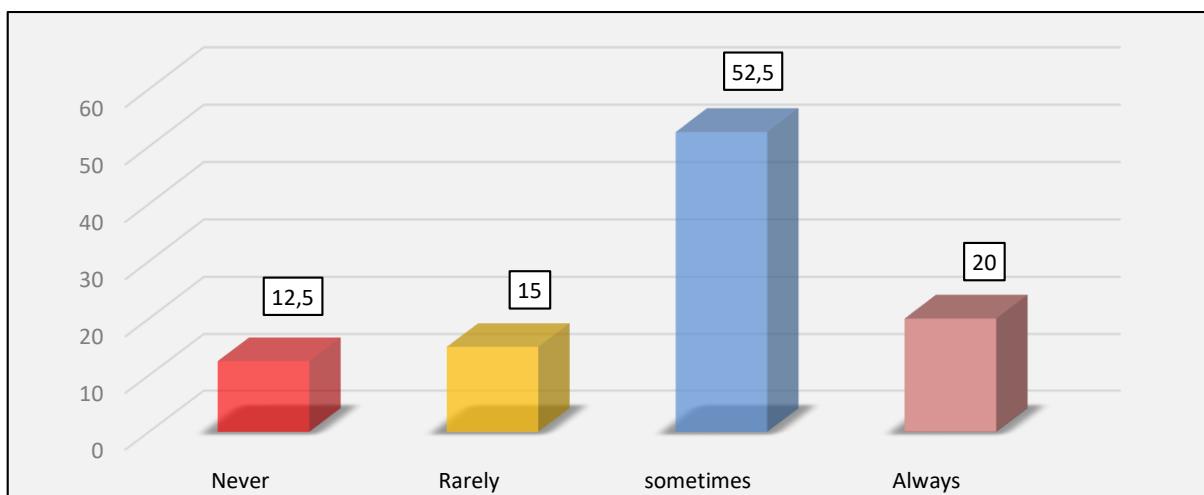


Figure 32. OE teachers’ frequency of chatting with students at the beginning of the lesson

The teacher can play a great part in involving the students in the learning process, and students can easily learn when they feel comfortable in their surroundings. They need to be close to their teacher who has to break the ice with them. One main effective way to do it is to chat with them at the beginning of the lecture. The item above seeks how often the OE teacher converse with the students before broaching the lesson. The results show that 16 teachers (20 %) always chat with their students, and 42 teachers (52.5 %) sometimes do. 12 teachers (15 %) rarely chat and 10 teachers (12.5 %) never do. It is worth noting that establishing a good rapport with students will enable them to interact comfortably with their teacher. Hence it is advised to devote the first few minutes of each lecture to discuss with them about current issues concerning politics, sport, cinema, fashion, hobbies ...etc.

Item twenty three: Does your teacher act with you

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Manager | 3 | 3,75 | 3,75 | 3,75 |
| Participant | 16 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 23,8 |
| Classmate | 5 | 6,25 | 6,25 | 30,0 |
| Friend | 56 | 70,0 | 70,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 36. Teacher-student relationship as perceived by students

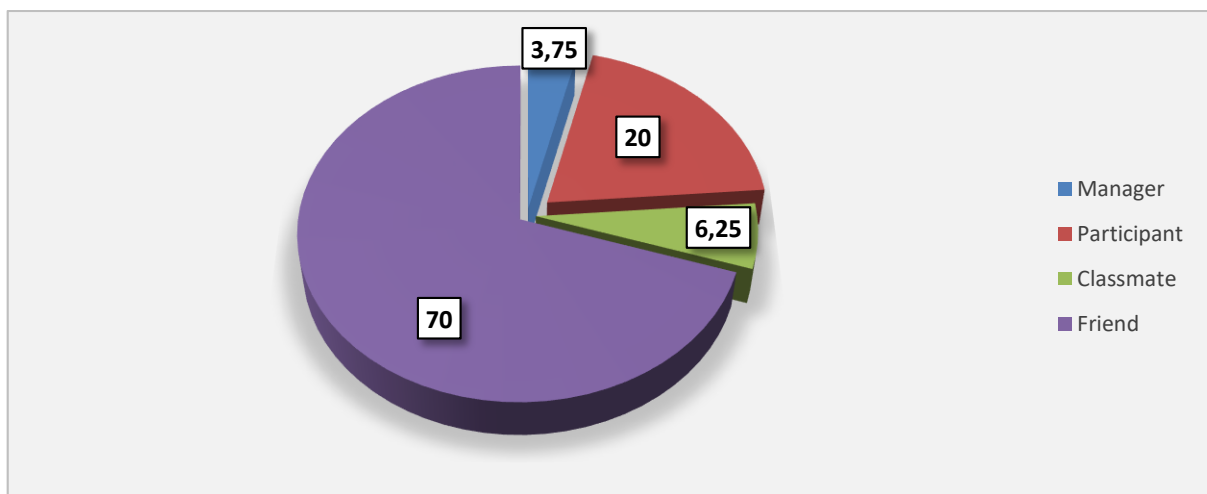


Figure 33. Teacher-student relationship as perceived by students

Developing positive relationships between teacher and student is a fundamental aspect of quality teaching and student learning. Since all teachers are not alike, they shape relationships in different ways. Hence it is important to know how students want their teacher treat them. The item above answers the question. The results show that 56 teachers (70 %) treat their students as friends. 16 teachers (20 %) act as participants in the classroom. 5 teachers (6.25 %) behave as classmates, and only 3 teachers (3.75 %) act as managers. When the teacher considers him/herself as a friend, students are more open to learning and classroom turns into collaborative environment where they are more willing to interact spontaneously and meaningfully. Students want their teacher to be a part of the team who behaves as a classmate or a participant and not a dominant one. They are encouraged and motivated to grow both academically and personally if their relationship with their teacher is based on mutual respect

Item twenty four: Do you think the activities suggested by your OE teacher satisfy your needs and interests?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes | 55 | 68,75 | 68,75 | 68,75 |
| No | 12 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 83,8 |
| Somehow | 13 | 16,25 | 16,25 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 37. Students’ opinion about OE teacher’s activities

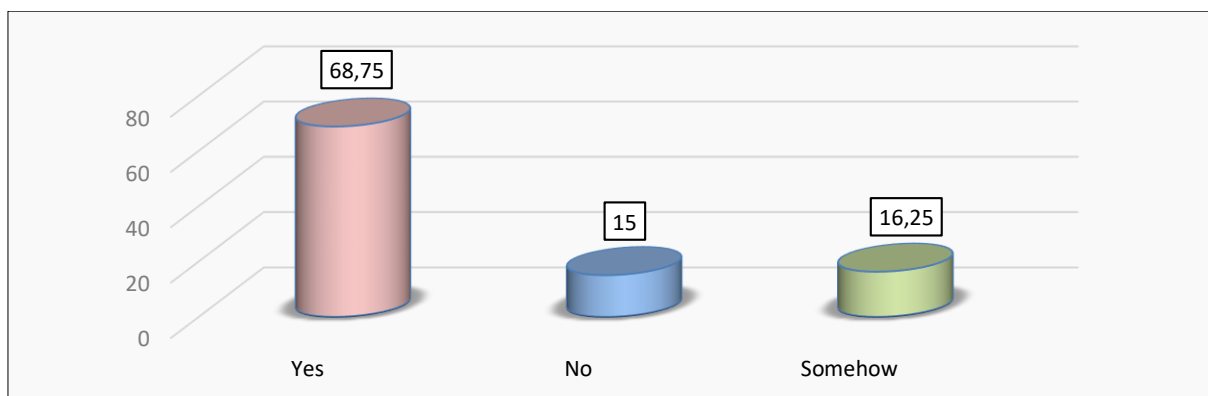


Figure 34. Students’ opinion about OE teacher’s activities

The item above reveals what students think of their OE teacher’s activities. 55 students (68.75 %) believe that the activities suggested by their teacher satisfy their needs. 13 students

(16.25 %) think that these activities satisfy their needs by some means. 12 students (15 %) do not think at all that these activities overlap with their interests. Being an effective teacher requires the implementation of activities that meet students' individual needs. Teachers should assign classroom activities not only of their own but also from students' choice. Many factors influence students' preference for learning activities such as language level, classroom environment, and students' personality, motivation and perceptions of usefulness or importance of these activities. The way teachers choose and deliver activities reflects the teaching styles and methods they apply; hence they should select the best style and method through which the transmission of information will be appreciated by students. No one denies that teachers and students may have different opinions about which types of activities are most useful. They sometimes see them in diverse ways that do not always match. Even though teachers are aware of what students need or prefer, but they do not implement the activities that are admired by students because they know better what fits their students' needs. What is needed from teachers is to welcome students' opinions and ideas into the flow of the activity and to give them time to understand and absorb the activity by themselves.

Item twenty five: If no, would you please say what do you suggest?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid give turns to students to speak | 07 | 58,33 | 58,33 | 100,0 |
| Tackle social and real life problems | 05 | 41,66 | 41,66 | 100,0 |
| Total | 12 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 38. The nature of classroom activities suggested by students

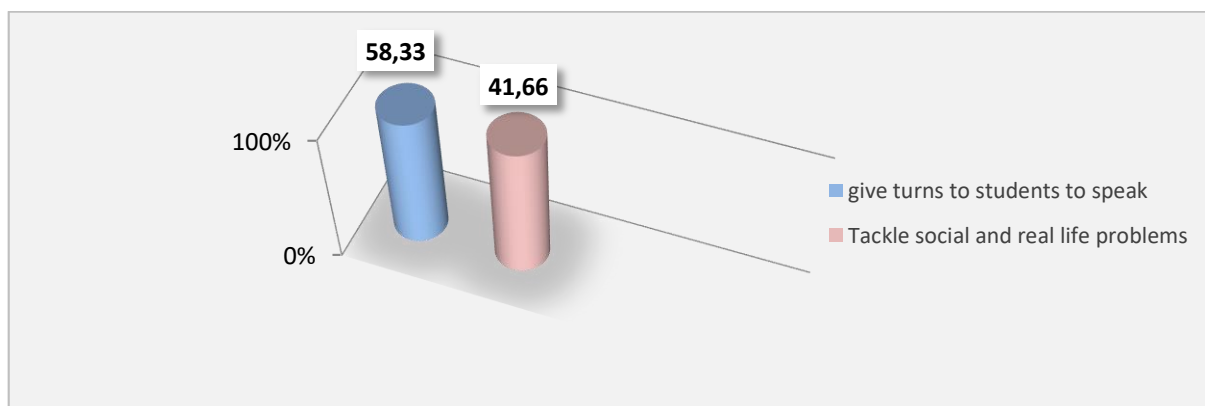


Figure 35. The nature of classroom activities suggested by students

Among the 12 students who are not satisfied with the activities provided by their students, 07 students (58.33 %) suggest to be given turns to speak, whereas 5 students (41.66 %) suggest activities that tackle their social and real life problems. Teachers should select activities that involve students in discussion. Students, then, will engage in conversation mainly if the topic is relevant to current issues and events. Students' interests in a topic hold many advantages. When a topic is related to students' likes, engagement raises, motivation increases, and discussion becomes indispensable element in the classroom. If students feel they are contributing to an authentic conversation, they will speak without hesitation and barriers. Some students do not perceive activities as being meaningful because these activities are not connected with their previous knowledge and experience, and therefore they negatively affect their learning and achievement. Hence making learning contextual to students' real-world experience is a key technique to improve their participation in the classroom.

Item twenty six: Does your Oral Expression teacher allow you to discuss your own topics and texts?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 55 | 68,75 | 68,75 | 68,75 |
| Rarely | 22 | 27,5 | 27,5 | 96,3 |
| Always | 3 | 3,75 | 3,75 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 39. Frequency of teacher's permission for students to discuss their own topics

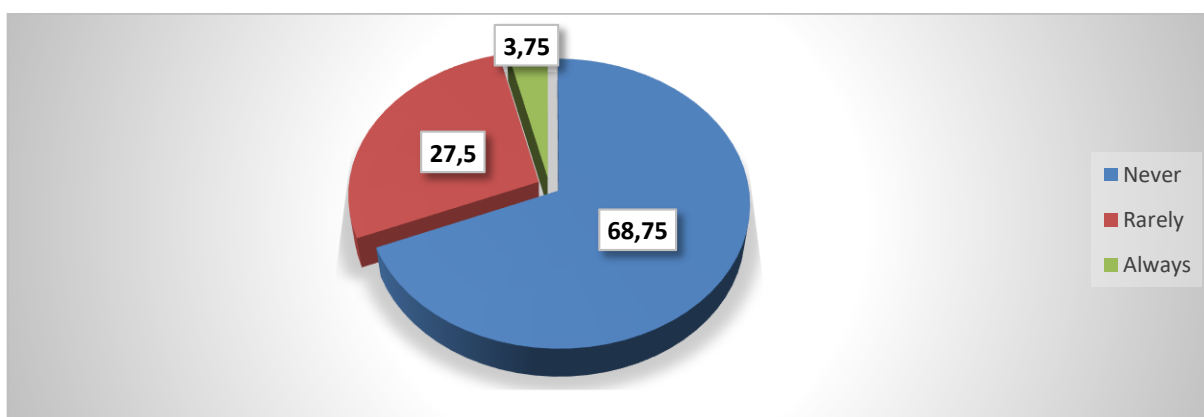


Figure 36. Frequency of teacher's permission for students to discuss their own topics

In modern language teaching methodologies, students are considered as partners in the learning process. They are often given much freedom to suggest topics and issues that are relevant to their interests and needs. The main objective is to provide a positive atmosphere that stimulates their productivity and creativity. Hence, the item above seeks to know to what extent students are permitted to discuss their own topics and texts. The results show that 55 students (68.75 %) state they are never allowed to deal with their topics or handouts. 22 students (27.5 %) claim they are rarely allowed, whereas 3 teachers (3.75 %) say they are free to use their topics. Teachers are supposed to find out what students care about and like to do. For students with disengagement, they can be allowed to apply pre-planned activities for the sake to give them a voice in the classroom. The constructivist approach advocates this type of activities which engages students to build and shape their knowledge. It stimulates students' curiosity in ways that strengthen interactions with each other, and willingness to meet learning goals. Students' handouts and texts are also useful, they are considered as primary tool to help students learn and understand new phenomena and concepts. Students who read extensively often want to share the knowledge they acquired and to put it under debate with their teachers and classmates as well. We, therefore advise teachers to take into consideration students' topics, and allow their discussion since they reflect their needs and interests.

Item twenty seven: Does your OE teacher allow you to negotiate with him/her the syllabus and lesson content?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 18 | 22,5 | 22,5 | 22,5 |
| Rarely | 10 | 12,5 | 12,5 | 35,0 |
| sometimes | 9 | 11,25 | 11,25 | 46,3 |
| Always | 43 | 53,75 | 53,75 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 40. Syllabus and lesson content negotiation between teacher and students

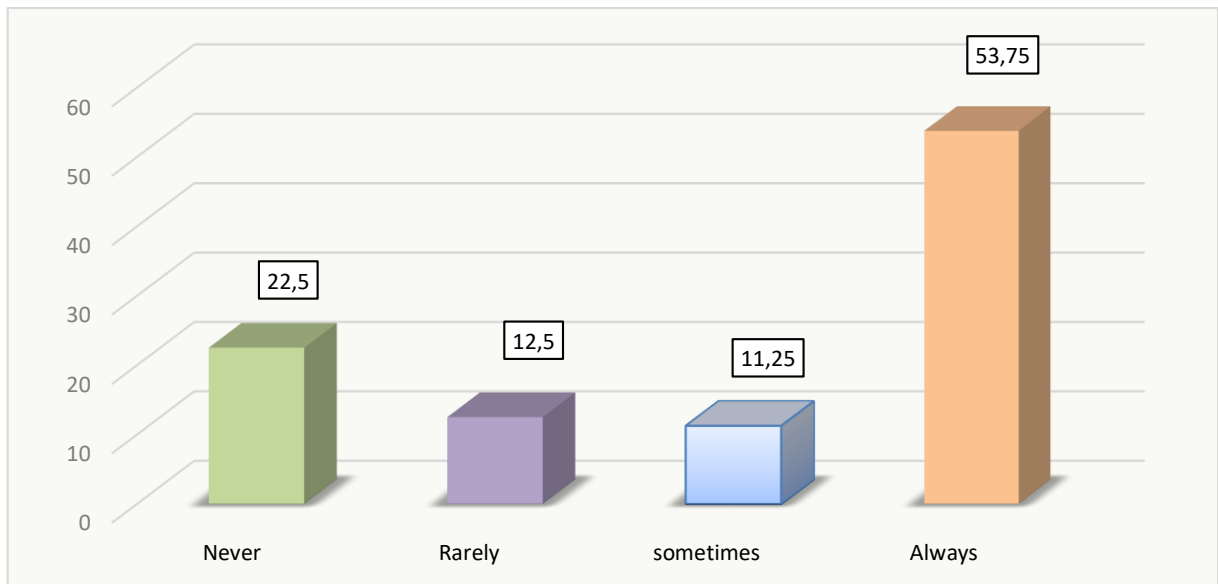


Figure 37. Syllabus and lesson content negotiation between teacher and students

The idea of what a syllabus should be has undergone radical changes particularly with the advent of communicative approach in language teaching. There has been an adoption of a more communicative classroom environment where teachers and students work together to negotiate outcomes. From this perspective, the item above was used to seek to what extent teachers negotiate the syllabus and lesson content with their students. The results show that 18 students (22.5 %) claim they are not allowed to discuss the syllabus. 10 students (12.5 %) state that their teachers rarely discuss with them the issue, and 9 students (11.25 %) note that they are sometimes permitted to propose a syllabus or a lesson content. The number of teachers who allow the negotiation of syllabus appears too small. No one denies that negotiated syllabus may impose and add a burden on the teacher. The latter has to incorporate students' needs into the syllabus which requires a great effort and a significant amount of careful planning, but its implementation surely leads to the learning improvement. It is worth noting that the current focus is more on learner-centered curriculum rather than others such as product-oriented syllabus. The new paradigm of learning allows students to contribute in the design and the direction of the syllabus, and therefore made them more motivated and committed in the course.

Item twenty eight: When you hold a spontaneous conversation with a classmate or with your teacher, does your OE teacher value and praise your output?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 10 | 12,5 | 12,5 | 12,5 |
| Rarely | 13 | 16,25 | 16,25 | 28,8 |
| sometimes | 36 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 73,8 |
| Always | 21 | 26,25 | 26,25 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 41. Frequency of teacher’s praise of students’ conversation and output

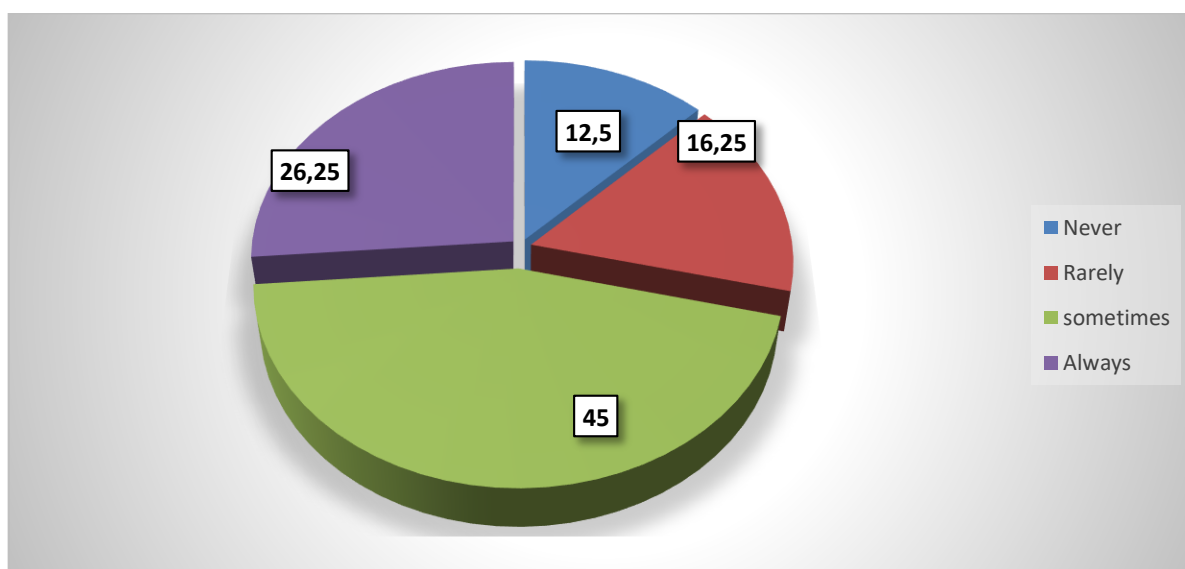


Figure 38. Frequency of teacher’s praise of students’ conversation and output

Teacher’s praise has a great power in changing students’ behaviors; it indicates the approval of academic performance and meets expectations. The question above was asked to see to what extent teachers praise their students’ performance. 21 students (26.25 %) state that their teacher always praises their output. 36 students (45 %) say that their teacher sometimes does. 23 teachers (28.75 %) claim that their teacher rarely or never praises their performance. Praise can have a positive impact on both student academic learning and social behavior. The

teacher should praise general abilities since this can increase students' appetite for risk-taking. For example, instead of saying general phrases such "well done!", "nice job!", or "excellent!"; these expressions do not inform the students what specific behaviors brought about success. Hence, it is better to say "your essay includes many different citations, it indicates you have worked hard, good job", "look at what you can accomplish when you do not give up", or " I can see the difference in your work compared to yesterday". The teacher can deliver praise in a variety of ways and contexts such as eye contact and smile. He can praise a student in front of a class, in a private conversation, or as written feedback on students' assignments. What is needed from the teacher is to acknowledge students efforts in problem-solving or in practice and to encourage their achievements.

Item twenty nine: Whenever you learn a new item, does your teacher ask you to write it down?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 29 | 36,25 | 36,25 | 36,25 |
| Rarely | 43 | 53,75 | 53,75 | 90,0 |
| sometimes | 8 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 42. Students' note taking

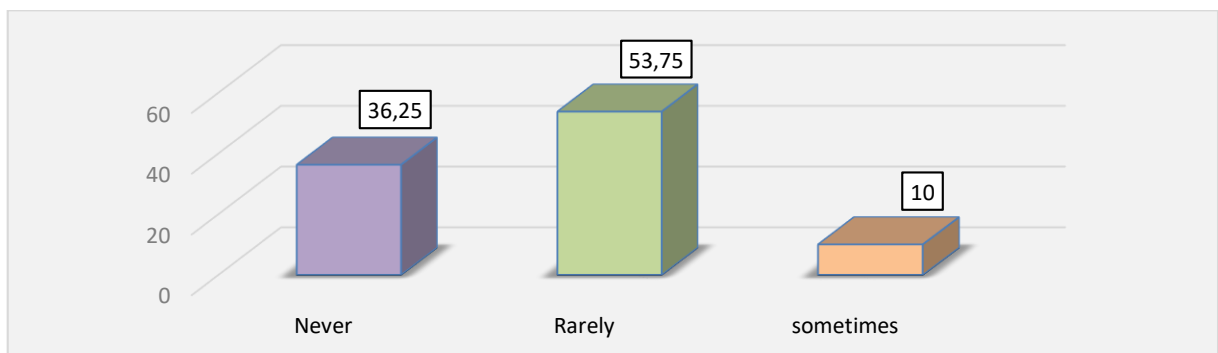


Figure 39. Students' note taking

Taking notes will help you recall information that would otherwise be lost. Taking notes during the course is a crucial skill in the learning process. Being able to take them is an important way to train the brain to memorize what has been read, heard, or seen. Surveys have shown that if we want students to remember what they learn in classes, it is advocated to have them take notes. Hence the question above was asked to know how often OE teacher asks students to take notes. The results show that 29 students (36. 25 %) state that their teacher

never ask them to take notes. 43 students (53.75 %) say that their teacher rarely does, and 8 students (10 %) say that their teacher sometimes does. We think that the teacher should give students instructions, strategies, and examples on how to take notes effectively. As an effective way of scaffolding students, teachers can show them how to take guided notes. He provides them with some outlines of the material to be covered, but leaving a space for the students to complete key information. In this way, students will easily retain data and recall them in need. Notes are often organized, summarized, and easy to review, they ensure that students are actively listening to what the teacher is saying, and they are interpreting and documenting oral information into a written form. Note taking has many benefits; it improves concentration and attention to what is being taught in class. It also increase memory, creativity, comprehension, and retention of information and reject unnecessary one

Item thirty: At the end of the lesson, does your teacher test your understanding?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 47 | 58,75 | 58,75 | 58,75 |
| Rarely | 20 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 83,8 |
| sometimes | 10 | 12,5 | 12,5 | 96,3 |
| Always | 3 | 3,8 | 3,75 | 100,0 |
| Total | 80 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 43. Teacher’s feedback

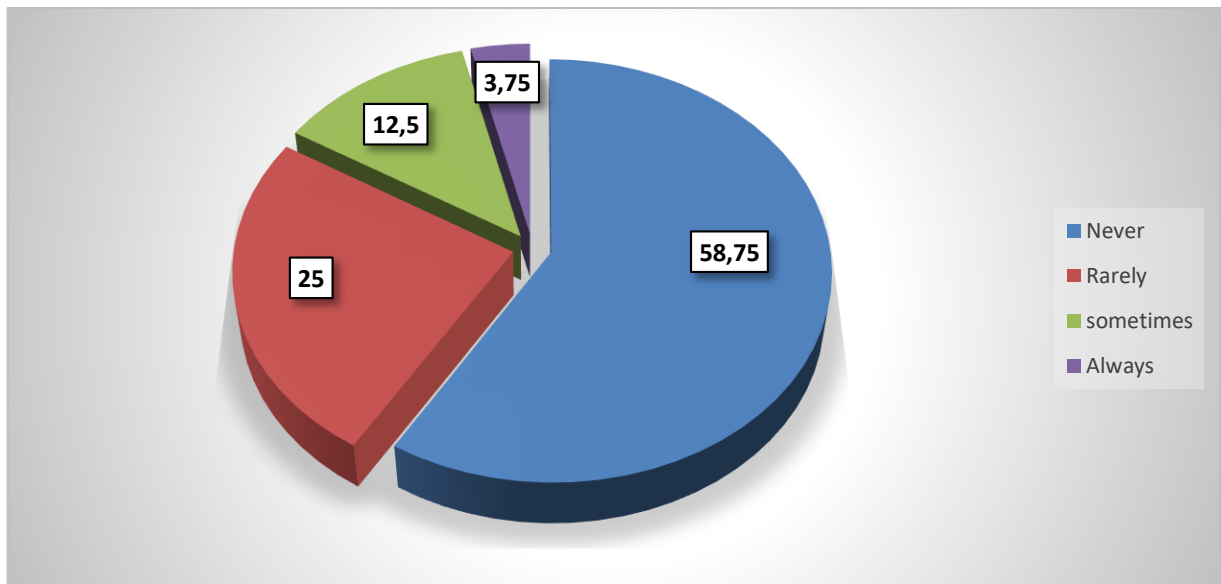


Figure 40. Teacher's feedback

Feedback is an essential part of effective learning. It helps students understand the subject under investigation and gives them clear guidance on how to develop their learning. It is often used as advice, praise, and evaluation of students' performance. The item above seeks for the frequency of using feedback by OE teachers. The results show that 47 students (58.75 %) claim that their teacher never tests their understanding at the end of the lesson. 20 students (25 %) claim that their teacher rarely uses feedback, and the three remaining ones (3.25 %) state that their teacher always uses feedback. The situation is not encouraging; teachers are asked to give positive constructive feedback to students so they adjust their work to come up with a better product. The provided feedback given during or at the end of the lecture can deepen students' understanding and ensure they don't reinforce incorrect ideas or habits. It also founds a positive student –teacher relationships, and enhances student's self-efficacy and provides a path for motivation. The teacher has first to collect information about the students' progress regarding the goal of the lesson, then gives a general feedback to the whole class or to each student in a way that is convenient to them. . Feedback sends a message to the student that the instructor cares about the learning taking place; it also allows the student to become more engaged and involved in the classroom interaction.

3.3.2. Summary

After having analyzed students' questionnaire, it is important to emphasize the main elements that characterize the findings. The majority of the informants are young students whose educational streaming at secondary school was literature or other scientific branches. They want to learn English for many purposes such as going abroad or communicating with people. However some were obliged by their parents of found no other choice. They believe

that speaking and writing skills are most important and they want to develop them first. They think that their speaking level is accepted. They rarely participate in Oral Expression session due to linguistic difficulties such as poor level of English, or due to some psychological problems such as shyness, anxiety, lack of motivation and self-confidence. They think that the main difficulties that hinder them from speaking are lack of vocabulary, grammatical rules, pronunciation, and poor pronunciation. When they encounter interactional problems, only few of them know some communication strategies such as paraphrasing, literal translation, or body language.

Some students claim that they do not feel comfortable in the Oral Expression class because of the teacher, classmates, or the activities proposed by the teacher. They are not satisfied with OE teachers' presentation of the lecture because of the absence of speaking and interaction opportunities, lack of listening materials, boring and uninteresting activities, or unequal turns provided by to them by the teacher. They state that most of their OE teachers use information gap activities. The latter are meaningful since all students are equally involved in the learning process, and they are all moving towards a specific purpose. However, they criticize them for not using visual aids as scaffolding tools. No one denies that in this era of technology, they prefer illustrated presentations by the use of technological devices instead of traditional materials such as textbooks.

Students prefer to use their own topics so that they can express their ideas and beliefs with enthusiasm and confidence. They like to chat with their teacher at the beginning of the lecture about social or political issues. They need to be encouraged and motivated to grow both academically and personally through establishing relationship of mutual respect with their teacher. Only half of students appreciate their teachers' activities and they want to be given turns to speak about social and real life problems. This overlaps with principle of the Dogme ELT which insists on permitting students to bring their materials into the class and to discuss their own topics.

The implementation of learner centered teaching has become a necessity. Hence, the negotiation of syllabus and lesson content is one of its features which are adopted by Dogme ELT. However teachers rarely take initiative to discuss with their students what fits better their needs. Teacher's praise has a great power in changing students' behaviors and improving their academic learning. Hence, whenever they hold spontaneous conversation or give output, students like to be praised. Students will easily retain data and recall them in need if they take notes during the lecture because note taking has many benefits; it improves concentration and

attention to what is being taught in class. It also increases memory, creativity, comprehension, and retention of information and reject unnecessary one. Feedback also is an essential part of effective learning. It helps students understand the subject under investigation and gives them clear guidance on how to develop their learning. It is often used as advice, praise, and evaluation of students' performance.

3.4. Results and Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaires

3.4.1. Items Analysis

Part one: General information

Item one: Age distribution

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid 25-30 | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 20,0 |
| 31-35 | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 30,0 |
| 36-40 | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 50,0 |
| 40-50 | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 80,0 |
| up 50 | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 44. Teachers' age distribution

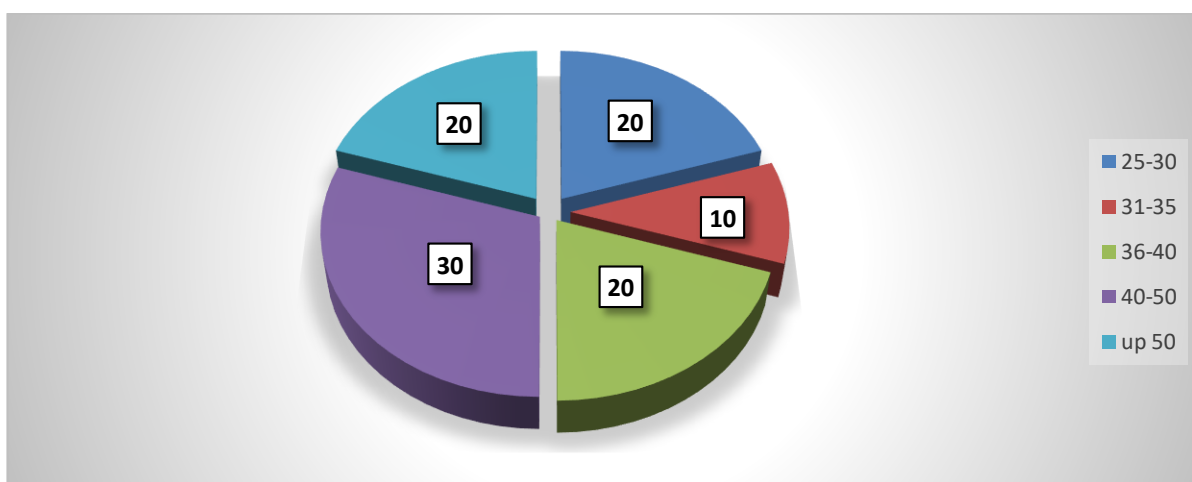


Figure 41. Teachers' age distribution

According to the results shown in the first table, it is clearly noticed that our population which is consisted of 20 teachers is relatively young; 10 teachers who represent 50 % have less than 40 years, 6 teachers (30 %) are aged between 40 and 50 years, and only 4 teachers (20 %) exceed 50 years. This indicates the positive effects of the LMD system which provides post-graduate students, who are often young, an easy access to hold a position as a university teacher. The main evidence is that 4 teachers who represent 20% of the whole population are aged between 25 and 30 years and 2 teachers who represent 10% are aged between 30 and 35 years. It is often said that the more teachers are young, the more they are fresh and motivated.

To be fair, we do believe that older teachers show much loyalty toward their school; possess a better experience and quality of education, and have a back-up plan when lesson is not prepared, however; young teachers undoubtedly seem to be more stylish, fashionable, fresh of their courses and their brains positively explode with new ideas, and ready to do everything to please their students though they have fewer ties toward their school.

Item two: Teachers' qualifications

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Master | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 10,0 |
| Magister | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 55,0 |
| Doctorate | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 45. Teachers' qualifications

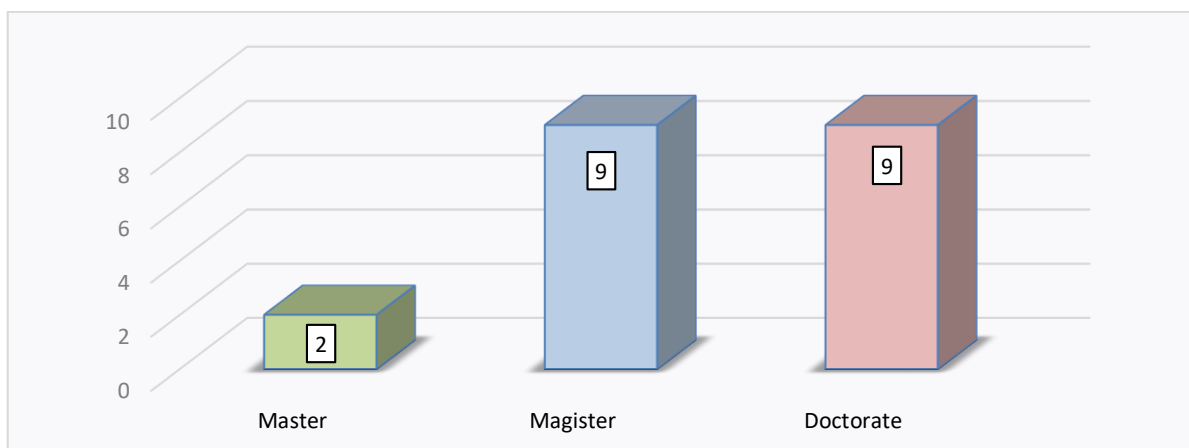


Figure 42. Teachers' qualifications

The statistics reveal that only 2 teachers (10%) have a Master degree, 9 teachers (45%) possess Magister degree, whereas 9 teachers (45%) hold Doctorate degree. It is worth noting that unlike ten years ago where there was no teacher holding a Doctorate degree, nowadays a great portion of the teachers are Doctors and the rest are progressing to submit their PHD theses in due time. This can be considered as a positive factor for the improvement of teaching since students will be supervised by a more qualified teachers and the department of letters and foreign languages particularly the section of English could have the right to organize contests, study days, and conferences. A question to be asked is “do teachers’

qualifications and degrees have a positive impact on students learning achievements particularly in terms of speaking skill development? No one denies that teachers' qualifications have become the target of several recent reforms. Teachers need to update and adjust their content knowledge and teaching skills with regards to contemporary and innovative teaching methodologies. Moreover, teaching is a never-ending process. It doesn't stop after getting a degree and starting a career, hence teachers should be encouraged to pursue professional development to ensure the best learning outcomes of students.

