

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research



*Mostefa Ben Boulaid, Batna-2 University
Faculty of letters and foreign languages
Department of English Language and Literature*



**Integrating Learning and Innovation Skills to Enhance
Students' Oral Competence in English as a Foreign Language
The Case Study of 1st Year LMD Students at Barika University Center**

Thesis

Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree
of *DOCTRATE THIRD CYCLE LMD* in Applied Linguistics

Submitted by:

Mohammed AZIL

Supervised by:

Prof. Amor GHOUAR

Board of Examiners

Chairperson: Dr. Radia GUERZA *Mostefa Ben Boulaid, Batna-2 University*

Supervisor: Prof. Amor GHOUAR *Mostefa Ben Boulaid, Batna-2 University*

Examiner: Dr. Fatiha SEHLI *Mentouri Brothers Constantine-1 University*

Examiner: Prof. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI *Mohamed Khider Biskra University*

November 2022

Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

**All people contributing to my
education and learning from the cradle
to the grave**

Acknowledgments

Prima facie, I am grateful to ALLAH for the good health and wellbeing that were necessary to complete this thesis.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof. Ghouar Amor, whose endless patience, motivation, immense knowledge, and kindness contributed to the achievement of this work.

I am also grateful to the members of the jury, doctor Radia GUERZA, doctor Fatiha SEHLI and Professor Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI for having accepted to examine and evaluate my humble work.

Special thanks go to informant teachers and to the participant learners who took part in this study.

Abstract

This study is an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of integrating learning and innovation skills in English language classrooms to enhance first year English Foreign Language learners' oral competence at Barika university centre. The researcher hypothesised that learners who apply communication and collaboration skills in their speaking session would enhance their oral competence better than their peers who experience a traditional way of instruction. A quasi-experimental design was implemented with two first year intact groups. The data of the current study were gathered at the different phases of the experiment to determine the effectiveness of learning and innovation skills on the sample's oral competence. In practical terms, the two groups oral competence were first examined through an English oral test prior to and after some learning and innovation instructional active learning strategies were applied. Next, two questionnaires were administered to learners before and at the end of the course to identify learners' attitudes towards the integration of learning and innovation in English classes. The data were analysed using basic and inferential statistical methods including mean scores, standard deviations, paired sample t-test, and effect size. The findings showed a remarkable development in the learners' oral competence and attitudes after the integration of learning and innovation strategies. In light of the findings, the researcher recommends that teachers should benefit from applying communication and collaboration skills in English oral classes, which may in turn enhance learner's skills and attitudes.

Keywords: Attitudes, communication and collaboration skills, learning and innovation skills, oral competence.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AACU: Association of American Colleges and Universities

AAS: American Association of School Librarians

ACTFL: the American Council for Teachers of Foreign Languages

AEF : Algerian English Framework

ATCS: Assessment and Teaching of Twenty-first Century Skills (ATCS)

BARS : Behaviourally Anchored Rating Scale

4Cs: Communication, Collaboration, Critical thinking, and Creativity

CCE : Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation

Cedefop: Centre Europeen pour le Developpment de la Formation Professionelle

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CLIL : Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DF: Degree of freedom

EFL: English as a foreign Language

EIL: English as an international language

ETS : Educational Testing Service

H0: Null Hypothesis.

H1: Alternative (research) Hypothesis.

HSSSE: High School Survey of Student Engagement

ICT : Information communication Technologie

IL : Information Literacy

KWL: What I know. Want to know. What I have learnt?

ML ; Media Literacy

NAEP: National Assessment of Educational Progress

NCREL: North Central Regional Education Laboratory

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

P21: Partnership for the Twenty First Century Skills

PISA: Programme of International Assessment

SEL : Social Emotional Learning

SERT: Self-Explanation Reading Training

SJT : Situational Judgement Tests

TBI: Task-based Instruction

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Background of the Study

Nowadays era of economic globalisation and technological advances is bringing together people from different parts of the planet and from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds who were once oceans apart. As a result, English has become the international language of communication or the lingua franca due to its use in several sectors, including education, tourism, business, industry,... and on a global scale speaking competence becomes increasingly a highly desired ability and an origin of cultural capital in most educational and workplace environments.

In the case of learning a foreign language, attaining effective oral communication in the target language is often stressed as fundamental for achieving successful amalgamation, eliminating obstacles to academic performance, adequately performing on the job, and accessing vital social services. On a more macro level, alleviating social isolation and decreasing language hurdles in linguistically miscellaneous nations (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Isaac, 2013). Besides, oral communication is progressively familiar to learners from different linguistic communities who speak the target language as the lingua franca to fulfil business transactions, or to boost cultural exchange, especially in distinguished or widely spoken languages with international currency (Jenkins, 2000). Therefore, achieving the ability to answer an interlocutor in a suitable and efficient manner during the time pressures of real-world face –to face communication is of great human importance.

Because of the growing importance of English as a world language and the advance of technology, there is an urgency to learn it more quickly and efficiently as it is needed for communication in all domains of life and among people in all parts of the world. In the Algerian context, Abdullatif (2013) states that “From second foreign language, to first foreign language, to the language of knowledge and science, English has gained steps

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forward in the Algerian educational scene” (p. 910). The main objective of learning English as a foreign language in the Algerian context is to improve learners' language competences with much focus on communication as this latter is regarded as success in language learning. Slimani (2016) affirms that “According to the Algerian Government ‘directives’ and official texts (June 1999), the syllabuses of the English language aim at providing the Algerian learners with the language necessary to communicate efficiently in a normal social and /or working situation both in speaking and in writing” (p. 37). Djebbari (2016 cited in Saidouni, 2019) on the other hand, explains:

Admittedly, the National Curriculum considers that the ability to communicate in English is regarded, as part of the core competences students should acquire in their educational career, in a way to partake in the country's global economy and operate effectively in the social and cultural environment of the 21st century as responsible citizens (p. 6).

Subsequently, communication becomes the cornerstone of the world language learning. World language teachers work diligently to instruct learners on intelligible pronunciation, proper grammar, intonation, and cultural nuances of the language, in order to communicate successfully in the target language.

Among the four skills, the speaking skill is critical. It is the most indispensable skill as it represents the foundation of oral communication. Recent research has considered oral interaction as an indispensable factor in the shaping of the learners' developing language (Gass & Varonis, 1994). As an example, it was proved that learning speaking can help the development of reading competence (Hilferty, 2005) the development of writing (Trachsel & Severino, 2004) as well as the development of listening skills(Regina, 1997). When

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people have adequate information about language is mainly referred to as speakers of the particular language (Abedi, Keshmirshakan, & Namaziandost, 2019; Ur, 2012).

Despite the importance of the oral competence in the academic and professional domains as well as the need for communication, first year students EFL learners at Barika university centre demonstrate poor achievement when it comes to speaking the target language. The learners speak only isolated words or disconnected sentences. They had problems with word order and sentence structure. They were not active in the speaking class and they were reluctant to ask questions in discussion sessions because of the fear of making mistakes in grammar and pronunciation, besides to being reticent to speaking in front of other learners. This can be ascribed to the newness of the context as all learners come from high school where they have not experienced real isolated speaking sessions on the one hand. On the other hand, it is due to the national education examination system neglecting oral skills; Speaking is given less attention as it is not included in the official exams assessment like 4MS (middle school) final exam, or the baccalaureate exam. Besides, the learning environment, the learning conditions, as well as the teachers' speaking and methodological capacity are other areas that need focus in oral communication instruction.

The researcher's decision to undertake this study comes from the fact that after seven years of studying English, in middle and high school and even at the end of their studies at the English department, many Algerian learners (later on teachers) are unable of holding a few minutes conversation. Research reveals this fact in many studies. Bouhass (2008) mentions that a great number of EFL university learners graduate with a limited capacity to communicate naturally and fluently. Guettal (2008) finds that students are not capable of comprehending English if it is spoken in a natural context at normal speed, nor are they able

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to speak this language. Hence, gaining a speaking proficiency remains a far-reaching dream to be achieved by many EFL students.

In the twenty first century, the oral competence seems to be the most crucial aspect of learning a foreign language. Enhancing this competence should have a different aim rather than preparing learners for academic exams, because today's learners are a different generation with a different set of expectations and a unique set of needs, and living in the twenty- first century requires special skills to enable them tackle the global challenges ahead. Integrating the combination of critical thinking, creativity, collaboration and communication skills becomes indispensable elements to enhance the most needed competence and tackle the un-expected development our learners will face. To cope with the new generation learning needs and to prepare them for the challenges ahead, a global movement, which calls for a new model of learning for the twenty first-century appeared. It focuses mainly on the twenty-first century skills. These skills are referred to as the learning and innovation skills or the 4cs (communication, collaboration, critical thinking and creativity). These skills are necessary for preparing students for work, citizenship and life in the 21st century. Educators, education ministries, and governments, foundations, employers and researchers refer to these abilities as the twenty-first skills, higher order thinking skills, deeper learning outcomes, and complex thinking and communication skills.

Communication in a 21st century context concerns not only the ability to “communicate effectively, orally, in writing, and with a variety of digital tools” but also to “listening skills” (Fullan, 2013, p. 9). There are many frameworks that include information and digital literacy in the concept of communication. Examples of these include: - P21 have distinct information, media, and technology skills, - Some jurisdictions (e.g., England, Norway) include information and communications technology (ICT) skills with literacy and

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numeracy as foundational curriculum, - Digital tools and resources represent a new realm of communications interaction in which the ability to navigate successfully is essential for success in the 21st century.

Collaboration in a 21st century context requires the ability to “work in teams, learn from and contribute to the learning of others, [use] social networking skills, [and demonstrate] empathy in working with diverse others” (Fullan, 2013, p. 9). It requires learners to develop collective intelligence and to co-construct meaning, becoming creators of content as well as consumers. New skills and knowledge are necessary to enable team members to collaborate and contribute to the collective knowledge base, whether working remotely or in a shared physical space.

To put it briefly, despite the great deal of research showing the necessity of the 21st century skills for the new generation, a review of literature reveals a lack of studies that focused on the effectiveness of these skills in the Algerian higher education context. Therefore, the researcher argues that the topic is timely and there is a need to determine the effects of learning and innovation skills on higher education learners' oral competence.

1 - Statement of the Problem

Global expansion of English has increased the demand of mastering better communication skills. However, Brumfit and Johnson (1979, p. 177) say that “students and especially students in developing countries, who have received several years of formal English teaching, frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language and to understand it in normal communication, whether in the spoken or the written mode”.

Throughout my experience as an English middle school inspector, I have noticed that the majority of university graduate learners cannot express themselves adequately when they sit for the oral selection to be future teachers of English. They have difficulties in conveying

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their ideas and showed lack of knowledge about the different features of the oral competence. Moreover, I have identified the existence of the problem when I started working as a part time teacher at the English department of Batna 2 University. Some first year learners follow their studies without solving their difficulties until graduation.

To ascertain the existence of the problem in the new context, Barika university centre, and to precise the learners' difficulties when practising the target language, the researcher conducted a pilot study in a form of a preliminary questionnaire. The latter was administered to thirty-six first year learners at Barika university center in the academic year 2017/2018. Based on the pilot study results, (see appendix A) learners confirmed the prevailing of the problem and attached it to language lack of practice. Besides to having problems with grammar, pronunciation and fluency.

Additionally, the current way of teaching oral expression neglects the demands of the 21st century learners, which are referred to as the 21st century skills, to improve learners' oral competence. Instead, heavy emphasis is put on the language itself rather than on its use and students rarely intervene during oral expression sessions because they face difficulties when speaking.

Therefore, the researcher decided to conduct this study about integrating learning and innovation skills for enhancing learners' English oral competence. Learning and innovation skills comprise the four Cs, communication, collaboration, critical thinking and creativity. They represent one of the three sets of the twenty first century skills: 1-learning and innovation skills, 2-Digital literacy and 3-Career and life skills. These skills, according to the American Council for Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) are for "bridging the gap between how learners live and how they learn" (2011b, p. 4).

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To meet the changing demands of communication, learning and innovation skills offer a way to engage students in meaningful and authentic communication while anchoring learning and pedagogy to twenty first century challenges.