Item three: How many years have you been teaching Oral Expression?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Less than 5 years | 10 | 50,0 | 50,0 | 50,0 |
| 5 to 10 years | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 90,0 |
| More than 10 years | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 46. OE teachers' experience

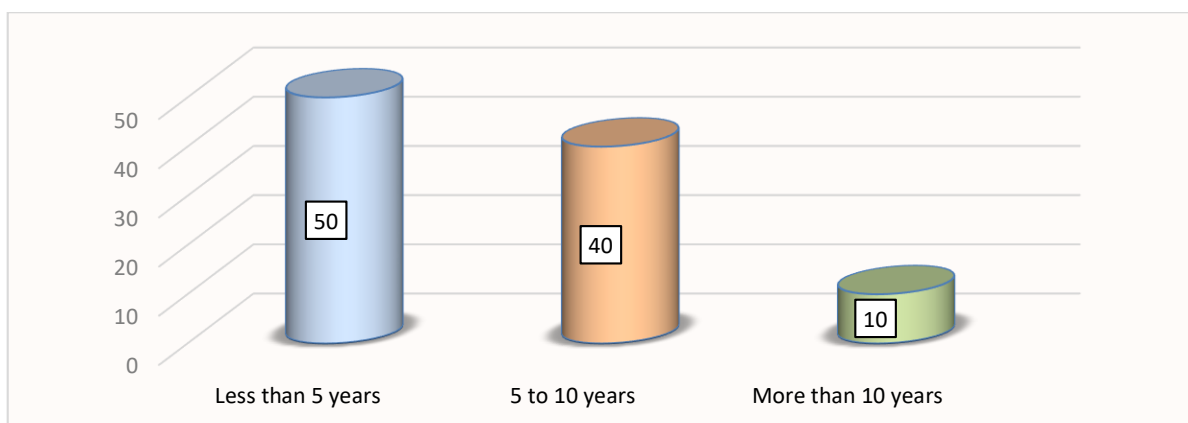


Figure 43. OE teachers' experience

The results show that all the teachers are familiar with OE module; ten of them (50%) have taught the module for less than 5 years, eight of them (40%) have taught it from 5 to 10 years, and two have taught it more than ten years. Teaching speaking involves the use of different activities and strategies from the part of the teacher who, every time, discovers their effectiveness. Hence experiencing them will enable the teacher to acquire wide knowledge about how to satisfy their students' communicative needs. Teaching experience is positively associated with students' achievement which progressively develops over years and therefore

it is possible that students with low speaking level are often taught by less experienced teachers.

Item four: Have you already taught second year level?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 16 | 80,0 | 80,0 | 80,0 |
| no | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 47. OE teachers’ experience in teaching second year level

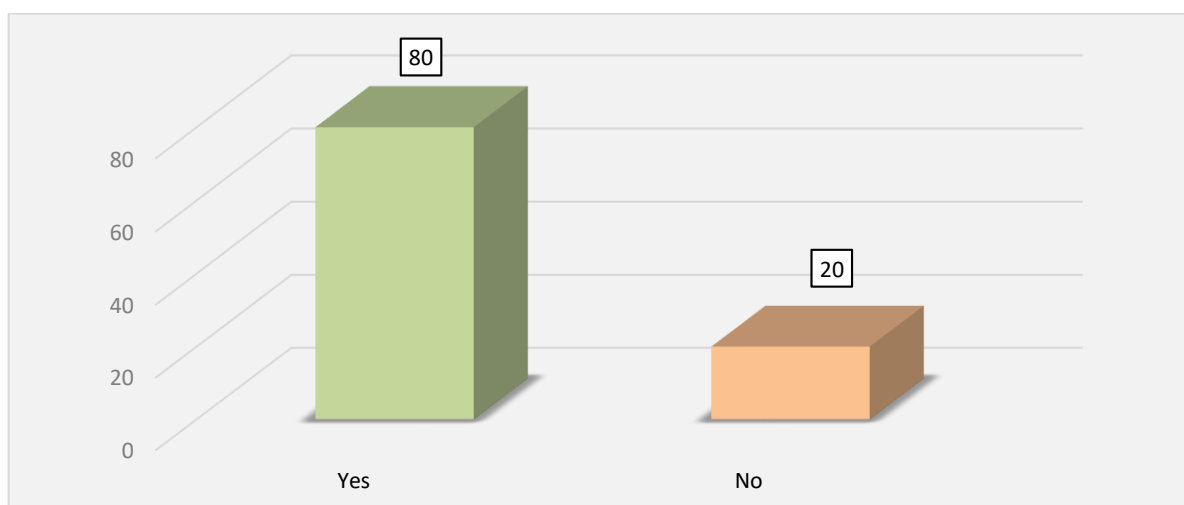


Figure 44. OE teachers’ experience in teaching second year level

The table shows that 16 teachers who represent 80% of the sample have already taught second year level whereas 4 teachers (20%) teach this level for the first time. Teaching the same level for many years represents an advantage for teachers to seek for what fits better in the classroom. In other words, teachers who have repeated experience teaching the same grade level improve more rapidly than those whose experience is in a varied grade levels. To be more objective, we believe that beside teacher experience, there are many other factors that may lead to students’ achievement such as subject matter competence, level of professional development, and educational degrees.

Item five: Is teaching OE personal choice or imposed?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Personal | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 45,0 |
| Imposed | 11 | 55,0 | 55,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 48. Teachers’ reasons of teaching OE module

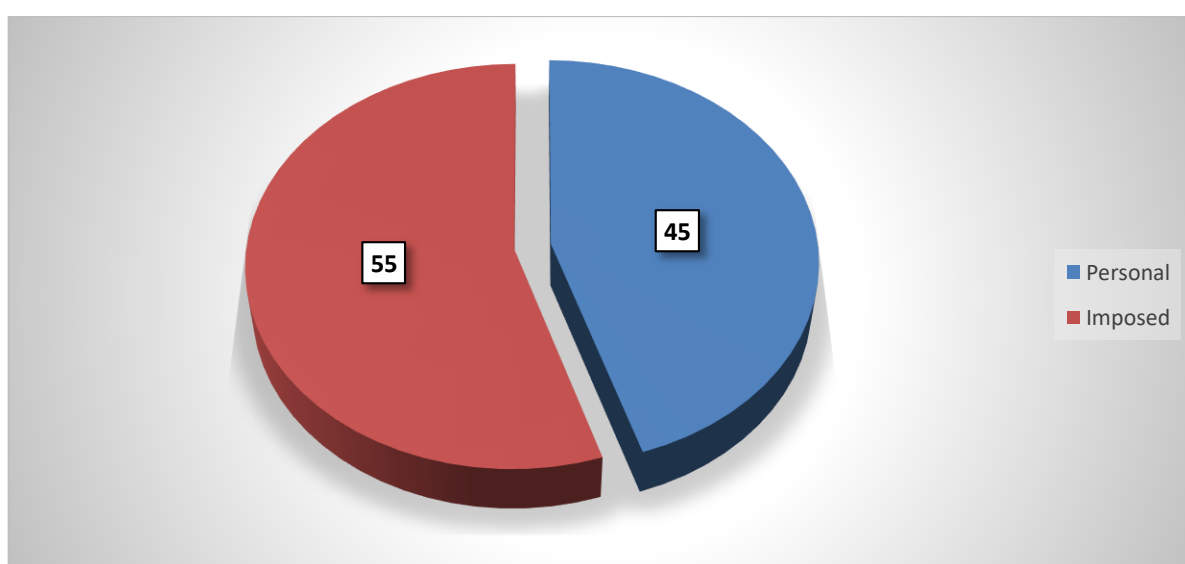


Figure 45. Teachers’ reasons of teaching OE module

Nine participants who represent 45% of the sample state that teaching OE was their personal choice because they believe that OE is the only session where they can select, apply and test new tasks and techniques to improve their teaching, and students have much freedom to express and exchange ideas and interests. However 11 participants who represent 55% claim they were obliged by the administration. Indeed teachers are more motivated if they are given the right to teach the modules they like and therefore they would be more productive. Some teachers argue that teaching OE is a complex task that requires from them not only to provide students with needed data but also to diagnose each student’s psychological speaking difficulties to overcome them. Hence they feel they are not able to teach this module perfectly.

Part two: Teachers' Attitudes toward Teaching Speaking

Item six: Which approach or method do you use to teach speaking?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid The Audio-lingual Method | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 10,0 |
| Total physical response | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 20,0 |
| Communicative language teaching | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 65,0 |
| Not using any approach or method | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 75,0 |
| Other | 5 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 49. Approaches and methods used by OE teachers

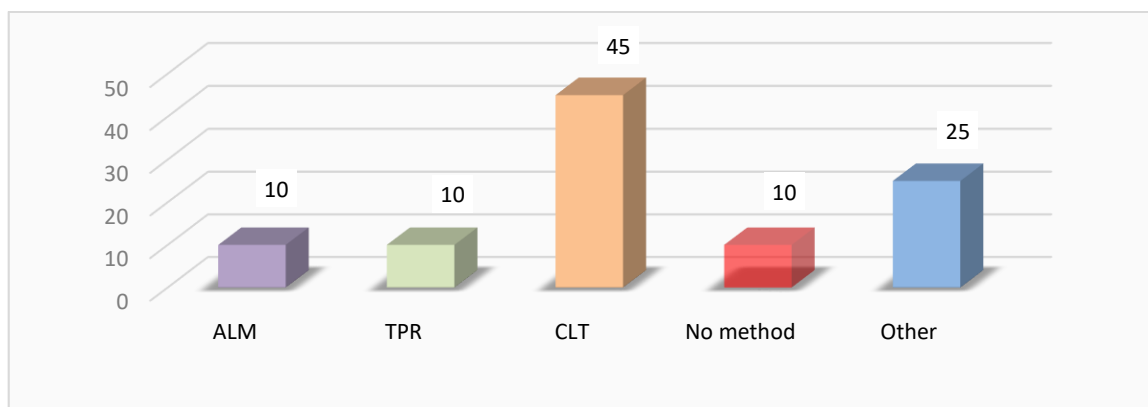


Figure 46. Approaches and methods used by OE teachers

The results reveal that 9 teachers who represent 45% of the sample use communicative language teaching since it is often considered by a large portion of teachers as the most powerful approach for language teaching. 2 teachers who represent 10% use the Audio-lingual Method which is based on behaviorism and structuralism principles of teaching languages, and for one main reason that the objective of the method is to improve students' speaking and listening skills. The same portion of teachers use Total Physical Response, they believe that to make their students speak, they need to make a link between speech and action because students have first to listen to the input associated with gestures before they build sufficient knowledge about the target language. 2 teacher who represent 10 % do not use any approach or method (they have their own way of teaching which is the reflection of their accumulated teaching knowledge) whereas 5 teachers who represent 25 % use other different

methods and approaches. Implementing different teaching methodologies should be considered as an advantage because students get easily bored if one single method could not satisfy their needs, and deciding which method of teaching is better for the lesson pertains to the teacher who should choose the most appropriate one.

Item seven: If you are not using any approach or method, would you say briefly how you teach speaking?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Eclecticism: | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 45,0 |
| Communicative activities | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 85,0 |
| Students' suggestions | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 50. How teachers teach speaking

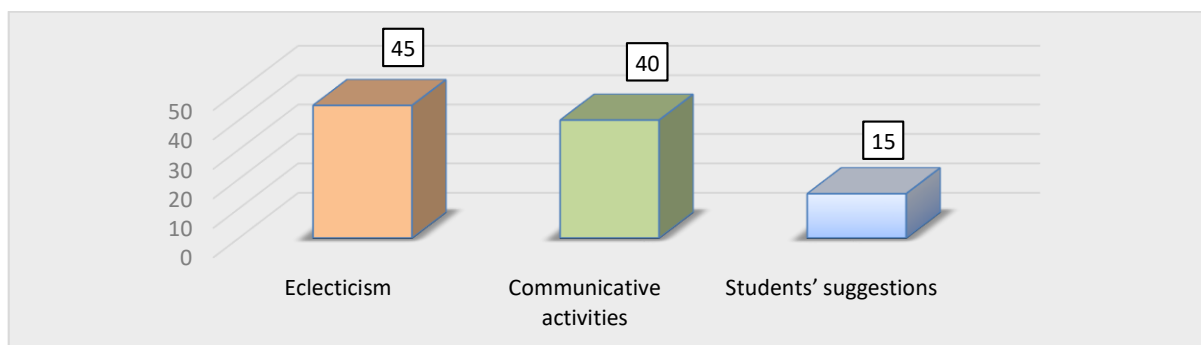


Figure 47. How teachers teach speaking

Among the twenty teachers, nine who represent 45% claim they use Eclecticism since it offers a unique opportunity to meet students' needs, wants, and expectations. Through eclecticism, students' individual needs are better matched to treatments when more options are available. Teachers select activities from different approaches and methods that they have proved their usefulness and effectiveness through previous practices. These activities depend on the aim of the lesson and the students in the group. Eight teachers who represent 40% state they use communicative activities such as role playing, storytelling, Games, interviews, proverbs, creative poetry and book reviews. They main reason seems to be that the more students engage in communicative tasks, the more they produce language with confidence and less anxiety. Communicative activities are motivating; they involve students in relevant tasks

with dynamic learning environment, and trained them not only to be linguistically competent, but communicatively and socio-linguistically competent. Three teachers who represent only 15% accept their students' suggestions. Students are an essential part in their learning process, and if they have a right to have voices, teachers have a duty to listen to it. Through showing their flexibility, teachers could help students burst their cognitive abilities.

Item eight: Do you think the size of your class enables you to teach?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 17 | 85,0 | 85,0 | 85,0 |
| no | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 51. The effect of class size on teaching

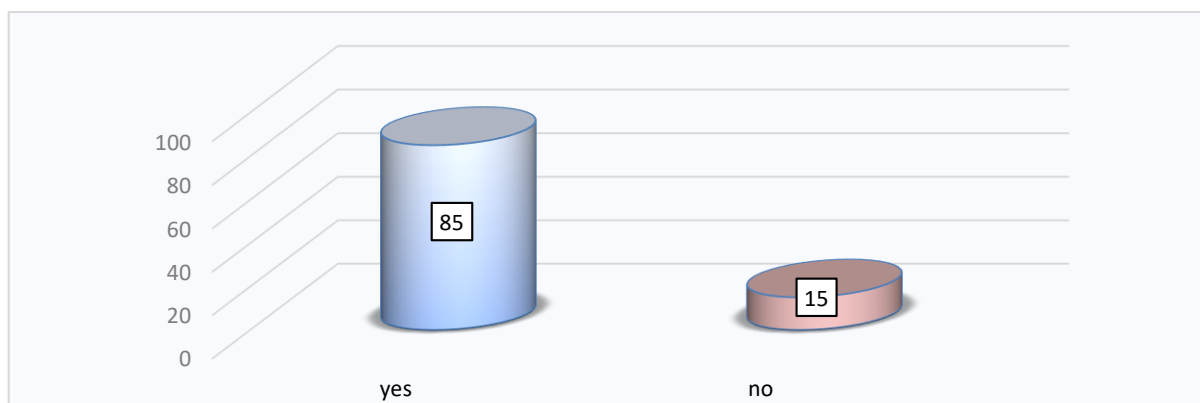


Figure 48. The effect of class size on teaching

The results provided in the table surprisingly show that the majority of teachers representing 85 % of the sample claim that teaching large classes doesn't stand as an obstacle. The reason may be because they used to divide the students into small groups to perform communicative activities with less intervention from their side, or they are acquainted with techniques and strategies for managing this type of classes. Three teachers representing 15 % state that teaching large classes poses many challenges. Yes indeed, teaching crowded classes leads to students disengagement and feelings of alienation because students rarely get the floor to speak. Consequently the teacher and students will lose the positive sense of mutual relationship which is so essential for classroom interaction. No one denies that students need

opportunities to check in with each other around their learning, ask questions, guide each other and reflect together, but this seems to be unattainable when dealing with large classes

Item nine: Do you think the time allocated to Oral Expression module is sufficient?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 13 | 65,0 | 65,0 | 65,0 |
| no | 7 | 35,0 | 35,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 52. Teachers’ perceptions about time allocated to OE module

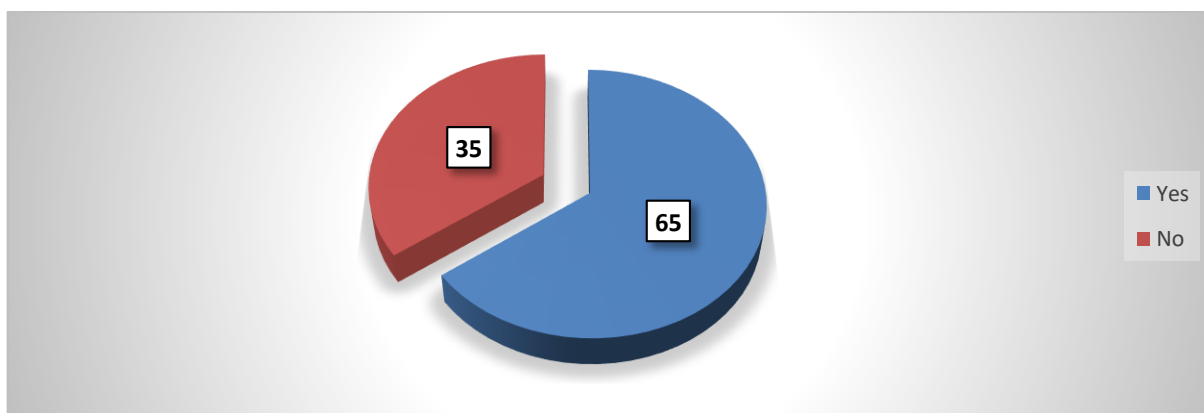


Figure 49. Teachers’ perceptions about time allocated to OE module

The results reveal that 13 teachers representing 65% of the sample state that the time devoted to OE module which is 2 sessions per week is sufficient to develop the students’ speaking skill. This reflects that the quality of lessons is more important than their number. In other words, what is important is the type of classroom activities offered by teachers and the way they stimulate and provide their students with opportunities to speak.

7 teachers representing 35% of the sample say that the time allotted to OE module is not sufficient at all to empower the students’ speaking skill due to their belief that among language skills, speaking is the most needed and should be given much priority.

Item ten: What difficulties do you face when teaching speaking?

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Students psychological difficulties | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 40,0 |
| | Students' linguistic problems | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 60,0 |
| | Pedagogical problems | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 53. OE teachers' difficulties when teaching speaking

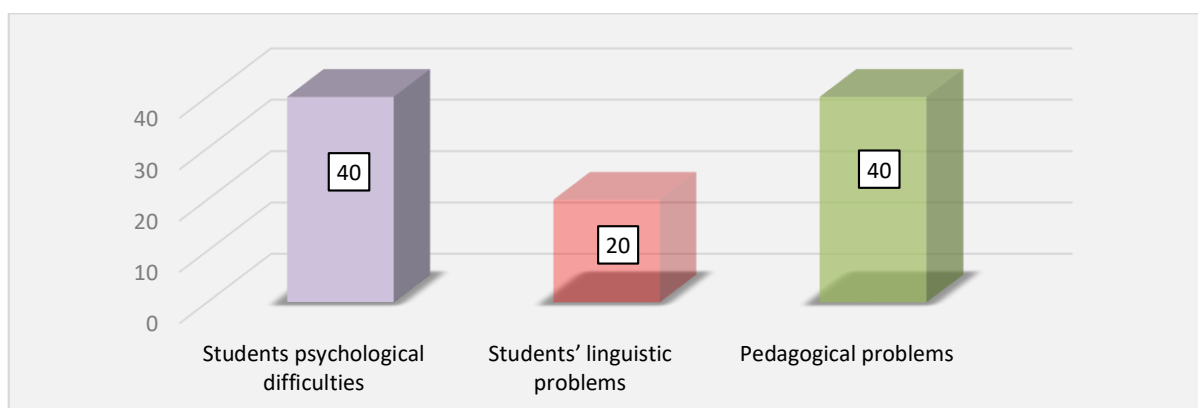


Figure 50. OE teachers' difficulties in teaching speaking

The table shows that the difficulties OE teachers face in teaching speaking can be divided into three types: 8 teachers who represent 40% claim that what makes their teaching difficult is the students' psychological difficulties such as anxiety, shyness, lack of self-confidence, fear of doing mistakes, lack of motivation, and laziness. The same portion of teachers believe that the problem that always persists is pedagogical; the lack of teaching materials (labs, data show, speakers...), large classes, and time allotted to OE module remain the most prominent ones. 4 teachers who represent 20% of the population claim that what hinders their teaching is the students' linguistic difficulties such as lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, and poor pronunciation which are the most prevalent. Although all the so called elements are needed to construct and utter right sentences, but teachers should encourage their students to focus much more on meaning rather on form.

Item eleven: What do you suggest to improve teaching speaking to second year students in your department?

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Teaching communication strategies | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 45,0 |
| | Providing access to labs | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 65,0 |
| | proposing real life activities | 1 | 5,0 | 5,0 | 70,0 |
| | Reducing class size/ Adding extra sessions | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 54. OE teachers' suggestions to improve teaching speaking

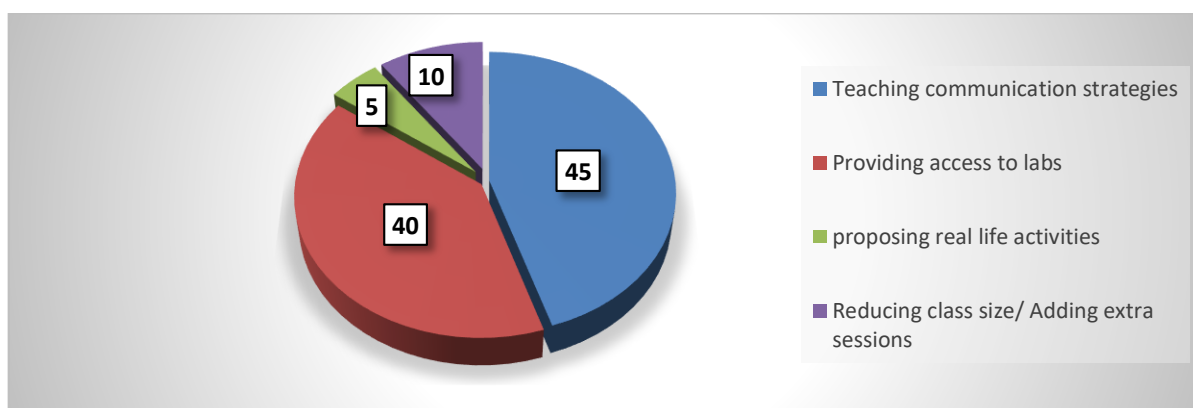


Figure 51. OE teachers' suggestions to improve teaching speaking

To improve teaching speaking, 9 teachers who represent 45% of the sample suggest teaching communication strategies (CSs) in early stages. If CSs such as compensation and avoidance strategies are known in advance, students will easily prevent their communication from any cut. 8 teachers who represent 40 % note that labs are the most appropriate and useful setting to practice the target language since they include enjoyable authentic materials. Hence they ask for having easy access into them. One teacher who represents 05 % proposes real life activities such as asking students to talk about embarrassing situations they experienced before, talking about their hobbies and interests, discussing a recent political event, or debating a taboo. 2 teachers who represent 10% refer the problems of teaching speaking to large classes and insufficient OE sessions, hence they advocate on reducing theses classes and adding extra sessions.

Part three: Teachers’ opinions about the implementation of the principles of the Dogme ELT teaching approach

Item twelve: Have you ever heard about the ‘Dogme ELT’ teaching approach

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 10,0 |
| no | 18 | 90,0 | 90,0 | 90,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 55. OE teachers’ familiarity with ‘Dogme ELT’

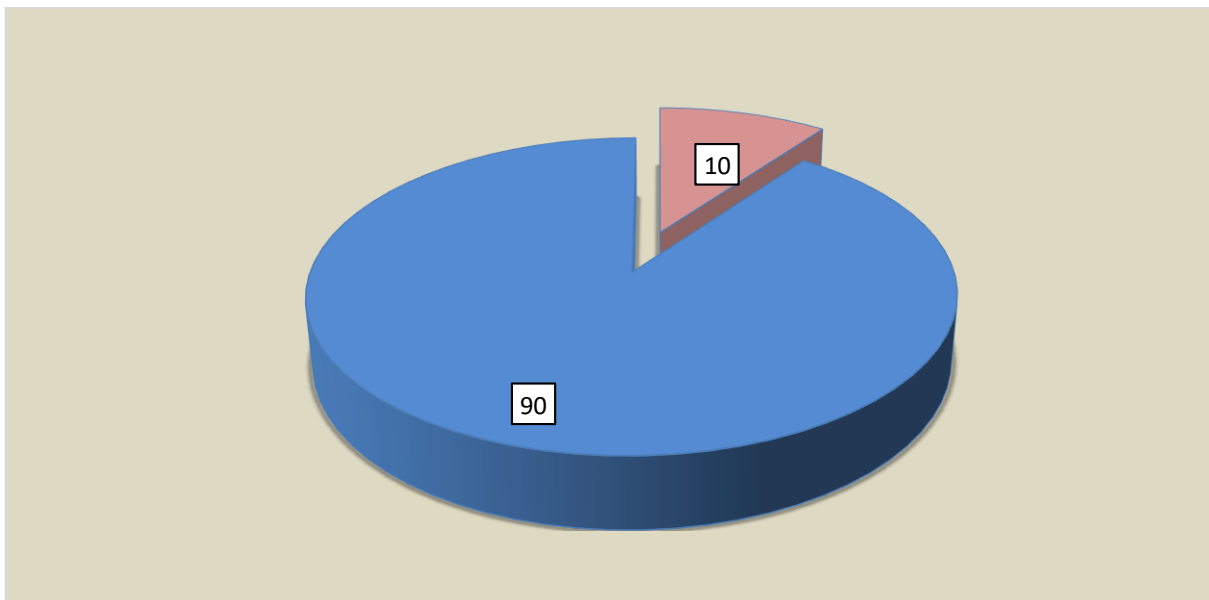


Figure 52. OE teachers’ familiarity with ‘Dogme ELT’

Since Dogme ELT is a new approach which was proposed only in 2009, we wanted to verify whether it is known by OE teachers or not, so the question was clear and direct. The answers reveal that 18 teachers who represent 90% do not know the approach simply because we think it is rarely mentioned in recent books and it is not yet widespread in Arab universities. Teachers' ignorance of the Dogme ELT surely doesn't minimize their cognitive value because the field of language teaching always know the advent of different approaches and methods that may quickly disappear or last for a long period of time. Only 2 teachers who represent 10% already have an idea about Dogme ELT. We think that the main reason behind their familiarity with Dogme is that they heard about it through the internet which remains the main source of update information.

Item thirteen: Do you think that materials such as textbooks and technology are necessary to teach speaking?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid yes | 17 | 85,0 | 85,0 | 85,0 |
| no | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 56. OE teachers' perception about the necessity of using materials in teaching speaking

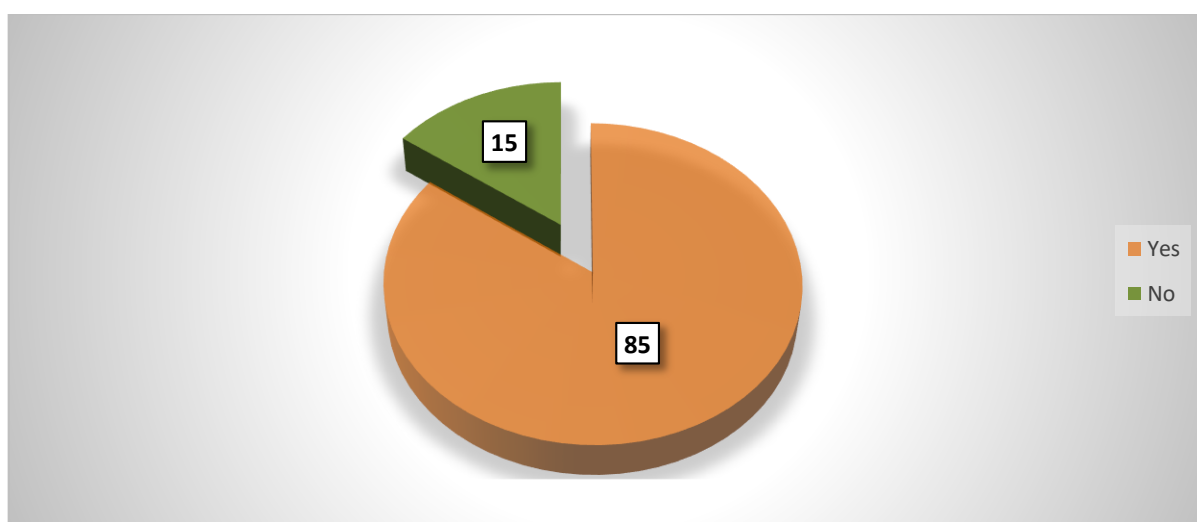


Figure 53. OE teachers' perception about the necessity of using materials in teaching speaking

The question about the use of materials such as textbooks and technology was asked to sound the teachers' opinions about one of the three tenets of the Dogme ELT (Materials light). 17 teachers representing 85% of our sample believe that materials are necessary to teach speaking. From the first sight, their responses seem to be convincing, but the question to be asked is to what extent the selected materials will suit students' needs and interests? Do these materials overlap with the students' ones? Hence it is so important to ask the question provided in the next item about permitting students to use their own materials in the classroom. 3 teachers representing 15% do not think materials are necessary in teaching speaking, so they focus much more on traditional communication activities.

Item fourteen: Do you allow your students to use their textbooks and technological devices in the classroom?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Always | 5 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 25,0 |
| Sometimes | 15 | 75,0 | 75,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 57. OE teachers' degree of accepting students' use of their textbooks and technological devices

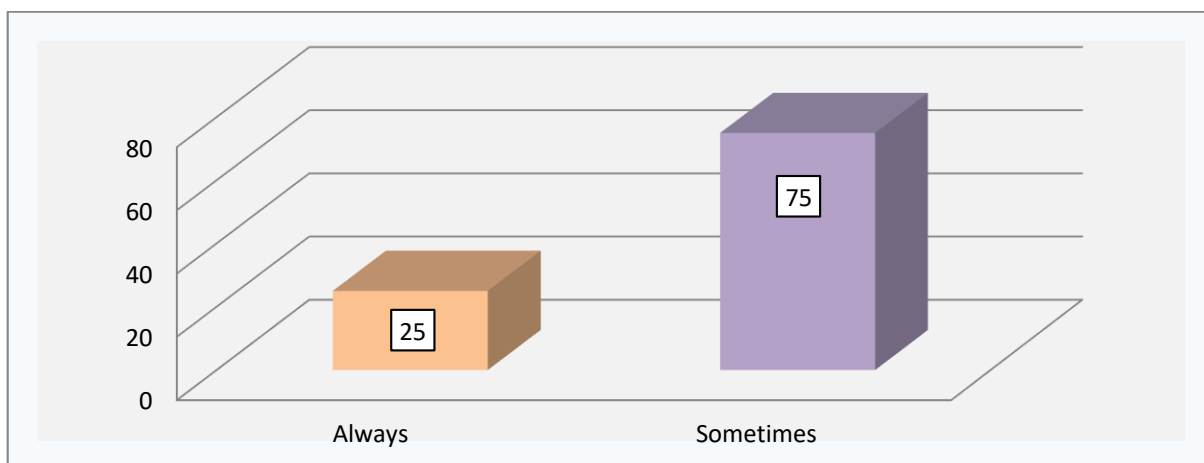


Figure 54. OE teachers' degree of accepting students' use of their own textbooks and technological devices

This question was also asked to check whether teachers apply (even unintentionally) one of the principles of the Dogme ELT which is the use of materials (textbooks and technology). 5 teachers who represent 25% allow their students to use their own materials. 13 teachers who

represent the majority (75 %) state they sometimes do. It is worth noting that unlike in the past where teachers used to dominate the class and use only their materials, they were the sole source of knowledge and that knowledge is spoon fed to students. However, nowadays they are more flexible and aware of their students' needs and interests. Many teachers believe that, since we are living in a world of technology, they let students use technological devices such as computers, tablets, and mobiles. Unlike in the past, if a student got their phone out in a lecture, this was considered as a sign that they were paying no attention. However; today using technological devices in the classroom is encouraged by the majority of teachers. This trend in teaching is known as Bring Your Own Device (BYOD). Teachers should take into account that students come to class with their own experiences, knowledge, and frames of reference. They should accept their handouts and textbooks as a way to listen to their suggestions and to solicit their ideas because motivation is enhanced when students are invited to contribute in planning how they learn.

Item fifteen: How often do you use your own textbooks (handouts) in the classroom?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Always | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 20,0 |
| Sometimes | 13 | 65,0 | 65,0 | 85,0 |
| Rarely | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 95,0 |
| Never | 1 | 5,0 | 5,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 58. OE teachers' use of handouts

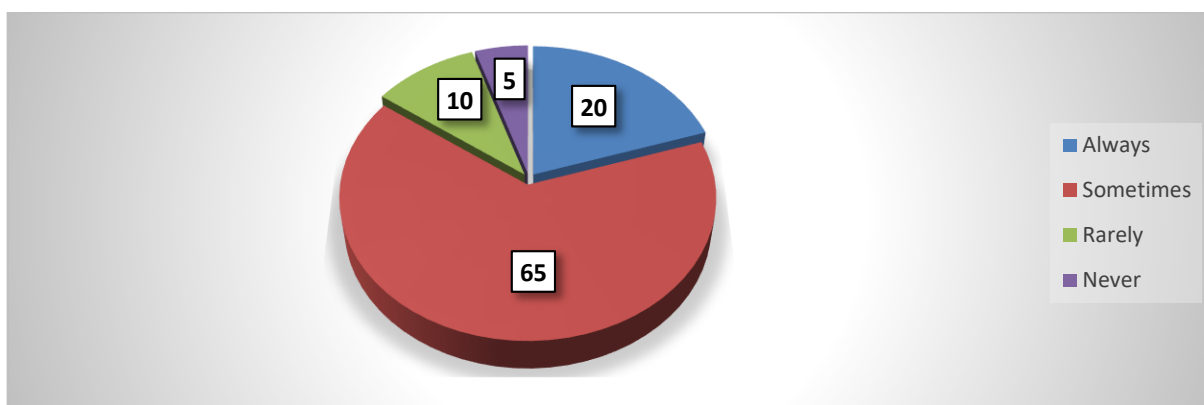


Figure 55. OE teachers' use of handouts

The question asked to teachers seeks to recognize the frequency of using their textbooks (handouts) in the classroom. 4 teachers representing 20% of the sample state that they always use handouts to cover the program. 13 teachers representing 65% claim they sometimes use handouts. Whereas 3 teachers representing 15 % rarely or never use them. The situation shows that teachers are not restricted to any prescribed source of knowledge. They free themselves from using textbooks that they are not sure they will be admired by their students. Though handouts are viewed as a primary tool to help students learn and understand lesson content since they provide students with a balanced, chronological presentation of information, but some teacher reject them because they see them as outdated or insufficiently cover a topic or a subject area, and sometimes students may find it difficult to understand the relevance of so much data to their personal lives. Hence teachers should know the advantages and disadvantages of textbooks, and use them taking into consideration the subject matter and students' needs.

Item sixteen: Which of the following do you think is most effective to make students interact in the classroom?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Published textbooks | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 20,0 |
| Students' topics | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 50,0 |
| Your topics | 10 | 50,0 | 50,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 59. OE teachers' perceptions about the most powerful tool for classroom interaction

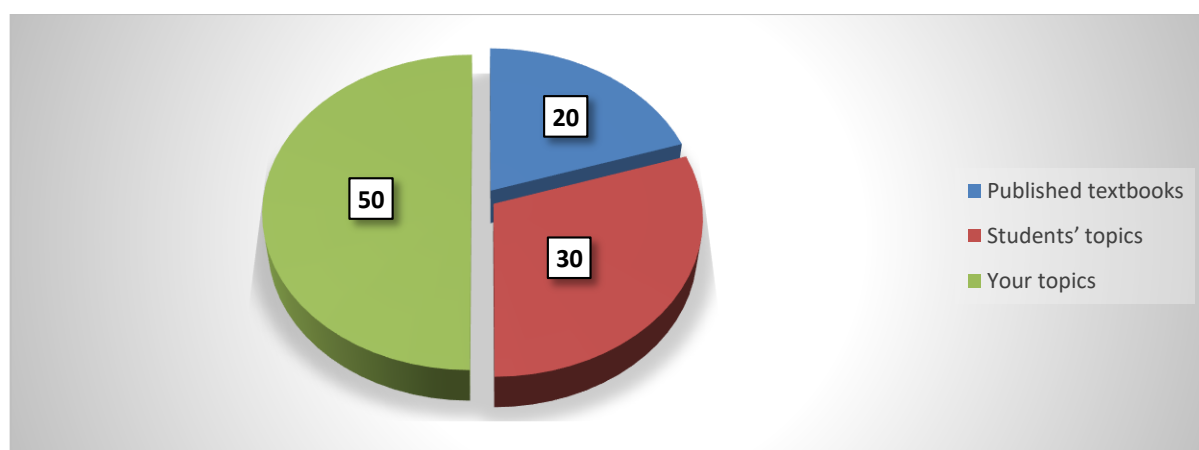


Figure 56. OE teachers' perceptions about the most powerful tool for classroom interaction

The results reveal that 4 teachers (20% of the whole sample) use published textbooks. We think that the reasons for this are many, depending on the design and focus of the curriculum, the mandates of the administration, and/or the level of expertise on the part of classroom teachers. Textbooks are helpful for novice teachers since they provide them with organized and detailed lessons. These lessons are often characterized by a balanced, chronological presentation of information. 6 teachers (30%) use students' topics. They do so as some point to reinforce a lesson or give students an opportunity to demonstrate their cognitive achievement and deeper understanding. Hence students will enjoy the lesson if its content is driven by them. 10 teachers (50%) use their own topics. Using a teacher-made materials as the basis of the course may have some advantages if they are closely related to students' needs and reflect local content, issues, and concerns. Classes that have high interaction among students are often student-focused classes; they provide multiple opportunities for students to discuss suitable issues derived from textbooks, driven by teachers, or suggested by the students themselves.