Thus, the learning and innovation skills are the variables that attracted the researchers' attention in this study and motivated him to link them to the improvement of students' English oral competence. The variable communication is at the heart of world language instruction and is a key stone of the Partnership for the twenty first century skills (P21). Collaboration is another essential component within P21 framework. Friedman writes, "In a flat world, where the value is increasingly created and complex problems solved, by whom you connect horizontally having a high trust society is even more of an advantage." (2005, p. 320). Therefore this research work is an attempt to investigate the role of the learning and innovation skills in motivating and engaging learners and hence, enhancing their oral communicative competence.

2 - Research Questions

The present study is an attempt at answering a set of questions related to the enhancement of students' oral competence through the integration of learning and innovation skills in oral expression sessions .The objectives of the investigation are guided by the following research questions:

- 1- What difficulties do first year students of English face when interacting orally in English?
- 2- What strategies do teachers adapt to help learners overcome their obstacles in oral interaction?
- 3- What are the effects of learning and innovation skills on the participants' oral competence?

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3 - Hypothesis

The research at hand is designed to investigate the effectiveness of the learning and innovation skills on first year EFL learners' oral competence. Accordingly, one main hypothesis has been put forward:

Learner who apply learning and innovation skills in their oral expression sessions would enhance their oral competence and would be ready for spontaneous oral communication.

4 - Objectives of the study

This study intends to diagnose difficulties 1st year EFL learners face in oral communication and identify causes of their failure in real oral interactions. It also aims at investigating the effects of integrating communication, collaboration on learners' English oral competence. This investigation will illustrate to what extent communication and collaboration skills influence learners' English oral performance. As far as the enhancement of the English oral competence is concerned, this study does not cover all factors necessary for the enhancement of learners' oral performance. It does not also cover all sets of the twenty century skills ,but only the two skills (communication and collaboration skills) taken from the set of learning and innovation skills .

5 - Significance of the Study

The researcher hopes that the outcomes of the current study can yield some benefits for the field of language teaching and learning. Theoretically, the results may add significant

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aspects to the literature of the 21st skills research community. It can also serve as a basis for investigations in similar studies. Practically, the benefits that are likely to happen from this study are as follows:

- Learners can benefit from the findings of the study as a way for enhancing their oral competence. This is possible if students apply the communication and collaboration skills.
- Teachers can also benefit from the findings in the way that they can integrate the learning and innovation skills with corresponding active learning strategies in their classroom practices when dealing with oral expression sessions.
- Educational policy makers can take the initiative to design curricula that fit learners learning and innovation skills.

6 - Delimitations of the study

As far as the delimitations of the study are concerned, the current research focuses on the following:

- The study involves only thirty-six first year learners from Barika university centre who represent the only batch studying English at the centre.
- It focuses only on integrating two skills from the first set of 21st century skills (communication and collaboration) as supporting skills to teaching the oral competence.
- It scrutinises the impact of learning and innovation skills only on the oral competence with emphasis on language, production, participation, expression, and coherence.

7 - Limitations of the study

As no research pretends perfection, this study major limitations might be summarized in these points:

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As the study involved two intact groups, the random selection of the sample could not be possible.

Because of the unavailability of the internet connection, the focus will be on face-to-face communication and in person collaboration.

The study involves a small sample, which limits the generalisability of the findings to larger populations. It was limited only to first year English department learners. This is because of unavailability of other batches. However, the study would have been more inclusive and generalizable if more batches and departments had been included.

The results the researcher will obtain will be related to a short time span and may not be the same if the study is conducted later.

8 - The scope of the study:

Due to time-limit constraints and students' long strike periods, dealing with the four elements of learning and innovation skills (communication, collaboration, critical thinking and creativity) in detail would be beyond the scope of this thesis, so the focus will be on the two skills; communication and collaboration, which are important skills for acquiring and practising a foreign language.

9 - Research Methodology

Speculating about human issues in the field of education is not an easy task that lends itself to the explicitness and exactitude required in science. Ergo, the researcher attempts in this work to lay ground for the assumption that integrating communication and collaboration skills in the oral sessions would motivate students to be involved in more practice and overcome faced problems and, hence, improve their oral communicative competence. Therefore, the researcher believes that the experimental method suits this investigation since it permits a close examination of the effects that learning and innovation skills may have on

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students' competence enhancement. The experimental method is among the tools, which establish and verify the cause/ effect relationship between the dependent variable, in this case, students' enhancement of oral competence, and the independent variable being the integration of learning and innovation skills (communication and collaboration). Moreover, the researcher adopts the exploratory research method to elicit learners' views, readiness, and motivation towards the integration of learning and innovation skills, and to inquire about the techniques teachers offer learners to help them defeat the hurdles faced in oral communication.

Due to the nature of this study, the researcher opts for a quasi-experimental method that involves the implementation of one control group and one experimental group, and a pre-test and a post-test with convenience non-random distribution of subjects. The two intact groups are assigned experimental group and control group. Each containing 18 learners. The experimental group will experience the integration of learning and innovation skills (communication and collaboration), whereas the control group will be taught in the ordinary way of teaching speaking.

10 - Population

To investigate the topic at hand, the researcher runs the investigation with first year EFL students at Barika University Centre and teachers of oral expression at Batna 2 university, as the target population, taking into consideration the problems learners generally face in oral expression sessions. Besides, the newness of the teaching and learning environment (the newness of teaching English at the centre and newness of oral expression sessions for 1st year EFL learners). Learners are split into two intact groups; the experimental group and the control group. The researcher applies the experiment to the first group for a semester period. It comprises the integration of the high order skills; communication and

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collaboration with appropriate strategies such as ice- breakers, jigsaw activities, think-pair-share (TPS...)

The second group will be taught in the traditional way. Then, the researcher compares the achievements of both groups to decide on the effects of the treatment.

11 - Research Tools

To check the thesis hypothesis , the researcher will opt for an experimental design in terms of pre-test, post-test control experimental group design .The pre-test is administered to determine students actual oral competence level. The post-test is of course to check the effectiveness of the treatment.

The researcher will employ questionnaires, an observation grid and an interview to get the needed information. Along with the experiment, the observation grid is required to follow and check the progress of all the participants within the experimental sample. The researcher will elaborate a weekly observation grid to record the participants' scores.

For more reliability and validity, an interview is carried out with experimental group learners in order to elicit information about their attitudes towards the learning and innovation skills and the active learning strategies they implemented in their sessions.

12 - Structure of the Study

This study covers a general introduction and four interrelated chapters that are linked to enlighten the reader on this work and a general conclusion.

The General Introduction deals with the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the significance of the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions, the research hypothesis , the scope of the study and the methodology.

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Chapter one provides a theoretical overview of the oral communicative competence. It is an overview of various ideas from books relating to the topic of this study. Therefore, it includes ideas relating to the notion of oral communicative competence, the elements of oral competence, factors affecting the development of foreign language learner's oral competence, and teaching and assessing English foreign language oral competence.

Chapter two discusses some key concepts used in this work including twenty-first learning; the twenty-first learning environment, characteristics of the twenty- first learners; the first set of the twenty first century skills (Learning and innovation skills), and strategies to teach communication and collaboration skills and assessing them.

Chapter three or the methodology chapter is a basis for an empirical study at Barika university Centre .It sheds light on the data collection procedures undertaken to answer the research questions and test the hypothesis. Indeed, it is targeted towards the description of the research design i.e., case study and procedures, i.e., the ways in which the research is conducted, involving the approaches utilized for collecting data (a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods), the setting of the study, the research instruments of data collection (classroom observation, students' questionnaire/ interview and teacher's questionnaire), sampling techniques. The third chapter includes a well-organised outline of what the investigator does from defining the research problem to the presentation of the sampling population and the research instruments used to collect data.

Chapter four is devoted to the analysis of the results obtained from the different research tools. In the previous chapter the researcher has described the design of the present research work which involved the selection of a number of data collection techniques, namely classroom observation, questionnaire and interview. The main results obtained from the three data collection methods are going to be systematically analysed,

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discussed and interpreted in this chapter in an attempt to answer the research questions. This chapter, therefore, stands for the practical part of the study which involves the combined use of both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques. It is expected then that results of this investigative study would hopefully provide a thorough diagnosis of the problem under study and would also pave the way to a better testing of research hypothesis so as to propose alternative remedies to the present way of teaching speaking.

General Conclusion in its turn constitutes the closing phase of the investigation, as it is mainly concerned with proposing alternative recommendations to deal with the learners' failure to express themselves in correct English. It simply tries to suggest what exactly learners need to "know" in terms of learning and communicative strategies to be able to use the language well enough for some real world purposes. It thus, moves the focus to the reconsideration of the teachers and learners' roles within the reforms that are occurring at national and international levels. It also includes the general conclusion and the recommendations.

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13 - Definition of Key Terms

To make the investigation free from any confusion, certain terminology needs to be defined.

Communication: According to LDOCE Longman Dictionary English (LDOCE), “communication is the process by which people exchange information to express their thoughts and feelings”. It is used in the study to mean all types of interaction among the students and with the teacher and it is in accordance with the definition illustrated in the Partnership of the 21st skills (P21) which includes the following ideas:

- Articulate thoughts and ideas effectively using oral, and nonverbal communication skills in a variety of forms and contexts
- Listen effectively to decipher meaning, including knowledge, values, attitudes and intentions
- Use communication for a range of purposes (e.g. to inform, instruct, motivate and persuade)
- Communicate effectively in diverse environments (21st Century Skills: Learning for life in our times by Bernie Trilling & Charles Fadel)
- The meant communication throughout the study is the face-to-face communication.

Collaboration : Hesse, Care, et al. (2015) define collaboration as “the activity of working together towards a common goal” (p. 38). The suggestions given by P21 could help make the term clearer. These include:

- Demonstrate ability to work effectively and respectfully with diverse teams
- Exercise flexibility and willingness to be helpful in making necessary compromises to accomplish a common goal.
- Assume shared responsibility for collaborative work, and value the individual contributions made by each team member (P21 Framework Definition)

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- The meant collaboration throughout the study is the in-person collaboration.

Learning and innovation skills: Learning and innovation skills increasingly are being recognized as those that separate students who are prepared for a more complex life and work environments in the 21st century, and those who are not. A focus on creativity, critical thinking, communication and collaboration is essential to prepare students for the future. In the present study, learning and innovation skills refer only to communication and collaboration skills.

Competence: It is the know-how to act process. It is used interchangeably with the word competency throughout the study. Along the study, the term is used in accordance with the explanation given by the CEF: knowledge, skills and attitudes (p. 4)