Item seventeen: Do you allow your students to negotiate the syllabus and the content with you?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 1 | 5,0 | 5,0 | 5,0 |
| Rarely | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 35,0 |
| sometimes | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 65,0 |
| Always | 7 | 35,0 | 35,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 60. The extent to which OE teachers accept the negotiation of syllabus and content with their students

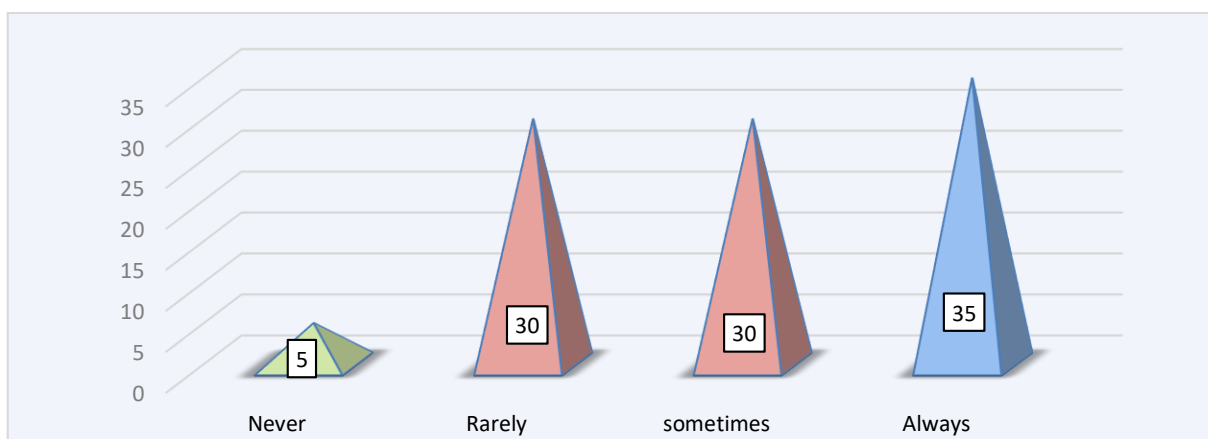


Figure 57. The extent to which OE teachers accept the negotiation of syllabus and content with their students

The results shown in the table above reveal the extent to which Oral Expression teachers accept the negotiation of syllabus and content with their students. 7 teachers (35 % of the sample) claim they always do. 6 teachers (30 %) rarely do, and the same numbers of teachers sometimes do, and finally only one teacher (5%) says he never does. In fact, there are factors to be considered when developing a classroom work based on syllabus negotiation. Some of these factors might lead to constraints; some others might be beneficial to the learning process. Constraints emerge due to the fact that large classes may make negotiation more difficult and therefore reduce the possibility of all students' contribution. Moreover negotiation will exclude students who are silent and do not share their opinions. Teachers who used to have authority in the classroom may experience anxiety and losing control, and students may lack the experience to contribute syllabus decision-making. There are many benefits of undertaking syllabus negotiation. Negotiation promotes students confidence, motivation, responsibility, independent work, and learning quality. To be successful, syllabus negotiation should take into consideration the agreement on the target topic and the nature of the topic that must not deviate from the aims of learning.

Item eighteen: If you do not prepare a lesson, how do you teach your students?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Always prepare my lesson | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | 100,0 |

Table 61. OE teachers' teaching strategies when they do not prepare the lesson

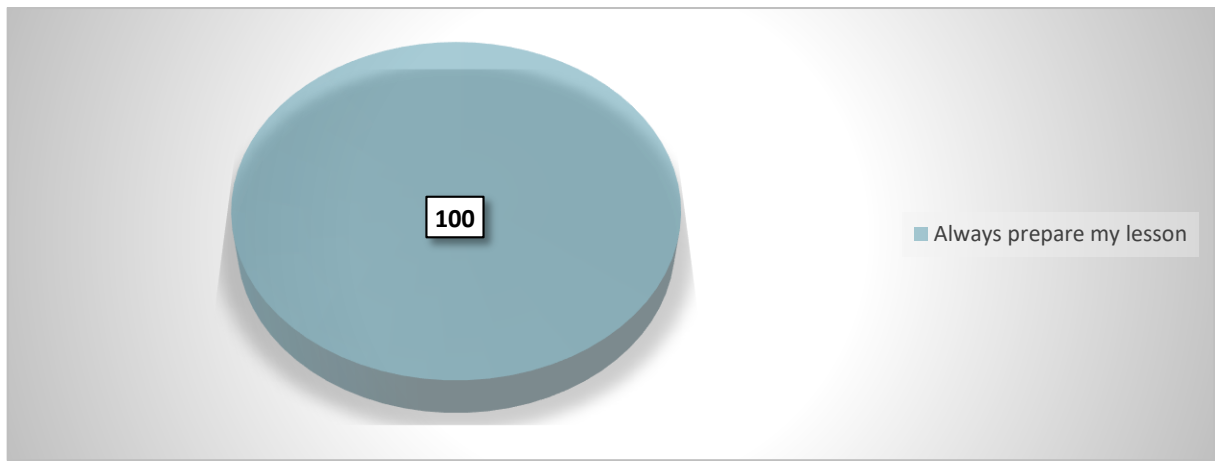


Figure 58. OE teachers’ teaching strategies when they do not prepare the lesson

The question above was asked to check how OE teachers react if they do not prepare the lesson. It may happen, for different reasons, that the teacher come to the class with no prepared lesson or activities, but their responses show that all of them (100%) claim that they have never experienced this which proves their regular aptitude and preparation to teach under any circumstances. From one hand, lesson plan is a significant element in the teaching process particularly for the newly trained teachers who could face different unpredictable situations. Hence teachers need to adapt their plans to respond the students’ needs. From another hand, experienced teachers could step into a class, proceed to do the right things, without having to rely on notes

Item nineteen: How often do you give your students turns to interact with you and one another?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Often | 15 | 75,0 | 75,0 | 75,0 |
| Sometimes | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 90,0 |
| When Necessary | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 62. OE teachers’ frequency of giving students turns

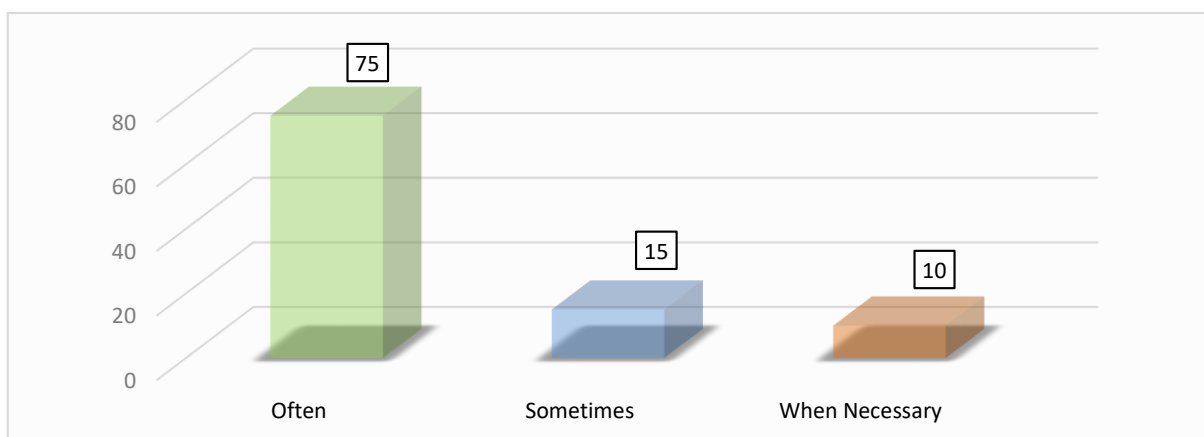


Figure 59. OE teachers' frequency of giving students turns

The question implicitly seeks to know whether the first principle of Dogme ELT (conversation driven) is practiced by OE teachers or not. Do teachers provide their students with opportunities for interaction? 15 teachers representing 75 % of the sample state they often give turns to students to interact. 3 teachers representing 15% claim they sometimes do, whereas the two remaining teachers (10 %) say they do when it is necessary. Teachers who offer their students with opportunities for interaction can create classroom environments more helpful to learning and meet students' developmental, emotional and educational needs.

Item twenty: Would you mention some of the ways you often use to stimulate your students interact with one another?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Open debates | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 40,0 |
| Group discussion | 7 | 35,0 | 35,0 | 75,0 |
| Topics of students' own interests | 5 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 63. OE teachers' strategies to stimulate students' interaction

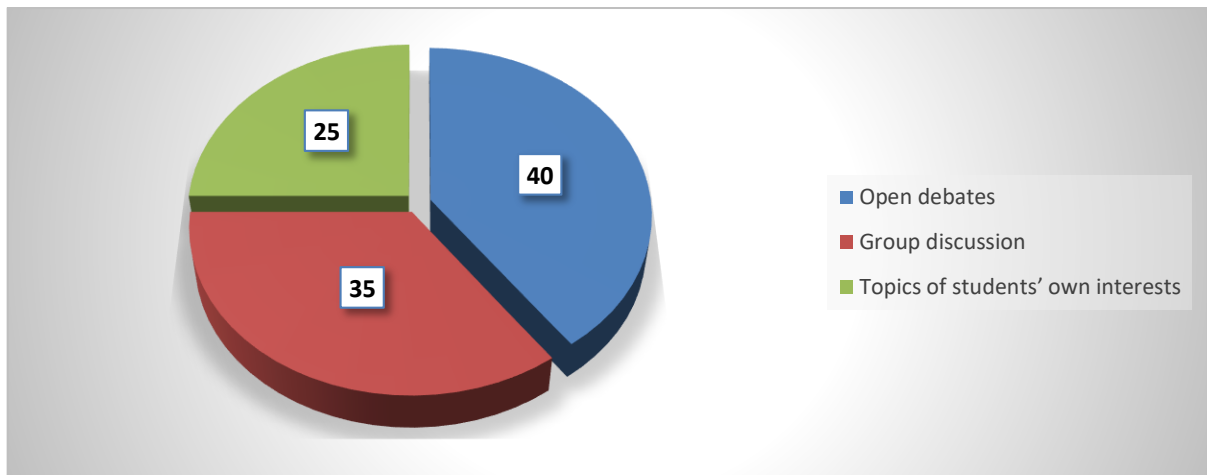


Figure 60. OE teachers' strategies to stimulate students' interaction

As the previous one, the question above was asked to know the ways OE teachers often use to create students' interaction. 8 teachers who represent 40 % of the sample note that the best way is to open debates about different interesting topics. Indeed, classroom debate is a useful technique for engaging students and bringing life to the classroom. It nurtures students' critical thinking, presentation skill, and public speaking. Students provided with early opportunities of debate can test their thoughts and views against that of their classmates, and therefore they will easily hold discussion about different issues in any context. 7 teachers who represent 35 % use group discussion. The latter makes learning more interactive, helps students develop and strengthen interpersonal communication that cannot be developed in traditional lecture format. Yes, students become responsible for their speaking improvement if they bring their knowledge and experiences to the forefront and explore topics more deeply than simply reading about it or listening to the teacher. 5 teachers who represent 25 % prefer to let their students tackle topics of their own interests. They believe that giving students the opportunity to choose their own topics will promote their confidence and motivation to speak.

Item twenty one: Which of the following interactions do students prefer?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Learner-Learner interaction | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 10,0 |
| Teacher -learner interaction | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 55,0 |
| Both | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 64. Teachers' perceptions about the types of interaction preferred by students

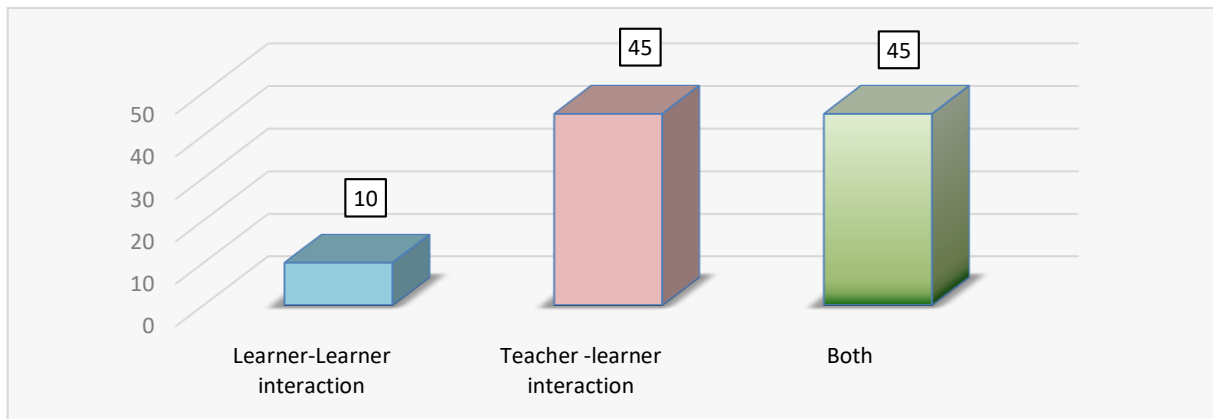


Figure 61. Teachers' perceptions about the types of interaction preferred by students

To create an interactive learning where students feel comfortable to speak, the teacher should seek first for what type of interaction often preferred by their students. The results reveal that 2 teachers representing 10% of the sample think that students prefer 'learner-learner interaction' maybe because it is symmetric interaction; the students share almost the same intellectual level and feel they can compete and challenge each other to reach an objective. 9 teachers representing 45% believe that students prefer 'teacher-learner interaction (asymmetric interaction)'. We think that the main reason behind their choice is that if they interact with their teacher, they gain confidence, acquire new knowledge, and to defend their assumptions at advanced level. However the same numbers of teachers think that students like both of them. The interaction between the teacher and students or between students themselves is an essential part of teaching and learning process. The former stimulates the students' involvement in the classroom and fuels their motivation as well. The latter allows students to learn and understand how negotiate meaning with partners, and develops the skill of team work.

Item twenty two: How often do you use information gap activities?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Rarely | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | Students 10,0 |
| sometimes | 12 | 60,0 | 60,0 | 70,0 |
| Always | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 65. OE teachers' frequency use of information gap activities

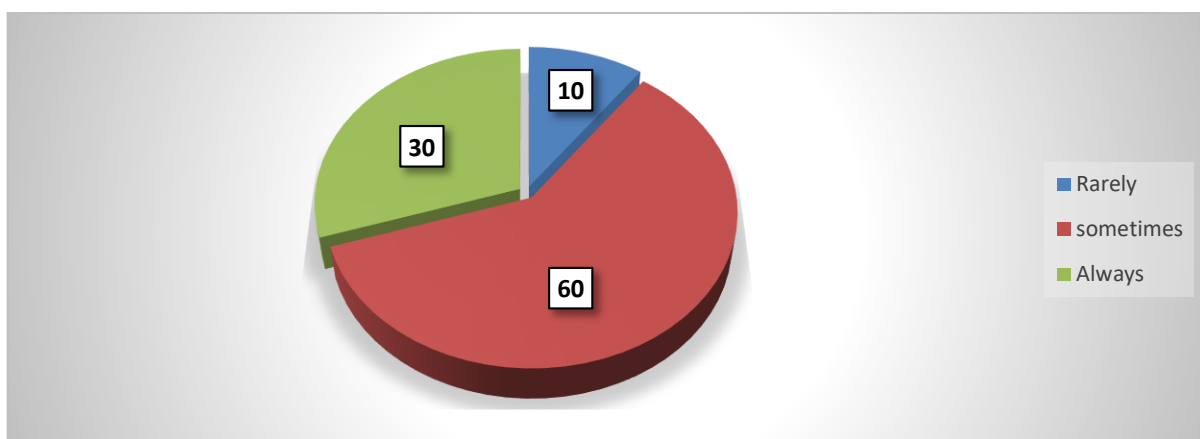


Figure 62. OE teachers' frequency use of information gap activities

Among the classroom activities that promote communication skill is information gap. In this type of activity which is preferred by many OE teachers, the students use the target language to share information and therefore speak spontaneously. Dogme ELT advocates conversation among students which can be perfectly realized through the exchange of ideas. The answers listed in the table above reveal that 6 teachers (30 % of the sample) state that they always use information gap activities which are strongly prescribed by the communicative approach. 12 teachers (60 %) claim they sometimes do, and 3 teachers (15%) never do. We can deduce that the majority of teachers are aware of the importance of information gap activities since they set students up to be expert speakers. Students move to a specific purpose through equal involvement in the process of language learning. They feel motivated because they work in a more communicative environment rather than a structured one.

Item twenty three: Do you chat with your students at the beginning of the lesson?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Never | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 15,0 |
| sometimes | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 55,0 |
| Always | 9 | 45,0 | 45,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 66. OE teachers' frequency of chatting with students at the beginning of the lesson

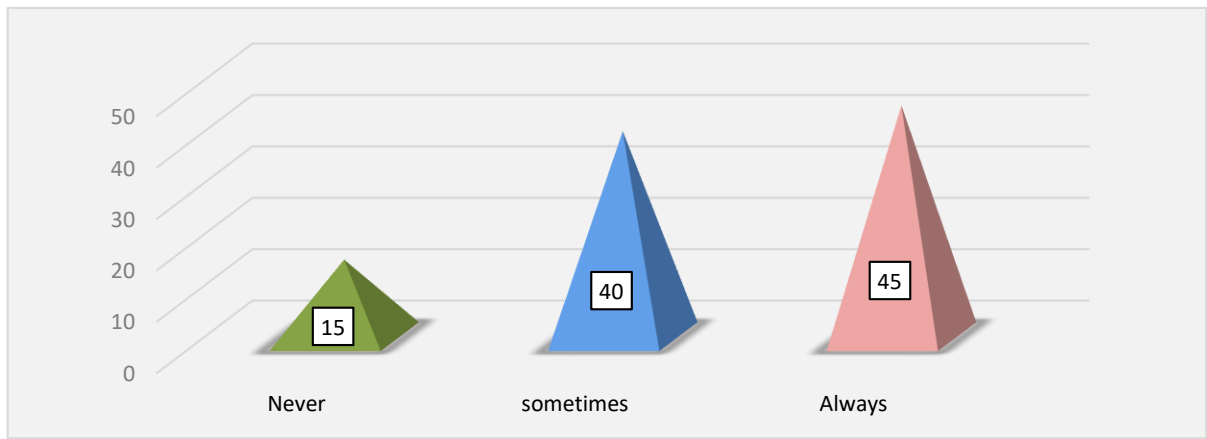


Figure 63. OE teachers' frequency of chatting with students at the beginning of the lesson

The question above investigates how often OE teachers chat with their students at the beginning of the lesson. The question implicitly searches for the frequency of chatting that is considered by Dogme approach as a stimulating factor leading to conversation. 9 teachers representing 45 % of the sample claim they always chat with their students before broaching the lesson. 8 teachers (40 %) state they sometimes do, and three teachers (15 %) never do. Undoubtedly, the idea of chatting with students about daily life issues is fruitful; it allows each student to relax, become less inhibited, and feel a little more at home. Devoting the first few minutes of the lesson for chatting with students should not be viewed as time theft because the benefits remain great. Breaking the ice with students is a gateway for holding a comfortable conversation in the classroom.

Item twenty four: How often do your students converse with you spontaneously?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|------------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Very often | 18 | 90,0 | 90,0 |
| | Sometimes | 2 | 10,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 20 | 100,0 | |

Table 67. Frequency of students' spontaneous conversation

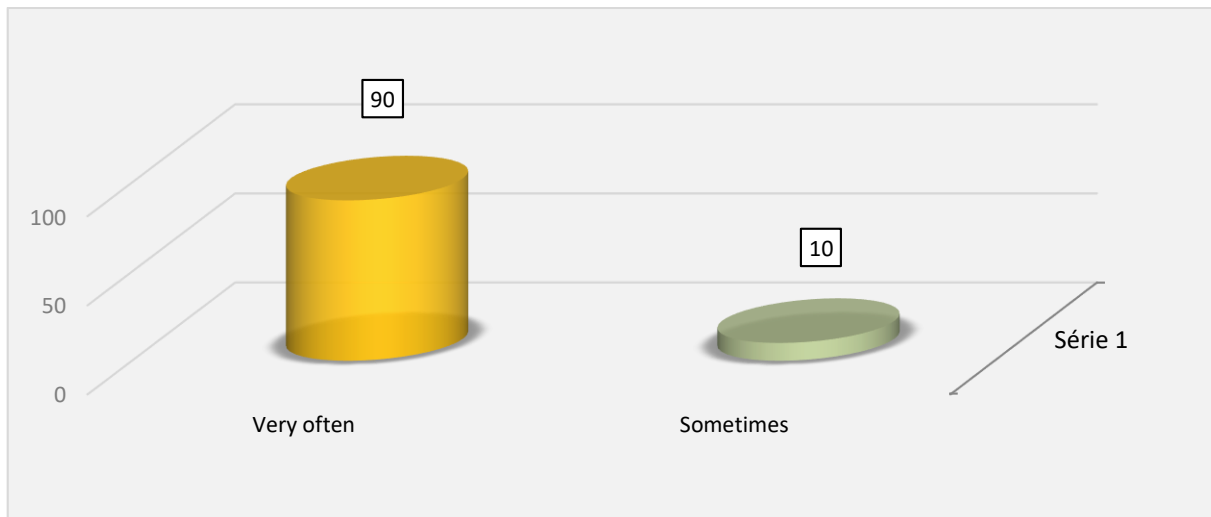


Figure 64. Frequency of students' spontaneous conversation

Reaching the ability to speak spontaneously with their OE teachers remains one of the students' objectives in order to test their speaking skill. The results show that 18 teachers who represent 90 % of the sample state that their students often converse with them whereas 2 teachers (10%) think that students sometimes do. If teachers devote few minutes each week with students who conversationally struggle and ask them open ended question, they will stimulate spontaneous conversation which can be a very powerful way to improve their speaking skill. Students should speak as they might when they meet a friend or acquaintance, and teachers should show interest in the students by asking questions related to their concerns.

Item twenty five: what type of questions you often use to stimulate students to converse with you?

Table 68. OE teachers' common questions to stimulate students' conversation

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Asking about recent personal experiences and events | 7 | 35,0 | 35,0 | 35,0 |
| Asking about interests and hobbies | 5 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 60,0 |
| Asking about cultural knowledge | 5 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 85,0 |
| Asking about political views | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

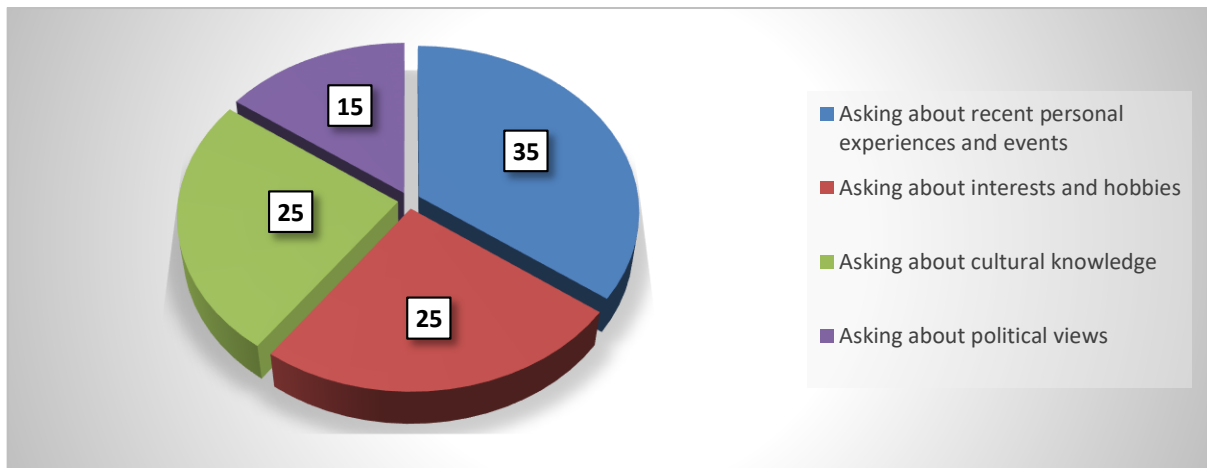


Figure 65. OE teachers' common questions to stimulate students' conversation

The propositions cited in the table above are some examples of the common questions used by OE teachers to stimulate students' conversation. 7 teachers (35 % of the sample) prefer asking about their students' personal experiences and events because this type of questions makes students free to describe issues using their pre-existing information. Hence sharing ideas and experiences with others facilitate educational outcomes particularly in terms of spoken language. 5 teachers (25 %) prefer to ask students about their interests and hobbies. Questions such as 'what do you like to do at the weekend?', 'what do you usually do in the evening?' or 'what do you get up to in your free time?' stimulate students to talk about themselves with enthusiasm. 3 teachers (15 %) ask their students to talk about political views. Yes, inviting students to political discussions really creates debate that empowers students' speaking abilities through arguing and convincing their opposing peers.

Item twenty six: Who chooses the type of oral activities to be performed in the classroom?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid You | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 15,0 |
| Students | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 30,0 |
| Both | 14 | 70,0 | 70,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 69. The responsibility of choosing classroom oral activities

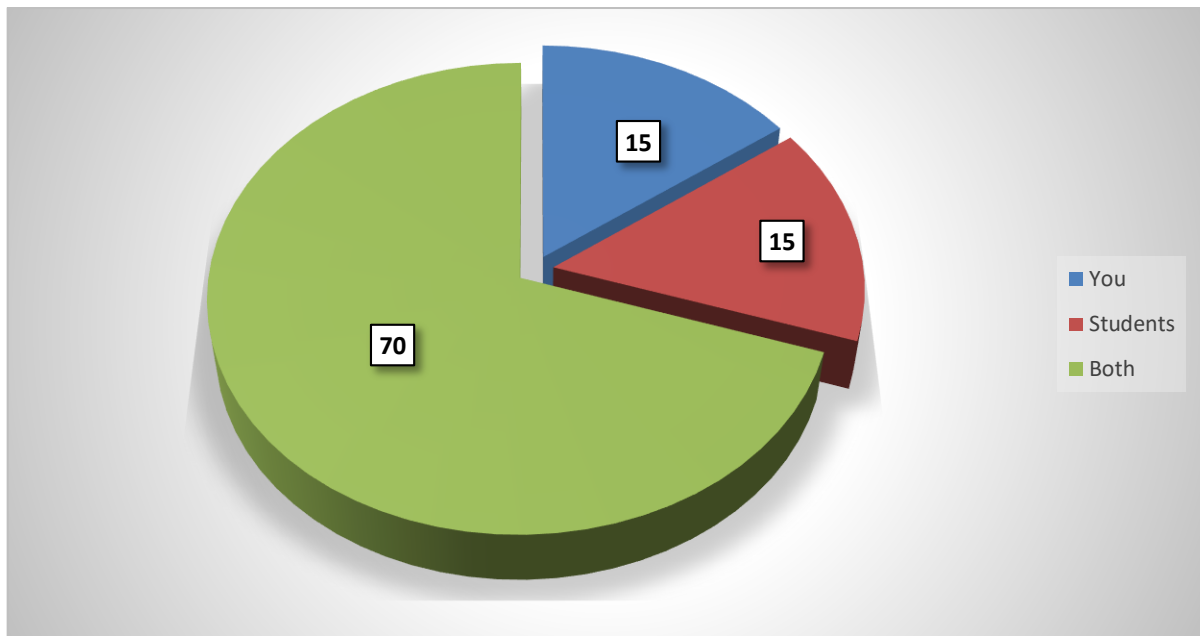


Figure 66. The responsibility of choosing classroom oral activities

Deciding on who chooses the types of classroom oral activities plays an important role in the process of learning, and these activities might have positive and negative consequences. If the teacher is able to make use of appropriate activities, he can increase students' motivation and therefore their classroom interaction. Students' preferences for classroom activities are often associated with motivational factors which influence students' choices, engagement, and effort. From this perspective, the question above seeks for what extent students are free to choose classroom activities. The results show that only 3 teachers, representing 15 % of the sample, impose their activities, and the same portion of teachers give complete right to students to choose their preferred activities, and 14 teachers, representing 70 %, claim that the choice of activities is always shared with their students. The way teachers choose, adapt, and deliver classroom activities reflects their teaching styles, and matching these styles effectively can only be achieved when they are aware of their students' needs, perceptions of usefulness or importance of activities, potentials, and learning style preferences. Hence it is important to take into consideration students' opinions for the selection of the activities and that good selection of classroom activities engages students in discussion, and facilitates their learning.

Item twenty seven: How do you treat your students' errors?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid You correct them immediately | 8 | 40,0 | 40,0 | 40,0 |
| You correct them later | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 60,0 |
| You do not correct them | 5 | 25,0 | 25,0 | 85,0 |
| You view them as learning opportunities | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 70. Teachers' treatment of students' errors

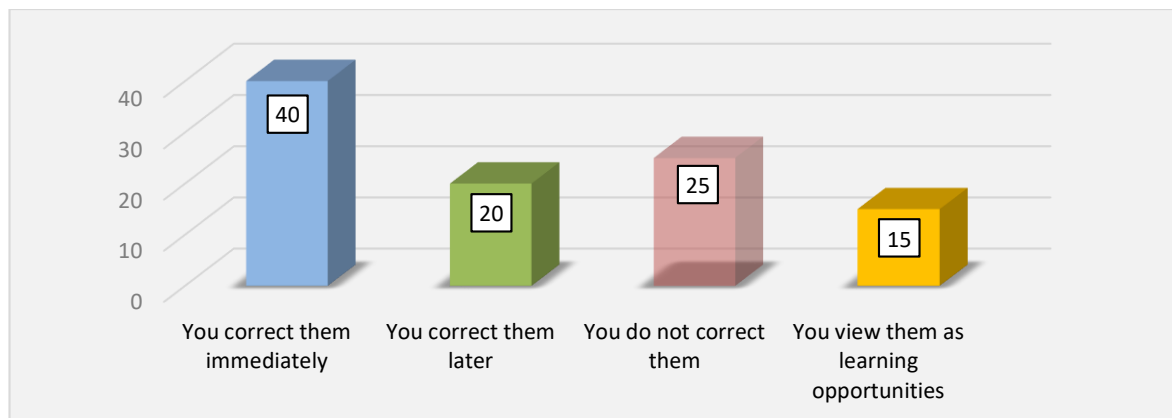


Figure 67. Teachers' treatment of students' errors

One of the classroom common issues that teachers have to deal with is how to correct students' errors. Does error correction lead to students' lack of motivation and destroy the flow of classroom lesson or activity? Do students want to have their errors corrected? How do teachers perceive students' error correction? The answer is delivered in the table above. 8 teachers, who represent 40 % of the sample, prefer to correct their students' errors immediately. In this case, correction seems to be advocated if the objective of the activity is to develop accuracy. Hence the first step is to stimulate students' self-correction. If this doesn't work, peer correction is recommended, but if no one is able to do it, the teacher then corrects or gives the correct answer. 5 teachers (25 %) state they do not correct them at all. The probable reason is that since they are trying to improve their students' fluency, meaning is more important than form, and therefore errors are tolerated. 4 teachers (20 %) correct them later so they can avoid embarrassing their students. 3 teachers (15 %) view them as learning opportunities and should be ignored.

Item twenty eight: How often do you value and praise your students' output?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid sometimes | 3 | 15,0 | 15,0 | 15,0 |
| Always | 17 | 85,0 | 85,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 71. Frequency of OE teachers' valuation of students' output

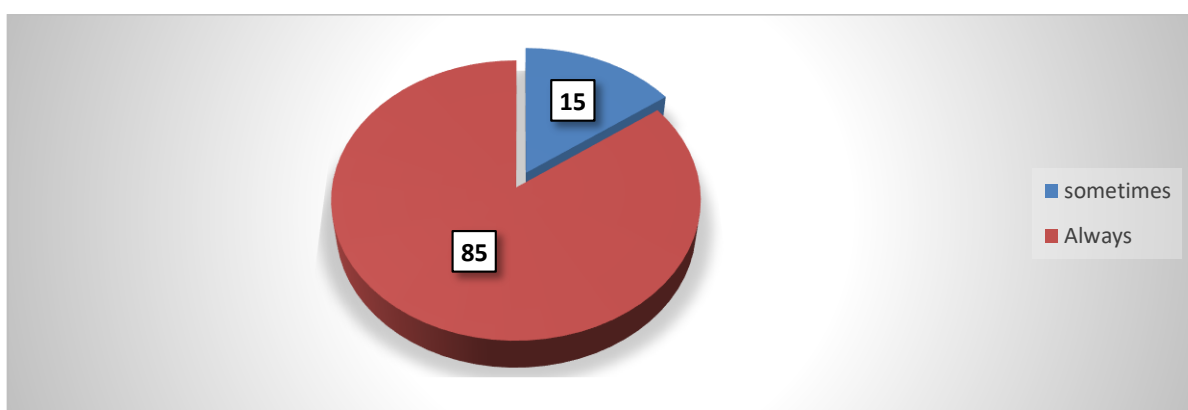


Figure 68. Frequency of OE teachers' valuation of students' output

One useful way to bring students' voices into the classroom is to value and praise their output. Teacher praise is one tool that can be powerful motivator for students. Hence it is important to know how often do OE teachers value their students' output. The results show that 17 teachers representing 85 % of the sample state they always praise their students' output, and 3 teachers (15 %) say they sometimes do. This indicates that teachers are aware of the positive effects upon students' motivation and creativity. Hence it is advised to praise students as a positive reinforcement in many different ways; the teacher can read out aloud the spoken or written answers of a fellow student in front of the class, to move close the students to create warm relationship, to make eye contact to show satisfaction, to smile in order to break barriers, to pat on the back or offer a handshake to show that their performance is well done. Praise can be general when addressing to the whole class and saying "Good job class", or specific when addressing a particular individual and saying "Well done Mr Salah", 'Keep using your strategies! You're making good progress!', 'You have really grown (in these areas)', 'I can see a difference in your work compared to yesterday', or 'You are really smart'.

Item twenty nine: At the end of the lesson, do you test your students' understanding?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Rarely | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 10,0 |
| sometimes | 12 | 60,0 | 60,0 | 70,0 |
| Always | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 100,0 |
| Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 72. OE teachers' feedback

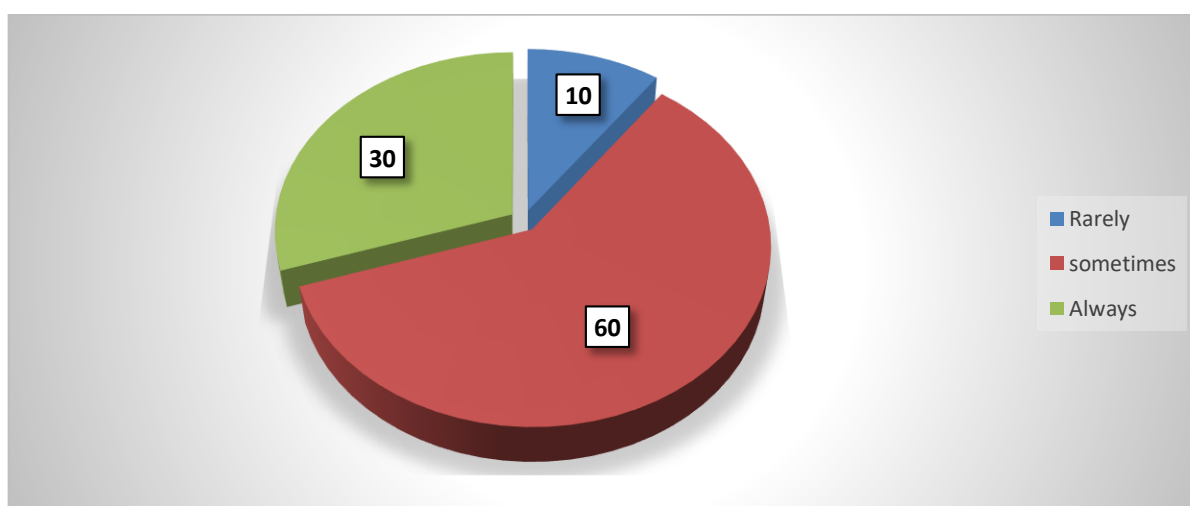


Figure 69. OE teachers' feedback

The table above deals with teachers' feedback which is an essential part of effective learning since it helps students understand the subject being studied and gives them clear guidance to improve their learning and outcomes. The results reveal that 6 teachers representing 30 % of the sample always provide their students with feedback. 12 teachers (60 %) sometimes do, and 2 teachers (10 %) rarely do. Teachers who use feedback are genuinely concerned about their students and their education as well. They often create student-teacher conference to provide an opportunity for discussion and clarification of misconceptions in order to satisfy students' needs. Students find themselves actively engaged in conversation which allows them to develop new strategies and critical thinking skills.

Item thirty: What do you suggest to improve your students' speaking skill?

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Reading extensively | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 30,0 |
| | Provide authentic listening materials | 6 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 60,0 |
| | Using ICTs | 4 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 80,0 |
| | Using English outside classroom | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 90,0 |
| | Stop correcting students' errors | 2 | 10,0 | 10,0 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 20 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Table 73. OE teachers' suggestion to improve students' speaking skill

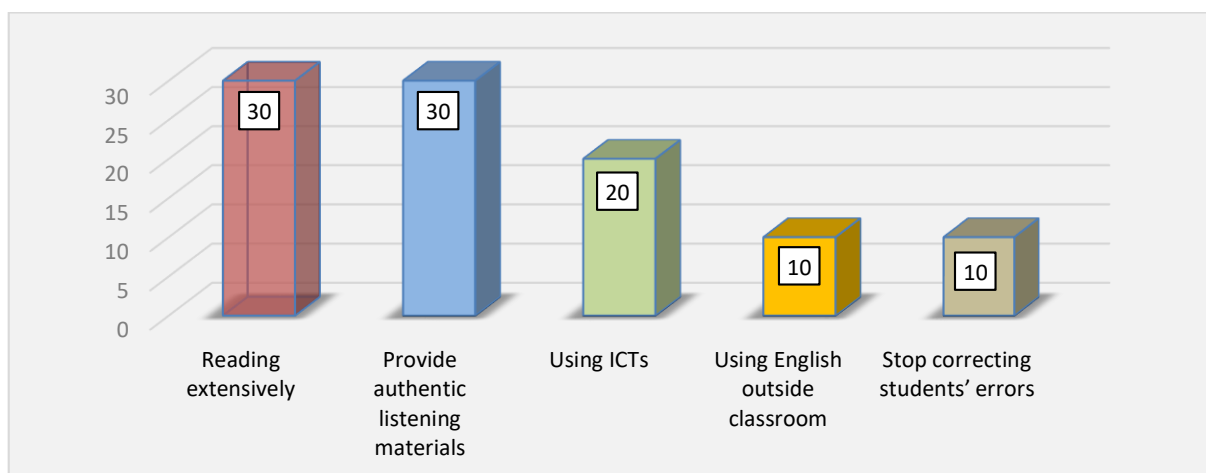


Figure 70. OE teachers' suggestion to improve students' speaking skill

The item above consists of open ended question to reveal teachers' different suggestions to improve their students' speaking skill. 6 teachers representing 30 % of the sample claim that the best way to do it is through exposing students to extensive reading. The latter enables students to promote linguistic competence through decoding and expanding vocabulary, and improving grammar mechanics. The same portion of teachers prefers to provide learners with authentic listening materials. Using native-like listening materials such as songs, movies, and advertisements can bring reality into the class and have various advantages such as stimulating motivation, raising cultural awareness, giving real exposure, enhancing creative thinking, and therefore promoting speaking and communicative skill.

4 teachers (20%) suggest ICT's that stand for information and communication technologies and which have become necessary in this digitalized world. They are a diverse set of technological tools and resources used to communicate, create, disseminate, store, and manage information in the learning process. They include computers, television, radio, phone, internet, and broadcasting technologies. ICT's could help in creating a long lasting impact on students who are stimulated to undertake communication tasks that they may otherwise avoid. 2 teachers (10%) advise students to speak English outside the classroom. Improving the speaking skill doesn't stop once class time is over, but students should maximize their practice of English through capitalizing on every single opportunity to speak it outside the classroom. Hence how exactly can students do this? Students can do it in many different ways, they are supposed to encourage each other to speak in English; it may seem strange at first but it does get easier and it will become more normal. They need to watch movies and listen to the radio, change their social media such as computer, phone, and email settings into English so they will be familiar with the target language in their everyday life. 2 teachers (10%) think that the problem that hinders students from improving their speaking is psychological. they think if they interrupt students and correct their errors, students will not be motivated to speak in front of classmates.

3.4.2. Summary

The informants are young teachers who are fresh, more stylish, fashionable, and motivated. Most of them hold Magister or Doctorate degrees which enable them to supervise students; they have new ideas, and ready to do their best to fulfill their needs and to improve their speaking skill. They have the experience in teaching OE module to second year level and therefore are able to satisfy their students' communicative expectations. It is worth noting that teachers who have repeated experience teaching the same grade level improve more rapidly than those whose experience is in a varied grade levels. However half of them are obliged to teach OE and they consider it as complex and difficult module. The others claim that teaching OE was a personal choice because they believe that it is the only session where they can select, apply and test new tasks and techniques to improve their teaching.

Methods and approaches applied in teaching speaking have been investigated in order to determine which ones are more suitable for teachers. The responses show that teachers use different teaching methodologies such as Audio Lingual Method, Total Physical Response, or they do not use any method at all. However, a great number of them use Communicative

Language Teaching because of its effectiveness in developing students' communicative competence. It is important to mention that some teachers use eclecticism since it offers opportunities to meet students' needs, wants, and expectations. Teachers select activities from different approaches and methods that they have proved their usefulness and effectiveness through previous practices. Hence, implementing different teaching methodologies should be considered as an advantage because students get easily bored if one single method could not satisfy their needs, and deciding which method of teaching is better for the lesson pertains to the teacher who should choose the most appropriate one.

Despite large classes are often viewed as obstacle for teaching because they lead to students' disengagement and feeling of alienation, the informants surprisingly do not agree upon this issue. They think they are able to manage classes of this size because they often propose communicative activities to be practiced by small groups and with less intervention from their side. Moreover, many of them believe that the time devoted to OE module which is 2 sessions per week is sufficient to develop the students' speaking skill. They stress much more on the quality of the activities applied in the classroom rather than their quantity, and the ways through which they stimulate their students to speak. To ensure the improvement of their students' speaking skill, they propose teaching communication skills, practicing real life activities, providing access to labs.

Dogme ELT principles have been implicitly introduced to the informants in order to know to what extent they are appreciated by them. They strongly believe that conversation and language that emerge spontaneously in the classroom are the bases for speaking improvement. However, they stand against minimizing the use of materials such as textbooks and technology. They assume that they are necessary to teach speaking. When asked again to what extent the selected materials could suit students' needs and interests, and how often do they accept their students' materials, one fourth of the informants allow the use of technological devices such as computers, tablets, and phones. We think that teachers should take into account that students come to class with their own experiences, knowledge, and frames of reference. They should accept their handouts and textbooks as a way to listen to their suggestions and to solicit their ideas because motivation is enhanced when students are invited to contribute in planning how they learn.

Negotiation of syllabus and lesson content has a great impact on students' learning; it promotes students confidence, motivation, responsibility, independent work, and learning quality. To be successful, syllabus negotiation should take into consideration the agreement

on the target topic and the nature of the topic that must not deviate from the aims of learning. Hence students will enjoy the lesson and promote their confidence if the content is driven by them. Students' preferences for classroom activities are also associated with motivational factors which influence students' choices, engagement, and effort. It is important to take into consideration students' opinions for the selection of the activities and that good selection of classroom activities engages students in discussion, and facilitates their learning

To create an interactive learning where students feel comfortable to speak, interaction between the teacher and students or between students themselves is an essential part of teaching and learning process. The former stimulates the students' involvement in the classroom and fuels their motivation as well. The latter allows students to learn and understand how negotiate meaning with partners, and develops the skill of team work. Classroom debate is also a useful technique for engaging students and bringing life to the classroom. It nurtures students' critical thinking, presentation skill, and public speaking. Students provided with early opportunities of debate can test their thoughts and views against that of their classmates, and therefore they will easily hold discussion about different issues in any context. Dogme ELT advocates interaction and conversation among students which can be perfectly realized through the exchange of ideas in a form of information gap activities. Students feel motivated because they work in a more communicative environment rather than a structured one.

To facilitate students' participation in the classroom, many techniques are available and easy to apply. For instance, the idea of chatting with students about daily life issues is fruitful; it allows each student to relax and to become less inhibited. Devoting the first few minutes of the lesson for chatting with students should not be viewed as time theft because the benefits remain great. Breaking the ice with students is a gateway for holding a comfortable conversation in the classroom. One useful way to bring students' voices into the classroom is to avoid immediate and direct error correction in order to avoid embarrassment. On the other hand, it is advocated to value, praise their output, and to provide a constructive feedback.

Conclusion

The two questionnaires were administered as a data collection tool in this research, They were designed so that answers to questions are scored and analyzed to obtain an overall measure of opinions and attitudes of the informants who are second year students of English and Oral Expression teachers. The questionnaires covered a number of issues related to the dependent and the independent variables of the research topic (the speaking skill and Dogme ELT). The research questions were developed and presented implicitly to diagnose participants' constraints and obstacles. The findings revealed that speaking remains difficult to learn and to teach and the reasons may pertain to the students' psychological barriers or the choice of teaching methods and strategies. Learner centered teaching seems to be the most suitable teaching paradigm for the majority of students; it was found out that students' needs, preferred activities, and materials are the keys for the speaking development. Students are more likely to engage in classroom conversation if they are permitted to bring their own materials into the classroom and to negotiate the syllabus and the lesson content with their teachers. Hence, the gathered data are motivating to implement an experiment which will be based on Dogme ELT principles and to test its effectiveness on students' speaking development.

Chapter Four: Experiment Implementation

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Chapter Four: Experiment Implementation

Introduction

Implementing an experiment is the core of this research. Finding the best way to conduct an experiment is so crucial to obtain useful and valid results. The experiment establishes a cause and effect of a phenomenon and represents the force that may affect the dependent variable (the students speaking skill); it enables the experimental group to learn through Dogme ELT principles and seeks for any improvement in their speaking. The group belongs to second year students of English in the department of English at Biskra University in the academic year 2016/2017. Carrying out the experiment involves completing tasks and recording data to be analyzed. The experiment has five stages: specifying the sample groups, dividing the sample into experimental group and controlling group, determining the time for the experiment, performing the experiment, gathering and analyzing data and drawing conclusion.

4.1. Research Methodology

To investigate the effectiveness of the application of Dogme ELT approach in developing second year students' speaking skill in the Department of Foreign Languages, section of English, at Biskra University; the experimental approach as a research method is most needed. The method requires implementing an experiment which is "a scientific investigation in which the researcher manipulates one or more independent variables, controls any other variables, and observes the effect of the manipulation on the dependents variable(s)" (Ary et al, 2010, p. 265).

The experiment consisted of six activities selected from the book "Teaching Unplugged", and each activity lasted for two sessions. The activities aimed to develop the students' speaking skill in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy and fluency. The method sought for any possible relationship between the variables; the independent variable (Dogme ELT approach) and dependent variable (Students' speaking skill). A descriptive method is also helpful to understand the problem matter; hence we needed first to know the actual situation of teaching and learning speaking skill from students and OE teachers' perspectives. As previously stated their attitudes and perceptions as quantitative data are detected from their responses of a questionnaire. The main reason behind using such a mixed method known as triangulation is to ensure validity of the research, reduce bias, improve accuracy of judgment, and inspire confidence in results.

4.2. Population and Sample

In order to obtain data from the whole population, sampling is required; it is “the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group” (Kumar, 2011, p. 177). The whole population consisted of 400 second year students enrolled at the department of foreign languages, section of English at Biskra University in the academic year 2016/2017. However, the sample which was not randomly selected consisted of 80 students who were divided into two groups of 40 students for each; an experimental group and control group. 90 % of the participants are aged between 18 and 25 years. The larger the sample the more accurate the results, hence 80 students who represent one fifth of the population seem to be sufficient.

Kothari (2004) states that there are two types of sampling: Probability sampling (random selection) and Non probability sampling (non-random selection). The former provides the chance to each member of the population to be included in the sample, whereas the latter doesn't provide the chance to each member of the population to be included in the sample. Hence, since the two groups were assigned by the administration, they fall into the second category. Moreover, the researcher had no role in the selection of the sample which was taken from a previously made list of ten groups. As stated in the introduction, the experimental group was taught through Dogme activities selected from the book “Teaching Unplugged”, the controlling group was taught through traditional way. To let them work spontaneously and without any pressure, students of the experimental group were not informed about the implementation of the experiment.

4.3. Experiment Design

The experiment required participants from two groups which were randomly assigned by the administration. The first step before starting the treatment was to apply a pre-test on the two groups in order to have a precise idea about their level in speaking and to provide them with the same amount of knowledge and support. The control group was taught in a classical way, whereas the experimental group was taught through Dogme principles in order to examine the effect of the independent variable (Dogme ELT) on the dependent variable (Speaking skill). Throughout the experiment, activities were proposed to the experimental group in order to free the students from textbooks and imposed technological tools. Students, then, were implicitly stimulated to talk about their personal interests and to bring their own tools into the classroom such as mobiles, cameras, newspapers, books...etc. By the end of the

treatment, a post-test was used to both groups in order to make a comparison between their scores

4.4. Experimental Procedures

The experiment consists of three stages: the pre-test, the treatment, and the post-test.

4.4.1. The Pre-test

The pre-test was administered firstly to make sure that the students of experimental and control groups were at the same speaking level before starting the experiment, and secondly to be compared with the post-test . The two groups that represented the sample included 40 students for each. To test their actual speaking skill level, different topics and questions had been retrieved and adjusted from International English language Test System (IELTS). The latter is the most widely accepted English language test by over 10,000 organizations worldwide, including schools and universities. It is designed to assess the learners' speaking skill by putting them in a real life conversation and a real person (teacher) since it is the most effective and natural way of testing their speaking skill. Typically, a speaking test involves a series of short tasks. Four different task types are used in speaking test: interview tasks, presentation tasks, negotiation tasks, and discussion tasks (Burgess & Head, 2005). The interview task is the most suitable and useful for candidates since it provides them with the opportunity to answer questions about themselves, home, family, hobbies, interests, reasons for study, and future plans. Therefore they will be able to respond without thinking because they are used to talk about their personal circumstances and experiences

4.4.1.1. Procedure

To be provided with equal opportunities, student were asked to select randomly one of the suggested topics in a form of a task card which asks them to speak about a particular topic and which includes points to be covered when speaking, then they are given few minutes to think about it, to prepare and build ideas for the interview which will last from three to five minutes. During questions, students should be encouraged to speak loud enough that their responses may easily be scored and help them feel comfortable. They "should be encouraged to give more than one-word answers to questions, and to show what they are capable of (Burgess and Head, 2005, p. 99).

The proposed topics were limited, very familiar and deal with the following issues: family, hometown, weather, wedding, travel, computers, internet, email, friends, interesting

places, smoking, marriage, hobbies, films, sports, food, television, tourism, daily routine, clothes, going out, games, colors, and music. The evaluation of the students' speaking skill is based on their speaking abilities speaking in terms of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency. The main problem that always persists is that the evaluation of speaking is extremely time consuming. It is very difficult to evaluate them immediately otherwise devoting make-up sessions will be necessary. The best but tiring solution is to record the interview audio-visually and to see it many times at home in order to give a fair evaluation.

If compared to the other language skills, speaking is one of the most difficult skill to test and evaluate due to its complexity. Sarosdy et al (2006) note that the speaking skill is always related to the listening skill and it is difficult to analyze precisely and reliably what is tested at any one time. One main way to increase reliability scoring is the use of marking scales. Which are based on the following criteria (accuracy, fluency, vocabulary, and pronunciation). Moreover, it is impossible to apply scoring without recording students' oral performance. Examiner's subjectivity is a problem that always persists since the examiner is emotionally attached to his students, and is not totally able to avoid bias. It is also worth noting that speaking assessment of 80 students are "time consuming and they require a fair amount of work" (Luoma, 2004, p. 190).

4.4.1.2. Difficulty of Assessing Speaking

Luoma (2004) argues that in assessing speaking, subjectivity can never be avoided, but it can be reduced. Examiners cannot score test performance anonymously because even if it is recorded through an audio tape, they can easily recognize their students' voices. However, they consciously attempt to be just and use the criteria consistently. They focus on the concrete features of a performance, identify strengths and weaknesses, and compare them against the features mentioned in the scoring criteria. The candidates who are tested first are often severely assessed; hence it is advocated to re-visit their performance after finishing scoring the last one. The reason behind this self-check is to see whether the examiners' internal standards have changed during the process of scoring or not. Examiners are asked also to listen to the entire performance many times if necessary in order to give candidates the marks they really deserve.

4.4.1.3. The Necessity of Recording the Speaking Test

The assessment of speaking skill during a test is so difficult for solo examiners; hence it is advised by Burgess and Head (2005) to record the candidate's oral performance because the examiner gives much of his attention to conducting the test. So it is fairer to give a final mark after watching the video or listening to the tape. Moreover, if the examiner is not sure, or is not satisfied of the grade awarded, he can check again the recorded speech and adjust the grade. An important remark should be taken into consideration; the students have to be informed in advance that recording equipment will be used. They need to be encouraged and why not ask them to record and listen to their own voice before the test. Once the candidates individually enter the room, the examiner has to put them at ease by a good welcome, and by giving them the same chance to choose topics randomly.

4.4.2. Content of the Experiment

The experimental group which includes 40 students was put under a treatment that relies on Dogme principles; it consists of six activities selected from the book "Teaching Unplugged".

4.4.2.1. Activity 1: Pocket Pecha Kucha: Talking about the things we carry round with us.

It is a "show and tell presentation" technique that is devised to encourage students to talk more. Students are asked to find three things they bring (on their bodies, in their bags, or in their pockets) such as perfume, mobile, chain, ring, and photo. They should link between them and their lifestyle, personality or interests. Each student displays their objects and then the class ask that student questions about the chosen object. The researcher's role is to take notes and help with needed language and encourage them. He can ask them to write what they said about their objects in a copy to be displayed on the board and browsed by the whole class.

4.4.2.2. Activity 2: Guess the definition: Starting from the word

The use of dictionaries as materials is useful to better define and acquire new words, and testing students' vocabulary competence is also crucial in the learning process. Students often understand and produce words easily but they difficultly give their exact and complete definitions. The researcher selects some words that have already been dealt with or that are related to students' daily life and interests. After forming groups, the researcher tells the first word and the students of each group work collaboratively on a definition they think will be as

close as possible to the one provided in the dictionary. A representative of each group reads out their definition. The researcher awards a point to the definition he thinks it is closest to the one in the dictionary. The evaluation of students' definitions should be done in a good humored way. After checking the dictionary definition, and if the researcher thinks that two or more definitions are equally close, a point is given to all of them. The group with most points at the end wins.

4.4.2.3. Progress Test 1

Since the experiment requires the implementation of six activities that represent the independent variable (Dogme ELT), it is suitable, after the end of two activities (four OE sessions), to check the effect of these activities on students' speaking abilities through the use of progress test. As it has already been stated, the topics of the progress test and the post-test are retrieved from the international English language Test System (IELTS). The progress test is a linear assessment based on ulterior equivalent, yet different tests. The main advantage of progress test is that students will experience less stress than in pretest, and therefore they will gain self-confidence. It also offers a new opportunity for the students who got low marks in the pretest to demonstrate their language learning improvement. The combination of the scores obtained in each progress test enables the researcher to determine exactly each student's achievement and adds reliability to the final scores and the research findings as well.

4.4.2.4. Activity 3: A problem shared: Sharing everyday problems and solutions

When facing problems or annoying situations, people often ask for help or advice. Many phenomena occur such as a noisy neighbor, procrastination, or a health problem. The researcher asks students to sit in two parallel lines (A and B), the first student of line A tells her problem and each student of line B asks questions and offers advice until all students take their turns. In this way, every student in line A has interacted with every student in line B. Then the turn goes to students of line B. The researcher circulates, listen, help with language, and encourage. For each student's problem, the researcher can ask the class to report on the best provided advice.

4.4.2.5. Activity 4: Most politicians, few dogs

The activity revolves around an interrogative sentence that students should keep its form but substitute some of its words. The researcher writes the table provided below. He asks the students to ask questions that they would like answered. The students have to remove one or

more elements of the sentence. For example: why do all politicians lie? Why do most women like shopping? Why do some parents hit their children? Each student writes a question at the top of a blank sheet of paper, she passes it to the student sitting on the right. Each one reads the question they have been given and writes the answer at the bottom of the paper and folds it over so it is out of the sight of the next student who does likewise. This continues until the paper returns to its original owner who opens out the answers, reads them, and selects the best one.

| | | | | | |
|-----|-----|------------------------------------|---|--|---|
| why | are | All Many Most Some few | Parents Teachers Politicians Men/Women Dogs | | ? |
| | do | | | | |

4.4.2.6. Progress Test 2

Like the first progress test, the second progress test is another opportunity for both the researcher and the participants to assess the practical use of the target language. The researcher diagnoses the students' current speaking skill in terms of the so called components: vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency. It is assumed that "They help teacher to judge the degree of success of his or her teaching and to identify the weaknesses of the learners" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 427). The students gain familiarity with interview which releases them from their fear and anxiety. Students, who are given a short time to prepare themselves for the interview, are asked again to talk for few minutes about the same topics provided by the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). The main purpose from putting them in the same context is to ensure the homogeneity of the three tests (pre-test, progress test, and post-test) and therefore to add validity and reliability to the final scores.

4.4.2.7. Activity 5: Matchbox magic: Generating vocabulary from minimal stimulus

The activity stimulates students' curiosity to talk freely about interesting things in their lives. For example: the researcher brings a matchbox in which he puts money, he passes it to the students who are asked to write down their first impression about that object. Students mingle, compare their answers, and look for similar reactions. They form groups according to their reactions. The researcher circulates and helps with needed language. Each group develops an essay in which they answer questions such as: if you were going to do something good / bad with this thing, what would it be? If you were going to give it to someone, who would it be? If you were going to change something about it, what would it be, why? A

representative of each group stands on the stage and tries to tell the answer without reading from a paper.

4.4.2.8. Activity 6: Lightning talks: Helping each other in conversation

The activity enhances conversation and fluency among students. The researcher writes discussion topics on the board, numbered as follows: What I like (and don't like) 1. About my room, 2. About my house, 3. About my town, 4. About my region, 5. About my country, 6. About my world. The researcher divides the class into pairs; each partner rolls a dice to determine their topic. They are given one minute to take notes before they speak. When they are ready, the first student in each group speaks to their partner about the topic for one minute. Partners then exchange roles. Each student repeats their one-minute talk for the whole class with the support of their partner without reading from the paper.

4.4.3. The Post Test

The objective of the post-test was to check to what extent participants of controlling and experimental groups have improved in terms of their speaking skill, and therefore to make a comparison between the two. The post-test is defined as a test given after learning has occurred or is supposed to have occurred. The one given before learning has occurred is a pre-test. The comparison between the two measures the amount of progress a learner has made (Richards and Schmidt, 2002) In other words, scores obtained from each group are analyzed in order to determine the degree of change occurring as a result of the treatment which consists of the manipulation of the independent variable (Dogme ELT). Like the pre-test, the post-test requires speaking about topics which are selected and adjusted from International English Language Test System (IELTS). Students' oral presentation is then evaluated in order to seek for any effectiveness from incorporating Dogme ELT to improve students' speaking skill. The researcher's main role was to create a friendly atmosphere, eliciting expressions of greeting such as hello and how are you? and starting with easy questions involving short turns. He also put into consideration some points to avoid such as overcorrecting the students, interrupting them unless necessary, or imposing his own opinion.

4.5. Experiment Analysis

The experiment implementation lasted six weeks starting from February until March 2017; two sessions of three hours per week. Six activities were selected from the book "Teaching Unplugged and each activity took two sessions. They were designed to improve students'

speaking skill in terms of fluency, accuracy, vocabulary and pronunciation. Students' oral performances were audio recorded using a mobile. Students showed no hesitation or fear to speak first because they were asked to work in groups which would reduce their anxiety, and second they were motivated to communicate in order to get better scores. The role of the teacher was to provide them with needed unknown words and to give them the floor equally. He created classroom debate through stimulating students to convince each other with their different and contradictory opinions and beliefs.

Activity One:

Pocket Pecha Kucha

Talking about the things we carry round with us

Think about it

Pecha Kucha is a ‘show and tell’ presentation technique that was devised to stop designers from talking too much about their ideas! Adapted for the classroom, it can encourage people to talk *more*.

Get it ready

There’s nothing to prepare.

Set it up

Explain that everyone will be ‘telling’ the class about themselves, but that they will be doing this by showing objects.

Tell them to find three things on their person, in their pockets or in a bag, that ‘say’ something about their lifestyle, personality or interests. For example: a ring or chain, a book or music player, a photo, some food, etc.

Let it run

- The first person displays their objects, showing each one for twenty seconds in turn.
- When they have finished, the class ask that person questions about the objects they chose to display.
- You make notes, help with language and generally encourage, as appropriate. This continues until everyone has spoken and been interviewed.

Round it off

Tell people to work in pairs and to write something about their partner’s objects, before checking with their partner that what they have written is accurate.

Everyone makes a final copy on a Post-it note, which can be displayed on the walls and browsed by the whole class.

Variation

You can use the same process to stimulate people to talk about their hobbies or interests by adding a homework task element. Everybody brings to school three items that relate to a hobby or interest, and displays it in the way described above.

* **Pecha Kucha** was devised by Astrid Klein and Mark Dytham in Tokyo in 2003. The name derives from a Japanese term for the sound of conversation (‘chit-chat’).

Analysis and Discussion of the Activity

To create classroom discussion, the activity has been simplified; students were asked to choose one object they were carrying with them and to exchange questions and answers about it. They immediately began to select and show objects such as wrist watch, smart phone, sun glasses, notebook, perfume, ring, wallet, lipstick (kylie jennes), laptop, student card, hand synthesizer. Each student was informed to write a paragraph to describe the object and to answer questions such as: did you buy it by yourself or did someone offer it to you as a gift? What does this object mean to you? How often do you take it with you? If you are asked to give it to someone, who would it be? By the end of the session, each student was asked to stand in front their classmates, to improvise and to talk about the object without looking to the written paragraph and to answer their classmates' questions too. In this way, students who were given time to build their ideas, write them down, and deliver them orally on the stage, would surely gain confidence and comfortably express themselves. The following are extracts of their oral presentations.

My ring: "I have a special gift from my eldest sister; it is a ring, a beautiful ring. It is made of silver, it takes a form of flower in the middle, it has a blue cristal pearl. My sister gave it to me on my 17th birthday. I had an amazing feeling in that time because it doesn't mean just a ring. She showed to me her love, and I wore it since that time. I can't put it off my hand. I feel more relaxed when I wear it. My ring is one of the expensive pieces that I have; I will retain it, even if it is broken, in my special box of memories".

My ring: "I have a lot of gifts, but the most important one was my ring. It has a special place in my heart because it is from my mother. I was wearing it from a long time. She gave it to me when I took a good mark. This ring was very expensive because it is made from gold and took the shape of butterfly"

In general, the two passages are written without spelling mistakes except the underlined words which reflect the interference of the French and Arabic languages, hence the correct words in English are "crystal" instead of 'cristal and 'for' instead of 'from' . Literal translation is used in the expression 'it is made from gold' instead of saying "it is made of gold". Punctuation and accuracy seem to be respected though the passage partially lacks parallel structure and cohesion. Inappropriate tense is used in the expression "I was wearing it for a long time" which should be "I have been wearing if for a long time". What is worth noting is that the participants could express their real ideas and feelings simply because the object to describe had been selected by them. When reading the text, they were so comfortable, confident, and enthusiastic.

My laptop: “I have a white laptop in my purple bag. It is probably the most precious thing I have here. It was my BEM gift; I have it for five years. Though it’s a bit broken, but I still use it mainly to watch movies and play games. Sometimes I use it also to write. I wish it could hang in there for me for a bit longer because I really love and need it”

My phone: “I always tell my father that I want a new phone. The last year when we were in my uncle’s house in Ramadan, he asked my uncle how much I phone costs. One day he took me out after dinner and we went to the phones store and I was surprised at first, I have never thought he will give it to me like that. After that he told me to choose one, and I choosed the one I have now. I wanted to experience the Apple mark for the first time, but it turned out to be hell, if something happens to it and you want to repair it, it costs a lot.”

Despite it is short, but the first text is cohesive; it includes transitional words such as “though” and “sometimes”. The participant provides a direct description of the object with a clear and simple vocabulary through which the reader can easily grab what the writer wants to express. However the second text which is long seems to be unstructured and its ideas are not grammatically well presented. The respondent uses achievement strategy since she doesn’t care about mistakes and focuses much more sending ideas. In this kind of spoken texts, informality is often tolerated because what is most needed is to convey the message without ambiguity.

My student card: “The student card is an important biometric card; it is used by the student in university to show that he/she is a student. We use it for many functions, for example we use it for loaning books from the library and we use it when we want to enter the university. In the period of exams, we need it to show our identity, and if we lose it, we will fall in a big problem. So the student card is very important for the student”

My notebook: “The thing that I carry always with me is the notebook because it is important thing for me. In my notebook, I take my courses and my all information. When the teacher says any point or information, I write it in it. It helps me to remember something that I may forget it. So having a notebook is very necessary for students”

Students fetched any object they bear to talk about. Some find notebooks necessary in their learning development and use them to recall forgotten information. They could convince their classmates to possess one and they all agreed on its usefulness. Other students presented their

student cards. Each one suggested an advantage to seize such as borrowing books, having meals in campus restaurants, using university buses to move, and getting access into other universities. They insisted on bringing their student cards wherever they go because they consider these cards as passports. Both student cards and notebooks are related to the students' requirements and interests, hence they created a hot discussion among students who enjoyed the topic

My lipstick: "I like it because its color is so beautiful and seems natural; it sticks on the lips 24 h a day. When I put lipstick, I feel confident because it improves my facial features and appearances and shows my feminine beauty"

My eyeliner: "The eyeliner is a cosmetic applied in a fine line around the eye. It is the only make up tool that I can't live without. I find it really elegant and aesthetic. I like to apply it basically because of my dark circles that make me look like a Panda"

My perfume: "The thing that I take with me most of time is the perfume. I like to keep it with me because I need it when I go out and I like its smell. Its brand is Paco rabanne, it has an attractive smell, I want to spray it on my neck so my friends take a good impression about me"

My wallet: "My wallet is always in my bag. I can't let it in my home because it carried everything I need like my money, my cards, my chewing gum, my photos, my tickets of campus restaurant, and important papers. I would like to buy another one"

The passages reflect the positive impact of freedom given to the participants to talk about their personal objects they often carry with them. The activity was a good opportunity for the students and me as well to discover names of cosmetic tools such as lipstick and eyeliner. Students showed comfort and frankness, and tried to express their real feelings and opinions. Linguistically, though they used informal language characterized by reduced vocabulary, they could convey their message because they focused on meaning rather than form. Hence all the students were waiting their turns to talk about themselves.

My hand synthesizer

I always carry around hand synthesizer or anti-germs bottle. It is always nice to have. You can put some on your hands when you feel the need to. It can be essential when you go out and find yourself in a public place in a situation where there can be germs around you. It is very useful and practical to protect yourself against contamination.

My sun glasses

It is summer time, so sun glasses protect my eyes from the sun rays. They are well known brand (Persol) used by the whole world. They are displayed in different shapes and colors. My sun glasses are so important since they protect my eyes and skin as well.

As previously stated, female students are more interested in their beauty, so they often bring tools that prevent their bodies against any harm. With the spread of diseases transmitted through hand shake, and for security reasons, many prefer to use hand synthesizer. The student who presented her hand synthesizer could increase her classmates' awareness, and pushed each one to decide to buy one in the near future. Another student presented her sun glasses and described them as a useful object. She explained their importance particularly when it is sunny. All students cited different brands of sun glasses most sold in this era of fashion. They also warned against non original sun glasses which are often inexpensive and that can be harmful too. During the activity, all the students were enthusiastically motivated to speak and exchange ideas because everyone had the curiosity to show and talk about their personal objects.

Activity Two:

Guess the definition

Starting from the word

Think about it

A good learner's dictionary makes a great shared resource as you advance through a course. Don't be afraid to refer to it yourself - this is a good way to show how useful it is.

Get it ready

Make a selection of words that have come up in recent lessons: nouns, verbs and adjectives work best. If you don't already do so, bring a learner's dictionary into class.

Set it up

Read out a definition for a familiar noun such as *teacher*, replacing the key word with *blank*.

Ask the class to guess the word. Discuss the language used in the definition. For example:
Someone who ..., etc.

Something used for..., etc.

Repeat, using a different noun.

Let it run

Read out the first word from your selection.

- Working in groups, people collaborate on a definition that they think will be as close as possible to the definition in the dictionary.
- You find the entry for that word in the dictionary. The groups read out their definitions, and you award a point to the definition which you think is closest to the one in the dictionary. (This is an approximate process and needs to be conducted in a good-humoured way; if two or more definitions are equally close, award no points to anyone!)
- Read out the dictionary definition and answer any questions.

Round it off

The group with the most points at the end wins.

Analysis and Discussion of the Activity

The first word to be introduced to the students was “table”. This object is always used in the classroom and at home too. Hence the main objective was to see to what extent students can express their ideas through using their knowledge of the target language. Students were divided into 6 groups, they began to work collaboratively. Each student of the group proposed her own definition until they agreed on the final definition indicated in the table below. Inside each group, there was a debate and exchange of ideas. Since the activity takes a form of a competition, groups are motivated and enthusiastic to win. They try to describe the object “table” with a diverse and rich vocabulary in order to present a definition that will be as close as possible to the one mentioned in the dictionary.

The groups provided nearly the same vocabulary such as: furniture, decoration, object, material, wood, metal, iron, glass, plastic, legs, flat surface, shape, studying, writing, eating, putting, and arranging things. All the so called words are necessary to shape a complete and meaningful definition. When reading their definitions, groups criticized each other, and stated their definitions’ weaknesses. The comparison of definitions was so difficult because each group cited some descriptive words that the other group didn’t do and vice versa. What is worth noting is that the type of the activity stimulated the students to speak freely and to learn how to defend their ideas and how to convince their classmates. The definition below was taken as a reference for the word “table”:

“A piece of furniture with a flat top and one or more legs, providing a level of surface for eating, writing, or working at” (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2019)

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Group 01 | Table: is an object which is made of the material of wood, iron, glass, or plastic. It stands on three or four legs. We use it for writing, eating, or putting things on it |
| Group 02 | Table: a tool consisted of wood or metal or both. It has different shapes, the original shape of 4 legs and flat surface. We use it for many purposes. |
| Group 03 | Table: is stuff made of wood or metal, and it is a kind of furniture that we use to put things on. |
| Group 04 | Table: a piece of furniture that can be made of wood, iron, or plastic. It is composed of one flat top and 4 legs. It is used for many purposes such as writing, eating... |
| Group 05 | Table: noun refers to an object or furniture which is usually made of wood, metal, glass ... it is used for studying plus putting things on. |
| Group 06 | Table: piece of furniture generally made of wooden or metallic material used to arrange things, to eat on, to study, or for decoration. |

The second word to define was “Princess Diana”. She was selected to test the students’ knowledge of the British culture since Lady Diana is considered as one of the celebrities not only in Great Britain, but in the entire world too. In this activity, socio and intercultural competence will be emphasized due to the fact that knowing the culture of the target language has become a must in foreign language learning. Once the name of Princess Diana was introduced, all the students showed their desire to speak because her beauty, her story, and her death were memorized in their minds. Some said “she was so kind and beautiful”, “her death was a big loss”, “conspiracy led to her death”, “she had been betrayed by her husband”, “she devoted her life for poor children and people”. In other words, students’ voices burst and didn’t stop.