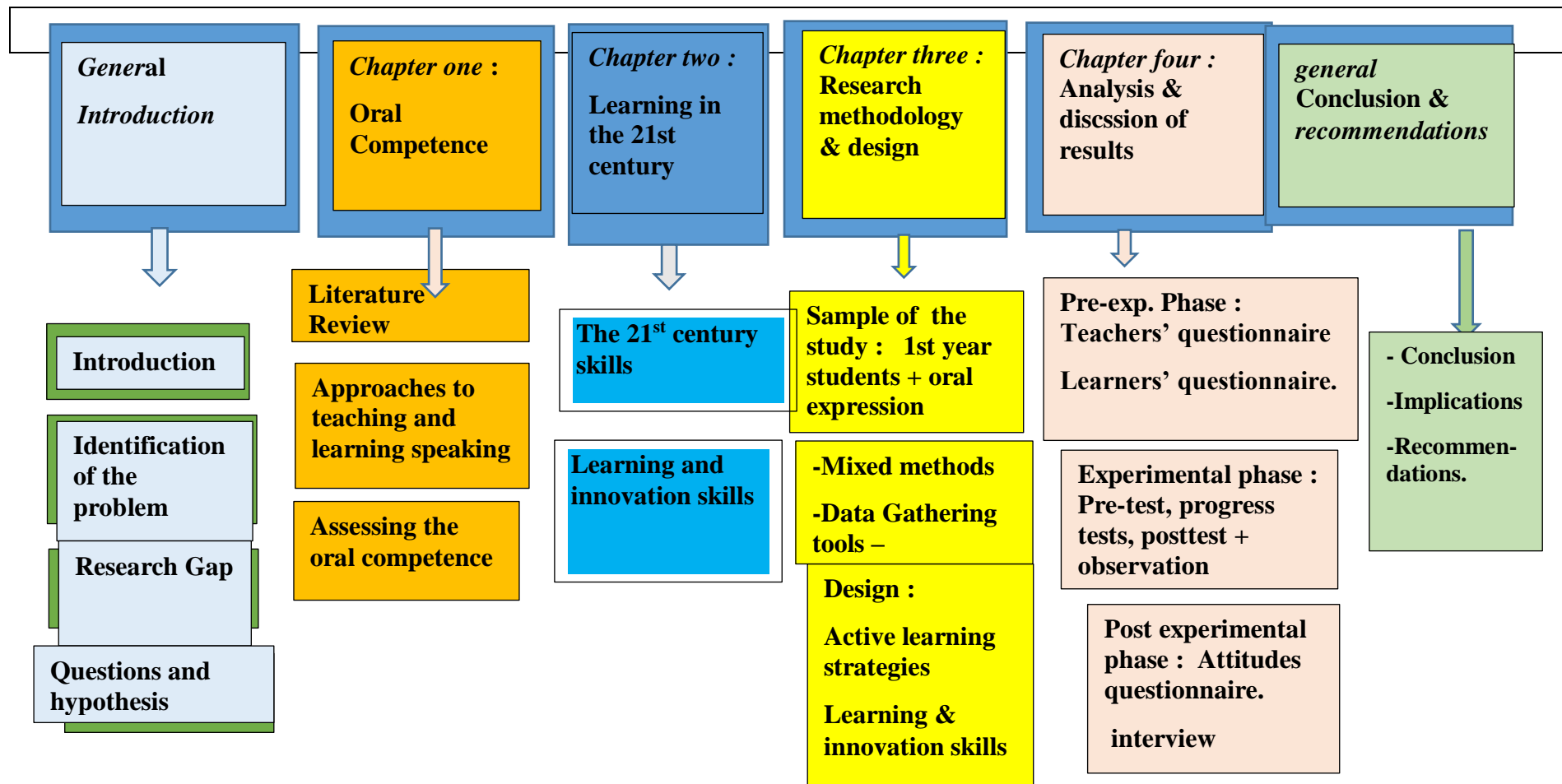
Oral competence: is the ability to act orally in an interactive, social and contextualised communicative event.

Skill and Competence:

The European Commission's Cedefop glossary (Cedefop, 2014) approaches "skills" and "competencies" as follows: a skill is seen as the ability to perform tasks and solve problems, while a competency is seen as the ability to apply learning outcomes adequately in a defined context (education, work, personal or professional development). A competency is not limited to cognitive elements (involving the use of theory, concepts, or tacit knowledge); it also encompasses functional aspects (involving technical skills) as well as interpersonal attributes (e.g., social or organizational skills) and ethical values. A competency is therefore, a broader concept that may actually comprise skills (as well as attitudes, knowledge, etc.)

The Thesis Outline

Figure 1 : The thesis outline



Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher has given an overview of the current study. First, he has clarified the status of English in the modern world, highlighting its importance as lingua franca. Then, he has shed light on the significance of some related skills of the twenty first century as being necessary to learning English. After that, the statement of the problem was stated and the aims/objectives were formulated. Next, the researcher demonstrated the significance of the study, the limitations and the methodology ending up this chapter by clarifying the most important key terms, and summarising the different steps of the investigation in a thesis outline.

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Literature
Review on
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Chapter One: The Oral Competence

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Chapter One: The Oral Competence

Introduction

When having a look at the history of foreign language teaching, we could conclude that teaching the oral competence has been a great challenge for teachers. given the fact that it involves a complex process of constructing meaning (Celce-Muria & Olshtain 2000 cited Esther U-J. Alicia M. ´n.-F. (2006).). Burns and Seidlhofer (2002) noted that this process requires speakers to make decisions about the way, the purpose and the time to communicate depending on the cultural and social context in which the speaking act occurs.

To speak in a foreign language, learners must master intelligibility (sound system of the language, instant access to appropriate vocabulary, with minimal hesitation), and comprehensibility (understand interlocutors, respond appropriately to achieve the communicative goals). Because speaking is done in real-time, great efforts are imposed on learners' abilities to plan, process and produce the foreign language. However, an important matter worth raising in this study is related to integrating speaking within the communicative competence framework. Thus, the oral competence requires learners not only to possess knowledge on how to produce linguistically correct, but also pragmatically correct language.

Taking the above considerations into account, this chapter first outlines how the view of the oral competence has changed over the past decades and how this knowledge constitutes the foundation for teaching this competence. It then discusses the elements of oral communicative competence. It also sheds light on the factors affecting the development of foreign language learners' speaking competence. Furthermore, the chapter deals with the process of assessing the different aspects of the oral communicative competence.

Literature Review on the Oral Competence

1.1. The Notion of Communicative Competence

The linguistic competence was seen as the second and foreign language ability for decades, and the learner would be able to communicate once he /she mastered the grammar, vocabulary and the sounds of the target language. In the 1970s, Language teaching and learning witnessed another understanding that the linguistic competence is necessary but not sufficient for the learner to use the language competently. For effective communication in the language, learners need to master other elements of language. This view led to the notion of the communicative competence (Nunan, 2001, p. 52). The term was attributed to the American sociolinguist Dell Hymes in the mid 1960s. Later, Sandra Savignon developed the notion and defined it as “the ability of the language learner to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from the ability to perform on discrete–point tests of grammatical knowledge” (Savignon, 1991, p. 264). The lacking ability is the understanding of sociocultural context of language use.

In 1980, the Canadian scholars Michael Canale and Merrill Swain added two other types of competences: sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. After three years, Canale suggested “the discourse competence” as the fourth element of the communicative competence. Afterwards, by commenting and refining the essence of other researchers' views on what communicative competence should be constructed, the communicative language ability (CLA) was put forward by Bachman (1990), Bachman and Palmer (1996). In this model, they distinguish between the term ‘knowledge’, ‘skill’, and lay emphasis on interaction between context and language use (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 42). For them, ‘language ability consists of two parts: language knowledge and strategic competence. The

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first is static and encompasses organisational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge, which concerns how utterances and texts are related to communicative goals of language

users and to the features of the setting. As Luoma (2004) notes, the strategic competence is active and dynamic and comprises the ability to make decisions about what to do or say, evaluate if the situation is manageable, and to plan for the next role (pp. 97-102).

According to Baily (2005), an effective speaker needs to master the ability to communicate appropriately in different contexts (p.3). This sociolinguistic competence encompasses politeness strategies, word choice, style shifting and register (degrees of formality and informality). The strategic competence refers to the person's ability to use language strategies to compensate for gaps in skills and knowledge. They are mainly asking for clarification, asking for repetition, using fillers, getting someone's attention, and using conversation maintenance cues. The discourse competence refers to "how sentence elements are tied together"; it is the inter-sentential relationships, which include both cohesion and coherence (Lazaraton, 2001, p. 104 cited in Nunan (2015). Richards, Plat and Weber (1985, p. 45) define cohesion as the relationships of grammar and/ or lexis between the different constituents of a sentence. On the other hand, cohesion involves elements such as reference, synonyms, repetition and so on.

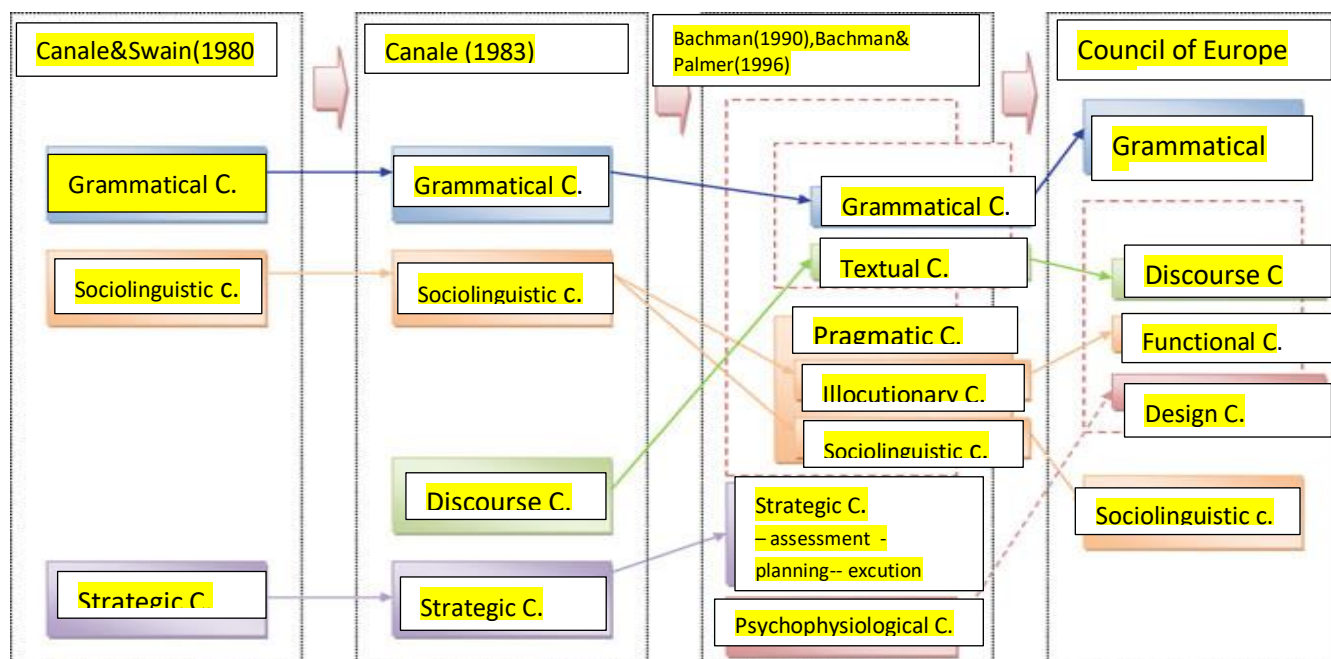
To demonstrate what it means to have a competence in speaking another language, David (2014, p.123) supplies the field of teaching and learning languages with a complementary perspective (Nunan, 2015, p. 53). It comprises the phonological skills, speech functions, interactional skills, and the extended discourse skills. The phonological skills refer to blending the phonemes, and using the appropriate stress and intonation by learners of the language. Speech functions require learners to fulfil some specific communicative functions related to daily situations such as agreeing, asking for clarification, ... Interactional skills

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relate to face to face interactions where learners are supposed to manage exchanges through regulating turn taking, negotiating meaning, and changing the topic, subsequently to starting , continuing and ending the conversation. In extended discourse skills, learners must be aware of structuring what they say to produce comprehensible stretches that include various kinds of spoken language such as narrative, expository, procedural, or descriptive discourse. Besides to these skills, the implementation of communication strategies such as asking questions in different ways to be less direct, or rephrasing to clarify an idea in order to deal with communication breakdowns, can help overcome many problems encountered in conversations.

The most recent framework regarding the communicative competence is the conceptualisation of communicative language competence (Council of Europe 2001) as one of the outgrowth of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment emphasises on competences and skills in learning a second language and has given birth to clear criteria for assessing speaking, writing, listening and reading. To clarify the idea of level of proficiency, the CEFR has developed illustrative scales to describe achievements objectively. These scales cover a range of competencies and are divided into Basic User: A1, A2, Independent User: B1, B2 and Proficient User: C1, C2 (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24). The figure on the next page summarises the notional evolution of communicative competence.

Figure 2: Notional evolution of communicative competence (Pan, 2016, p. 32).



1.2. Definition of Oral Competence

The goal of second and foreign language teachers is to equip their learners with the necessary tools to become competent speakers in the target language. According to Richards (2008) as quoted by Nirmawati (2015), the mastery of the speaking competence is a priority for many second or foreign language learners. According to the Oxford Dictionary (2009, p.414), speaking is “the action of conveying information or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in spoken languages.” Therefore, it is considered as an act of focusing on communication to attain specific outcomes, e.g. to get information, etc., or is described in terms of its basic competences used in daily communication such as, giving directions, expressing feelings etc. Other experts described speaking competence as an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information. (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Sharing the same viewpoint, Florez

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(1999, p.1) added that speaking is an “interactive process, which consists of 3 main stages “producing, receiving and processing information.”

In a broad sense, communication and speaking are viewed as an interactive process in which people exchange their roles as speakers and listeners and use both verbal and non-verbal means to reach their communicative goals. Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 204) state, “effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions that involves not only verbal communication”. Chaney(1998, p.13), for example, defines speaking as: “... the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal or non- verbal symbols in a variety of contexts”. The model proposed by Goh (2012) regarding the various dimensions of second language speaking competence comprised knowledge of language and discourse, core speaking skills, and communication and discourse strategies. In this respect, second language speaking development is “ The increasing ability to use linguistic knowledge, core speaking skills, and communication and discourse strategies in order to produce utterances and discourses that are fluent, accurate and socially appropriate within the constraints of cognitive processing” (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 53).

1.2.2. Types of Knowledge Involved in the Oral Competence

According to Hammer (2001, pp. 269-271) the ability to speak fluently presupposes both knowledge of language features and the ability to process information and language on the spot.

1.2.2.1 Knowledge of Language and Discourse

Speaking well requires learners having sufficient knowledge of the language. However, the notion of language can be interpreted vaguely and narrowly. Thus, this discussion of the notion is based on the definition of linguistic knowledge of Canale and

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Swain (1980), and Canale (1983) which constitutes of knowledge of structure, meaning, and use. This Knowledge encompasses the following items :

- Grammatical knowledge
- Phonological knowledge
- Lexical knowledge
- Discourse knowledge

1.2.2.2. Grammatical knowledge

Grammatical knowledge is very necessary to the development of the oral competence. Learners need to know tenses of the language and syntactic knowledge (how words are connected together). In face-to-face interaction, learners need grammatical knowledge to analyse utterances to make responses (Rost, 2001, cited in Goh & Burns, 2012, p.54). Besides, learners also need to know about spoken grammar to produce natural speech not modelled on written language (Carter, 1995; McCarthy & Carter, 2001).

1.2.2.3. Phonological knowledge

Phonological knowledge (the sound system) of the target language is also needed. It is necessary for the level of production of words, utterances and discourses. Learners also need to raise their awareness of the supra-segmental features of speech (stress, rhythm, and intonation).

1.2.2.4 Lexical knowledge

One of the problems foreign language learners face when interacting in the target language is that they do not possess the sufficient words to express their thoughts precisely. Learners can develop their lexical knowledge at two levels. The first one concerns the number of productive words and their meanings. The term productive refers to the vocabulary available for use when speaking. The second level refers to the enhancement of

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knowledge about fixed formulaic and idiomatic expressions. Speakers use these expressions to signal discourse organisation (e.g. *let me begin by*) to express ambiguity (e.g. *this, that, and the other*), and to express modality. This term concerns the expression of a person's opinion, attitude and level of certainty in speech, it is communicated by adverbs and phrases such as, *I think, definitely, apparently, and to all intents and purposes* (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.54).

1.2.2.5 Discourse knowledge

Learners need to know about discourse features and strategies of spoken language, (turn-taking, topic management, conversational openings and closings, genres of speaking...). It is important for them to know how the communicative purposes and the contexts influence the structure of their discourse. They also need to complement their discourse structures by pragmatic knowledge about speech acts and socio-cultural practices (being aware of the norms in communication in different societies).

1.3. Core Speaking skills

Knowing about the linguistic competence is not sufficient for learners to succeed to produce appropriate discourse in various contexts. They should be able to operationalise the knowledge about language in different contexts (Johnson, 1996, cited in Gog & Burns, 2012, p.58). There are four broad categories of speaking skills, (core speaking skills) that learners should develop. Each core skill encompasses many sub-skills that are convenient for a range of speaking and communication needs.

The four broad categories of speaking skills are very beneficial for teachers. On the one hand, when planning lessons, teachers can refer to them as a frame of reference for the broad aims of speaking development. On the other hand, teachers can identify which set of skills

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they should focus on. A summary of the four categories of core speaking skills is shown below:

Table 1: Four categories of core speaking skills (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 59)

Core skills	Specific skills
<p>a- Pronunciation Produce the sounds of the target language and the segmental and supra-segmental levels</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Articulate the vowels and consonants and blended sounds of English clearly • Assign word stress in prominent words to indicate meaning • Use different intonation patterns to communicate new and old information
<p>b- Speech function Perform a precise communicative function or speech act</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Request: permission, help, clarifications. • Express encouragement, agreement, thanks, regret, good wishes, disagreement, disapproval, complaints, tentativeness, etc. • Give: instructions, directions, commands, orders, opinions, etc. • Offer: advice, condolences, suggestions, alternatives, etc. • Describe events, people, objects, settings, moods, etc. • Others.
<p>C- Interaction management Regulate conversations and discussions during interactions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiate, maintain, and end conversations. • Offer turns • Direct conversations • Clarify meaning • Change topics • Recognise and use verbal and non-verbal cues.
<p>d- Discourse organisation Create extended discourse in various spoken genres, according to socio-culturally appropriate conventions of language.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish cohesion and coherence in extended discourse through lexical and grammatical choices. • Use discourse markers and intonation to signpost changes of topic. • Use linguistic conventions to structure spoken texts for various communicative purposes. E.g. recounts or narrates.

1.3.1 Pronunciation skills

The ability to produce segmental and supra-segmental features are enabling skills for speech production of the target language, and the ability to use the suitable intonation patterns enhances the clarity of meanings learners want to convey. Moreover, learners need to know how to signal to their interlocutors how their discourse is organised through appropriate stress and pitch movements. Studies stated that prosodic features (stress and intonation) have great effects on learners' speech production intelligibility (Derwing, Munro & Wiebe 1998; Hahn, 2004). Ergo, learners are supposed to improve their ability to use supra-segmental features to organise their spoken discourse (Brazil, 1985/ 1997).

1.3.2 Speech-function skills

Knowledge of expressing and interpreting speech functions such as expressing thanks, praising, encouraging, explaining, declining, complaining, complimenting constitute an important part of learners' pragmatic competence. Examples like, *I see your point, but ...* or *I am afraid I only partially agree with you* constitute examples of fundamental functions in interpersonal communication. The speech function skills are important to carry on appropriate and successful communication. Therefore, learners should develop the skills that are not only appropriate for use with English native speakers, but with speakers of English of different cultures as well.

1.3.3. Interaction-management skills

Interaction-management skills differ from speech-function skills in a way that the former have a regulatory purpose. Learners use them to manage interactions and to influence the way these interactions take place. Applying interaction-management skills effectively imposes on learners to recognise the wants and intentions of the speaker through interpreting

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his words, as well as to understand the non-verbal cues such as body language. Learners need these skills to initiate and maintain face-to-face interactions and moderate control of a conversation (Bygate, 1987. Cited in Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 61).

1.3.4 Discourse-organisation skills

Learner's ability to organise extended discourse in a congruent way with accepted linguistic and sociocultural conventions is very essential for effective discourse. Hence, learners have to develop skills to structure speech and to respond properly as listeners. This calls for knowledge of discourse routines and lexico-grammatical knowledge for realising coherence and cohesion (Burns, Joyce & Gollin, 1996). Discourse routines as Bygate (1998) puts it, refer to how a specific speech genre is structured. Besides the aforementioned elements, Learners can utilise expressions as, *on top of that*, *on the other hand*, *to summarise*, and *to conclude* to signal additions or change as the message unfolds.

1.4. Communication strategies

Communication strategies are the different ways and means people use when facing a problem in communication either, because they cannot express their ideas or because they cannot get the message of their interlocutors. Communication strategies are used to manage, and possibly solve, linguistic (lexical, grammatical, phonological), sociolinguistic or pragmatic, and (inter) cultural problems. In other words, they are "the conscious employment by verbal or non-verbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are for some reasons not available to the learner at that point in communication." (Brown, 198, p. 180). Communicators use these strategies for two purposes. The first one is to avoid speaking too much (reduction strategies), and the second is to enable speakers to express their ideas (achievement strategies) through exploiting whatever is available for them (Goh & burns, 2012, p. 63).

1.4.1 Cognitive strategies

In research literature, cognitive strategies are referred to as psycholinguistic strategies (Kellerman & Bialystock, 1977) cited in (Goh & burns, 2012, p. 64). Learners use them to compensate for lexical problems through coining words, paraphrasing, and using circumlocution. All these strategies are cognitive in nature and learners employ them to achieve a communicative goal.

1.4.2 Metacognitive strategies

Generally, learners utilise metacognitive strategies to manage thinking and speech production. An example of this mental strategy is that learners may plan what to say beforehand, so that they partially prepare for the interaction.

1.4.3. Interaction strategies

Interaction strategies or as referred to as “oral communication strategies” or “discourse strategies” for managing spoken discourse are “strategic behaviours that learners use when facing communication problems during interactional tasks”, (Nakatani, 2006) cited in (Goh & burns, 2012, p. 65). They include comprehension cheques, giving examples, repeating an utterance, and using gestures and facial expressions.

In the oral interaction context, listening constitutes an equal component to speaking as communication problems can be attributed to each of them. When learners have difficulties in understanding the message, they use interactional communication strategies like requesting clarification, confirming understanding, and checking comprehension.

Competent learners can use a variety of interaction strategies to find other means to express their messages, to correct their mistakes, to spare processing time, to get help from expert speakers, and to maintain their roles in the interaction. The list of these strategies

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includes exemplification, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, repetition, clarification requests, and assistance appeal.

In sum, interactional strategies serve the purpose of promoting mutual understanding in meaning between participants and creating a better condition for communication.

Therefore, teachers need to think of integrating the strategies proposed in the following table in their practices as part of their teaching when dealing with teaching speaking.

Table 2: Communication strategies for second language speaking. (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.66)

Communication strategies	Specific strategies
<p>a – Cognitive strategies Techniques to compensate for gaps in lexical knowledge and related lexical problems.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paraphrase: Circumlocuting or describing an object, person, or event to get across the meaning of a specific word. • Approximation: Using an alternative term, e.g., squirrel for chipmunk. • Formulaic expressions: Using language chunks, e.g., what I 'm trying to say is ... To buy processing time. • Message frames: Setting the global context for what is being described before attempting to describe it.
<p>b – Metacognitive strategies Mental operations to regulate thinking and language during speaking.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning: Preparing the contents and the form of the message. • Self-monitoring: Noticing one's language and message during message production. • Self-evaluation: Noticing one's language and message after message production.
<p>c- interactional strategies Social behaviours for negotiating meaning during interaction.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exemplification: Offering an example to make one's point clear. • Confirmation checks: Asking listeners whether they have understood the message. • Comprehension cheques: Paraphrasing what is heard to confirm one's understanding. • Repetition: Repeating all or part of what is said to check one's own understanding.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarification requests: Asking the speaker to explain a point further. • Repetition requests: Asking the speaker to say something again. • Exemplification requests: Asking the speaker to give an example. • Assistance appeal: Asking the listener for help with difficult words.
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1.5. Learning and Teaching Speaking

In this section, we discuss the different studies and views carried out about learning and teaching speaking.

1.5.1. Approaches to Learning and Teaching Speaking

Language learning has changed over the previous decades due to the research and advances made in the field of teaching and learning languages. The teaching and learning of speaking as an important competence has witnessed different views in the different approaches namely the environmentalist, the innatist and the interactionalist ones.

1.5.1.1 Speaking within an Environmentalist Approach

The environmentalist ideas, which dominated the field of language learning until the 1960s, viewed language learning as a process, influenced or conditioned by the external environment with complete neglect of the human mental processes (Uso-Juan. & Martinez-Flor, 2006 p.140). Learning to speak a language consisted of mastering grammatical structures assessed by the pattern of stimulus- response- reinforcement that required the formation of good habits (Burns and Joyce 1997) cited in Uso-Juan. & Martinez- Flor (2006 p.140). The pattern consisted of linguistic input (stimulus), imitation and repetition of the input (response) and positive feedback (reinforcement if the response was correct). Good habits resulting from the practice of the same pattern would lead to learning how to speak.

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According to this approach, to speak a language you need to repeat, imitate and memorise the input you were exposed to.

The environmentalist view gave rise to the audiolingual method, which prioritised the teaching of the oral competence through dealing with each structure applying the fixed order of listening- speaking –reading –writing (Burns & Joyce 1997; Bygate, 2001) cited in Uso-Juan. & Martinez- Flor, 2006 p.140). The audiolingual approach focused on memorisation of dialogues, question and answer practice, drills and substitution activities. This approach emphasised the teaching of pronunciation skills through mastery of language sounds and identification of minimal pairs because it was assumed that fossilised mistakes would characterise and become a permanent part in learners' speech.