Students were so pleased and curious to discuss the topic because it fitted their interests. They immediately began to write down all what they know about her life. While circulating and checking their language, I noticed that they were impressed by her beauty and personality, and introduced many different words related to her such as: British Royal Princess, yellow hair, blue eyes, Prince Charles, the Queen Elizabeth 2, Harry and William, Dodi El Fayed, divorce, car accident, conspiracy, humanitarian work, donation, charity work, and (August, 1997). All students sympathized with Princess Diana because she was a woman who sacrificed her life in supporting victims of AIDS and cancer, and young people in prisoners’ families, fighting homelessness and poverty, and leading a campaign for a worldwide ban of land mines. Students really enjoyed the activity which passed so quickly,

hence they asked me to devote some coming sessions to talk about other celebrities. The groups' definitions are presented below the following definition of "Princess Diana":

“One of the most famous and beautiful women of her time. She was screwed over by her whore of a husband and his family. Has two sexy sons, William and Harry. She did amazing charity work and was known as the "people's princess". She died in 1997 because of a car crash in Paris. She will be one of the most cherished women of all time” (Urban dictionary online, 2019)

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Group 01 | Princess Diana: was the wife of the prince of Britain. She had two children (boys); one of them Henry. She died in a car accident in France. |
| Group 02 | Princess Diana: a very famous and beloved person in Great Britain, and the world. She married the Prince Charles and had two children: William and Henry. They got divorced after he announced he had cheated her. She was famous for her humanitarian work. |
| Group 03 | Princess Diana: she is a famous person from a middle class. She has a short yellow hair and white skin with blue eyes. She married a British Prince who was the son of the Queen Elizabeth 2. She had two children. She was lovely because she was helping poor people. She died in an accident under conspiracy made by Elizabeth 2. |
| Group 04 | Princess Diana: a British royal princess known for her great donation. She was a beautiful white young lady with green eyes and fair short hair. She got married twice and she had 2 boys (princes) died on August 1997. |
| Group 05 | Princess Diana: the ex wife of prince Charles; the son of the Queen Elizabeth 2. She is a mother of two kids who had been died in a car accident. |
| Group 06 | Princess Diana: (1962-1997), married prince Charles in 1985. Very famous and a legendary woman loved by her people. Left two boys: Harry and William. Killed in Paris; a traffic accident with Doody El fayed. She used to participate in charity works. |

As far as I know, all girls wear rings for fashion or for indicating engagement or marriage. They often have memories with rings; did they buy them by themselves or are they given to them as gifts? What does 'ring' mean to girls? To have detailed answers, students were asked to define the word "ring". Once they are asked, they raised their hands to show their rings to each other and tell different stories. Even the few male students had many things to say. After forming groups, they suggested the following words to shape the definition: Jewelry, gold,

silver, bronze, copper, plastic, ornament, diamond, pearl, ruby, precious gems, aesthetic accessory, and decoration, fashion, finger, engagement, and marry. In case of necessity, I supplied them with the needed vocabulary or I asked them to check their dictionaries. They all proposed definitions which are almost similar in which they describe a ring as aesthetic circular accessory that can be made of different metals such as gold, silver copper, bronze, and even plastic. It can be ornamented by pearls and diamonds, and it is sometimes a symbol of engagement or marriage.

The most important side of the activity was that students begun to tell each other anecdotes about their rings, and therefore students' curiosity increased classroom discussion. One student said "the ring I am wearing on my finger is made of gold; it is very expensive and has a red pearl in the middle. My mother gave it to as a gift when I passed my Baccalaureate. All my friends admire it. I want to keep it with me all my life". A second student interfered "the most precious thing I wear is my beautiful ring. When she married, my closest sister offered it to me. From that time I didn't take it off my finger. Another student said "one day when I was sitting with my friend Ammar and my brother's friend Samir who had a ring.

Samir loved Ammar's ring so he asked him to give it to him. At the beginning Ammar didn't want, but then I convinced him to give the ring and he did. After a while Samir took off his ring and I wore it on my finger and asked him 'does it look good on me?' he answered yes, it is a little bit wide, just put some scotch tape on it and so I did and took it". All the so called passages are only samples of students' interventions which were characterized by spontaneity and productivity. Students found themselves comfortably involved in classroom interaction which was the main objective of activity. Groups' responses are presented in the table below the following definition of the word "ring":

"A small circular band, typically of a precious metal and often set with one or more gemstones, worn on a finger as an ornament or taken of marriage, engagement, or authority" (Oxford living dictionary online, 2019).

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Group 01 | Ring: a kind of jewelry. It is made of metal like gold, silver. It can be ornamented by diamonds. It is used as accessory or symbol of married or engaged women. |
| Group 02 | Ring: jewelry made of different materials such as gold, silver, bronze, and even plastic. Comes in form of rounded shape, usually it's the size of the finger, and decorated by a pearl or diamond or a ruby. A man buys it for a woman. |
| Group 03 | Ring: it is a solid object in a shape of a circle, made of gold, silver, or a copper decorated by diamond. In some cases, it considered as a kind of accessory used by both man and woman, it is a symbol of engagement when it is worn in the finger in the left hand. |

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| Group 04 | Ring: is a round piece of accessory that can be made of gold, silver. Different kinds and shapes of diamond and pearls can be added. It is worn by men and women to signal that they are in relationship. |
| Group 05 | Ring: a piece of jewelry in a rounded shape usually made of gold, silver, and decorated with diamond. It is a symbol of engagement and used for fashion |
| Group 06 | Ring: piece of jewelry and aesthetic accessory wore in fingers and made of noble metal, it is sometimes decorated by precious gems. It reflects engagement, life style, and persons' social class (in old civilization). |

The word given to students to define was 'Nile River'. It was chosen because it is the longest river in the world and flows in the Mediterranean Sea; hence it was expected from students to provide some information about it. The activity took a form of information activity because students of each group have information that the others in the other groups don't have and vice versa. Many students stated that the Nile River has always been considered as a reference to Egypt and its civilization since the era of Pharaohs. One student said that it crosses many African countries such as Kenya Uganda Sudan, and Egypt till it reaches the Mediterranean Sea". Another one said "it is the longest river in the world; it starts from Victoria Lake (Kenya) and ends into the Mediterranean Sea". Another one interfered and said "it is the heart of the Egyptian economy; it serves in the development of agriculture and transportation, and tourism. During my visit to Egypt, I had a lunch on a boat in the Nile River; it was a fantastic trip". One student knew the importance of the River for the African countries and commented "through history, the Nile River has caused conflicts between the Nile basin countries. Recently Egypt has stood against building a big dam in Ethiopia which will decrease its outflow in Egypt". "Yes indeed, as experts have expected, the next world war will be fought over water" another student confirmed.

The debate lasted until the end of the session and continued in the next one. Students read much more about the topic and exchanged knowledge in a very motivating atmosphere. They learned many things about the Nile River such as its length, rate of flow, and capacity as well as its value. They enjoyed learning through discussion and testing their cultural background which was the main factor for the success of the activity. Moreover, all students of groups defended the information they provided and believed they were the best in order to get the best mark. You find below the definition of 'Nile River' followed with a table that includes the answers of each group. "The world's longest river (4150 miles); flows northward through eastern Africa into the Mediterranean; the Nile River valley in Egypt was the site of the world's first great civilization" (The free dictionary online, 2019).

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Group 01 | Nile River: is the longest river in the world. It passes Egypt and flows in Mediterranean sea. It starts through eastern Africa. |
| Group 02 | Nile River: the longest river in the world, located in the north of Africa (Egypt). Its source is Uganda, and it ends in the Mediterranean sea. It is the most famous natural source which was very helpful to the Egyptian civilization. |
| Group 03 | Nile River: a large river in Africa flowing in Khartoum and Cairo into the Mediterranean sea. It was the center of the Pharaonic civilization. It is used in agriculture and transportation of goods. |
| Group 04 | Nile River: the largest river in Africa that starts from the Mediterranean sea, it goes through Egypt, Sudan, and center of Africa. It was a source of life since the era of Pharaohs, and was used for agriculture, fishing, and transportation. |
| Group 05 | Nile River: it is the longest water way in the world. It started in Egypt and flows in the Mediterranean sea crossing many countries like Sudan. In the past, it played a great role as a natural source of water in the rise of Pharaoh's civilization. |
| Group 06 | Nile River: 2 nd longest river in the world, it starts from Victoria Lake (Kenya). It crosses Ethiopia, South Sudan, North Sudan till Egypt and finally the Mediterranean sea. Lack of water causes many conflicts between Nile Basin countries. |

Religion has always been a part of culture; its principles are often delivered through holy books which tell the lives of ancient peoples and stories of prophets and messengers. Hence students enjoy speaking about different issues related to it. 'Holy Bible' is the sacred book for the Christians, and what the students know about it will be investigated through their responses. What is the 'Holy Bible'? Students tried to define it in different ways using different words such as Jesus Christ, Mary, Father, Son, Holy Spirit, the Messiah, Christians, Jews, Old Testament, New Testament, church, priest, John, Matthew, Luke, and Mark. Students found it a good opportunity to show and test their knowledge about the topic.

Many comments were provided; students said "there are four versions of the Holy Bible. They all describe the life and miracles of Christ Jesus who was crucified by the Jews", "a religious book that was sent to the Jews through the prophet Jesus. A conspiracy between the Romans and the Jews led to his death", "the Holy Bible was written by the apostles of Jesus; it advocates on the belief that God may take three forms: father, son and holy spirit", "Holy Bible represents the heritage of Christianity. It is the New Testament for Christians; however it was rejected by the Jews who caught the New Testament (the Torah)". All these definitions reflect the cultural knowledge students possess.

The topic on which the activity was based was admired by all the students. It stimulated them to talk also about the difference between the Holy Bible and Quran. They all contributed in the discussion which was enjoyable. A student said “the Gospels are not holy books because they were written by humans; whereas Quran is a Holy book that was sent by God, and it is the miracle of our prophet Muhammad”. Another added “the Holy Bible was written many years after the death of Jesus (as Christians confess), it had many different versions and therefore it lost its credibility”. Some students said that a great portion of Christians do not practice their religion and do not even have a copy of the Holy Bible in their homes. They stated that the book includes only a collection of stories and advices without any instructions. The objective of the activity was not to criticize the Holy Book or to mention its demerits, but to trigger the students’ desire to speak. Indeed, I think the activity left a big space for students not only to interact with each other but also to learn what and how to say. The following is a definition of ‘Holy Bible’ accompanied with the answers of the groups.

“The collection of sacred writings of the Christian religion, comprising the Old and New Testaments” (Dictionary.com online, 2019).

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|-----------------|--|
| Group 01 | Holy Bible: one of the five heavenly books that God sends through our prophet Christ (Issa) to lead the Jews to the right way but they changed it to other beliefs and said that God is the father and Christ is the son. |
| Group 02 | Holy Bible: a religious book that came as a revelation to the prophet Jesus Christ; the Messiah, but then was refused by the Jews and hypocrites. It is originally a book for Jews but was adopted by Christians (Old Testament and New Testament). It has many versions: John, Mathew, Lucas, |
| Group 03 | Holy Bible: religious book sent to the prophet Jesus but was rejected by the Jews. The Christians believe that God may take three Characters: father, son, and holy spirit. |
| Group 04 | Holy Bible: is a sacred book of Christianity that has many versions exactly four such as Luke... it was sent for the prophet Jesus. Its principles are preached by priests in the church mainly on Sundays. |
| Group 05 | Holy Bible: one of the holy books refers to Christianity religion written in the Latin language. It is sent to Jesus the Christ from God. And by years, it had been distorted by Christians themselves. |
| Group 06 | Holy Bible: the sacred book of Christianity. it contains the Old Testament and the New Testament, composed of holy verses or quotes of Jesus, providing principles, beliefs and rituals written by his followers. |

Activity Three

A problem shared Sharing everyday problems and solutions

Think about it

Conversations that we ‘have to have’ in another language often involve problems that need to be resolved; this is particularly true when learners are living in an English speaking country.

Get it ready

Think of something that is annoying you, and be ready to talk about it in class.

Set it up

Ask the class to think of a situation or a person that is worrying or annoying them. Tell them your own ‘problem’. For example: a noisy neighbour, all the homework you have to mark this weekend, the overdue library books you haven’t returned.

Elicit some advice from the class, writing any phrases that are useful for giving advice on the board, refining as necessary, but without comment.

Let it run

- People stand in two parallel lines (A and B), facing each other. They take turns to relate their problem while their partner opposite listens and then offers advice.
- The student at the top of Line A moves to the bottom of the same line, and each student in that line moves up one space. They re-tell their problems to their new partners, who offer advice. This continues until everyone in Line A has interacted with everyone in Line B. They then return to their seats.
- Meanwhile, you circulate, listen and encourage, helping with language as necessary and make a note of what you help with.

Round it off

Ask the class to report on the best advice they were given. Using your notes, share the conversations you had about language with individual learners while the activity was running

Variation

If the class size or classroom layout doesn’t allow this kind of formation, the class can first do the task with their immediate partner, and then be repositioned so that they are able to interact with at least two other people successively.

Analysis and Discussion of the Activity

Unlike traditional classroom where students sit quietly and attentively in their seats and wait for knowledge from their teacher, modern classroom is learner centered; it gives freedom to students to be autonomous and independent in selecting and discussing their problems and interests. This activity provides the opportunity to students to share their problems and to propose solutions through triggering their concerns and interests. In other words, students are shown that what they feel, what they value, and what they think are what matter most. Hence, activities that require sharing ideas and experiences facilitates educational outcomes that students will surely appreciate and consider useful for their learning achievement.

After explaining the procedure of the activity, students were given ten minutes to recall what they faced and experienced as problems in their lives. The purpose of the activity was based on the fact that Language used to talk about personal problems and experiences often emerges spontaneously and reflects personal feelings and beliefs. Moreover, it makes students comfortable when interacting with each other and able to keep talking for a long period of time. Students' facial expressions indicated their desire to speak, they asked for permission to tell their problems so they could listen to classmates' comments. The problems proposed were varied; they tackled many issues such as study, marriage, and health. Students either talked about general repeated experiences or ones for one-off experiences. Every time a student told his or her problem, the others immediately suggested solutions and remedies. The activity was appreciated by all the students and enhanced their communication skill. The following examples are some of the problems presented by the students

Problem one:

“My problem is that I am feeling depressed because I always try to work hard in order to get good marks but my eye problem and my health problem cannot help me to do that”.

It is agreed up on that there is an association between students' health and both school attendance and academic achievement. Healthy students are more likely to perform better on academic measures than unhealthy students. Students suffering from diseases are characterized by poor academic performance, lack of motivation, loss of interest, and even poor relationship with classmates and teachers. Besides their responsibility of their students' learning, teachers should also be aware of their students' health problems in order to assist and integrate them in the group work. The problem cited above is only one sample of many students who find difficulties in how to cope with their health problems. The problem attracted the attention of students who felt their classmate's suffering, and tried to increase her

moral. Some said that they themselves had experienced these types of problems, and with the assistance of people surrounding them, they could overcome them.

Students addressed to their classmate with sympathy, they proposed many solutions; one said “ask a good doctor advice and challenge yourself in order to achieve your dreams” a second said “don’t work very hard, study sometimes and get a rest so you will preserve your health.” A third one said “be strong and have a good willing and the pressure will disappear soon.” The student gained support from her classmates who advised her to be strong and never give up, they all pointed to her courage and endurance which they consider the corner stone for success. Suddenly a student asked for permission to speak, and then said “I am diabetic; type 1, I have to control my blood sugar systematically, and I must inject insulin three times a day. Despite this chronic disease, I have to challenge and survive” she added “Don’t worry, your disease is not serious, it can be treated forever if you consult a competent ophthalmologist”. All students were surprised of their classmate’s frankness; they said to her “you are brave”. The discussion lasted until the end of the session when the sick student said “now I am breathing, I feel I have recovered”.

Problem two:

“The first year at university when I studied Biology which is not my choice, I struggled a lot because I was alone and I was studying a branch which I don’t like. When you are forced to do something which is not your choice, what should you do?”

The more topics are related to students’ lives, the more students engage in spontaneous conversation. Hence, problem two sparked a hot debate among students who didn’t stop their comments and suggestions. Some students said they had fallen in the same problem, and they nearly lost ambition and motivation to carry on their study. Other students said that some of their friends and relatives struggled with this pedagogical problem which left negative psychological effects on them. They all agreed on students’ right to choose their preferred branch or, at least, the branch which is close to their tendencies.

The problem was shared by many students who were aware of its negative effect on their learning. Hence they tried to provide some advice when a student said “I lived the same problem, I didn’t want to study English at the beginning, but with the support of my classmates, I could change my opinion. Now I enjoy studying English” A second student added “My sister experienced the same problem; she took an academic leave and spent the year in studying data processing in a private school. This year, she has completely changed the branch.” A third student said “why don’t you block the year and revise hard for the BAC

to get a good average.” Another similar answer was suggested “you have to resist the situation, and may be by the end of the year; you will change your mind and love the branch.” These kinds of pedagogical problems can be solved at the level of the faculty. Sometimes, it’s up to the concerned student to complain and ask for help, it may lead to immediate solutions as a student suggested “this problem is faced by many students. I think that if I were you, I would ask the head of the department and why not the rector to solve my problem.” It was clearly noticed that the problem is wide spread among students who really wanted to suggest some solutions through their insightful comments.

Problem three:

“I always feel anxious when I present something in front of the audience. What shall I do?”

Anxiety, shyness, apprehension, and embarrassment are some negative psychological traits that precede speaking in front of people. When they face new situations and when the focus is put on them, students, particularly the ones who lack self-confidence, often feel anxious and introverted. Despite they possess linguistic competence and sufficient information about the subject to be presented; some students are easily affected by their classmates’ looks. Most students claimed that anxiety and fear rise when dealing with public speaking. Hence, once the problem was introduced by their classmate, they begun to suggest solutions that they think they are useful to build self-confidence and to reduce anxiety. All students were involved in the discussion because the problem is shared and frequently experienced by them. Many suggestions were provided.

“When you are at home, face the mirror and imagine yourself that you are in front of public, repeat many times the action till you enjoy your presentation.” A student commented. Speaking in front of class is something many students dread, but preparation, practice, and prepared presentation will help the speaker to stay calm and cool. This is what a student wanted to prove when she said “Prepare an introduction in advance and bear it in your mind in order to avoid forgetting it when you start. It’s easy.” Some students believe that the problem is related to the confidence which can be built and reinforced through training, so they stated “you have to improve your self-confidence and prepare yourself well to present the subject, and remember that you can do it” or “remember that you are pretty and smart enough to get it done. Take it easy, if you do it many times, you will have a positive result.” Causes and solutions for reducing the fear of speaking in front of classmates are various. They were introduced by all students. Some claim that the teacher can play an effective role to solve the problem as the one who said “I am also suffering from the problem of anxiety, I feel

afraid of doing mistakes in front of my classmates. Now I feel that the problem is disappearing because my teacher of OE helps me when I stop talking.”

Problem four:

“My problem is that a man asked me to marry him, but he is very rich. He says he is a millionaire, so I am afraid because of his money. How to do? ”

Getting engaged to be married remains the dream of the majority of girls. Despite the remaining years to study at the university, each student waits for her man of dreams. Yes indeed, all girls feel happiness and pride when they proceed in marriage which is the beginning of a new family and life-long commitment. However, they need to think twice before giving their acceptance because marriage is not only a physical union; it is a spiritual and emotional one too. Girls who are supposed to spend decades of conjugal life still have worries such as how they make sure that they will be compatible with their future husbands, to what extent they will enjoy their companies, or how to prepare themselves for any expected troubles in the future. The student who presented the problem could stimulate one of her classmates’ main concerns since they are all involved in that issue. The session was full debate and exchange of suggestions between all the students who found themselves holding casual conversation without linguistic or psychological barriers. They provided many suggestions such as the ones cited below.

The debate was diversified; some students were with idea of accepting the man for marriage without asking for details, however others were against taking immediate decision. A student said "If you worry that you and your partner have different life goals (e.g. regarding marriage, kids, job, etc....), then it’s a good indication your partner isn’t right for you. A second student said “first, you have to be sure that he loves you, otherwise I advise you to refuse because, with his money, he can buy any girl he wants.” Many classmates supported her such as the one who said “think twice before deciding. Sometimes money doesn’t make happiness.” Another one commented “ask people who know him well; if they confirm you that he is serious, don’t hesitate to marry him. One of the classmates who were in the other side stated “Just accept then try to know his mentality during the period of engagement. A student said enthusiastically “If I were you, I would immediately accept because love comes after marriage, as they said.” Almost the same answer was provided by another student “Be optimistic, try to be close to him in order to know his real intentions”. By the end of the session, a student ended the conversation with the following comment “please if you don’t want to marry him, I will ask him to marry me. (By the way, you are invited to my wedding ‘laughter’).

Problem five:

“My wedding is soon. Every time I look or stay with my mother, I feel very weak. I can’t live far away from her (I will live in Algiers with my husband who is a military officer). She is my best friend. I want to spend more time with her. Help me!”

Mothers and daughters often have strong positive relationship which is characterized by deep commitment and emotional support. Despite this relation changes over time, but it is often idealized and viewed stronger than before, hence they often fight to prevent it from any conflict or derailment. However a notable separation stage occurs when the daughter becomes adult and the doors of marriage are open. Daughter’s memories of childhood with mother can never be forgotten but living under the same roof is not perpetual. Despite the new situation offers happiness, but it creates anxiety due to the feeling of separation. The topic tackled by the student triggered the curiosity of all students to comment and tell their opinions. A classmate encouraged the student and said “You are lucky; you have found a gentleman to marry. When you miss your mother, just call her through a telephone or Skype.” The student who shed tears begun to whisper and to control her emotions. Another one congratulated her and said “Congratulations! Don’t worry, everything is gonna be alright. You will be a mother and have children who make your life happy. All classmates sympathized with her and deeply felt the problem which every one of them will face in the future.

The discussion knew moments of joke which released the student from her stress when a classmate interfered and said “get rid of breast feeding baby, wake up, hog your mother for the last time as a bachelor, and say goodbye to her.” All the class burst of laughing and exchanged different anecdotes for pleasure. A second one reassured her when she said “this is a natural feeling from a daughter toward her mother before marriage. There will be an exchange of visits where you can see your mother.” Another one also stood by her side and commented “your love and emotions will gradually move toward your husband.” The debate continued in a pleasant atmosphere and enabled students to have a part in the classroom conversation. The students who used to talk rarely in the classroom found the topic motivating for them to contribute in the discussion. A student ended with the following advice “take it easy, your life will be better. One day, you will be a mother of a lot of children and then you will feel warmth and tenderness”.

Activity Four:

Most politicians, few dogs

Think about it

If a form requires further work, you can create your own grammar ‘exercise’ by using a substitution table — highlighting a key form while leaving it to the learner to introduce meaning, giving the activity real communicative purpose. The example is derived from ‘why’ questions.

Get it ready

This is ‘homework’ for you to do between lessons. Start from a sentence that contextualizes the form, put it into a simple table and remove one of the elements, as in the example.

Set it up

Write your table on the board.

Ask the class, individually, to use the table to make a question that they would really like answered. For example: *Why are most teachers women? Why do all politicians lie?*

They write their question at the top of a blank sheet of paper. You circulate and check the questions.

Let it run

- Each person passes their question to the person sitting on their right.
- They each read the question they have been given, and write an answer *at the bottom of the paper*.
- They then fold the answer over, so that it is out of sight, and hand the paper on to the next person, who does likewise. This continues until the paper returns to its original owner, who then opens out the answers, reads them, and selects the best one.

Round it off

Everyone reads out their original question to the whole class, followed by their favourite answer, before finding out who wrote that answer. Invite the class to comment.

Do they agree or disagree? As people do this, note the language that emerges from the answers.

Follow-up

Everyone has to get two more answers to their question from other people before the next lesson: if they can ask English speakers, so much the better. If not, they can have the conversation in another language and translate the answers into English.

| | | | | | |
|-----|-----|------|-----------|-------------|---|
| why | are | All | Parents | | ? |
| | do | Many | Teachers | | |
| | | | Most | Politicians | |
| | | Some | Men/Women | | |
| | | few | Dogs | | |

Analysis and Discussion of the Activity

Question one: “Why do most of women love shopping?”

In English culturally speaking, women had gone gathering, and men had gone hunting. Nowadays, it is said that women are interested in shopping in the same way that men are interested in sports. Yes indeed, women tend to shop everyday if possible. One student said “women like shopping in order to keep their eye on fashion” a second said “because it is a part of their life style; they want to be up to date and to try everything new” Femininity makes women plugged to fashion, it reflects personality and social and intellectual status. “Women always want to change their mood and to buy things those make them happy and elegant.” another one commented”.

While all the students exchange nearly the same view points, one student reacted differently and said “I think women love shopping because it is a good place where they can hog, chat, and gossip. They can spend hours and hours without feeling tired. This is the nature of women”. Few students opposed that statement, they claimed that they rarely go shopping because prices are not at hands, and shops don’t offer good quality of products. A student interfered “Personally, I enjoy spending money in buying clothes, jewelry, and house objects. I can’t live without shopping”. The topic was discussed with enthusiasm, and all students who are girls, practiced real life conversation that overlapped with their interests.

Question two: Why do some teachers beat their pupils?

“I don’t like my school”, “I don’t like my teacher”, “I don’t like Monday”. These words used to be said by some pupils who claim that their teachers hit them. Despite it has decreased the recent years, corporal punishment is a phenomenon that still emerges at least in primary schools. The problem attracts the attention of people who are divided into two categories; opponents who call for its abolition, and proponents who call for its restriction. In the past, parents didn’t seem to mind, however nowadays they outlaw the practice and sometimes they pursue teachers in courts. The discussion will not be about whether teachers are legally

allowed to hit children or not, but it will present students' opinions about the reasons they think are behind this phenomenon.

Some students believed that the problem has psychological roots; a student said "Teachers who hit their pupils used to be beaten when they were children." They think as teachers had been treated, they should treat the others "They are not respectable and don't know how to treat pupils, they are the product of our education system" another one said. She added "Only parents who have the right to punish their children, and no one accepts to see his or her child beaten" School should be a safe environment for all children, the latter should be tolerated whatever their behaviors. A student criticized the teachers who hit pupils; she said "Because they are sadist and they love to keep their pupils under their control." Among the arguments that attracted my attention is the answer of a student who said "the main cause of hitting pupils is pedagogical; most teachers didn't study well psychology of teaching and didactics, that's why they manage aggressively with their pupils" The more pupils are beaten, the more aggressive they are, the lower cognitive ability they acquire, and the worse relationship they have with their teachers.

Other students blamed much more pupils who often behave disruptively or do not do their home works, a student said "pupils make a lot of noise in the classroom, they are talkative, and they make their teachers nervous" the same opinion shared by a classmate who said "Pupils do bad things so they should be punished in order to readjust their negative behaviors." Students believe that if a pupil is being disruptive and previous warnings have failed to solve the problem, then punishment is recommended. A student agreed but with a condition "I agree on painless hitting that doesn't leave scars on pupils' bodies". Pupils who show disobedience should be asked to obey the rules of discipline otherwise they have to be punished. This is what students wanted to say through their comments and suggestions which convinced to some extent the other students who believe the opposite.

Question three: Why do some men betray their wives?

Despite the fact that marriage is considered as a social and legal contract between men and women which is characterized by love, respect and fidelity, it may collapse in any moment due to many reasons. A most common one is betrayal. Once betrayal is discovered by wife, apologies will never heal the deep relationship rupture, and trust will lose its real meaning. Even though they are happy, some husbands cheat on their wives. Why? Students have different viewpoints. A student reacted with anger and said "Husbands who cheat have no excuse, they are selfish by nature, and they like to have mistresses besides their wives. I think they have

sexual disorder, so one woman never satisfies them.” Another one agreed with her and stated “If a husband feels unsatisfied with his wife, divorce is better for her than maintaining that senseless relationship”. Since the majority of students are girls, they supported each other and attacked men who betray like the one who said “Men who are not faithful and do not deserve to share life with their wives; they are brutish who lost their humanity” Comments were so offensive toward cheating husbands, and they expressed students’ anger as in the following sentences “what would the husband do if his wife betrays him, he surely loses his mind” or “ if I realize that my husband is cheating, I will immediately ask divorce” yes, women, undoubtedly, advocate leaving the relationship if they discover that their husbands have cheated, they strongly feel that they will never recover from their husbands betrayal.

Some students referred the problem to the weak relationship between partners as the student who said “if marriage was not based on love, frankness, and transparency, there will be a space for cheating particularly from the side of husbands” another one added “my aunt has divorced because she didn’t accept her husband’s ’cheating. I think that their marriage was imposed by the family and there was no coherence between the two.” Due to the fear of being alone and unsupported, or the inability to cover financial expense, some wives prefer to keep the family together for the children. They have no choice; they whether accept the situation or go through unknown future. A student told a story of her neighbor “though she is pretty and kind, my neighbor who loves her husband has found herself confused when she knew that her husband is cheating on her with his co-worker. Her parents didn’t accept her return to them due to their poor social life, so she had only to stay married but unhappy.

Some students advocated on wives’ roles to keep their marriage successful, they blame wives for not looking after their husbands. A student said “woman must look after her body and beauty in order to make her husband attracted to her” A second commented “I agree with you, the wife has also to compliment and praise her husband and to offer him quiet atmosphere to discuss shared problems. The more wives are close to their husbands, the more their relationship is secure”. All students, without exceptions, showed their opinions about the topic, provided many suggestions to prevent husbands’ cheating, and blamed men for their infidelity which is seen unjustified. A student said “after many years of wives’ serving and sacrifice, some husbands feel that their wives have become old and do not look beautiful anymore, hence they decide to cheat”. The objective of the activity which was allowing students to share their interesting topics was successfully achieved. Students gained confidence through their participation and debate which were fruitful.

Question four: Why do some parents divorce?

Divorce is a traumatic event that reflects the dissolution of marriage and the breakup of family. It often leaves negative scars particularly on children's life. It usually happens when parents feel they can no longer live together due to many reasons. This social phenomenon emerges almost in all families; it can destroy relationships between people who fall then in painful emotions. Hence it is so necessary to recognize the main factors that lead to divorce. Students felt the importance of the topic and begun to provide their opinions. A student said "After marriage, responsibilities rise and partners find it difficult to cope with the new situation, hence each one blames the other for not being helpful. Their disagreement, if not reduced, will directly lead to separation. Another one added "In the beginning of their life, couples come with different thoughts and beliefs, so they should be open minded and listen to each other to solve shared problems. Problems can be social, financial, or psychological too."

Conflicts, lack of communication, misunderstanding, and intolerance remain among the most common problems that may affect conjugal life. Some novice partners who get married too young are more threatened by divorce because they experience new difficult problems and do not know how to deal with them. A student commented "Some couples divorce because of trivial issues. My uncle and his wife divorced simply because they didn't agree upon where to spend summer holidays. My neighbor also got divorced because she claimed that her husband was stingy, so she preferred to separate from him rather than to live in misery"

Discussing the problem of divorce was enjoyed by all students who contributed in the conversation. They provided different viewpoints and real life examples from their familiar environment. They could comfortably hold discussion with each other because the topic was interesting for them. Many of them believed that divorce is bad and its consequences are worst. A student stated "the outcomes of divorce can be social, emotional, legal, and financial. The victims are children who used to live under the same roof with their parents and suddenly lose parental warmth and fall in painful loneliness. Whatever the support given by their family members, it will never diminish their trauma" A second student agreed with her and said "children often experience emotional problems resulted from their parents divorce. They suffer from insecurity, anxiety, instability, and lack of self confidence which prevent them to achieve their academic goals. A third one added "Children of divorce are more likely to deviate from social principles, smoke cigarettes or even drugs, and commit offenses. They get lower scores on tests and therefore dropped out from school.

Question five: Why are most teachers unqualified?

Unlike in the past, most parents now believe that their children are taught by unqualified teachers. They often criticize the education system for not providing sufficient training for future teachers, and they accuse responsible for bias in recruiting them. Students insisted to talk about unqualified teachers at the university level. They first began to criticize the LMD system “most teachers are unqualified because of the LMD system which is not useful. Despite it was implemented as educational reform, but it put pressure upon students to focus only on how to get credits. LMD must be abolished and classical system must be raised again” a student commented.

Another student said “the efficiency of LMD system should be questioned. It creates obstacles in terms of human and material resources. We can never expect students to be qualified teachers in the future because they are taught in large classes with insufficient materials such as technological aids and labs. Teachers also do not provide students with the same input, do not use the same evaluation tests, and there is no coordination and cooperation between them. The contradiction is that students get the same diploma but have different outputs”. Almost the majority of students showed their anger toward the system and blamed government for its application.

Criticism of other students was pointed to teachers themselves. They considered teachers as the root of the problem. A student stated “when they were students, teachers didn’t work hard and moreover, some of them used to cheat in the exams” students didn’t hesitate to tell their opinions like the one who commented “bureaucracy has replaced honesty and rigor in universities because many teachers got their jobs in illegally. Bureaucracy is a crime in teaching because teachers must be recruited according only to their competencies” another one reacted and said “yes indeed, they do not deserve to be teachers. Once they get a job, they don’t want to develop their teaching abilities. Teaching is talent and art, that’s why many teachers should not be teachers” .students’ perceptions were identical as the one who said “Some teachers don’t know how to teach because they didn’t study well didactics” however; a student said “The administration does not give teachers the opportunity to carry on formation and training. Teachers are also victims; they cannot improve their teaching qualities because they are devoted to teach and manage big size groups. The positive impact of the topic on students was proved by their contribution in the conversation which lasted until the end of the session.

Activity Five

Matchbox magic

Generating vocabulary from minimal stimulus

Think about it

Making something out of nothing (or next to nothing!) is very satisfying. You can start with a single small piece of stimulus and go wherever the learners take it.

Get it ready

Find a matchbox or similar small container. Place a small object such as a coin inside, and bring it to class.

Set it up

Pass the matchbox round the class. Ask each person to look inside, without showing anyone else, and to write down the first thing that they associate with that object on a Post-it note or slip of paper.

Let it run

- People mingle and compare what they have written with the rest of the class, looking for similar reactions. They group themselves according to their reactions; groups can be large or small.
- As they do this, you circulate and ask them why they have grouped themselves in this way, helping with language as needed.
- Each group develops its notes into three statements about the stimulus, and shares their statements with the whole class. You encourage and help people to develop interesting areas in a whole-class discussion.

Round it off

Using the statements, develop lexical fields under these headings:

Fact (*What is it?*)

Function (*What does it do?*)

Feeling (*How do people feel about it?*)

Follow-up

People write down an answer to at least one of the following questions:

If you were going to do something good/bad with this thing, what would it be?

If you were going to give it to someone, who would it be? Why?

If you were going to change something about it, what would it be? Why?

Variation

You could use one of the following, or anything else you find: a stamp; a leaf; a flower; a grain of rice; a feather; a ring-pull; a seashell; a sweet; a lottery ticket; an aspirin; a key; a marble; some sand; some sugar.

You can, of course, ask your students to bring things in themselves.

Analysis and Discussion and of the Activity

Does money impact our life? How people think and act about it? Is success measured in terms of money? The main objective of this activity is to recognize different definitions of “money” from students’ perspectives. One hundred thousand Dinars were imported to the class. Once shown to the students, they shouted with a burning curiosity; “I love money”, “money makes me feel secure”, “money is not everything”, “money is evil”. Everybody had something to say. For them, it was an object that motivates to speak. Each student was given the floor to tell her opinion about money and then the ones who share the same perception were asked to form groups. Each group defined the word “money”. A representative from each group stood on the stage and told the definition without reading it from paper. A hot debate started and lasted until the end of the session. The following are the definitions provided by each group.

Group one:

Money is double edge sword. It can buy you a luxury bed, yet it can make you lose your sleep. Money can buy you achievements, yet you won’t feel it. Money cannot realize human sensation (friendship, love...), it can buy you material things. Money can bring you power but you can never know your real support. The main evidence is that many wealthy celebrities suicide because despite the money they have, but they couldn’t reach happiness. If I am going to do something good with money, it will be making an investment and donation to people. In our society, people suffer from poverty, homelessness, joblessness, and segregation; hence it is a duty to help them. If I have to give it to someone, I will give it to my parents who suffered and did all their best to look after me. If I have to do something good with money, I will build hospitals to provide sick people with health care, and therefore to prevent them from suffering and pain. If I am going to change something about it, it will be changing the system of education. As far as I am concerned, the actual system doesn’t satisfy the students’ needs. Students need to acquire modern and innovative learning competencies, so I will sponsor a scholarship to study abroad.

Group two:

Money can buy temporary happiness, it can buy prestige but not wisdom, it can buy flowers but not love, it can buy you medicines but not health. We all want money in our lives, but true happiness is built on satisfaction. As money can let you get whatever you want, it can also take your mind away, so you may lose your values in some cases (money is a two edged sword). It is the tool to get things that you need in life, but it is not the only needed way in life. If I have to do something good with money, I will build mosques in far areas, I will establish a foundation for saving animals particularly the animals which are threatened by extinction, and I will buy a villa with a swimming pool near the beach. I want to enjoy and entertain myself and to live as movie stars. If I have to give it to someone, I will make a donation to charities and to all members of my family who are in need. I want to do like Bill Gates, who each year, devotes a part of his wealth in financing organizations and centers to develop drugs for severe diseases like cancer and AIDS, people. If I have to change something with money, it will be helping people in Gaza who are suffering from the Israeli blockade, and to establish companies in order to reduce unemployment in the society.

Group three:

I'd rather cry in a fancy car and wipe my tears with Gucci hand kerchief. This is a reality, money buys happiness. The majority of poor people doesn't feel happy and secure because something is missing; it is money. Some people died because they couldn't pay fees for urgent surgeries, some died from cold because they couldn't pay electricity bill, and some children died from starvation because their parents couldn't feed them. People of healthy nations enjoy their lives because they freely benefit from different social welfares, however in developing countries, people often struggle with hard life and do not feel happy because they are not supported at all. If I have to do something with money, I will build a big castle for myself where I will invite my friends to entertain ourselves. To preserve my wealth, I will make investments in different areas. If I have to give it to someone, I will give it to myself and give an amount to students so they can carry on their studies in a comfortable circumstances. If I have to change something with money, I will change the Algerian government and constitution; they are the source of poverty and injustice. I will establish instead democracy and freedom where people can practice their human and political rights.