Consequently, as stated by Bygate (2001), speaking remained a medium for language input and facilitated memorisation instead of being an independent discourse competence. The role of the internal mental processes, which took much attention in the following years, was neglected in the environmentalist approach view.

1.5.1.2. Speaking within an Innatist Approach

The oral repetition of a given grammatical pattern and the mastery of the individual sounds of the language view faced a great challenge by the late 1960s. Chomsky's (1957, 1965) theory of language acquisition, which assumed that children are born with an innate capacity for language learning, gave rise to the innatist approach. Together with the psycholinguistics discipline, the innatist assumption resulted in giving importance to the mental and cognitive processes involved in producing the language. Due to this internal potential, speakers were able to generate and interpret an endless amount of discourse (Hughes, 2002). This competence could be due to the internalisation of a system of rules,

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which speakers could transform into other structures through applying a series of cognitive strategies. Within this approach, the speaker's role changed to actively thinking how to produce language utterances without taking into consideration the context factors.

Unlike the environmentalist approach, the assumptions underlying the innatist approach did not yield any specific teaching method except an "interest in cognitive methods which would enable learners to hypothesise about language structures and grammatical patterns" (Burns & Joyce, 1997 p.43). Applying these methods required learners to be provided with the necessary grammatical rules to help them produce the language in an innovative and creative way.

The innatist approach stressed the importance of speakers' internal mental processes when producing language nevertheless; it did not consider the language aspects of communication (the relationship between language and meaning, the importance of the social context of the speech). These aspects were considered in the forthcoming approach to teaching speaking.

1.5.1.3 Speaking within an Interactionist approach

The advances the field of language learning witnessed in the late 1970s and the 1980s gave rise to the interactionist views, which stressed the importance of the linguistic environment in interaction with the language acquisition device. Within this approach, the cognitive complex processes responsible for the production of the oral language need to be examined from a dynamic and interactive point of view. Besides, this dynamic and interactive view should consider the accomplished functions, and the social and contextual factors that are involved in producing such spoken language.

Drawing on the discipline of cognitive psychology, Levelt (1989) analysed the processes involved in the production of oral language and suggested the "planned" model of

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speech production in which he proposed that messages were planned. Therefore, speakers need to construct a plan consisting of the following major processes:

- 1- Conceptualisation: The message content selection and its targeted purpose are considered in this process.
- 2- Formulation: To formulate an appropriate message the speaker needs to access, sequence and choose the suitable words and phrases.
- 3- Articulation: Executing the planned message, the speaker needs to have control on the articulatory organs.
- 4- Monitoring: It is the process through which the speaker is able to identify and correct mistakes.

Speaking was considered a very sophisticated act when thinking of the aforementioned planning processes, because speakers needed to balance between interpersonal and psychomotor aspects while producing oral utterances (Bygate, 1989) cited in in Uso-Juan.& Martinez- Flor (2006 p.141). Besides, not only the simultaneous automation of these processes was necessary, but also the time constraints pressure and bringing form and meaning together had to be considered as well when conversing with someone.

Levelt's model (1989) was consistent with the functional and the pragmatic views of language developed by successively Halliday (1973, 1975, 1985) and Sarle, Kiefer, and Bierwisch (1980) ; Leech, 1983; Levison, 1983), which paid attention to the centrality of the communicative intent as the connection between the intended meaning and the possible ways of expressing it.

With the coming out of the discourse analysis, the idea that spoken language was the repetition of single words or the creation of isolated oral utterances was no longer accepted. Because discourse analysis portrayed language in use at a level above the sentence

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(McCarthy, 1991), oral utterances were viewed as a piece of discourse carrying out a communicative function that was affected by the context of production.

In the functional view of language, speaking was considered as a contextualised process. The nature of this speech in this case was influenced by the context of culture and context of situation (Malinowski, 1935). In relation to the context of culture, the notion of genre emerged to depict how spoken discourse was utilised to attain social purposes within culture (Burns, Joyce & Gollin, 1996). Nunan depicted genre as “a purposeful, socially-constructed, communicative event” (1991, p.43) resulting in oral texts such as political discourses, sermon sessions in churches, casual conversations etc. About the context of situation, the concept of register considered the broader cultural context where speakers used different language based on the social situation of interaction. As a result, the speakers' selection of the register was founded on the interaction of the following three contextual variables: 1- the field that encompasses the theme of the communication, 2- the tenor that refers to the speakers' relationships and 3- the mode, which involves the channel through which the communication was carried out.

The pragmatics field of study was also in accordance with the functional view of language when it came to the point that meaning was created within the context in which the speaking act was taking place (Sarle, Kiefer, and Bierwisch 1980; Leech 1983; Levinson 1983). More details about pragmatics were given by Crystal (1985) in his definition of the field:

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

(p.240)

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As can be deduced from the definition, besides to the active role of the speakers, the choices they were offered, and the context of the act, pragmatics also considered the importance of the factor of interaction. The interactive view of speaking was clear, as collaboration among speakers and interlocutors was necessary to get mutual understanding in communicative situations. In pragmatics, the focus of attention concerned the level of appropriacy was affected by the appropriate use of spoken language in different situational contexts. The politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987) by the same token, described the socio-pragmatic factors, which defined the appropriacy of a linguistic form. These factors consisted of social distance, power and degree of imposition. The first factor refers to the degree of the existing familiarity between the speaker and the interlocutor. The second factor, the power, concerns the relative status of the speaker with regard to the listener, and the factor of the degree of imposition concerns the kind of imposition the speaker is imposing on the interlocutor. Thus, speakers were supposed to be polite when any of the three socio-pragmatic factors increased.

In the interactionist views of learning to speak, the focus of language teaching was to prepare learners to perform spoken language appropriately to face real life situations. The appropriate teaching method developed in relation to the functional view of language was the genre approach. This involved teaching learners “how texts within certain cultures have evolved particular discourse structures to fulfil particular social functions” (Burns and Joyce 1997, .p. 48).cited in Uso-Juan. & Martínez- Flor, (2006 p.145). For the pragmatic view of language, researchers are conducting studies on the role of teaching how to improve learners’ pragmatic language development which, on the other hand, fosters their speaking skill (Rose and Kasper 2001; Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor 2003; Martínez-Flor, Usó-Juan, and Fernández-Guerra 2003; Alcón and Martínez-Flor 2005).

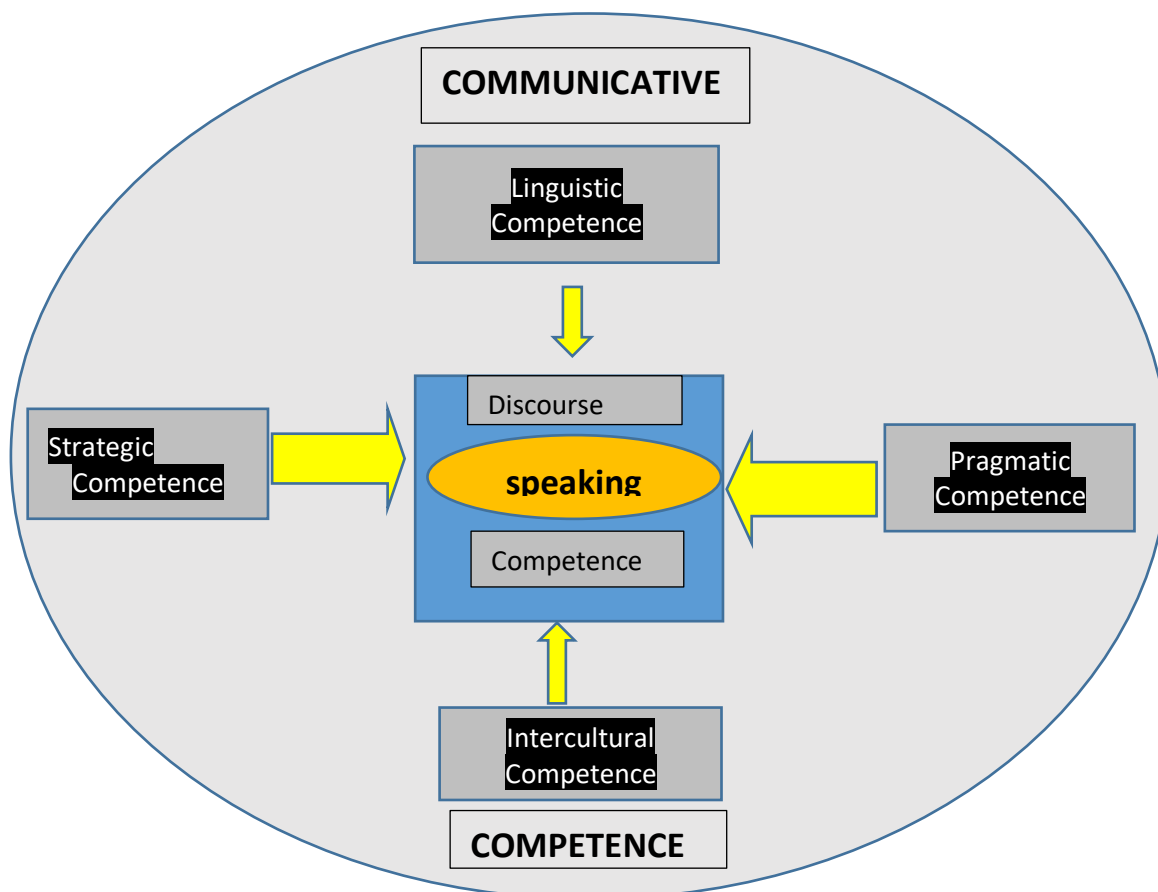
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Speaking was considered as “an interactive, social and contextualised communicative event” (Uso-Juan. & Martinez- Flor, 2006, p.145), due to the impact of the discipline of cognitive psychology with the functional and pragmatic views of language. Relying on the above defining characteristics, the interactionist approach seemed to provide the theoretical foundation for teaching the speaking skill within a communicative competence framework. The next section highlights the benefits of integrating this skill within the communicative competence framework and how the discourse, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic competences influence it.

1.5.1.4. Teaching Speaking within a Communicative Competence Framework

The different models of communicative competence (discussed on page19) specified which component should be integrated in communicative competence construct (Canale and Swain 1980; Canale 1983; Savignon 1983; Bachman 1987, 1990; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell 1995; Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006). The role of speaking in the construct is of great importance for making easy the acquisition of the communicative competence. Figure 3 illustrates the position of the skill in the framework of the communicative competence and describes the impact of the various components in developing the skill for increasing learners' foreign language communicative ability.

Figure 3: Integrating speaking within the communicative competence framework. (Usó-Juan, E. & Alicia Martínez-Flor 2006)



1.5.1.4.1. Discourse competence

The discourse competence is concerned with the interconnectedness of a series of utterances rather than with isolated words or phrases (Celce- Murcia, 2001, p.17) It refers to “how sentence elements are tied together”, It is the inter-sentential relationships which include both cohesion and coherence (Lazaraton, 2001,p.104 cited in Nunan (2015) . Richards, Plat and Weber (1985, p. 45) defined cohesion as the relationships of grammar and/ or lexis between the different constituents of a sentence. On the other hand, cohesion involves elements such as reference, synonyms, repetition and so on. As

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seen in figure 3, speaking skill is at the heart of the communicative competence framework because it involves the rest of the other components. Discourse competence evokes the speaker's ability to utilise a set of discourse features such as discourse markers (okay, I see, well, oh, ...), different conversational rules (how to initiate and end a conversation, turn taking techniques) , and the formal schemata (good knowledge of the organisation of various discourse types and genres), Uso-Juan.& Martinez-Flor,(2006 p.147). Consequently, speakers have to be concerned with both, not only form and appropriacy, but to be strategically competent as well. Speakers need to adjust the utterances during the speech process especially when the intended message failed to be expressed properly (Celce- Murcia &Olshtain, 2000). For this reason, speakers need to activate knowledge from the rest of elements proposed in the aforementioned framework (linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic competences).

1.5.1.4.2. Linguistic Competence

Linguistic competence refers to the linguistic system elements like grammar, phonology and vocabulary needed for the production of a linguistically appropriate utterance (Celce- Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Regarding linguistic aspects, speakers need to be acquainted with language elements such as morphology and syntax in order to be able to ask questions, generate basic utterances, and organise them in a right word order. Correspondingly, the selection of relevant vocabulary or lexicon also contributes to the production of the utterances in a given situation. Phonological aspects concern what shapes the speakers' pronunciation. They are comprised in the supra-segmental, or prosodic features of the language (rhythm, stress and intonation). Knowledge of these features shapes the speakers ability to use speech sounds for communication (Burns & Seidlhofer, 2002), and pronunciation

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in general is “the language feature that most readily identifies speakers as non-native” (Woodwin, 2001, p.117).

Although the mastery of the elements of the linguistic competence is necessary for the production of a spoken discourse, as it helps speakers to generate grammatically correct utterances in an exact and fluent way (Scarcella & Oxford; 1992), there has been a postulation about the oral communication possibility with a little linguistic mastery, in case the pragmatic and cultural factors are invested well (Celce- Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). These elements, which are interrelated to construct discourse competence through speaking, are discussed below.

1.5.1.4.3. Pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence requires not only speakers knowledge of the function or illocutionary force meant in the utterance, but also the contextual factors affecting the appropriacy of the utterance as well. As a result, the mastery of two types of pragmatic knowledge are essential: one treating pragmalinguistics and the other concentrating on sociopragmatic aspects (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983). Pragmalinguistics refers to the linguistic resources that speakers can benefit from to transmit a special communicative act, whereas sociopragmatics handles speakers' appropriate use of the linguistic forms in relation to the context of utterance. It also addresses the participants specific roles played within that context and the politeness variables of social distance, degree of imposition and power. All these factors besides to the way speakers may use them to save face also contribute to the success of communication (Celce- Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Knowing how to vary the spoken utterance to fit the appropriate register represents a factor of paramount importance. It is about when to use formal or informal styles. Speakers use casual or intimate register in familiar situations and a formal register with strangers or higher status interlocutors.

1.5.1.4.4. Intercultural Competence

As intercultural competence concerns the knowledge of how to use suitable spoken language in special sociocultural context, speakers need to be aware of the community cultural and non-verbal factors. Thus, speakers need to know the rules of behaviour to achieve comprehensibility and avoid breakdowns in communication. As an example, the pauses in conversations are short in one culture just to search for something to say, but in another culture, pauses are desired and considered as a sign of politeness. (Celce- Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Non-verbal factors, on the other hand, are very crucial for good oral communication. So speakers need to be attentive to body language, eye contact and facial expressions of their interlocutors for repairing their intervention if something is miscommunicated.

1.5.1.4.5 Strategic competence

Strategic competence refers to the person's ability to use language strategies to compensate for gaps in skills and knowledge. They are mainly asking for clarification, asking for repetition, using fillers, getting someone's attention, and using conversation maintenance cues. Consequently, the investment of paraphrasing, circumlocution, appealing for help or topic choice are good means for speakers to make repair in an incomplete or failing interaction (Sarcella & Oxford, 1992; Celce- Murcia & Olshtain, 2000).

As has been shown earlier, speaking nowadays is no more considered as the process of repetition and memorisation of isolated words, or a combination of a set of formal linguistic rules, but as an interactive, social and contextualised process. For this reason, it seems so hard to deal with the oral competence as an isolated skill of language development.

1.6 -Factors Affecting the Development of Foreign language Learner's oral competence

A large percentage of the world's learners want to study English in order to improve their oral competence to get the means by which all global variables are communicated, as

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English is viewed as an international language (EIL). Teaching this competence is a great challenge for teachers in the area of foreign languages, because poor mastery of the competence is the result in most cases. On the one hand, the reasons could be that students do not have enough opportunities and time to practise the language, or the tasks in class are inappropriate and irrelevant to learners. On the other hand, the poor mastery could be due to the complexity of the competence involving ‘the myriad complex processes’ working interactively (Goh & Burns, 2012, p.35). Besides, speaking is used for many different purposes, and each purpose requires different skills. In casual conversation, our purpose may be to make contact with people or to be involved in discussion about current daily topics. When engaging in discussion with someone, we may have the intention to opine, persuade or clarify information. Sometimes, it is used to instruct or get things done. Each of the aforementioned purposes implies “knowledge of the rules that account for how spoken language reflects the context or situation in which speech occurs, the participants involved and their specific roles and relationships, and the kind of activity the speakers are involved in” (Brown, 2001, p.201). All these elements are included in the model of Canale and Swain (1980), which accounts for the components of speaking ability that relies heavily on grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence.

EFL learners generally rely on discussing general topics or talking about certain subjects to develop their spoken skills, and certainly little or no attention is given to the factors that inhibit or facilitate the oral production of the target language. To cope with the issue of developing competent speakers of English, EFL teachers should consider the factors that affect adult learners' oral communication, identify the components underlying speaking effectiveness and apply the methods that help EFL learners' speaking abilities be improved.

1.6.1. Age or Maturation Constraints

Many factors intervene in the interactive behaviour of the foreign language learners. Age seems the most determinant factor of success or failure. Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1982) (cited in Richards, & Renandya, 2002) declare that people learning a foreign language in their early childhood achieve better oral performance than those starting as adults. Scarcella and Oxford (1982) argue that the aging process may affect the learning of native-like pronunciation of the foreign language. Although adults can pronounce words properly; they still have problems with prosodic features that in most cases cause misunderstanding or communication breakdowns. Children seem to have more active innate language propensity than adults one.

1.6.2. Aural Medium

Poor listening practice may lead to a poor speaking competence. Listening comprehension precedes speaking and plays an important role in its development as listening is considered as the feeder of the speaking ability. So learners' failure to communicate in the target language is not only due to lack of motivation and interest, poor vocabulary repertoires, poor mastery of grammar rules, but in most cases it is due to the restricted exposure to English as learners depend only on their teachers as the source of speaking model. Furthermore, speaking is much interwoven with listening especially when speakers are engaged in interaction where they play a double role, as listeners and speakers. "While listening, learners must comprehend the text by retaining the information in memory, integrate it with what follows, and continually adjust their understanding of what they hear in the light of prior knowledge and of the incoming information" (Mendelsohn & Rubin, 1995, p.35). Therefore, listening is the basic mechanism, which enables the internalisation of the rules of language.

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For these reasons, foreign language teachers and learners are advised to be aware of the utility of listening to different models of speech to learn more about the different features such as intonation, stress, pitch, none-verbal communication, facial expression ... for the purpose of achieving comprehensibility and intelligibility when interacting.

1.6.3. Sociocultural Factors

To speak a foreign language, we should be aware of its use in social context. “Shared values and beliefs create the traditions and social structures that bind a community together and are expressed in their language” (Carrasquillo, 1994, p.55) cited in Richards, and Renandya (2002). This proves that each language has its specific rules of usage, consisting of when, how and to what extent the speaker may impose a certain verbal behaviour on the addressed conversational partner (Berns, 1990). “The lack of understanding of the target culture, the lack of conversational competence” as Lokosso and Tomassihoue (2007, p.33) call it, make oral communication a hard task. That is to say, as mentioned in “Research Starter Paper” (1979) “Culture and language are integrally related. Language represents one system of culture, and culture is transmitted via language”. In addition, oral interaction encompasses another nonverbal communication system, which sometimes creates problems of misunderstanding. Thus, foreign language learners have to struggle to master both the target culture and conversational skills to foster their oral competence.

1.6.4. Affective Factors

Affective factors comprise learners' feelings, emotions or psychological behaviours to particular situations. L2 or foreign language learning related affective factors are motivation, attitude, emotions, self-esteem, empathy and anxiety (Jack & Willy 2002). “The affective side of the learner is probably the most important influential factor on language learning success or failure” (Oxford, 1990:140 in Jack & Willy 2002). Woodrow's research (2006)

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on the relationship between anxiety and oral performance shows that learners experience the most stressful situations when being asked to perform in front of the class, or, being assessed face to face by evaluators. Teachers, examinations, classmates and some classroom activities, which affect learners' motivation, could be the sources of anxiety. The study of Gorkaltseva et al. (2015 cited in Willow, 2019) indicates the learners' low motivation is primarily related to their lack of pragmatic competence (the ability to use the language appropriately in various circumstances) and linguistic competence (the ability to use the language and all its parts).

1.6.5. Cognitive Factors

Besides to the aforementioned factors, Derakhshan, Khalili, and Besheti (2016) added the cognitive factors. For cognitive factors, Levelt noted that learners make mistakes due to the fact that speaking processes in conceptualisation, formation, and articulation take place at the same time (Levelt, 1989) (as cited in Derakhshan et al., 2016). Conceptualisation handles information chosen to convey meaning. In its formulation, the speaker is supposed to choose the appropriate lexis to convey the message correctly. In the articulation phase, the speaker is required to produce utterances using his speech organs (Wang, 2014). These processes present a challenge for foreign language learners as they may not possess the sufficient knowledge or the speech discourse structures of that topic, and they need to have access to vocabulary, grammar and discourse features that qualify them to discuss the topic.

Another important aspect of cognition in learning speaking is metacognition, which concerns speakers bringing into focus the strategies they use for consciously thinking about the way they communicate (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012 cited in Anne, 2017). Metacognition refers to the knowledge speakers possess about the process and the product of their speaking.

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Metacognitive awareness encompasses three aspects: metacognitive experience, metacognitive knowledge, and strategy use. The first aspect relates to the awareness of the speakers about the demand placed on them, and how they could meet it in case of carrying on their participation. For instance, in the case that speakers cannot remember the appropriate vocabulary whilst knowing what to say, they might realise that they can continue the discourse through applying circumlocution (using other expressions to express the same idea), or asking the interlocutors for repetition to gain time (Anne, 2017). The second dimension, the metacognitive knowledge, is the self-knowledge a learner has about speaking. This knowledge involves self-efficacy in relation to the topic, the involved factors (cognitive, social and affective), and knowledge about the strategies that may lead to achieving the communicative goals. Strategy use consists of knowing the way of planning, using and reflecting on, and practising communication and discourse strategies that will make oral interaction an easy task (Ibid, 2017).

Metacognitive strategies are crucial to the speaking development and to language learning in general. They are a trait of successful learners who are conscious about their learning and about the ways to develop it (Alexander, 2008). Learning metacognitive development helps achieve the concept of developing greater autonomy and greater motivation for learning as well. Therefore, learners need teachers' orientation to support metacognitive development in different occasions in which learners plan for speaking tasks rather than directly performing them, think about the desired goals and reflect on the feedback they get from instructors. In such opportunities, teachers can create a non-threatening environment where learners receive positive feedback rather than being negatively evaluated for their mistakes. In such classes, teachers and learners can discuss the factors affecting the development of the oral competence such as anxiety, motivation, and

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inevitability of making mistakes. Teachers can share their experiences with their learners and ask them to suggest their own ideas concerning all the observed issues. This kind of classroom atmosphere fosters risk-taking, which is considered as a positive dimension in language development (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Furthermore, applying approaches that enable learners practise speaking competence in safer and more comfortable situations, such as in small group or in pairs, rather than practising in front of the whole class, is very helpful to create a relaxing learning atmosphere. More importantly, teachers can lead learners through explicit cycles of instruction about and through speaking to equip learners with the necessary tools and ideas for building confidence to communicate effectively. A suggested cycle will be discussed in the next section.

1.7. Towards a Holistic Approach to teaching Speaking in the Language Classroom

Despite the fact that many instructors and learners experience problematically the teaching and learning of the speaking competence, this latter has been researched far less than reading, writing, and listening (Hughes, 2017 cited in Nathan, 2019. p.134). Moreover, among the dearth of the available studies, there tends to be greater focus on academic presentations rather than on other forms of speech. Additionally, research is separated from practice especially when it concerns speaking and this latter is very often integrated with other skills (Hughes, 2017 cited in Nathan, 2019). Besides, when it comes to ‘speaking instruction’, only few methodologically sound empirical approaches can be counted and it becomes hard for practitioners looking to improve their practices to find empirically sound studies (Nathan, 2019. p135).

Furthermore, by the end of the twentieth century, methods were no longer considered signs of learner’s success despite being very beneficial (Richard & Rogers, 2014). Richard

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and Rogers state that the generic methods, besides to lacking empirical evidence of effectiveness in research, did not respond to learners needs in different contexts, and did not consider both teachers' and learners' own knowledge, background, and potential for autonomy. In the post- methods era, the communicative approach appeared to respond to the shortcomings of previous methods and approaches. It is a characteristic of present speaking instruction. In the next session, the approaches under the paradigm of CLT (communicative language teaching) will be discussed.