Group four:

Money causes conflicts in families especially when coming to divide heritage. I have experienced this in my family. When my grandfather died and left many goods such as houses

and farms, my father, my aunts, and my uncles confronted and couldn't agree on one solution. Till now, the affair is between the hands of justice. Personally, I think money should not take the priority because mutual social relationships are more important; they keep people love each other and live in peace. Moreover, money is worthless if compared to health and wisdom, what does it do to ignorant or sick people? Money should be seen as a useful tool for doing good things to humanity, I cannot imagine myself living a prestigious life whereas people surrounding me are suffering. Hence, if I have to do something with money, I will look after poor people who are often marginalized and their voices are not heard. I will also daily distribute hot meals to homeless people who may die from hanger. If I have to give it to someone, I will give it to my poor relatives as a kind of support to my family members with whom we need to live in equality. If I have to change something with money, I will spend it in fighting illiteracy through building schools in villages and printing books and make them at hands of all pupils.

Activity Six

Lightning talks

Helping each other in conversation

Think about it

'Lightning talks' are designed to prevent people from going on and on when presenting ideas, but a classroom version should help people to keep going! It focuses on an important feature of conversation: the way speakers help each other.

Get it ready

Have enough dice for each pair in the class.

Set it up

Write these discussion topics on the board, numbered as follows:

What I like (and don't like):

1 about my room

2 about my house

3 about my town

4 about my region

5 about my country

6 about my world

Roll a dice and speak to the class about the topic indicated for about a minute. Don't feel you have to speak perfectly, in fact it's probably more encouraging if you hesitate and lose track: it's a part of normal conversation.

Divide the class into pairs.

Let it run

- Each partner in turn rolls a dice to determine their topic. They then make some brief notes about it, before they speak. You circulate and help with language as needed.
- When people are ready, tell them to start: the first person in each pair speaks to their partner about their topic for a minute (you time this, saying when there are fifteen seconds to go). If they lose track or run out of things to say, their partner prompts them with questions.
- The partners then exchange roles, and the process is repeated.

Round it off

Each person repeats their one-minute talk for the whole class, with the support of their partner who prompts in the same way, as required, perhaps using phrases like this:

Didn't you say...? You said...

The focus here is fluency, but as people talk, make a note of things they have said effectively, and things they could still improve, and go through these in whole class.

Follow-up

Everyone chooses a topic for the next lesson. They prepare some ideas as homework and then work in pairs, practicing their talks. Then each person gives their talk to the whole class, with their partner again prompting, as required.

Analysis and Discussion and of the Activity

As already mentioned above, the focus of the activity is on fluency. The activity was a good opportunity for students to talk freely about their worlds; they all participated and conversed with each other. I could see their enthusiasm to speak through details they provided and discussion hold between pairs. Pairs were asked to stand in front of their classmates and to try to improvise while talking. Some of the passages they performed are provided below.

-1) About my room

My room is so comfortable, it is like a small resort that makes me safe. It has two doors; one takes you to the inside of the house, and the other takes you to the balcony. I like my room because it contains air conditioner and TV, so I don't feel the heat in summer. I can hide my secret things like presents from my boyfriend (roses, perfumes, letters...). In my room, I can revise my lessons quietly and far away from my noisy little brother. Sometimes I cook what I want in the kitchen then I run to my room where I eat it secretly. I like my room because it is small and organized, so it is easy to clean up. I like also its color which is pink and the graphics which I drew by myself. Among the disadvantages of my room; it is always the destination of my nephews and nieces; whenever they visit us, they prefer to stay in it and make a mess. My mother often uses it as extra room when there are many guests that's why I used to close it with a key. I don't sleep alone but with my sister who always makes me nervous because she snores loudly in the night. Despite we have the internet connection in the house but the Wi-Fi debit is low, so I am obliged to stay in the living room in order to chat with my friends.

-2) About my house

I like many things in my house; it is located in the downtown where shops are so near and there is no need to use transportation. It is too big; it includes two floors and a garden. I like it because it reminds me of my grandparents who bought it during the French colonization. It has a classical architecture with high roofs and big windows. My house is calm because it is surrounded by few houses; this makes me enjoy living there. Many of our neighbors asked my father to buy it, but my father said "I want to keep to you as my father kept it to me". I like my house because it is the only place where I feel warmth; it is a symbol of our family. However, there are many things that I don't like in my house. It is too large and my mother finds it difficult to clean. She always complains and asks us to collaborate with her. My house looks dirty because it hasn't been dyed since a long time. Another thing I don't like in my house is loneliness because my sisters have married and I live only with my mother, my father, and my brother there.

-3) About my town

The town in which I live is called Lichana; it is twenty five kilometers far from Biskra. I like it so much because of its landforms which contain large beautiful forests of palms and fruitful trees. I like its weather which is good most of the year except in August and July. It attracts many tourists; it is a nice calm place for refreshing your soul and improving your

mood. The people right there are kind and look after each other especially in need. I like its traditional dishes like 'Chekhchoukha'. I like also its popular market that takes place every week. There, people meet each other, buy and sale different products. I don't like many things in my town such as its architecture; its houses are not organized and everybody can build his house without respect to the norms. I hate some people's behavior; they are curious and know everything you do in details. Sometimes you have to hide things in order to avoid their comments.

-4) About my region

I live in the the region of Oued Righ in the southern east of Algeria. It is famous for its nice oasis. I like its green forests. I used to spend the weekend in the lake of Tmasine; it is a fantastic place; it looks like a sea. I like the touristic places such as the old castles though some of them are ruined. I like the people of my region; they are solidary and helpful. In the period of harvest, they do 'Touiza'; it is a collaborative way between people to help each other, it proves that they are unified. There are many things I don't like in my region; conflicts between tribes often lead to confrontations, sometimes people fight each other because of a small piece of land. I hope this will stop one day. Though my region is nice and clean, but some people throw their garbage anywhere so they make places dirty. I don't like some people who oblige their children to work with them in their farms and therefore they stop going to school.

-5) About my country

Algeria is my mother country, it has strategic geographical situation; it is a small continent. I like its big cities like Algiers, Oran, Constantine, and Annaba. I like also the Algerian beautiful coasts that stretch from Elkala to Tlemcen for 1200 km. I like its varied dishes, traditions and dialects. I am very impressed by its rich music such as Rai, Tergui, Malouf, Chaïbi, and Chaoui. I love the Sahara? It is the most preferred place for tourists who come from abroad to attend to festivals of the New Year. I would like to visit the monuments of Tassili and Timimoun. Many things I don't like in my country such the severe social situation of people especially the youth who suffer from joblessness and marginalization, ant that's why many of them prefer to take risk and cross the sea in illegal immigration (Elhargua). I hate the political system and government; they are the root of bureaucracy and corruption. The majority of people are against the internal policy of the state, they suffer from low salaries, and high prices of products and taxes. Concerning people, I don't like the behavior of some of them; the ones who are lazy and don not accept tiring works.

-6) About my world

I like the diversity of people's cultures, wherever you go, you find different cultures that reflect people's beliefs, traditions, heritages, and civilizations. I like peaceful cohabitation between peoples. I like people such as journalists and politicians who fight for human rights. I like scientists who work hard to find treatment for serious diseases like Cancer and Aids. I like people who donate, the richest man in the world; Bill gates gives billions of Dollars each year to centers of cancer research. There are many things I don't like in this world such as civil wars and wars between countries. I hope all people live in peace and tolerance. I don't like hate and racial segregation which are still spread in some countries even in developed ones. I don't like poverty; few people in this world are wealthy and live in prestige whereas many suffer from poverty; they have no job and no shelter. I don't like the monopoly of technology by the developed countries that look only for their interests. I think that

4.6. Summary and Conclusion

This chapter described with details the main steps followed to implement the experiment and therefore to answer the research questions as clearly and efficiently as possible. The main objective was to confirm or reject the aforesaid hypothesis. Before Dogme ELT was put into practice, a sample of control and experimental groups had been selected in order to assess students' actual speaking skill. The sample consisted of 40 students for each group who were interviewed by the researcher so they could talk spontaneously about themselves, their interests, hobbies, and lives. The interview's subjects were inspired from international English language test system (IELTS). Students were given few minutes to prepare themselves for the interview. Facing a camera and holding improvised conversation was a new experience for many of them. Some students were encouraged to eliminate their track and anxiety, but the majority showed their readiness and desire to participate. In case of any communication cut, the researcher tried to reassure and calm the interviewee through showing his appreciation and satisfaction.

The second step which is the most important was to implement an experiment upon the experimental group. The group had been exposed for six weeks to Dogme Activities selected from the book "Teaching Unplugged". The activities were designed to cover the components of speaking skill: pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, and fluency. The activities required very little preparation with fewer materials but much focus on students' emergent language. Students expressed their admiration of the activities which they found different and more stimulating than the classical ones. They offered them a free space to express their feelings,

and beliefs without barriers. Students were encouraged to bring and to use their personal materials in the classroom such as books, newspapers, posters, mobiles, and objects. Working in pairs and in groups was a positive factor for them to learn from one another and therefore gain self-confidence which is crucial element for successful discussion.

To measure how much students of the experimental group have improved in their speaking skill, a post-test was administered. It is a tool that can determine the amount of knowledge, confidence, and advancement of students' speaking skill. The post- test took the same procedure and form as the pre-test. It enabled students present a gain their speaking abilities through performing an interview with the researcher. Students were more interactive due to the confidence they gained through their involvement and participation during sessions of the experiment. They discarded their fear and hesitation, and showed remarkable speaking abilities through their aptitude to interact with each about any topic. To sum up, it is worth noting that a positive change was observed on students' speaking and behaviors as well. Unlike in the period that preceded the treatment when they were less motivated, students of experimental group have become familiar with standing on the stage and talking with freedom and ease. It was surely the effect of the Dogme ELT activities that overlapped with their interests and needs.

Chapter Five: Evaluation of Results

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Chapter Five: Evaluation of Results

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data were collected through the use of pre-test, two progress tests, and post-test which cover in details the dependent variable (the speaking skill) in terms of its four components: pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, and fluency. In order to check any probable positive impact on students' speaking skill during the implementation of the experiment, mean scores and standard deviation are presented to make a comparison between the tests. The assessment of students' speaking performances of both groups relies on the same rating scale; the latter consists of four criteria each of which is scored out of five points. IELTS 'Speaking band descriptors' is used to classify students' speaking performances into nine categories (see Appendices). To support and reinforce the experiment outcomes, qualitative data were collected from the focus group interview held with the experimental group since the latter revealed remarkable improvement. The interview was used to determine experimental group' opinions and impressions about their speaking improvement and the implemented activities which stand for the independent variable (Dogme ELT).

5.1 Speaking Scores Criteria

Assessing foreign language speaking abilities remains a major concern for teachers. Bailey (2005) States that testing speaking is not straightforward as testing other language skill such as writing, reading, and listening. Indeed, if compared to the other language skills, testing speaking is viewed as special and complex because of its interactive nature. "It is often tested in live interaction, where the test discourse is not entirely predictable, just as no two conversations are ever exactly the same even if they are about the same topic and the speakers have the same roles and aims." (Luoma, 2004, p. 170). Reviewing the tape several times gives support to the researcher to give fair assessment to all students. To avoid subjectivity, the speaking skills are graded and calculated on the basis of IELTS speaking scores that use the following criteria:

a) Fluency

- How speech is clear and structured.
- How sentences and ideas are connected by and linking words.
- How answers are extended with relevant details.
- How speech is smooth and continuous with correct pauses.

b) Vocabulary

- How vocabulary is used in a wide range
- How appropriate and accurate words are selected to discuss different topics.
- How often idiomatic language is used
- To which extent, the student is able to use the language formally, semi-formally.

c) Pronunciation

- Pronouncing words as clearly as possible
- Stressing words and sentences correctly
- Using correct intonations
- To be easily understood
- To be able to produce the phonological features of speech.

d) Grammatical

- Avoiding grammatical mistakes.
- Using more advanced grammatical structures (passive voice, direct speech, different tenses, and conditional sentences.

5.2. Constructing rubrics

It is assumed that “The main purpose of rubrics is to assess performances” (Brookhart, 2013, p. 4). However, it is challenging for teachers to test the students’ speaking skill in terms of many criteria and to grade these criteria in one sheet of paper. The main difficulty is the excessive use of time in scoring the students’ test results which often make the test carer bored and frustrated to conduct them. To overcome the problem in testing speaking, rubrics have become one of the main alternative techniques to be used. But, it is very important to select the most appropriate and useful one that represents the students’ abilities in each speaking component.

Rubrics are divided into four types: holistic, analytic, general, and task specific rubrics (Arter, 2000). Holistic rubrics provide a single and quick score based on overall impression about the students’ performance on a task without detailed information. General rubrics contain criteria that are general across tasks, and they cannot provide specific feedback. Task specific rubrics are unique to a specific task, but it is difficult to form them for all specific tasks. The analytic rubrics are considered as the best ones since they provide specific and detailed feedback along several dimensions.

Rubrics explicitly determine the strengths and weaknesses of the students' performance, assess complicated performances, and can cover all features in speaking: pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and fluency. (Stevens & Levi, 2005) state that when constructing rubrics, some questions should be asked: why is this assignment created, what do we want from the participants, what do we expect from them (reflection), and what are the learning objectives. They note that they are six key reasons for constructing and using rubrics:

- Rubrics provide timely feedback.
- Rubrics prepare students to use detailed feedback.
- Rubrics encourage critical thinking.
- Rubrics facilitate communication with others.
- Rubrics help us refine our teaching methods.
- Rubrics level the playing field.

(Stevens & Levi, 2005, p. 28)

The speaking rating rubric proposed by the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) which is known as IELTS Speaking Band Descriptors (see appendix 3) is used to assess students' speaking abilities in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency in the post test, the progress tests, and the post test. The components are graded separately into ten levels (from zero to nine). In order to get a final average of the speaking skill, the levels' marks are added to each other and divided by four (the number of the components)

5.3. Evaluation of Results

Many researchers believe that the most difficult job is not conducting an experiment but presenting and illustrating the results in an effective and coherent way. The layout of data is based on the variables of the experiment and what is needed is to display scores in tables and figures. Hence there are different ways to present results from an experiment that allows increasing levels of understanding of the meaning of the results. It is assumed that a glance on them will provide readers with large amount of complex information. Through the evaluation of the results of this research, tables were used to present quantitative data that allow for greater understanding of the influence of independent variable on the dependent one. For

example, the first column lists the participants of each group and the second column lists the scores. Scores are gathered together and divided by the number of participants in order to determine the average value (the mean).

Figures such as line graphs presented the data in a visual format that often brings out the significance of the data much more clearly than a data table. For example the dependent variable was placed on the vertical axis (abscissa axis) and the independent variable or the groups of the experiment were placed in the horizontal axis (coordinate axis). The main objective was to provide a good visual presentation that can be understood on its own without any textual explanation. Figures such as bar graphs (sometimes multiple bar graphs) were also used to display scores of experimental and control groups as well as the difference between their means, or students' scores in terms of the components of the independent variable. After the use of each of the so called tools, a qualitative explanation was provided to prove the effect of the experiment on the participants' performances

5.3.1 Results of the Pre-test

The pre-test and the post-test are used to compare the participants and to measure the degree of change that occurs as a result of the intervention. Hence the first step to proceed through was the administration of a preliminary test to determine both experimental and control groups' performance and preparedness for the experiment. Both groups were initially tested and measured on the dependent variable (speaking skill) in terms of four levels: pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, and fluency). The experimental group then was subjected to the treatment and subsequently retested, whereas the control group was isolated from the experiment and it was also retested. To avoid the overuse of tables of the pre-test, we preferred to gather the students' scores of the tested variable and to display their average in one table for each group. The following tables show the numbers of students, the pre-test score of each student, the sum of scores, and the average of scores.

5.3.1.1. Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Group

N : Numbers of participants. $\sum X$: Sum of scores. \bar{X} : Average of scores

| Experimental Group | |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| N | Pre-test scores |
| 01 | 3 |
| 02 | 5 |
| 03 | 2 |
| 04 | 4 |
| 05 | 3 |
| 06 | 6 |
| 07 | 4 |
| 08 | 4 |
| 09 | 5 |
| 10 | 5 |
| 11 | 3 |
| 12 | 5 |
| 13 | 3 |
| 14 | 3 |
| 15 | 4 |
| 16 | 4 |
| 17 | 6 |
| 18 | 5 |
| 19 | 4 |
| 20 | 5 |
| 21 | 2 |
| 22 | 3 |
| 23 | 4 |
| 24 | 6 |
| 25 | 5 |
| 26 | 3 |
| 27 | 5 |
| 28 | 4 |
| 29 | 4 |
| 30 | 3 |
| 31 | 4 |
| 32 | 3 |
| 33 | 5 |
| 34 | 4 |
| 35 | 6 |
| 36 | 4 |
| 37 | 4 |
| 38 | 3 |
| 39 | 5 |
| 40 | 4 |
| $\sum X_e$ | 164 |
| \bar{X}_e | 4.10 |

Table 74. Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Group

5.3.1.2. Pre-test Scores of the Control Group

| Control Group | |
|---------------|-----------------|
| N | Pre-test scores |
| 01 | 4 |
| 02 | 4 |
| 03 | 5 |
| 04 | 3 |
| 05 | 5 |
| 06 | 4 |
| 07 | 5 |
| 08 | 4 |
| 09 | 5 |
| 10 | 4 |
| 11 | 6 |
| 12 | 4 |
| 13 | 4 |
| 14 | 4 |
| 15 | 3 |
| 16 | 5 |
| 17 | 4 |
| 18 | 4 |
| 19 | 5 |
| 20 | 3 |
| 21 | 3 |
| 22 | 4 |
| 23 | 5 |
| 24 | 3 |
| 25 | 4 |
| 26 | 5 |
| 27 | 4 |
| 28 | 4 |
| 29 | 4 |
| 30 | 6 |
| 31 | 5 |
| 32 | 5 |
| 33 | 4 |
| 34 | 2 |
| 35 | 4 |
| 36 | 5 |
| 37 | 3 |
| 38 | 5 |
| 39 | 6 |
| 40 | 4 |
| $\sum X_e$ | 170 |
| X_e | 4.25 |

Table 75. Control Group Pre-test Scores

The above two tables reveal that both experimental and control groups slightly exceeded the fourth grade from nine grades. The scores are under intermediate and indicate that students, in terms of fluency and coherence, they speak slowly, use pauses with frequent repetition and self-correction, and use simple connectives to link sentences. In terms of

vocabulary, they make errors in word choice, they difficultly paraphrase their utterances, and they are able only to talk about familiar topic. However they send basic meaning on unfamiliar topics. In terms of accuracy, they produce simple and compound sentences, but not compound complex sentences. They also make some errors may lead to misunderstanding. In terms of pronunciation, they attempt to control pronunciation features but they cannot avoid lapses, and they frequently mispronounce words that may mislead the listener. The majority of students showed their aptitude for conversing and few of them asked to change the topic but they relatively could speak with ease. The two groups had the same speaking difficulties that should be recovered through experiment implementation. The researcher took into consideration the fact that students were experiencing the interview for the first time with the use of camera, and therefore that factor had reduced their speaking performance. A comparison is made between the pre-test scores of both experiment and control group. The scores are nearly equivalent and do not affect the of post-tests scores. The table below illustrates the difference between the two groups' scores.

| Groups | Pre-test Mean |
|--------------------------|---------------|
| Experimental Group | 4.10 |
| Control group | 4.25 |
| Differences in the means | 0.15 |

Table 76. Means of scores of experimental and control groups in the pre-test

It is clearly seen in the table above that the speaking levels of the experiment and control groups before the treatment are similar. 4.1 for the experimental group and 4.25 for the control group. The difference in the means which is 0.15 is not influential in the final scores and any change that may happen will surely pertain to the implementation of the experiment. We can assume that the groups share the same starting point which is their under intermediate speaking ability level.

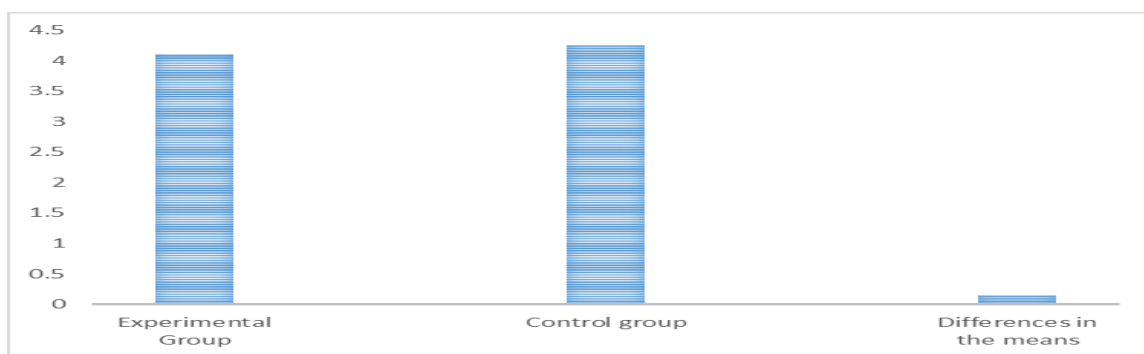


Figure 71. Means of scores of experiment and control groups in the pre-tests

Evaluating students' speaking abilities through a preliminary test is a crucial step before the experiment implementation. The pre-test is conducted in the same circumstances for both groups. It determines students' preparedness for holding a short conversation with the researcher. As already stated, students of both groups had almost the same speaking level, the same speaking difficulties, and the same psychological trait while speaking. This situation enables the researcher to carry on his experiment with comfortability.

5.3.2. Results of Progress Test 1

Concerning the experiment group, after applying two activities which were selected from the book "Teaching Unplugged"; the first activity which lasted for one week is: Pocket Pecha Kucha: Talking about the things we carry round with us, and the second activity which lasted also for one week is: Guess the definition: Starting from the word, a progress test was administered to evaluate students' speaking abilities in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency. The progress test was supposed to detect the amount of input students internalized during the first phase of the experiment, the experience they gained through practicing the target language, and to what extent these elements are interpreted through their speech. Indeed, linguistic competence and speaking strategies are often acquired after language training. The so called Dogme activities were a good opportunity for free communication among students who began to achieve higher performance which can be seen through the scores obtained in the progress test.

In the meantime, the control group was put under traditional teaching. Students were asked in advance to prepare and perform activities such as storytelling, role play, interview, monologue, and games. The same type of activities were already applied in the first semester, hence there was no change in the teaching methodology. Students worked individually, in pairs, and in groups, but there was no spontaneous communication that can produce emergent

language. The researcher could not strongly involve himself in classroom interaction since the activities didn't create real opportunities for conversation. The progress test scores showed a slight improvement in their speaking skill, but it is not really valuable. As it had been used in the pre-test, both experiment and control groups were given pieces of papers; each paper includes one of the following topics which were selected from International English language Test System (IELTS). Students then were asked to pick randomly one of the papers and to think for few moments before the interview that would last about three minutes. The two following tables show both experimental and control groups' achievement in progress test 1.

5.3.2.1. Experimental Group Scores in Progress Test 1

| Experimental Group | | | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| N | fluency and coherence | Lexical resource | Grammatical range and accuracy | Pronunciation | Final scores |
| 01 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 18 |
| 02 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 22 |
| 03 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 12 |
| 04 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 20 |
| 05 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 18 |
| 06 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 |
| 07 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 22 |
| 08 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 21 |
| 09 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 22 |
| 10 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 23 |
| 11 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 21 |
| 12 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 21 |
| 13 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 18 |
| 14 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 19 |
| 15 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 19 |
| 16 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 19 |
| 17 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 |
| 18 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 23 |
| 19 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 21 |
| 20 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 21 |
| 21 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 14 |
| 22 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 18 |
| 23 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 21 |
| 24 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 21 |
| 25 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 22 |
| 26 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 19 |
| 27 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 21 |
| 28 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 21 |
| 29 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 20 |
| 30 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| 31 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 22 |
| 32 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 17 |
| 33 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 24 |
| 34 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 19 |
| 35 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 |
| 36 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 21 |

| | | | | | |
|--------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 37 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 22 |
| 38 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 18 |
| 39 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 24 |
| 40 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 20 |
| ΣX_e | 202 | 216 | 204 | 192 | 814 |
| X_e | 5.05 | 5.40 | 5.10 | 4.80 | 5.08 |

Table 77. Experimental Group Scores in Progress Test 1

5.3.2.2. Control Group Scores in Progress Test 1

| Control Group | | | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| N | fluency and coherence | Lexical resource | Grammatical range and accuracy | Pronunciation | Final scores |
| 01 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 18 |
| 02 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 17 |
| 03 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 21 |
| 04 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 16 |
| 05 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 21 |
| 06 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 20 |
| 07 | 6 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 24 |
| 08 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 18 |
| 09 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 21 |
| 10 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| 11 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 22 |
| 12 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 18 |
| 13 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 19 |
| 14 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 19 |
| 15 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 14 |
| 16 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 21 |
| 17 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 18 |
| 18 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 19 |
| 19 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 22 |
| 20 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 15 |
| 21 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 14 |
| 22 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| 23 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 21 |
| 24 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| 25 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 17 |
| 26 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 21 |
| 27 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 17 |
| 28 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 16 |
| 29 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 15 |
| 30 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 25 |
| 31 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 20 |
| 32 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 20 |
| 33 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 21 |
| 34 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 15 |
| 35 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 17 |
| 36 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 22 |
| 37 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| 38 | 6 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 24 |

| | | | | | |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|
| 39 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 23 |
| 40 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 19 |
| $\sum X_e$ | 192 | 204 | 180 | 176 | 752/1444 |
| X_e | 4.80 | 5.10 | 4.50 | 4.40 | 4.70 |

Table 78. Control Group Scores in Progress Test 1

The first progress test revealed that the experimental group remarkably shifted from 4.10 to 5.08. It is a good advancement that reflects the positive effect of the first two activities on students' speaking performance. Vocabulary was the speaking component students improved better since it increased from 4.10 to 5.40. It was the result of language contact and freedom of conversation among students. Students used vocabulary with limited flexibility and paraphrased their sentences with relative success. Accuracy was in the second grade; it reached 5.1. Students began to use a limited range of more complex sentences despite these sentences contain some errors that may create some comprehension problems. Fluency and coherence were in the third grade, they reached 5.01. Students were able to produce simple sentences fluently and complex sentences difficultly. They began to use transitional words and discourse markers extensively and therefore they could maintain a uniform flow of speech with some repetition and self-correction. Pronunciation took the lowest grade since it only reached 4.8 and students preserved their pronunciation features. We believe that they were concentrating much more on how to communicate effectively rather than to speak like native speakers.

The control group scores in the first progress test moved from 4.25 to 4.70. It is an inconsiderable improvement if compared to the one of the experimental group. In terms of vocabulary, students shifted from 4.25 to 5.10. They began to diversify their speech through substituting words with synonyms and producing new words that they gained from listening to each other. In terms of fluency, students remained in the same level and had 4.80. They slightly improve speech coherence but with use of pauses, repetition, and self-correction. They attempted to speak fluently but they continued to deliver words slowly. In terms of accuracy, students had moved from 4.25 to 4.50. They rarely paraphrased their sentences and frequently made errors in word choice, and they also faced difficulties when talking about unfamiliar topics. Like the experimental group, the control group didn't improve their pronunciation. We think that pronunciation was given less importance because it is less needed when conveying messages and negotiating meanings. The following figure shows scores of experimental and control groups in progress test one in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, and fluency.

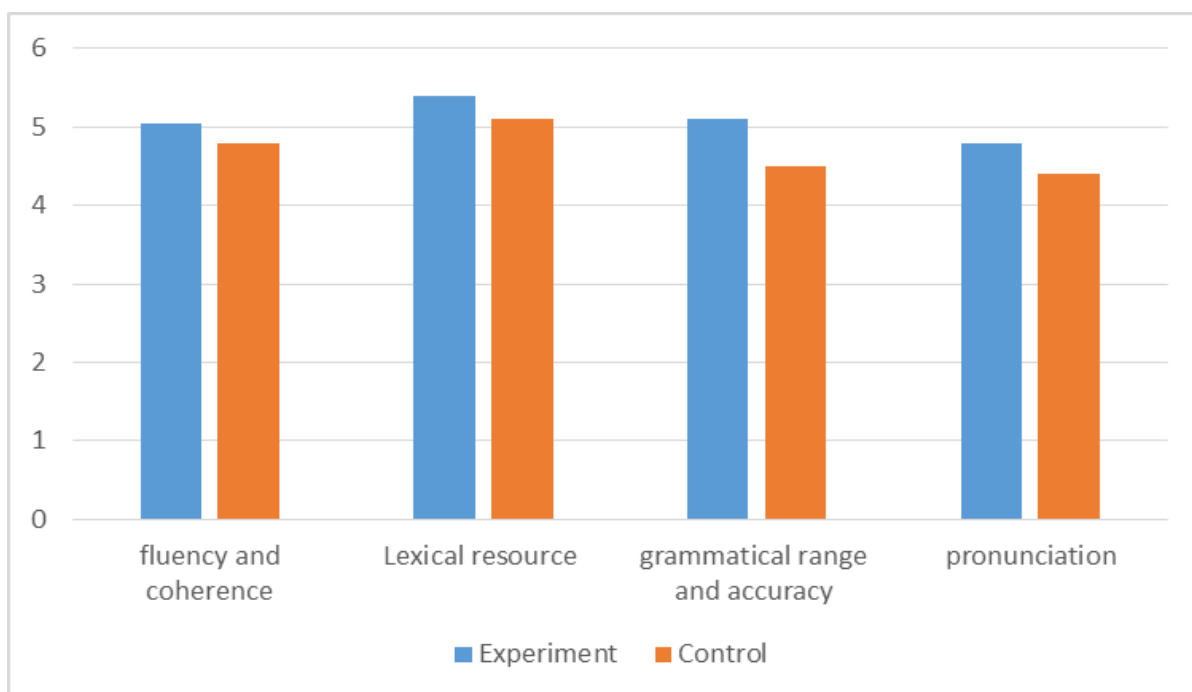


Figure 72. Students' Scores in Progress Test 1

5.3.3. Results of Progress Test 2

The progress test 2 was administered after having practiced two other activities. The first one entitled: a problem shared: Sharing everyday problems and solutions; the activity was a great way to build mutual rapport among students since it offered a real opportunity to talk about personal concerns and experiences. Students exchanged information about romantic relationships and family matters without barriers. Topics such as engagement, marriage, shyness, learning difficulties were most dominant and students were burned with curiosity to talk about their privacy. The second activity entitled: most politicians, few dogs; its objective was to improve students' language in terms of syntax through questioning social and educational phenomena such as men's betrayal, divorce, women's clothing and shopping, children punishment, and teachers' unqualification. As in the first progress test, the scores of the second progress test of both groups were displayed with details; in other words students were given four marks and each mark indicates their levels in one component of speaking. In the tables below, the scores are gathered and divided by four to obtain the average of their speaking ability.

5.3.3.1. Experimental Group Scores in Progress Test 2

| Experimental Group | | | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| N | fluency and coherence | Lexical resource | Grammatical range and accuracy | Pronunciation | Final scores |
| 01 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 22 |
| 02 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 25 |
| 03 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 20 |
| 04 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 21 |
| 05 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 |
| 06 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 26 |
| 07 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 26 |
| 08 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6 | 24 |
| 09 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 26 |
| 10 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 7 | 23 |
| 11 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 25 |
| 12 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 28 |
| 13 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 20 |
| 14 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 21 |
| 15 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 23 |
| 16 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 7 | 24 |
| 17 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 29 |
| 18 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 28 |
| 19 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 26 |
| 20 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 24 |
| 21 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 17 |
| 22 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 20 |
| 23 | 6 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 24 |
| 24 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 29 |
| 25 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 24 |
| 26 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 23 |
| 27 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 27 |
| 28 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 26 |
| 29 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 26 |
| 30 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 19 |
| 31 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 24 |
| 32 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 22 |
| 33 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 27 |
| 34 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 |
| 35 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 28 |
| 36 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 24 |
| 37 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 7 | 25 |
| 38 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 20 |
| 39 | 6 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 26 |
| 40 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 |
| $\sum X_e$ | 241 | 248 | 244 | 230 | 963 |
| \bar{X}_e | 6.02 | 6.20 | 6.10 | 5.75 | 6.01 |

Table 79. Experimental Group Scores in Progress Test 2

5.3.3.2. Control Group Scores in Progress Test 2

| Control Group | | | | | | |
|---------------|-----------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|--------------|--|
| N | fluency and coherence | Lexical resource | Grammatical range and accuracy | Pronunciation | Final scores | |
| 01 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 20 | |
| 02 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 18 | |
| 03 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 23 | |
| 04 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 18 | |
| 05 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 23 | |
| 06 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 22 | |
| 07 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 25 | |
| 08 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 20 | |
| 09 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 23 | |
| 10 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 18 | |
| 11 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 25 | |
| 12 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 20 | |
| 13 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 21 | |
| 14 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 20 | |
| 15 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 16 | |
| 16 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 | |
| 17 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 19 | |
| 18 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 20 | |
| 19 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 22 | |
| 20 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 16 | |
| 21 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 17 | |
| 22 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 18 | |
| 23 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 23 | |
| 24 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 18 | |
| 25 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 19 | |
| 26 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 22 | |
| 27 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 20 | |
| 28 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 17 | |
| 29 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 18 | |
| 30 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 25 | |
| 31 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 22 | |
| 32 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 22 | |
| 33 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 21 | |
| 34 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 15 | |
| 35 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 19 | |
| 36 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 23 | |
| 37 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 18 | |
| 38 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 25 | |
| 39 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 23 | |
| 40 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 20 | |
| $\sum X_e$ | 216 | 212 | 204 | 184 | 816 | |
| X_e | 5.40 | 5.30 | 5.10 | 4.60 | 5.10 | |

Table 80. Control Group Scores in Progress Test 2

After having applied two other activities which lasted for two weeks, the experimental and control groups were put once again into a test to determine their speaking skill progress. The

same procedure of progress test one was respected in progress test two and students became familiar with holding interviews. The experimental group reached for the first time grade 6 and took 6.01. The best score was in vocabulary with 6.20; the students used a wide vocabulary to express their ideas at length and paraphrased their utterances to make meaning clear. Students' accuracy also exceeded grade 6 with a score of 6.10, they showed ability to construct complex sentences using different ties and connectives, they committed some mistakes but without causing comprehension problems. Students' fluency took the third rank but it also exceeded grade 3. Students were able to vary their speech and maintain it for a long period of time despite their hesitation, repetition, and self-correction. Pronunciation shifted from grade 4 to grade 5 with a score of 5.75. Students nearly spoke with respecting the rules of phonetics and phonology; their speech was generally understood despite mispronunciation of some difficult words.

The control group shifted slowly from grade 4 (4.70) to grade 5 (5.1). Fluency in the first rank with a score of 5.4. The activities performed by students didn't lead to interactivity and spontaneity because they were pre planned and performed with some kind of artificiality and therefore their fluency slightly improved. Vocabulary in the second rank with a shift from 5.1 to 5.3. Students kept an approximate level in their linguistic competence and they could not extend their words repertoire. We think the reason is that traditional activities are rarely followed with debate and exchange of ideas which do not facilitate acquisition of new vocabulary. Accuracy in the third rank with shift from 4.50 to 5.10. The more language is practiced in real life context, the more students are able to use it accurately. Spontaneous language enables students to check whether their choice of words and structures are appropriate or not, hence classical activities often chain students' language productivity. Pronunciation knew no change and remained in the grade 4; it only shifted from 4.40 to 4.60. Pronunciation is mainly the only language skill that improves slowly, it is often internalized in early stage of learning foreign language, its rules take a long time to be taught and if these rules are not appropriately practiced and performed through speech, errors then will be easily fossilized. Hence it is always difficult to change pronunciation features such as intonation and pitch after being accustomed with for a long period of time. The following figure shows scores of experimental and control groups in progress test two in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, and fluency.