1.7.1. Indirect and Direct Approaches to Speaking Instruction

The indirect approach to speaking instruction focuses on what learners can do with the language not on the specific usage as pronunciation or grammatical accuracy. It fosters fluency and the functional use of language (Goh& Burns, 2012. Cited in Nathan, 2019. p136). It is realised when learners are put in situations to use language with the aim to acquire it and improve their speaking. Ellis (2009) explained that the indirect approach generally aligns with task-based instruction (TBI) as it focuses on learners own language resources to communicate meaning. On the other hand, Swan (2005) challenged the notion that when applying the TBI, as an indirect approach, learners can do more than consolidate the language they have acquired, stating that there is no convincing empirical evidence to prove the implementation of the TBI.

Responding to Swan and other critics, Ellis (2009) and Long (2016) have come up with their initial conceptualisation of TBI, giving rise to the direct approach. In the direct approach to speaking instruction, they stressed attention to micro-level targets for specific conversational feature, skills and strategies for practise in different activities, attention to pronunciation, grammatical accuracy, error correction, for instance. Due to the new concep-

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tualisation, the TBI, which was the strong form of CLT, has become a mixture of the techniques from direct and indirect approaches. These dichotomous approaches have been purposefully blended to serve a new approach of speaking instruction.

Goh and Burns (2012) stated that neither of the approaches (direct and indirect) support all the processes of second language development (p.135). On the one hand, an indirect approach lacks focus on accuracy. On the other hand, a direct approach fails to develop fluency, spontaneity and complexity (Bygate, 1987). Bygate's approach is a combination of added micro-skills of meaning negotiation and interaction management with more tasks from the indirect approach. Littlewood's (1992) also combined language items (direct practice) with communication skills (indirect practice). Thornbury's (2005) three-stage procedural approach; 1-awareness rising, 2- appropriation, 3-autonomy also demonstrates blending. Thornbury supplied a loose framework giving explicit stages for teachers to follow when preparing their lessons. This kind of organisation moves one-step further not towards a general approach, but as a developed method.

1.7.2. A Holistic Approach

In recent years, theorists put forward an approach that demonstrates the idea of blending direct and indirect approaches to speaking instruction; Goh and Burn's (2012) holistic approach. The approach is not only characterised by the feature of incorporating aspects of both direct and indirect approaches, but it also fosters guidance and regulation of the processes of pre-task planning, task repetition, and metacognition. The table on the next page presents a definition of each aspect, brief note on purpose and reference to the underlying theory and its relation to speaking.

Key aspects in a holistic approach

Table 3: Key aspects of a holistic approach Based on Goh (2017); Goh & Burn (2012)

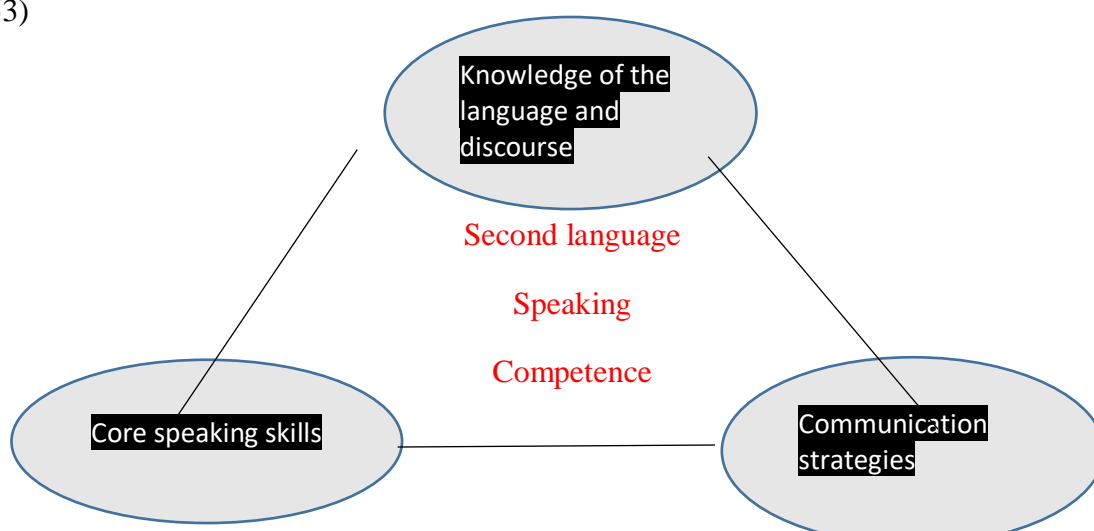
	Definition	Purpose	Underlying theory
Pre-task Planning	Allowing learners time to conceptualise and formulate what to say and how to say it	To alleviate the cognitive demands of free speech, allowing learners to focus on aspects of articulation and self-monitoring / repair	A cognitive approach to language learning and speech development (Skehan,1998; Segalowitz, 2010)
Task repetition	Repeating a speaking task once or multiple times immediately or at a later instance, under the same or different conditions, and with the same or different content	To improve upon the first performance by automatizing and reusing previously produced speech, reducing the attentional resources required to formulate utterances	Speaking is the result of complex cognitive processes (Levitt, 1989; Bygate, 1998)

Meta-cognition	The process of thinking or reflecting on one's cognitive processes	To become aware of one's own knowledge of self, task and strategies in order to control and manipulate the cognitive processes of planning , monitoring, and evaluation	An awareness of cognitive processes and the ability to plan, monitor, and evaluate them is beneficial for learning (Chamot, 2005; Flavell,1976; Wenden, 2001)
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1.7.3 What a competent speaker must be able to do

Teaching speaking holistically and comprehensively is a very demanding task and constitutes a great challenge for foreign language teachers. Johnson (1996) refers to speaking as “combinatorial skill” that “involves doing various things at the same time” (p.155). Consequently, it is valuable for teachers to be knowledgeable about the different components of the speaking competence, aware of its different aspects, and their relation to each other. The following figure presents a model of the different elements comprised in a second language speaking competence.

Figure 4: Components of second language speaking competence (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 53)



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Learning to speak a second or a foreign language involves the ability to use knowledge of language and discourse, core speaking skills, and communication and discourse strategies. Applying these components appropriately within the limitations of a speaker's cognitive processing help speakers produce fluent, accurate and socially appropriate speech.

The first component, knowledge of language and discourse, refers primarily to mastering the language sound patterns, having sufficient knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of the language; spoken structures, lexis, grammatical features, and an understanding of the organisation of connected speech stretches (discourse, genre), so that the utterances would be socially and pragmatically appropriate.

The second component, core speaking skills, concerns the development of speech processing ability to process speech quickly in order to improve fluency (e .g. speech rate, pausing, discourse markers, chunking, formulaic language, discourse markers), as well as being able to negotiate speech (building on previous pieces of speech, repairing communication breakdown, monitoring understanding, giving feedback). It also concerns the management of the speech flow (initiating topics, turn taking, opening / closing conversations, signalling intentions).

The third component, communication strategies, means ameliorating cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and interaction strategies .The speaker uses the cognitive strategies to compensate and repair breakdowns and limitations in language knowledge (e.g. paraphrasing, circumlocution, word coinage approximation, avoidance, gestures). The metacognitive strategies involve planning what to say in advance, thinking consciously about how to say something. Interaction strategies are used to ask for clarification or repetition, to make a reformulation, to rephrase an utterance, or to check comprehension.

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The aforementioned holistic approach speculates that speaking lessons are not considered as simple opportunities for practising some language forms with some specific expressions or doing speaking, but rather, teaching speaking lessons. Speaking lessons need to be considered as structured and supported learning tasks to develop different components of the speaking competence through a suggested teaching speaking cycle.

1.7.4. A Teaching- Speaking Cycle.

The model developed by Goh and Burns (2012) aims at bringing some of the factors affecting the learning of speaking together (cognitive, social and affective), and providing a clear and systematic framework, which comprises a teaching – speaking cycle of seven stages (figure 5). The stages cover the steps in a process that teachers can use flexibly according to their learners needs. To apply the cycle successfully, teachers could guide learners systematically through tasks they integrate and sequence for raising learners' awareness of the components of the speaking competence. Moreover, learners may need help and advice on some language aspects such as pronunciation features, or they may need help to overcome some affective factors, like anxiety or shyness to speak in front of the class. The model (Goh & Burns, 2012. p. 153) aims to plan a holistic and sequenced series of speaking tasks. It also aims to stress some key concepts to help teachers guide their learners:

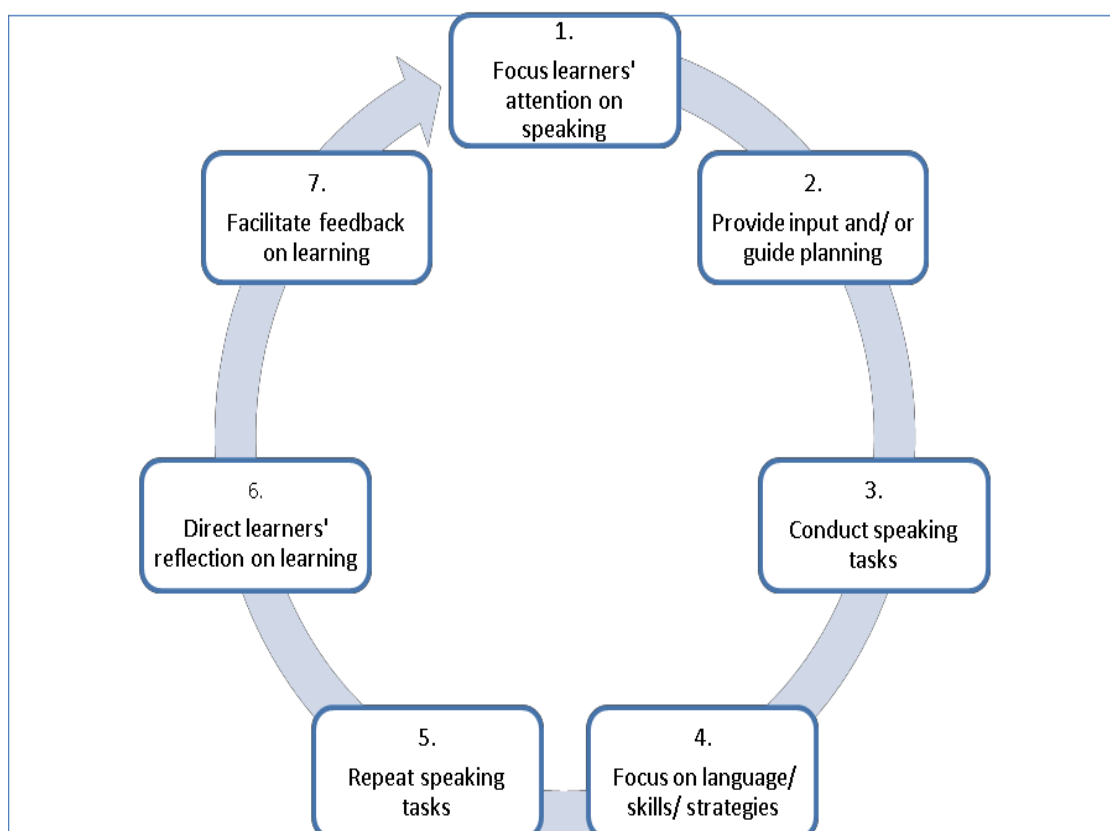
- Use a wide range of speaking skills
- Develop fluency in expression of meaning
- Use grammar flexibly to produce a wide range of utterances that can express meaning precisely
- Use appropriate vocabulary and accurate language forms relevant to their speaking needs

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- Understand and use social and linguistic conventions of speech for various contexts
- Employ appropriate oral communication and discourse strategies
- Increase awareness of genre and genre structures
- Increase their metacognitive awareness about L2 speaking
- Manage and self- regulate their own speaking development

(Goh & Burns, 2012. pp. 151-152)

Figure 5: The Teaching- speaking Cycle (Adapted from Goh & Burns (2012) p. 153)



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Stage 1: Focus learners' attention on speaking

In this stage, learners think about a speaking activity, its involvement and their ability of anticipation. It is for raising metacognitive awareness about speaking and it has two purposes:

- a) To encourage learners to plan for overall speaking development. Instructors give learners some prompts to stimulate thinking about the demands of speaking and they manage to prepare themselves for it.
- b) To prepare learners to approach a specific task. The given prompts focus on the speaking task that teachers have planned for the teaching cycle. In this stage, learners familiarise themselves with the outcomes of the task and consider the strategies they need to complete it. Figure 3 below gives a sample of an example task.