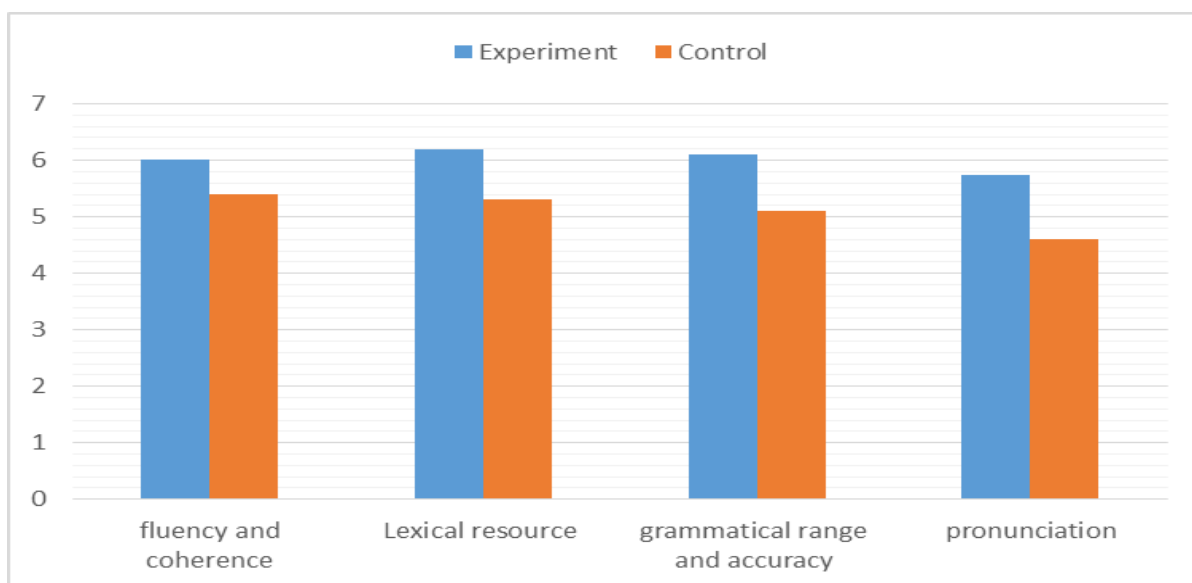


Figure 73. Students' Scores in Progress Test 2

5.3.4. Students' Scores in the Post-test

To measure their achievement in speaking, students of experimental and control groups were tested after the end of the treatment. The objective of the post-test was to validate the effectiveness of the independent variable (Dogme ELT) on the dependent variable (students' speaking skill). The post-test was undertaken immediately after the completion of the six Dogme activities which were applied as a treatment. Like the pre-test and progress test, the post-test was administered in the same manner and circumstances. The following table clarifies the students' scores in the post-test.

| Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|--------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| N | Average score | N | Average score |
| 01 | 7 | 01 | 5 |
| 02 | 8 | 02 | 5 |
| 03 | 5 | 03 | 6 |
| 04 | 7 | 04 | 5 |
| 05 | 7 | 05 | 6 |
| 06 | 8 | 06 | 6 |
| 07 | 7 | 07 | 7 |
| 08 | 6 | 08 | 5 |
| 09 | 8 | 09 | 6 |
| 10 | 8 | 10 | 5 |
| 11 | 5 | 11 | 8 |
| 12 | 8 | 12 | 5 |
| 13 | 5 | 13 | 5 |
| 14 | 6 | 14 | 5 |
| 15 | 6 | 15 | 4 |
| 16 | 7 | 16 | 6 |
| 17 | 8 | 17 | 5 |
| 18 | 7 | 18 | 5 |

| | | | |
|--------------|------|--------------|------|
| 19 | 6 | 19 | 6 |
| 20 | 8 | 20 | 4 |
| 21 | 5 | 21 | 4 |
| 22 | 5 | 22 | 5 |
| 23 | 7 | 23 | 6 |
| 24 | 8 | 24 | 5 |
| 25 | 8 | 25 | 5 |
| 26 | 6 | 26 | 6 |
| 27 | 8 | 27 | 5 |
| 28 | 6 | 28 | 5 |
| 29 | 6 | 29 | 5 |
| 30 | 6 | 30 | 8 |
| 31 | 7 | 31 | 6 |
| 32 | 6 | 32 | 6 |
| 33 | 7 | 33 | 5 |
| 34 | 7 | 34 | 4 |
| 35 | 8 | 35 | 5 |
| 36 | 7 | 36 | 6 |
| 37 | 6 | 37 | 5 |
| 38 | 8 | 38 | 7 |
| 39 | 8 | 39 | 8 |
| 40 | 6 | 40 | 5 |
| ΣX_e | 272 | ΣX_e | 220 |
| X_e | 6.80 | X_e | 5.50 |

Table 81. Students' Scores in the Post Test

The last phase in assessing the speaking skill of experimental and control groups was the post –test. As it was hypothesized, the scores showed that the experimental group reached better level than the control group did as it is realized when calculating the difference between means ($8.80-5.50=1.30$). The results confirm the effectiveness Dogme activities that relied on classroom conversation with emergent language scaffolding and minimal use of materials in the improvement of the experimental group speaking abilities. The table below shows the difference in means of both groups in the post-test.

| Groups | Post-test Mean |
|--------------------------|----------------|
| Experimental Group | 6.80 |
| Control group | 5.50 |
| Differences in the means | 1.30 |

Table 82. Difference in Means of both Groups in the Post Test

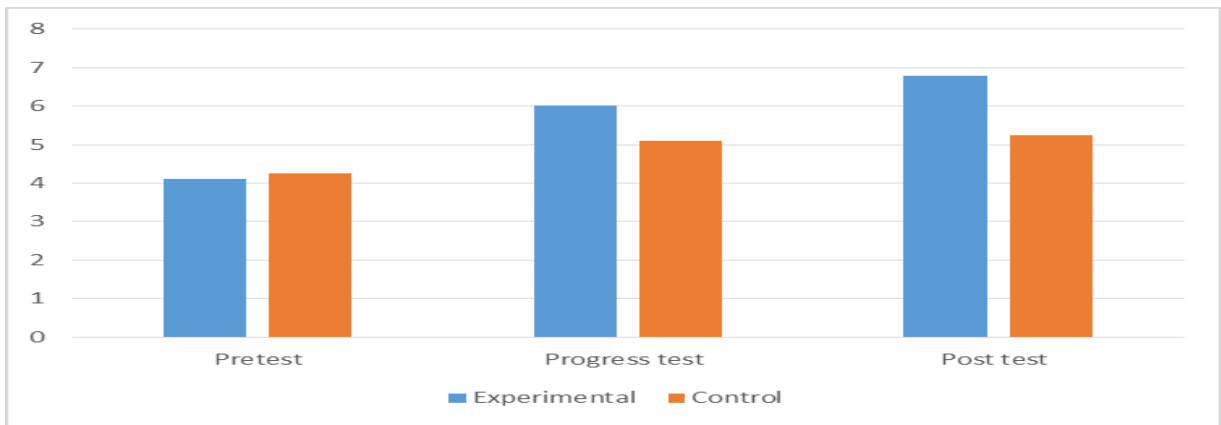


Figure 74. Difference in Means of both groups in the Post -test

After gathering scores of experimental and control groups in all tests, it is clearly noticed that the experimental group progressed better than the control group did. The scores of the experimental group shifted from 4.10 in the pre-test, 5.08 in progress test one, 6.01 in progress test two, and finally 6.80 in the post test whereas the scores of the control group shifted from 4.25 in the pre-test, 4.70 in progress test one, 4.10 in progress test two, and finally 5.50 in the post test. The experimental group achievement proves the effectiveness of the treatment (Dogme activities) practiced with the students and therefore validates the hypothesis proposed in the beginning of the research.

Students of the experimental group were taught with no materials such as published textbooks and hand-outs, or technological devices such as data show, phones and tablets, except if they were brought by themselves. They were provided with opportunities to converse freely with each other. The objective was to make their language emerge spontaneously from interactional conversations and to adapt and reflect their speaking abilities. The researcher had nothing to prepare except launching an idea that triggers students' curiosity and meets their needs and interests. Students set themselves free from anxiety, shyness, and introversion; they gained confidence and involved themselves in debate. Their speaking improvement seemed to be the result of encouraging classroom interaction that leads to emergent language with less use of materials which are the core principles of Dogme ELT.

Students of the control group were traditionally taught, they performed quasi-communicative activities such as role plays, storey telling, and interviews. These activities diminish the spontaneous nature of real life conversation, reduce interactional ability, and make speech artificial. Hence the scores obtained reflect the shortcomings of the current teaching methods that chain students with syllabi rather than allowing teachers to test

innovative ones. The feasibility of traditional teaching needs to be questioned in order to eliminate its demerits and to look for new remedying. The scores of all tests were in favour of the experimental group which prove the inefficacy of the method used with the control group. To reinforce and support the obtained scores, focus group interview with the experimental group is suitable for adding more qualitative data and therefore confirm the research hypothesis. The following table shows scores of both groups in all tests and as well as the difference in means

| | Experimental Group | | | | Control Group | | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|---------------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|---------------|
| Pre-test | 4.10 | | | | 4.25 | | | |
| | Fluency Coherence | Lexical resource | Grammatical range accuracy | Pronunciation | Fluency Coherence | Lexical resource | Grammatical range accuracy | Pronunciation |
| Progress Test 1 | 5.05 | 5.40 | 5.10 | 4.80 | 4.80 | 5.10 | 4.50 | 4.40 |
| | 5.08 | | | | 4.70 | | | |
| Progress Test 2 | 6.02 | 6.20 | 6.10 | 5.75 | 5.40 | 5.30 | 4.60 | 4.60 |
| | 6.01 | | | | 5.10 | | | |
| Post-test | 6.80 | | | | 5.50 | | | |
| Difference in Means | 1.30 | | | | | | | |

Table 83. Scores of both Groups in all Tests

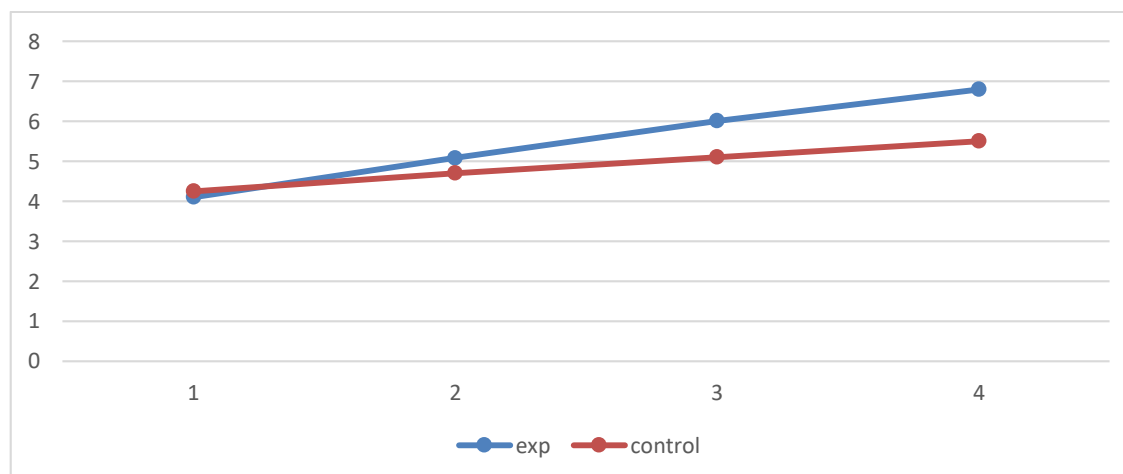


Figure 75. Students' Gradual Speaking Improvement in all Tests

5.3.5. Statistical Analysis and Interpretations

To verify the difference between scores obtained before and after the treatment, a T test (independent/unpaired test) was calculated; it investigated the effect of integrating Dogme ELT in Oral Expression class to improve students' speaking skill. It confirms whether the difference in means between scores of experimental and control groups is due to the independent variable (the treatment) or it is due to chance. The validation of the research hypothesis was made after the analysis and comparison of data using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). The following table represents an independent samples test which shows with details the results of T test.

| | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|--------|
| | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Posttest Equal variances assumed | .214 | .646 | -.650 | 38 | .520 | -.21978 | .33823 | -.90450 | .46494 |
| Equal variances not assumed | | | -.678 | 30.079 | .503 | -.21978 | .32439 | -.88219 | .44263 |

Table 84. Independent Samples Test

Following the criteria of Levene's test for quality of variances which states that if the value exceeds (.05), we should read from the first line of the table (equal variances assumed). If it less or equal to (.05), we should read from the second line of the table (equal variances not assumed). It is clearly seen that $.646 > .05$. Hence we read from the second line and confirm the alternative hypothesis and say that there is a significant difference in the scores in the favour of the experimental group Another comparison is made between the means of both groups in the post test reveals a difference of 1.30 ($6.80-5.50=1.30$) in the favour of the experimental group. Therefore, we conclude that students of the experimental group who were taught through Dogme ELT have improved their speaking skill better that those of the controlling group who were taught in a classical way.

5.4. Analysis of Focus Group Interview

It is claimed that “to reinforce and support research outcomes, using a number of different instruments which is known as triangulation becomes a necessity (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). Focus group interviews are thought to reinforce the finding of the current research.

The members of the experimental group had already been put under the same circumstances (experiment), hence we needed to determine their impressions and perceptions about Dogme activities and to check any probable positive effect upon their speaking abilities. Tracy (2013) states that when investigating issues in which participants do not share the same experience, focus groups are not the best way. In other words, if group participants do not have the same starting point, they will only compete for talk and not for ideas. For this reason “Focus groups are appropriate for your research project if your topic could benefit from the group effect. However, there is another issue to weigh: the extent to which the participants share a significant experience” (Tracy, 2013). Focus groups are viewed as “contrived settings, bringing together a specifically chosen sector of the population to discuss a particular given theme or topic, where the interaction with the group leads to data and outcomes” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005, p. 288). The question to ask is why focus groups are useful.

5.4.1. Why Focus Groups Interview?

When conducting a research, the selection of the type of data to gather is so important. Two types of data are often needed: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data enables the researcher to get numbers in order to prove the broad general points of the research, whereas qualitative data provides the researcher details and depth to understand their full implications. To dive deeper into the problem, focus group interviews remain among the best to use because they seek for participants’ attitudes, beliefs, feelings and experiences, and they widely supply the researcher with evidence that support his hypotheses. Unlike questionnaires and observations, focus groups require face to face interaction between participants who possess certain characteristics related to the subject under study. Interaction is based on open questions for the purpose of obtaining detailed information. Focus groups are described as “A form of strategy in qualitative research in which attitudes, opinions or perceptions towards an issue, product, service or programme are explored through a free and open discussion between members of a group and the researcher” (Kumar, 2011. page 124).

Tracy (2013) believes that focus groups are valuable for several reasons; besides they are less expensive and time-consuming way to reach, they facilitate creative types of data gathering that go beyond open-ended questions, and they basically serve as a mini interaction laboratory in which people articulate their ideas with less inhibition. The group effect produces insightful self-disclosure that may remain hidden in one-on-one interviews. In the same stream, Morgan and Krueger as cited in (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005) state that focus groups are useful; they lead to a particular domain of interest, develop topics needed for

participants, they create hypotheses and evaluate data from the group perspective and gather feedback from previous experiences.

A distinction should be made between focus groups and group interview. Kumar (2011) states that despite both of them are popular methods for finding information in almost every professional area and academic field and have low costs, but in the former, issues to be discussed are more specific and largely predetermined by the researcher, however in the latter, group members are permitted to discuss whatever they want. Indeed, the main attention should focus on the given experience of the participants and examine its relationship with the hypothesis. He adds “In focus group interviews, broad discussion topics are developed beforehand, either by the researcher or by the group. These provide a broad frame for discussions which follow. The specific discussion points emerge as a part of the discussion. Members of a focus group express their opinions while discussing these issues” (Kumar, 2011, Page. 152).

5.4.2. Core Features of Focus Group Interview

Focus group interview is a qualitative technique to collect data. It consists of a small group of individuals (from 4 to 10) with similar characteristics who focus discussion on a given topic. They may serve as a powerful and rich source for exploring participants’ inner feelings and attitudes. Casey and Krueger (2000) consider the environment of focus groups as more natural and comfortable where participants influence and are influenced just as they are in real life without artificiality. Therefore the collective view is given more importance than individual view. To ensure objectivity, the moderator should avoid influencing the participants and reassuring them that their responses will be respected. Krueger (2006) points out seven main features of focus group interview which are summarized below:

- 1) **Questions are focused:** questions are carefully sequenced so that they focus on a topic of importance in the study.
- 2) **There is no push for agreement or consensus:** focus groups are distinctive in that the goal is not to reach a consensus or to discover a single solution.
- 3) **Focus groups are permissive and nonthreatening:** the environment of the focus groups seeks to provide a comfortable place for conversation. The moderator indicates that participants may have differing opinions, but there are no wrong answers.
- 4) **Focus groups are composed of homogeneous participants:** people are invited to focus group because they have something in common (they are all put under the same treatment).

- 5) **Focus groups are of reasonable size:** the size of a focus group can range from as small as 4 or 5 to an upper limit of a dozen people.
- 6) **Focus groups are guided by a skillful moderator:** skillful moderators make it look easy. They get through a set of question in the allotted time. They get people to freely share their ideas.
- 7) **Focus groups have appropriate analysis:** the most time-consuming aspect of focus group is the analysis; hence the latter can involve audio recordings, transcripts, observation, field notes, or the researcher's memory.

5.4.3. The Role of Focus Group Moderator

The focus group moderator (interviewer) has a critical role; he facilitates interaction between group members, draws out differing perspectives, keeps the session focused, and teases out differing opinions about the topic. The moderator has to ask the students a series of questions. Students hear one another's answers and comment on them. It doesn't matter if they agree or disagree, what is most important is to know what they really know about the subject under investigation (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2012)

The interviewer informs the participants that the focus group interview will last one hour and a half, and asks them five or six core questions. In the first step, he welcomes and introduces the members of the group. He explains the purpose of the meeting and why not he tells them a joke or an anecdote to break the ice and therefore plug them into discussion. In the second step, he asks them the main research questions and their opinions about the Dogme activities practiced during the treatment. In the last step, he gives them the opportunity to evaluate the so called method and propose their own ideas for the sake of improving their speaking abilities. It is worth noting that questions should be carefully chosen by the moderator. Anderson (1990), for instance, provides the following guidelines for constructing them: asking open ended questions to get qualitative answers, avoiding dichotomous questions that have a possible 'yes' or 'no' answers, reducing questions into four or five questions, and sequencing them in a natural flow.

5.4.4. Group Size and Composition

In focus group research, the group size plays a great part in its success. Small groups may lead to limited discussion among participants whereas large groups may create chaos and lack of opportunities for speaking and therefore they become difficult to manage. It is claimed that

“In the formation of a focus group the size of the group is an important consideration. It should be neither too large nor too small as this can impede upon the extent and quality of the discussion. Approximately eight to ten people are the optimal number for such discussion groups” ((Kumar, 2011. page 124). Morgan (1988) suggests that in focus groups, the number of participants should be between four and twelve. The same number of participants is almost agreed upon by other scholars such as Stewart and Shamdasani who state that “The contemporary focus group interview generally involves 8 to 12 individuals who discuss a particular topic under the direction of a moderator who promotes interaction and assures that the discussion remains on the topic of interest” (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990. page 10). The researcher should expect non-attenders the day of the interview; hence substitutes are required to cover the absences

Sampling is a major key to the success of focus group, and the moderator has to take extreme care with it; it should have homogenous background in the investigated issue; otherwise discussion will not be fruitful (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). In order to obtain insightful and informative data, focus group members should not be randomly selected as Kothari (2004) notes that “...purposive sampling is considered more appropriate when the universe happens to be small and a known characteristic of it is to be studied intensively” in the same stream, Patton (2002) asserts that purposive sampling method is used so the researcher can get rich information. Hence, the researcher needs to choose 8 students (from 40 student of the experimental group) who showed their interest and admiration of the implemented experiment to participate in the focus group interview.

5.4.5. Recording the Interview

The way of saving participants’ responses can take two forms; whether taking notes or using a recorder. The former seems impossible to use because the researcher has to focus his attention on how to monitor and guide the group members; otherwise he cannot manage the discussion. The latter, from one side, provides advantage of reviewing participants’ outputs word for word which guarantees rich source of data, but from the other side, it is time consuming to listen to all the tape. Rice and Ezzy (1999) advice moderators to use the tape recorder and to listen them multiple times and to transcribe them into transcript. Despite videos are also considered among the best ways to record data since they enable the moderator to decode non-verbal signals that would not be seen on a tape such as facial expressions and gestures, but the researcher prefers to use the tape because he knows his students’ mind sets and wants to put them in a comfortable atmosphere. For this reason, the

researcher informs them in advance about circumstances of the interview. Students should speak individually, one at a time so their responses can be audible in the recording and easily transcribed. The ones who don't want to be identified in the transcript, they are allowed not to state their names in the recording, however; the others can identify themselves the first time they speak.

5.4.6. Conducting Focus Group Interview

The opening of focus group interview is critical. The researcher creates a thoughtful, permissive atmosphere. After he welcomes the participants, a short chat is desired to stimulate them to interact. The researcher says "today, you are invited because, unlike in the first semester, you have been taught in a different way as you may have noticed. The activities we practiced together in the second semester were selected from a different approach. Hence, your perceptions about them are so important for the sake of recognizing their role in the improvement of your speaking abilities. The researcher reassures the participants that whether their comments are positive or negative, they remain helpful; there are no wrong answers but rather differing points of view. The aim of the questions is to compare the previous teaching approach to the new implemented one, and to determine which one was most effective. The reason behind removing their doubts and fears is that some participants who are less dominating may conform to the answers of the other ones though they may not agree with them. Hence, the researcher as a moderator has to administer his interaction management skill through providing them the same time to answer the same question with absolute freedom.

5.4.7. Focus Group Interview Questions

Selecting the best type of interview is a crucial step before the beginning of focus groups. Williams (2013) identifies three types of interviews; structured interview, semi-structured interview, and unstructured interview. The structured interview is principally a questionnaire administered by interview; hence this type is not needed in our case because it doesn't provide any additional qualitative information. Unstructured interview provides the opportunity for participants to express their views through questions, but each participant's answer generates the next question. Hence these questions which are spontaneously shaped can deviate the content of the interview from its objective. Semi-structured interview involves a scheduled list of questions which are flexibly administered in order to capture the perspectives of participants who focus on the same issue. Therefore the latter is most needed.

To probe for more details about the subject under investigation, prompt discussion between participants, and understand the views and opinions of focus group members, the researcher asks five questions that cover the two variables of the research; three questions cover Dogme ELT principles (independent variable), and two questions cover the speaking skill (dependent variable). In a good qualitative research, questions should focus on the target topic in order to generate discussion among participants. In this respect, Krueger (2002) states that questions of focus group interview should have some characteristics which are summarized below:

Use open-ended questions that seek for qualitative information.

Avoid dichotomous questions that can be answered by 'yes' or 'no'.

Why? is rarely asked. Ask about features of the topic or things that prompt interaction.

Use "think back" questions. Take people back to an experience; not forward to the future.

Use different types of questions: opening, introductory, transition, key, ending questions.

The researcher's main objective of the focus group interview is to see to what extent did his experiment group students find Dogme activities which were applied in the second semester useful in the improvement of their speaking skill? To avoid subjectivity, and any kind of influence upon them, he doesn't tell them the name of the implemented approach or about its principles as well. The students are free to tell their opinions and beliefs about Dogme activities. Five questions which are asked are listed below.

-Did second semester activities offer you the opportunity to converse freely in the classroom?

If yes, would you tell me how?

-To what extent did the activities applied in the second semester (Dogme activities) enable you to speak spontaneously in the classroom?

-Do you think materials such as textbooks and technology are necessary in Oral Expression session? If yes, which one is preferred; your material or your teacher's material and why?

-Which of your language skills (vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and grammar) do you think has improved the most and how?

-To what extent did second semester activities help you to overcome your speaking difficulties?

5.4.8. Students' Responses

The researcher asks the first question, and the students answer one by one. When they finish, they are allowed to comment on each other's opinions for a while until all questions are answered. Students are also allowed to write down their main ideas in a paper before they develop them orally. After transcribing the tape, the researcher collects the answers of each

student in one text so it can reflect all their perceptions and attitudes toward the research variables (Dogme ELT and speaking skill). Pauses and hesitations are omitted and punctuation is used in order to make the text cohesive. Some expressions are grammatically corrected and reshaped so they can be easily understood. In this way, a wide and clear idea will be formed about each participant's perceptions.

Student 1:

“I think that the second semester was the starting point for improving my speaking. I appreciated classroom interaction because the topics we discussed were too close to my interests. Working in pairs and in groups helped me to exchange my feelings with classmates and therefore to converse naturally. Though the mistakes I sometimes made when I speak, but I was able to participate in debates”

“Some activities motivated me to speak without preparation especially the one when we were asked to describe our own worlds such as our rooms, our towns, and our country (she means activity six: lightening talks: helping each other in conversation). I had only to talk about real things surrounding me”

“I think that we need to use books and magazines in Oral Expression session because they provide us with useful information. Last year, I brought a short story into the classroom, and I summarized it to my friends. They really appreciated it, and many of them did the same thing. Concerning technology, I think nowadays it is essential. For example, we need to use data show for our presentations, smart phones to listen to the music, or internet to seek for information. I think that students are strongly attached to technology and they prefer to use their technological devices.

“I think that all my language skills have relatively improved. In the past, I rarely participated in the classroom. Now, I can speak, read, and write better than before. It is the result of interaction with my classmate and my teacher from whom I learned many things. For example; I used to pronounce words wrongly, but once I heard them from others, I corrected them.

“The fear of doing mistakes was my biggest problem. My poor vocabulary prevented me to speak confidently. Little by little, I listened to many words, expressions, and patterns that I started to use in my speech. I think that rich vocabulary helps the speaker to interact easily with others.

Student 2:

“I always wait for Oral Expression session with passion because I love the ideas suggested by you. In most of times, topics we discuss are from our own choice. You give us freedom to express ourselves, to show our feelings, and to tell personal stories. In the second semester, I began to converse with classmates and defend my opinions. Despite the big number of students in the classroom, I always try to speak through asking and answering questions”. We are always given freedom to exchange ideas and debate each other”

“Unplanned discussion is often difficult, but since topics are related to our lives, I find it easy to talk spontaneously. Most of the activities require group work which creates competition between groups and this is what pushes me sometimes to talk, though sometimes it is not my turn. After each interaction, I feel that I am able to speak with no preparation”

“Books are good if they are appropriately selected. They provide students with knowledge that cover the issues included in the syllabus. The teacher has to use the ones that ensure communication among students. No one denies the necessity of using technology in learning. Wherever we go, technology is needed. In classroom context, both students and teachers can benefit from technological tools by which they gain time and effort. A simple example is that a small phone in pocket can replace heavy books and dictionaries”

“My objective of learning English is to be able to speak it fluently. Moreover, it is my dream, and I think I am in the right path. Activities in Oral Expression module remain the source of my speaking improvement. I think that my fluency is going to improve better in the future”

“My problem with English is how to speak it comfortably. What makes me nervous is the feeling of anxiety when I stand in front of people to speak. I prefer to stay in my seat and to speak, but I think that it is a matter of time. I am sure that the problem will disappear because the activities we practice stimulate me to speak.

Student 3:

“I really admired second semester activities, they were fantastic. They helped me to engage in conversation in the classroom because they were about topics that I liked. Even my classmates told me that the same thing especially when we work in groups. We were free to talk with each other. We were also encouraged to share our problems and to open free debate in order to solve them”

“Every time I see my classmates talk in the classroom, I engage in discussion with them especially when they say things I don’t agree with them. I want to convince them with my opinions and beliefs, and that’s why I speak spontaneously and without preparation”

“I think that text books are good tools for learning. They are designed by experts in order to help us understand and acquire knowledge. They include lessons, activities and exercises which are necessary in our study, but the teacher sometimes doesn’t choose the best ones. I think that technology is necessary. Imagine there are no tablets, laptops, or internet, studying then will be difficult”

“I think that my fluency and pronunciation of English are improving. I learned many things from my teacher and my classmates. Sometimes when I speak, I repeat good sentences they have said before, and I pronounce words as they have pronounced them”

“The main problem I struggled with was my shyness. I rarely participated in the classroom in the first semester because the activities we practiced such as role playing and storytelling which were difficult for me. I could not face my friends and speak. However, in the second semester, activities were collective which helped me to speak confidently with the help of my classmates”

Student 4:

“For me, the second semester activities were useful, what attracted me is that we were not asked to prepare them in advance. We had to practice them immediately; this helped me to speak English with freedom and therefore to gain confidence in myself. I really loved all the activities because they helped me to express my feelings and interests. In the beginning, I didn’t want to speak, but when I saw that some of my classmates who are shy but they engage in discussion with others, I started to speak without hesitation”

“I think that because you allowed us to talk about our interests, I felt myself motivated to speak even though I had some language problems such as insufficient vocabulary and expressions. I believe that the second semester was the first real opportunity in which I spoke English spontaneously with my teacher and with classmates. The activities met my needs and my language desires”

“Books, magazines, newspapers, and journals are good tools for learning a foreign language. I think that we need them in Oral Expression session. Sometimes we bring them into the class in order to discuss a topic or a phenomenon. One day, I brought a newspaper that dealt with human rights in Algeria. The topic was discussed by all students who had different points of view. It created interaction in the classroom between students. The same thing with technology; I think it is a must in this time. A simple phone can record a lesson of hours which can be listened to in any further time. Tablets can replace books and dictionaries. Data show can replace pictures. So the classroom of yesterday doesn’t fit with today’s students”

“I have always hoped to speak English fluently. I think this dream is going to come true if I continue my oral participation in the classroom. There is at least a bit of improvement in my speaking (fluency) because I used to speak English despite the mistakes I sometimes make.

“I think my biggest problem with English is practice. I rarely speak it outside the classroom, so the only place where I can use it remains the classroom. The activities you suggested to us encouraged me speak English with my students. I think in the future, I will be able to speak it with fewer difficulties”

Student 5:

“The activities we practiced in the second semester were very motivating. I appreciated the idea of talking about ourselves; I had a lot of things to say about my concerns and my problems, and sharing them with my classmates pushed me to speak freely. Our conversation was not limited and you rarely intervene, for that reason, I felt free to express myself”

“It was the first time that I spoke in the classroom without preparing some words and expressions. I was eager to defend my beliefs and challenge my classmates whatever the language I produce. So my speech was simple and spontaneous, I think it was more productive because I used some language structures that I hadn’t used before.

“I don’t think that textbooks are necessary in Oral Expression session. We don’t need to cover their contents to speak English well. We need to speak English freely without guidelines. The last year, we used to read and reread dialogues from books; it was a kind of imitation that has no effect on improving our speaking. It is better engage in a real life conversation. Technology is a tool that may facilitate learning, but its presence in the classroom is not necessary. Our parents learned without technology, but they could master foreign languages. I think it is a matter of the way of teaching.

“Vocabulary and fluency were the main language skills I think I have developed. When we listen to a foreign language, we hear new words, new patterns, and new expressions that we need them when we speak. We become fluent speakers when we practice the language, and this is what helped me to improve my fluency.

“Second semester activities helped me to overcome my hesitation. The activities were open to our suggestions; everybody was free to express their ideas without feeling afraid to be criticized for their language performance.

Student 6:

“I think that the activities you proposed in the second semester were excellent for me. They made me engage in an easy conversation with my classmates. I liked the activity we

practiced in the first session of the second semester; it was about talking about objects we often carry with us (she means activity one: Pocket Pecha Kucha: Talking about we carry round with us). I could express myself freely because the subject to speak about was real and about personal things.

“There were always open discussions between students about topics of their choices. For me, it was a good idea to improvise and to produce different language structures and forms. I learned them from my classmates. I was able to vary my language depending on contexts”

“I strongly believe that developing Oral Expression depends much more on classroom interaction rather than textbooks. I prefer to converse naturally with a classmate rather than reading from a book. Using technology may have advantages and disadvantages; technology helps us to get rapid access to information, but in the same time it creates laziness among learners”

“Concerning my language skills, I discovered many things about how to choose appropriate words. I feel I am more precise in conveying my ideas. Practicing language in the classroom helped me to speak English with easiness and accuracy”

“The thing that makes me happy is that I gained confidence. Now, I can speak without track, I can prepare my answers while listening to my classmates, and I can convince them of my beliefs”

Student 7:

“In my opinion, the activities we did in the second semester helped me to develop my speaking. We were encouraged to speak with each other with no limits, and to work in a collective way. I easily integrated in the group work, and exchanged talk about our daily life problems”

“Before starting the activities, we had nothing to prepare because the topics were chosen depending on our interests. Sometimes, we talk about important political events, football matches, cinema, and historical facts. These types of activities require immediate use of our cultural knowledge and less focus on language itself”

“I think that textbooks are old fashioned materials to use in Oral Expression session. They only restrict our imagination and limit our creativity. We need to talk about contemporary issues that link us to our world. If they are used, their objectives should satisfy our needs. I don't think that technology is crucial in learning English. Interaction is more important.

“I think that my language accuracy has improved. It was the result of language contact with my classmates. Every day I learn different rules about how should I organize my speech and say appropriate expressions. I think that now I can describe things, concepts, or

phenomena using rich vocabulary. I got this ability after practicing the activity that revolves around providing a definition of words (Activity two: Guess the definition: starting from the word)”

“My speaking difficulties have reduced. In the past, I used to speak for moments and keep silent for a while. My sentences were not stretched with each other. Now I have learned some expressions from my classmates that I use in order to fill the gaps and to behave like fluent speakers”

Student 8:

“The activities we applied in the second semester were completely different from the ones of the first semester. They provided me with opportunities for speaking practice. I began to comfortably engage in conversation with my classmates because the activities were motivating. I still remember when we discussed our problems (she means activity three; a problem shared: sharing everyday problems and solutions). In the beginning, I hesitated to speak, but once my classmates introduced their different problems, I wanted to help them with my suggestions until I found myself involved in classroom discussion. I really felt I was in my family, so I had nothing to hide. The activity set me free to converse and chat in the classroom without barriers”.

“The activities we used to practice in the first semester seem to be artificial because we had prepared them in advance. Personally, I have always felt anxious because my objective was to make my classmates admire my performance. Later on, I think that the purpose of the activities has changed because we had then to convey our messages spontaneously. My interventions and my comments have become a habit and the way in which I spoke was more normal than before. I think that I gained speech spontaneity and therefore I became more self-confident”.

“In Oral Expression session, I don't like textbooks because I think they are useless. I prefer instead to talk naturally without following prescribed dialogues or reading texts. Textbooks impose guidelines and instructions that may chain our productivity and creativity. We want to be able to improvise when we speak and to discuss issues of our interests such as culture, fashions, and sports. Concerning technology, I like to use my own material such as my smart phone and laptop because they provide us with all what we need. What I have noticed is that teacher's materials are not always admired by all students.

“I think that the more we practice the language orally, the more we become fluent speakers. The activities we did have improved my fluency because I used to speak regularly in the classroom and consequently I have become familiar with English. I also gained new

vocabulary from listening to my classmates. Every time they tell new words, I immediately memorize them so I can use them in further contexts.

“In the beginning, the problems I faced were a lot, but the most persisting one was psychological. When I want to speak in front of the class, I always feel anxious because of my classmates’ looks that embarrass me. You (my teacher) have always helped me to overcome the problem through your encouragement and support. Now, I feel that my speaking difficulties have decreased.

5.4.9. Reporting the Findings

As it has already been mentioned, the main purpose of interviewing students was to see to what extent Dogme ELT tenets met students’ needs and expectations, as well as to check whether their speaking has improved and their speaking difficulties have been overcome. To analyse their responses, Anderson (1990) suggests looking for big ideas, making list of them, examining students’ reactions, and striking balance between detail and conciseness. The first question revolved around the first principle which is “Conversation driven”. All students agreed that the activities practiced during the second semester were motivating because the topics they discussed were of their own choice. They worked in pairs and in groups and discussed different topics that enabled them to exchange knowledge. They engaged in free conversation and shared their daily life problems and concerns. Indeed, creating classroom interaction was the main objective of Dogme activities. The activities stimulated students’ curiosity to express their feelings, emotions, and interests. They confirmed that there was a space for their voices in the classroom, and there was a tolerance and flexibility from the side of the teacher.

The second investigated principle was “Emergent language”. In other words, what allows language to emerge is classroom interaction, as Thornbury (2005) asserts that language learning is not a matter of acquisition but rather than one of emergence, the latter can be realized only when learners’ communicative needs are fulfilled. Students believe that the second semester was the first real opportunity in which they could speak English spontaneously, and they were able to involve themselves in unplanned discussion. They state also that they began to produce new and varied language structures and forms that they had not been able to produce individually before; it was the result of their language contact. Many of them think that working in groups created competition which often stimulates them to speak spontaneously in order to convince each other. To sum up, we can say that the more learners are put in real life conversation, the more their language productivity and creativity emerge.

The third principle of Dogme ELT is “Materials light”, Dogme approach suggests to the teachers to free their selves from dependence on course books and technology. Meddings and Thornbury(2009) advice teachers to free classrooms for interaction and mediated learning opportunities which are necessary for language development. However, half the students believe that books, magazines, and newspapers are useful in Oral Expression session, and their use enables them to gain time and effort because they include lessons and tasks that scaffold their language learning. Students are with the use of textbooks but they claim that they prefer those kinds that conform to their needs and interests. Concerning technology, they believe that it is essential element in learning languages. They prefer to use data show in their presentations instead of pictures and posters, smart phones and tablets to seek for information instead of heavy books and dictionaries, and videos instead of written stories.

The second half of students is totally against the use of text books in Oral Expression session. They consider them as old fashioned materials that restrict their imagination and creativity. They prefer classroom talk to develop their speaking rather than prescribed dialogues and written texts. Despite its advantages, these students believe that technology has its disadvantages; it creates laziness among learners. Their main evidence is that previous generations master foreign languages better than them though in the past technology was not available as it is nowadays.

Students’ perceptions about their speaking skill improvement were investigated in terms of: pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, and fluency. All students assume that their fluency has developed due to the conversations they always hold with each other in Oral Expression session. Two students think that their pronunciation has changed for better; they used to listen carefully to their classmates and the teacher and therefore they correct their phonological mistakes. Hence, good listening is a good factor for memorizing how words are correctly uttered. Two other students claim that their language accuracy has also improved; they are now able to combine words and structures appropriately to produce a cohesive and coherent speech. They implicitly learned grammatical rules from their classmates’ oral interventions that they consider the main source of their input.

Conclusion

The objective of implementing the experiment was to test the hypothesis already stated in the beginning of the research which emphasized the cause/effect relationship between the independent variable (Dogme ELT approach) and the dependent variable (students’ speaking skill). After having analysed the results, it has been revealed an increasing development of the experimental group speaking abilities in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, and

fluency during all the stages of the treatment. In other words, Dogme ELT activities left a positive impact on Students' speaking abilities. Such types of activities were highly learner centred in nature and which let teachers distance themselves from teacher centred methods. The activities could humanize the classroom through promoting students' interactional dialogues about their real life needs and interests. Therefore the findings validated Dogme ELT as a useful alternative paradigm for teaching English through classroom conversation in which language emerges spontaneously and with a minimum reliance on materials.

The focus group interview, as a research tool, was an attempt to seek for qualitative data from participants' answers. Open-ended questions were asked for the sake of knowing their perceptions toward Dogme based activities which were implemented as an experiment in the second semester. The main task of the researcher was to establish a comfortable setting that ensures conversation among group members about the so called activities, and distance himself from any kind of pressure upon them. The focus group interview was utilized to develop the hypothesis already stated in the beginning of the research. The experimental group members who were interviewed provided valuable information that supplemented the effectiveness of Dogme ELT on EFL learners' speaking abilities. After having analysing the findings of the treatment which confirmed noticeable changes in the dependent variable (Students' speaking skill) through the manipulation of the independent variable (Dogme ELT), the validity of the research results have been supplemented by the qualitative data obtained from the focus group interview. Participants stated that they had benefited from Dogme activities and now they feel more autonomous in their learning and are able to control what they learn and how to learn in order to improve their speaking.

5.5 General Conclusion and Recommendations

Introduction

In this era of globalization where English has become a lingua franca, EFL learners at the university level are eager to learn how to be fluent speakers, and they often refer their mastery of English to the development of their speaking skill. Meanwhile achieving high proficiency in speaking remains a daunting work for the majority of them. Such a dilemma may be the result of many factors such as the students' unawareness of how to overcome the speaking difficulties and how to use the communication strategies, or the ineffectiveness of the teaching methodologies applied by Oral Expression teachers. Hence incorporating alternative approaches in teaching speaking is a useful way to test their efficacy in the development of

the students' speaking skill. The researcher's concern was to introduce Dogme ELT principles (conversation driven, materials light and focus on emergent language), and to investigate to what extent they could have brought positive changes on students' speaking in terms of vocabulary pronunciation accuracy, and fluency. After having conducted an experimental study, the researcher provides a summary of the research findings recommendations, limitation of the study as well as future prospects.

5.5.1. Summary of the Findings

The main objective of this research was to investigate the effectiveness of integrating Dogme English Language Teaching in Oral Expression class to develop EFL students' speaking abilities at Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra in the academic year 2016/2017. The research shed light on students' speaking difficulties and strategies, explained with details Dogme ELT principles and to what extent do they play helpful role in students' speaking advancement in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency, and how did students perceive Dogme ELT activities after being implemented as experiment. The research also examined the current teaching methods Oral Expression teachers apply and if they overlap with Dogme ELT ideas. The research hypothesis was a tentative statement about the relationship of the two variables included in the research title; it is a testable prediction about what is expected as results on students' speaking skill if Dogme ELT activities are practiced.

The researcher opted for a combination of descriptive and experimental methods to investigate deeply the subject under study and to collect sufficient data about it. The first research procedure was to analyse the actual situation of teaching speaking. A first questionnaire was distributed to 80 second year students to determine their perceptions about their speaking level, their oral participation frequency in the classroom, their linguistic and psychological difficulties as well as their awareness of communication strategies. Students were asked also to provide their opinions about classroom conversation, emergent language, and usefulness of materials which form Dogme ELT principles. A second questionnaire was distributed to 10 Oral Expression teachers in order to recognize their experience and qualification, the difficulties they encounter in teaching speaking and the methods they often use in the classroom. Teachers' knowledge about Dogme ELT was implicitly investigated, hence they were asked how do they perceive the use of textbooks and technological devices in teaching, how do they create classroom conversation, and how to stimulate students to produce spontaneous language.

The analysis of the questionnaires provided valuable information about the participants. Students stated that they rarely participate in Oral Expression session due to their low language proficiency or due to some psychological factors such as anxiety and lack of motivation. They also had no idea about communication strategies. They complained against the activities proposed by the teacher, the lack of interaction activities, and the absence of scaffolding tools such as audio-visual aids. Students claimed that they prefer use their own materials, to speak about their interests and chat about social and political issues in the beginning of the lecture, and to negotiate the syllabus with their teacher. Teachers stated that it is difficult to teach OE module and half of them were bound to teach it. They complained against large classes and insufficient time devoted to OE. They insisted on the necessity of using materials such as textbooks and technology.

The experiment implementation was firstly undertaken with a pre-test. An experimental group and controlling group including 40 students for each were selected to test their speaking proficiency before the treatment and to make sure that they possess the same speaking level. The pre-test was like the progress tests and post-test, it was held in a form of interview that lasted for few minutes, and tackled interesting topics retrieved from the International English Language Test System (IELTS). It revealed that students had an under intermediate level and struggled with different speaking difficulties. The treatment consisted of performing six activities selected from the book “Teaching Unplugged”, each activity lasted for a week (two session of three hours). After every two activities, a progress test was administered to test students’ progression. A post-test was taken after the completion of the treatment in order to see if there were any changes in students’ speaking abilities.

The findings of the experiment revealed that the experimental group which was taught through Dogme ELT showed a significant progress in their speaking abilities, whereas the control group showed a slight improvement. The positive effect of Dogme activities was clearly noticed during all the stages of the treatment. The scores of the experimental group shifted from grade four (4.10) in the pre-test and nearly reached grade 7 (6.8) in the post-test. The scores of the control group shifted from grade four (4.25) in the pre-test to (5.5) in the post-test. Among speaking components, vocabulary was the first one that students had improved better. Accuracy ranked second, fluency third and pronunciation in the last rank. Students acquired rich vocabulary that enabled them to paraphrase their speech and to speak at length. They could produce sentences accurately with a limited range of complex structures. They could use connectives that made their discourse more cohesive and coherent. They showed the aptitude and flexibility to correct their mispronunciation and to utter words

like native speakers. Students were hesitant speakers in the beginning, but they became more engaging and self-confident after being involved in Dogme activities that set them free from artificiality and inconvenient materials. Hence the findings have validated the alternative hypothesis already stated in the beginning of the research.

To offer validity to the research findings and to support the hypothesis, a focus group interview was held with the experimental group since the latter had best scores in the post-test. The researcher's objective was to seek for qualitative data from the participants' beliefs, attitudes, and experience which had been shaped through the implementation of Dogme activities. To dive deeper into participants' minds and to compare their responses with the results obtained in tests, five open ended questions about the research variables were asked; three questions covered the independent variable (Dogme ELT); they stressed on the opportunities offered for classroom conversation, the amount of spontaneity in language production, and the rate acceptance of materials such as text books and technology. The two other questions covered the dependent variable (students' speaking skill); they focussed on the speaking skill improvement and the overcoming of speaking difficulties. The participants' responses offered valuable data that could answer the research questions.

Concerning the first Dogme ELT principle (Conversation driven), students confirmed that Dogme activities were motivating because they allowed them to tackle their own topics and stimulated their curiosity to express their ideas and feelings. In other words, there was a space for their voices in the classroom and Oral Expression session became a setting for free conversation that enhances their speaking skill. The second Dogme ELT principle (Emergent language) was also supported by students who stated that through real life conversation, they could speak English spontaneously, participate in unplanned discussions, and produce new vocabulary and language structures that they had not been able to produce individually before. The third Dogme ELT principle (Materials light) created a controversy among students. They were divided into two parts; the first part believed that textbooks, hand outs, magazines, and newspapers are inevitable in teaching speaking since they provide lessons, topics, and tasks that assist their language learning. They viewed technology as necessary because it facilitates access to information; reduce tiredness, and fits people's life style and requirement. The second part of students stood against published text books and technology; they preferred to focus on classroom talk rather than prescribed dialogues, written texts, and imposed technological devices.

The researcher found out that all students assumed their speaking improvement in all terms (vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency) but with different degrees. Fluency and vocabulary ranked first; they stated that the main factor was classroom conversation through which they used to exchange words and learn communication strategies. Students' accuracy has improved through language practice; they learned how to combine words and link sentences appropriately so they could produce cohesive and coherent discourse. Students' pronunciation knew a slight progression simply because students focussed much more on how to send meaning rather than on how to utter language units. In the light of the mentioned data, the researcher has noticed that there is conformity between the data extracted from focus group interview with the experimental group and the findings obtained from the experiment applied on the same group which reinforces the hypothesis of the research.

5.5.2 Recommendations

The current research was empirically conducted to test the effectiveness of Dogme ELT on students' speaking abilities. It revealed the usefulness of the investigated approach and its practicability in teaching speaking. Meanwhile, some constraints and obstacles stood against its implementation which proportionally reduced the generalizability of the findings. Despite being considered as a new language teaching philosophy which gained popularity in educational institutions around the world, Dogme ELT principles need to be deeply studied and practiced in different settings and contexts. Hence, to complete the objective, a great deal waits researchers working on the same stream. On the basis of what has been discussed in both the theoretical and the practical parts, and owing to the fact any research has limitations that should be overcome in future work, some useful and relevant suggestions and recommendations are made

5.5.2.1. Reducing Class Size

The more students a teacher is responsible for, the harder it is to teach. In developed countries, a class that exceeds twenty or twenty five students is considered problematic. However in Algeria, a class of forty students is not seen outnumbered. Despite they have become adapted with the situation, teachers often complain about large classes and the consequent stress produced. Teachers always make enormous effort to have sufficient information about students' needs, to determine their mixed abilities, to engage them in classroom conversation, to control disruption, and to keep good discipline going on. As a matter of fact, teaching crowded classes leads to students' disengagement and feelings of alienation because students rarely get the floor to speak. Arguments often given by the concerned authorities refer the problem to the budget and the huge number of students. To

solve the dilemma of crowded classes, the Algerian ministry of higher education and scientific research is called not only to recognize that teachers are crucial in building good teaching that leads to success, but to prove it practically through adopting a new policy of increasing teachers' systematic recruitment. We strongly assume that class size is a key measure of academic quality and therefore the optimum class size should not exceed thirty students.

5.5.2.2. Increasing Time Allotted to the Oral Expression Module

One key variable in learning speaking is the amount of opportunity given to students to practice language with peers. In Algerian universities, English is taught as a foreign language and Oral Expression session is almost the only opportunity for students to practice that language together. In the other modules, classroom interaction is given less importance because the main focus is on transmitting knowledge about language rather than learning speaking the target language. Three hours a week for Oral Expression course are deemed to be insufficient to promote students' speaking skill; hence OE module should be allotted more time (at least for hours and a half a week). Moreover, the module is taught only in the three years of Licence, so we suggest including it in Master two programs. Despite their complaining, voices of OE teachers in Algerian Universities are not heard neither by Departments and the Ministry as well; hence we join our complaints with theirs.

5.5.2.3. Negotiating the Syllabus

The negotiated syllabus, also termed 'the process syllabus' is one of the directions that emerged from communicative language teaching whose main objective was to make teaching and learning process more communicative. Recently, it has been considered as one of the important theoretical and practical developments in language teaching. It revolves around the idea that everyone in the classroom has an equal right and opportunity to influence the decisions which are made on content selection and mode of working. We believe that implementing classroom negotiation is a useful alternative to pre-planned syllabus since it allows students to work in different ways, at different rhythms to satisfy their needs and interests. As a consequence, their sense of progress and achievement grows and so does their motivation. We suggest giving learners a voice through including their ideas and previous experiences in the course so they can develop their responsibility, gain confidence, and improve their learning effectiveness. Accordingly, teachers will discover students' learning styles and therefore extend their teaching strategies.

5.5.2.4. Diagnosing Students' Needs and Learning Styles

The process of determining and satisfying students' needs is now increasingly considered crucial in effective teaching. Teachers who are willing to know their students often work out their students' readiness, identify their preferred learning styles, and establish a safe environment for learning. Once their needs are satisfied, students become active partners in teaching rather than passive participants in receiving knowledge. They feel pride of achievement in each goal met because they contributed in setting those goals. We advise teachers to collect information about students, bridge the gap between what they are able to do and what they need to be able to do, and design a course that addresses their requirements. In all classrooms, there are different personalities, each of whom may respond differently according to their needs and learning styles. Some learn best by listening and speaking, some learn best by reading and writing, and some learn best by observing and going through the motions of what they are learning. Hence, in order to make a balance, some students require more support than others. Teachers should incorporate various teaching methods so they can identify their students' learning styles and therefore satisfy their preferences.

5.5.2.5. Promoting Classroom Conversation

It is assumed that a classroom that is alive of conversation particularly among students is the most enjoyable place for learning and promoting speaking skill. Student centred-classrooms are most needed because students always want to be given a voice so they can learn how to convey messages, negotiate meanings, and therefore communicate effectively. If teachers use substantive conversation that triggers students' curiosity and overlap with their tendencies, they will encourage them to bring to mind their own ideas and understandings and interpret them through speech. A simplest way to do it can be through connecting the conversation to a relevant event, a humorous anecdote, or a controversial issue. Teachers are asked to inject stimulus in to the lesson to make sure that students will be eager to participate. They should encourage pair and group work, ask open ended questions, and let students talk freely to each other until they enjoy the discussion. In this way, teachers then increase students' risk taking, problem solving, interest and engagement, and strengthen classroom community which leads to the success of classroom discussion,

5.5.2.6. Promoting Students' Bring Your Own Device (BYOD)

In this digital era, electronic devices such as laptops, tablets, and smartphones have revolutionized peoples' life. In the field of education, technology has become a necessity and can be converted to a useful learning tool. BOYD or 'Bring Your Own Device" has grown as a trend in teaching methodology, it promotes the use of personal technological devices to engage students in classroom interaction and therefore to make them partners in the teaching process. In order to enhance learning, teachers should embrace technology and permit students to carry their technological tools as they carry materials such as pens and copybooks. BYOD helps students to get access to unlimited information on different topics, build wide knowledge, and discover new acquaintances. Subsequently, when students use their BOYD, they gain comfort and engage in classroom conversation which undoubtedly promotes their speaking. However, teachers should inform students that technological devices can be used after teacher's permissions and in the spirit of the day's lecture. They should also set limits through giving instructions to students that BOYD driven-topics do not mean making phone calls, chatting through internet, checking personal e-mail, listening to music, or playing games. We believe that appropriate incorporation of student-owned technological tools as a pedagogical approach will lead to project-and inquiry-based learning opportunities which help students learn by doing and give them ownership of their education.

5.5.2.7. Scaffolding Emergent Language

Emergent language, also called "learner inter language", is the learner's current understanding and ability to perform in the target language, it is characterized by spontaneity, unpredictability, and lack of control and overcompensation. Teachers who focus on emergent language can gain deep insight into the dynamic process of language learning and help students to internalize and automatize the target language. Learning might be more effective if teachers capture, expose, praise the language produced by students, and encourage peer and self-evaluation output. The question to ask is from where might language emerge? Language is generated through tasks that respond to students' relevant needs and interests, promote the co-construction of meaning, and enhance collaborative interaction. Teachers should pick up on expressions, concepts, and ideas provided by students, present them for the whole class for exploitation. One best way to scaffold emergent language is through getting students have notebooks to document, repeat, and recycle what has been discussed so they can remember and reuse their outputs. We suggest adopting the idea that sees language learning as an emergent phenomenon rather than accumulation of language structures and rules.

5.5.2.8. Adopting Eclecticism

In order to meet the various needs of students and to improve their communication skills, various language teaching approaches have been suggested. However each approach has strengths as well as weaknesses and relying upon a single theory has become less effective. Hence eclectic teaching provides teachers with flexibility to search for techniques retrieved from different methods and to apply them depending on the aims of the lesson and the students' abilities and requirements. In other words, eclecticism provides teachers with dynamism and freedom to select different activities that they think they are useful or that have previously tested their effectiveness. Due to the fact that students are not expected to have the same learning level and needs, teachers therefore need to be reflective and innovative and to grab any teaching idea that may promote their teaching. We believe that one single method can difficultly make different language learners communicatively competent in different real-life situations. Therefore, teachers should break the monotony and motivate students' participation in the classroom through using different ways of teaching that lead to students' better understanding. By being eclectic, teachers should be imaginative in selecting appropriate materials to fit their students' capability and learning style.

5.5.2.9. Incorporating Dogme ELT in Teaching Speaking

Due to the fact that Dogme ELT is an eclectic approach that is shaped from different communicative approaches such as communicative language teaching (CLT), task based language learning (TBLT), learner centred teaching (LCT), and Whole language learning (WLL), and its implementation as experiment in the current research showed remarkable positive effects on students' speaking abilities, we invite OE teachers to embrace it and to test its principles. Teachers are asked to humanize the classroom, scrutinize their resources, distance themselves from the pedagogical model of transmitting knowledge, and give learners a voice. Teachers can teach effectively in a spirit of a safe community if they use students' lives and experiences as input and create content around a topic that students are passionate about. Selecting Dogme lesson ideas from the book "Teaching Unplugged" and implementing them in the classroom may allow teachers to give students more ownership of what happens in the classroom, let them guide the direction of the lesson, and therefore enhance their self-confidence. It should be admitted that the contemporary generation of students is exigent and hard to please; hence we believe that teachers should be more flexible and try to satisfy students' needs through practicing Dogme activities.

5.5.3. Limitations of the Study

During the current research, many matters and occurrences which arose were out of the researcher's control; they limited the extensity to which the study could go and sometimes may affect the results and conclusions that can be drawn. Firstly, the results of this study may not be completely generalizable because the sample was restricted to 20% of the total population (second year students of English at Biskra University). We believe that if the study was applied on larger sample size, it could have generated more accurate results. Secondly, the time allotted to implement the experiment (two months) was insufficient to practice a wide number of Dogme activities; hence further longitudinal research is needed to clarify the potential role of Dogme ELT in the development of students' speaking skill. Thirdly, there is a lack of prior research studies on the topic in the Algerian Universities; such a problem would weaken the literature review and therefore would not establish better understanding of the problem under investigation. On the basis of the so called shortcomings, suggestions for further research are made

5.5.4. Future Prospects

There are a number of gaps in our knowledge about the subject under investigation, and if we were to conduct this study again, there are many changes we would make. Most importantly, it would be useful to replicate some longer-term studies with different research tools at different universities to capture more data about the cause/effect relationship between the research variables, and therefore to supplement the assumptions that stand for the positive impact of Dogme ELT on the development of the students' speaking skill. Based on the research findings which revealed the importance of classroom conversation and students' emergent language, a shift should be made from classical foreign language teaching to a communicative one which is a creative, hands-on, and flexible. Hence the adoption and integration of Dogme ELT as an alternative teaching approach is required in order to diversify the quality of teaching. Students' motivation is a crucial factor in teaching speaking; the more students are set free to discuss their needs and interests and to bring their materials into the classroom, the more they practice the target language with ease. Therefore the negotiation of the lesson content remains primordial in Oral Expression setting and should be the basis of any interaction activity.

Conclusion

The main objective of this study was to reveal to what extent Dogme ELT could improve students' speaking skill. To gather sufficient data and therefore to reach valid findings, a combined research method (descriptive/experimental) was used. The results obtained from the analysis of teachers and students' questionnaires and the pre-test indicated the inefficiency of the current ways of teaching speaking. Hence an experiment was implemented in the line of Dogme ELT principles; it realized that teaching speaking requires encouraging classroom conversation, promoting emergent language, and accepting students' materials. The scores obtained from the experimental group post-test confirmed the efficiency OF Dogme activities in the development of their speaking skill. Likewise, through the focus group interview, the experimental group appreciated learning under Dogme methodology. On the basis of the findings, Dogme ELT, as a learner centred teaching paradigm, invites Oral Expression teachers to revisit the basics of teaching and to scrutinize their sources, and to build rapport with students to overcome their speaking difficulties and to promote their communication strategies. In other words, there is a need to make learning co-constructed through the communicative interaction between the teacher and the students, to foster students' inner language mechanism and agenda, and to adjust and adapt the content to their real needs. Nevertheless, there is still much scope for further studies to determine how preferable Dogme ELT would be in comparison to existing methods. Hence, teachers and students are challenged to think outside the textbook box and to use Dogme ELT as a supplement to their current learning and teaching before suggesting its integration in EFL programs.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 : Students' Questionnaire

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear students,

We would be very grateful if you could answer the following questionnaire that serves as a data collection tool for LMD doctorate in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) about developing students' speaking skill through "Dogme ELT" teaching approach. Be sure that your answers will absolutely remain confidential and your point of view is very useful and helpful to evaluate the effectiveness of the mentioned approach. Please, put a tick in the corresponding box and provide full statements whenever necessary.

Thank you for your cooperation

Mohamed Daguiani

Definition of underlined terms:

- **Accuracy**: the learner's ability to use the target language according to the norms
- **Fluency**: the learner's ability to communicate easily and articulately
- **Information gap activity**: If someone has an information that another one does not, and possibly vice versa, then there is a gap between the two, so they need to communicate to overcome the problem
- **Output**: The language produced by an acquirer (learner).
- **Scaffolding**: Any audible or visible assistance provided by a teacher to a learner

Section one: General information

1) Age:

2) Your educational streaming

Literary Scientific Technical Other; specify

3) Why have you chosen to study English at the university?

- To go abroad
- To communicate with people
- You found no other choice
- Because of parental pressure

- To go for further studies
- Other? Please mention:

Section two: Students' perceptions about their speaking skill.

4) Classify the following skills in terms of importance. (Use numbers from 1 to 4).

Reading Writing Speaking Listening

5) How do you consider your level in speaking English?

Very good Good Average Poor

6) How often do you speak English with classmates outside classroom?

Always Sometimes Rarely Never

7) How often do you participate in oral expression session?

Always Sometimes Rarely Never

8) If rarely or never, is it because of?

- The poor level of English (vocabulary, pronunciation.....)
- Anxiety
- Lack of motivation and interest
- Lack of self confidence
- Nature of topics discussed
- Other, specify:

9) Do you find difficulties when speaking English?

- Yes No

10) If yes, is it because of?

- Lack of vocabulary Poor pronunciation Lack of grammatical rules

- Lack of fluency

Other; mention please:

11) When facing difficulties in speaking, do you know any speaking strategies to overcome the problem?

- yes No

12) If yes, would you say how?

.....

.....

.....

13) Do you feel comfortable in the oral expression class?

- Yes No

14) If no, what makes you feel so?

- The teacher Your classmates The activities proposed by the teacher

Other; mention please:

15) Are you satisfied with the way the Oral Expression course is presented?

- Yes No

16) If "no", give your comments:

.....
.....

Section three: Students' perceptions about the principles of the Dogme ELT teaching approach

17) How often are you given turns by oral Expression (OE) teacher to express your ideas?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

18) Does your OE teacher provide you with opportunities to interact with your classmates?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

19) How often information gap activity is used by your OE teacher?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

20) Does your OE teacher use pictures, video tapes, audio tapes...etc (scaffolding)?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

21) Which of the following do you prefer to use in the classroom?

- published textbooks Your topics teacher's topics

Which of the following does your teacher often use in the classroom?

- published textbooks Your topics teacher's topics

22) Does your OE teacher chat with you at the beginning of the lesson?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

23) Does your teacher act with you as

- Manager Participant Classmate Friend

24) Do you think the activities suggested by your OE teacher satisfy your needs and interests?

- Yes No Somehow

25) If no, would you please say why and what do you suggest?

.....
.....
.....

26) Does your OE teacher allow you to discuss your own topics and texts?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

27) Does your OE teacher allow you to negotiate with him/her the syllabus and the content?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

28) When you hold a spontaneous conversation with a classmate or with your teacher, does your OE teacher value and praise your output?

Never

Rarely

Sometimes

Always

29) Whenever you learn a new item, does your teacher ask you to write it down?

Never

Rarely

Sometimes

Always

30) At the end of the lesson, does your teacher test your understanding?

Never

Rarely

Sometimes

Always

Appendix 2: Teachers' Questionnaire

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear colleague,

We would be very grateful if you could answer the following questionnaire that serves as a data collection tool for LMD doctorate in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) for the sake of our study about developing students' speaking skill through "Dogme ELT" teaching approach. Be sure that your answers will absolutely remain confidential and your point of view is very useful and helpful to evaluate the effectiveness of the mentioned approach. Please, put a tick in the corresponding box and make full statements whenever necessary.

Thank you for your cooperation
Mohamed Daguiani

Part one: General information

1) Age:

2) Qualifications:

Master Magister Doctorate Other:

3) How many years have you been teaching Oral Expression (OE)?

Less than 5 years 5 to 10 years More than 10 years

4) Have you already taught second year level?

Yes No

5) Is teaching OE personal or imposed?

Personal Imposed

If personal, please justify you answer:

.....

Part two: Teachers' attitudes toward teaching speaking

6) Which approach or method do you use to teach speaking?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> The Audio-lingual Method | <input type="checkbox"/> The Silent Way |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Total physical response | <input type="checkbox"/> Suggestopedia |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Communicative language teaching | <input type="checkbox"/> Whole language teaching |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Task based learning | <input type="checkbox"/> Process approach |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Not using any approach or method | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't really know |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please mention: | |

7) If you are not using any approach or method, would you say briefly how you teach speaking?

.....
.....

8) Do you think the size of your class enables you to teach?

- Yes no

9) Do you think the time allocated to oral expression module is sufficient?

- Yes No

10) What difficulties do you face when teaching speaking?

.....
.....
.....

11) What do you suggest to improve teaching speaking to second year students in your department?

.....
.....

Part three: Teachers' opinions about the implementation of the principles of the Dogme ELT teaching approach

12) Have you ever heard about the Dogme ELT teaching approach?

- Yes No

13) Do you think that materials such as textbooks and technology are necessary to teach speaking?

- Yes No

Please justify your answer:

.....
.....

14) Do you allow your students to use their textbooks and technological devices in the classroom?

- Always Sometimes Rarely Never

15) How often do you use your textbooks (handouts) in the classroom?

- Always Sometimes Rarely Never

16) Which of the following do you think is most effective to make students interact in the classroom?

- Published textbooks Students' topics Your topics

Please justify your answer:

.....
.....

17) Do you allow your students to negotiate with you the syllabus and the content?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

18) If you do not prepare a lesson, how do you teach your students?

.....
.....

19) How often do you give your students turns to interact with you and one another?

- Often Sometimes Rarely When necessary

20) Would you mention some of the ways you often use to stimulate your students interact with one another?

.....

21) Which of the following interactions do students prefer?

- Learner-learner interaction Teacher -learner interaction Both

22) How often do you use information gap activities?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

23) Do you chat with your students at the beginning of the lesson?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Always

24) How often do your students converse with you spontaneously?

- Very often Sometimes Rarely Never

25) what type of questions you often use to stimulate them to converse with you?

.....

26) Who chooses the type of oral activities to be performed in the classroom?

You

Students

Both

27) How do you treat your students' errors?

You correct them immediately

You correct them later

You do not correct them

You view them as learning opportunities

28) How often do you value and praise your students' output?

Never

Rarely

Sometimes

Always

29) At the end of the lesson, do you test your students' understanding?

Never

Rarely

Sometimes

Always

30) What do you suggest to improve your students' speaking skill?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 3: IELTS Speaking Band Descriptors

| Band | Fluency and coherence | Lexical resource | Grammatical range and accuracy | Pronunciation |
|------|---|--|---|--|
| 9 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Speaks fluently with only rare repetition or self correction; any hesitation is content-related rather than to find words or grammar Speaks coherently with fully appropriate cohesive features Develops topics fully and appropriately | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses vocabulary with full flexibility and precision in all topics Uses idiomatic language naturally and accurately | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses a full range of structures naturally and appropriately Produces consistently accurate structures apart from 'slips' characteristic of native speaker speech | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses a full range of pronunciation features with precision and subtlety Sustains flexible use of features throughout Is effortless to understand |
| 8 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Speaking fluently with only occasional repetition or self-correction; hesitation is usually content-related and only rarely to search for language Develops topics coherently and appropriately | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses a wide vocabulary resource readily and flexibly to convey precise meaning Uses less common idiomatic vocabulary skillfully, with occasional inaccuracies Uses paraphrase effectively as required | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses a wide range of structures flexibly Produces a majority of error-free sentences with only very occasional inappropriateness or basic/non-systematic errors | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses a wide range of pronunciation features Sustains flexible use of features, with only occasional lapses Is easy to understand throughout; L1 accent has minimal effect on intelligibility |
| 7 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Speaks at length without noticeable effort or loss of coherence May demonstrate language-related hesitation at times, or some repetition and/self-correction Uses a range of connectives and discourse markers with some flexibility | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses vocabulary resource flexibly to discuss a variety of topics Uses some less common and idiomatic vocabulary and shows some awareness of style and collocation, with some inappropriate choices Uses paraphrase effectively | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses a range of complex structures with some flexibility Frequently produces error-free sentences, though some grammatical mistakes persist | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shows all positive features of band 6 and some, but not all, of the positive features of band 8 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|--|--|---|
| 6 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Is willing to speak at length, though may lose coherence at times due to occasional repetition, self-correction or hesitation •Uses a range of connectives and discourse markers but not always appropriately | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Has a wide enough vocabulary to discuss topics at length and make meaning clear in spite of inappropriacies •Generally paraphrases successfully | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Uses a mix of simple and complex structures, but with limited flexibility •May make frequent mistakes with complex structures though these rarely cause comprehension problems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Uses a rang of pronunciation features with mixed control •Shows some effective use of features but this is not sustained |
| 5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Usually maintains flow of speech but uses repetition, self correction and/or slow speech to keep going •May over-use of connectives and discourse markers •Produces simple speech fluently, but more complex communication causes fluency problems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Manages to talk about familiar and unfamiliar topics but uses vocabulary with limited flexibility •Attempts to use paraphrase but with mixed success | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Produces basic sentences forms with reasonable accuracy •Uses a limited range or more complex structures, but these usually contain errors and may cause some comprehension problems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Shows all the positive features of band 4 and some, but not all, of the positive features of band 6 |
| 4 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Cannot respond without noticeable pauses and may speak slowly, with frequent repetition and self-correction •Links basic sentences but without repetitious use of simple connectives and some breakdowns in coherence | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Is able to talk about familiar topics but can convey basic meaning on unfamiliar topics and makes frequent errors in word choice •Rarely attempts paraphrase | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Produces basic sentence forms and some correct simple sentences but subordinate structures are rare •Errors are frequent and may lead to misunderstanding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses a limited range of pronunciation features Attempts to control features but lapses are frequent Mispronunciations are frequent and cause some difficulty for the listener |
| 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speaks with long pauses • Has limited ability to link simple sentences •Gives only simple responses and is frequently unable to convey basic message | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses simple vocabulary to convey personal information • Has insufficient vocabulary for less familiar topics | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attempts basic sentence forms but with limited success, or relies on apparently memorised utterances • Makes numerous errors except in memorized expressions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shows some of the features of band 2 and some, but not all, of the positive features of band 4 |
| 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pauses lengthily before most words • Little communication Possible | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only produces isolated words or memorized utterances | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cannot produce basic sentence forms | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speech is often unintelligible |
| 1 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •No communication possible •No rateable language | | | |
| 0 | Does not attend | | | |

Résumé

Parler l'Anglais a toujours été difficile pour les apprenants étrangers. Par conséquent, plusieurs méthodologies d'enseignement ont été proposées pour encourager et promouvoir la parole en classe. Le but de cette recherche est d'étudier dans quelle mesure l'intégration de l'approche Dogme ELT dans les classes orales développerait la compétence orale des étudiants de deuxième année d'Anglais à l'Université Mohamed Kheider de Biskra. L'hypothèse est que si les étudiants apprennent à travers Dogme ELT, ils amélioreront mieux leurs compétences de l'oral en termes de vocabulaire, de prononciation, d'exactitude et d'aisance comparativement à ceux qui sont enseignés de manière traditionnelle. Dans cette recherche, une approche de méthodes mixtes a été utilisée; il s'agit d'une combinaison de différentes méthodes quantitatives et qualitatives de collecte des données. La recherche qui a été menée au cours de l'année universitaire 2016-2017, a été entreprise premièrement en distribuant deux questionnaires; un aux enseignants d'expression orale (n = 10) et un autre aux étudiants de deuxième année (n = 80); ils ont été conçus pour diagnostiquer les opinions et les attitudes des participants à propos du Dogme ELT ainsi que la situation réelle de l'enseignement de l'oral. Deuxièmement, un traitement a été utilisé, précédé d'un pré-test et suivi d'un post-test, un groupe expérimental (n = 40) et un groupe témoin (n = 40) ont donc été utilisés dans l'expérience; le premier a été enseigné selon l'approche Dogme ELT et le second a été enseigné selon l'enseignement classique. Troisièmement, une discussion de groupe a été menée avec des étudiants du groupe expérimental (n = 8) pour compléter les résultats. Les questionnaires pré-expérimentaux ont révélé l'inefficacité des méthodes actuelles d'enseignement de l'oral alors que les résultats du post-test ont indiqué que les élèves du groupe expérimental ont atteint des niveaux statistiquement plus élevés dans leur expression orale. De même, les données qualitatives recueillies lors de l'entretien avec le groupe de discussion ont complété les résultats quantitatifs et, par conséquent, l'hypothèse nulle a été rejetée et l'alternative acceptée. En conséquence, certaines recommandations pédagogiques sont proposées pour des recherches ultérieures.

ملخص

لطالما كان التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية صعبًا بالنسبة للمتعلمين الأجانب. لذلك تم اقتراح العديد من منهجيات التدريس لتشجيع وتعزيز التحدث في القسم. الهدف من هذا البحث هو دراسة إلى أي مدى من شأن دمج منهج الدوغما لتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية في الفصول الشفوية أن يطور الكفاءة الشفوية لطلاب السنة الثانية في اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة محمد خيضر في بسكرة. الافتراض هو أنه إذا تعلم الطلاب من خلال Dogme ELT ، فإنهم سيحسنون مهارات التحدث لديهم بشكل أفضل من حيث المفردات والنطق والدقة والطلاقة مقارنة بتلك التي يتم تدريسها بالطريقة التقليدية. في هذا البحث، تم استخدام نهج مختلط. هو مزيج من طرق جمع البيانات الكمية والنوعية المختلفة. لقد تمت عملية البحث أولاً من خلال توزيع استبيانين؛ واحد للمعلمين المتحدثين (عدد= 10) والآخر لطلاب السنة الثانية (عدد= 80)؛ لقد تم تصميمهما لتشخيص آراء المشاركين ومواقفهم حول عقيدة تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية بالإضافة إلى الوضع الفعلي للتدريس الشفوي. ثانيًا، تم استخدام تجربة، سبقها اختبار أولي تبعها اختبار آخر، لذلك تم استخدام مجموعة تجريبية (عدد= 40) ومجموعة ضابطة (عدد= 40) في التجربة؛ تم تدريس الأول وفقًا لنهج Dogme ELT ، بينما تم تدريس الثاني وفقًا للتدريس الكلاسيكي. ثالثًا، تم إجراء مناقشة جماعية مع طلاب من المجموعة التجريبية (عدد= 8) لاستكمال النتائج. كشفت الاستبيانات قبل التجريبية عدم فعالية طرق التدريس الشفوية الحالية، بينما أشارت نتائج الاختبار اللاحق إلى أن الطلاب في المجموعة التجريبية حققوا مستويات أعلى إحصائيًا في مهارات التحدث لديهم. وبالمثل فإن البيانات النوعية التي تم جمعها خلال مقابلة المجموعة البؤرية تكمل النتائج الكمية، وبالتالي، تم رفض الفرضية الصفرية وتم قبول البديلة. ونتيجة لذلك، تم تقديم بعض التوصيات التعليمية لمزيد من البحث.