Figure 6: Raising awareness about speaking and language development (Burns, 2016. p. 7)

Think about your experiences of learning to speak a second language

Thinking about your own learning helps you to have better control over how you learn to speak and to become a more independent learner. To help you get started, think of short responses to the questions and discuss them with a partner

1. When did you begin to learn to speak English? What were the main reasons for starting at this time?
2. What did you like most about learning English? What do you dislike?
3. How would you describe your speaking ability right now? What would you like to improve in particular?
4. Do you feel nervous or anxious when you speak English? If so, what would help you feel less anxious?

5. What particular features of speaking in English have you noticed are different from when you speak your own language?

Teachers could introduce the task above at the beginning of a course. Instructors can adapt this type of task according to their evaluation of the learners' metacognitive progress. The task in figure 7 encourages learners to activate schemata about a specific task and the features of a spoken text or their producing genre.

Figure 7: Activating prior knowledge of a spoken text and task (Burns, 2016. p. 7)

Think ahead about the speaking task

In the speaking task that you will be doing, you will choose one of the topics listed below and speak about it for two minutes with your group members. What will you say about your topic? How will you organise the information? Prepare for this task by writing down your points or ideas.

- 1) – Retell your most interesting (or scary) experience.
- 2) Compare a place you like with another you dislike.
- 3) Narrate your childhood story.

Learners can tackle this task individually, in pairs or in groups, and they can answer orally or in writing, using either the target language or the mother tongue, as the aim is to reflect on learning and not to practise the language.

Stage 2: Provide input and / or guide planning

This stage is considered as an input and guides and scaffolds learners' progress towards the task. This kind of support helps learners avoid anxiety and gives them time to plan what to say, and how to say it. The purpose of the stage as Skehan (1998) states it aims at:

- introducing or teaching new language
- enabling learners to reorganise their developing linguistic knowledge

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- activating existing linguistic knowledge
- recycling specific knowledge items, and easing processing load
- pushing learners to interpret tasks in more demanding ways

(Skehan, 1998. pp. 137 – 139)

The focus on scaffolding is very important in this stage as it involves “help which will enable learners to accomplish a task which they would not have been quite able to manage on their own” (Maybin, Mercer & Steirer, 1992. p. 188). Scaffolding is about being sure that learners possess the needed knowledge of the topic, and which help them investigate it, find content, or get an idea how the topic is discussed earlier. Vocabulary knowledge and the practice of grammatical and pronunciation patterns needed to do the task is another type of scaffolding. Teachers could also ask learners how they themselves plan for similar tasks, and what language they can use to help them reflect on their practices .Figure 8 below shows an example task that involves reflection and writing, for participating in a discussion.

Figure 8: Planning for participation in a discussion (Burns, 2016. p. 8)

Plan for content and participation in a discussion

In this task, you will be discussing The best movie you have ever seen. The following questions will help you plan what to say during the discussion. Write down your answers after each question.

1. Which movie will you choose? Jot down three reasons for your choice.
2. When you give your reasons, what phrases or expressions will help you to present your views?
3. What would you say to members in your group, if they:
 - a) Disagree with you

b) Support your views

c) Do not explain their views clearly

Part 2 Rehearsal (optional)

Practise giving the explanation. Use the points you have prepared and link your ideas using the signposting words you have just identified. Do not write everything you want to say, so that you can practise bringing in different points.

These kinds of questions foster thinking about the task demands, and help learners prepare language and discourse strategies they use to achieve the task. Teachers can adapt the example task to respond to learners needs, or to focus on observed challenging areas.

Stage 3: Conduct speaking tasks

This stage could be less demanding for learners due to the task planning in stage 2. Learners start practising speaking via a communicative task, which should focus on expressing meaning with whatever linguistic knowledge, skills, strategies they have. Generally, learners speak in pairs or in small groups and the focus is on fluency. The teachers' role is to observe the beneficial types of learners' interactions, and to identify the problems arising during the discussion for a whole class formative feedback, and a preparation for the next stage.

Stage 4: Focus on language / skills / strategies

While in stage three the focus is on practising speaking, in stage four attention shifts to focus on pronunciation, discourse management skills, and the strategies learners used in the previous stage. Generally, teachers give this stage less attention, and as a result, learners get little scaffolding to develop their speaking competence. In stage four, the focus is on

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accuracy as learners go back over the various parts of the task and notice and study their mistakes. The instructor could note down, or mention oral examples of mistakes or errors committed during the discussion and ask learners to improve them and share ideas. He could also introduce an audio recording to consolidate what learnt in the task, and ask learners to learn more expressions. Some teachers benefit from the use of technology by asking learners to record themselves, and then receive feedback, from either colleagues, or the teacher, or both. After learners have had complete comments and corrected the errors in their oral performance, they can then practise the text again or parts of it, or focus on using particular expressions (e. g. formulaic expressions, or 'set' expressions) or discourse strategies (e. g. introducing a new point in the discussion).

Stage 5: Repeat speaking tasks

At this stage, learners repeat the speaking task from stage three. The difference is that learners have obtained information on accuracy and enough understanding of language and discourse features from stage four. Now, learners are more familiar with the content, and are more able to try the task again so, teachers could vary the topic of the same task, or ask learners to select their own topics within the same genre. The purpose of this repetition is to build confidence and reduces anxiety.

Stage 6: Direct learners' attention on learning

Stage 6 stimulates learners' awareness to reflect and self-regulate their learning through monitoring and evaluating what they have learnt in the preceding stages. Learners' different metacognitive knowledge can guide their reflection, and can focus on one or more of these points (Burns, 2016. p. 175):

1. demands of the speaking tasks which they have become aware of
2. the strategies that are useful to meet the demands of the task

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3. their informal assessment of their capabilities and performance
4. areas of their performance that show improvement
5. areas to be further improved
6. plans for improving specific areas

Learners can deal with the activities in this stage individually, in pairs, or in groups. Learners could carry out their reflection activities as part of ongoing learning journal to record the development of their speaking competence. Teachers can use following prompts to orient reflection activities in this stage:

Figure 9: Example prompts for learner reflections on learning (Burns, 2012. p. 176)

<p style="text-align: center;">Reflecting on my speaking performance</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) In this week's lessons, I learnt to do the following in spoken English: ... 2) I also learnt to use the following useful expressions that can help me speak more effectively: ... 3) This is how I feel about my learning this week: (Put a tick next to the statement that best describes how you feel right now) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. I am confident that I can do this again b. I am not confident that I can do this again c. I am still unsure about what I have to say and do in such a situation 	<p>Your teacher's / classmate's response</p>
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Stage 7: Facilitate feedback on learning

The final stage of the cycle involves providing feedback on learners' overall performance by their instructor. It is a continuity to learners' reflections in the preceding stage and it could involve peer feedback, which could take one of these forms (Burns, 2012. p. 176):

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- Comments or grades on an individual learner's skills and performance from observation sheets used during the speaking task
- Exchange of written individual learner reflections and comments on each other's progress and achievements
- Consolidated comments from the teacher based on written reflection from the class
- Written comments on learners' journals
- Comments and informal assessment in learner blogs

This cycle is not meant to be dealt with in a single or two sessions. It is a general approach that can be adopted or adapted by teachers to support and scaffold learners across several lessons, or even a unit of work.

Goh and Burns' (2012) Holistic Approach appears to be a clearly defined method based on empirical research rather than on intuition, as it goes beyond the limits of the blended approaches (indirect and direct approaches) to teaching speaking, and due to its socio-cognitive grounding and structured procedures that relate to method characteristics rather than an approach.

1.8. Oral competence Assessment

1.8.1. Language Testing History

Written and oral examinations were conducted in different universities of the world, but they concerned philosophy, science, or history. By the First World War, the testing and assessment of language as a skill took place, and it was divided into three phases. Spolsky referred to them as a- the pre-scientific, b- the psychometric structuralist, and c-psycholin-

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guistic-sociolinguistic (cited in Morrow, 1979, p. 144). In the article, "Communicative Language Testing: Revolution or evolution" Morrow gave other names to these phases as a- the Garden of Eden, b- the Vale of Tears, and c-the Promised Land. These phases in English teaching reflect the different changes that took place in the field of language teaching and learning.

The Garden of Eden was the period before the structuralism era when the grammar translation method was the dominant method of teaching. The problem that arose at that time was with the manner of evaluating long essays. Long essays had to be evaluated subjectively which means even if scoring criteria were identified, assessors would interpret them differently. Because the reliability of that marking system caused problems, the pendulum of testing swung to the second phase. The method of teaching in the psychometric- structuralism or the Vale of Tears period was the audiolingual method, and the testing was largely objective.

Assessment included different types of multiple- choice tests of vocabulary, grammar, phonetic discrimination, and listening and reading comprehension. The attention shifted from validity to reliability (Durairajan, 2019, p. 54). The third phase is the Promised Land in which the communicative language testing was apparent. Attempts converged towards testing real life language use, and using skills integration tasks. Validity of tests gained importance as testing different aspects of language proficiency were tested in ways that ensured validity and reliability. The justification behind the choice of testing in the communicative language was positive washback.

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Washback or backwash describes the impact of testing on learning-teaching process (Anderson, & wall, 1993). The shift from objective multiple-choice items to task-based testing affected positively language teaching and learning. The new testing practices influenced teaching and communicative language teaching gained popularity.

The benefits of washback of testing alone proved to be insufficient to improve language teaching and learning. All learners when asked to write essays in examinations never had the time to go through real-life writing cycle of thinking about what to include in their essays, instead, they jot down ideas, plan and organise, write a draft version, revise the final product, and write the final version of the essay. In such a timed one-shot written responses, the judgements made about the language proficiency of learners would lack predictive validity because students may fail in the exam even they are good writers in reality (Durairajan, 2019, p. 55).

1.8.2. Current Trends in Language Testing

The major step in testing languages in the twenty first century was to separate large-scale tests of language proficiency from tests of language in the field of teaching and learning. Nowadays, the influence of the alternative assessment along with the formative assessment are gaining importance over the summative final examinations. This stands for the idea of continuous and comprehensive evaluation (CCE) which is appreciated positively in educational contexts. In general, tests and assessments become an integral part of teaching and learning, and the teacher-managed tests are taking the place of system-oriented examinations (Durairajan, 2015).

On the other hand, there is a parallel shift from the assessment OF learning (which concerns students achieving their objectives successfully) to assessment FOR learning, as an instructional strategy. Valuing learners' responses and the teacher pedagogic feedback

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become focal points. There is a tendency to move from reliability in marking in large-scale examinations towards checking whether the tests and exams can be made learner-centred. Asking students to reflect on their abilities via applying 'can-do' statements has added a new way to the "of" and "for", assessment AS learning (Durairajan, 2016, p.55).

According to the twenty-first century trends, the prescriptive timed examinations used for summative evaluation or certification should not be viewed as the only way of assessment. Other alternatives can be used. Portfolios, assignments and projects are other ways of evaluation of practices in schools today. When applying these alternatives, learners have the time of thinking, planning, writing, editing revising, and submitting their work. So, practitioners ought to take such bi/ multilingual capabilities into consideration when assessing or testing learners' language proficiency.

The nature and the challenges associated with assessing foreign or second language oral competence were articulated in historical texts and still resonate today. Among them is the arguments that aural / oral skills " are less measurable because they are less tangible, more subject to variation and probably will involve the cumbersome and time consuming expedient of the individual oral examination" (Lundenburg, 1929. p.195). These arguments have been the basics for developing and implementing L2 direct or semi- direct proficiency testing, especially in the American testing tradition (Spolsky, 1995). The fact that some teachers score learners on the basis of the content or the substance of the test-taker's message, and others on the basis of properties of the test-taker's production could be redressed (Wood, 1927).

All these arguments and other problems discussed in literature about traditional or standardised tests such as norming on a population and cultural and language biases (Garcia & Pearson, 1992, 1994; Wrigley & Guth, 1992 cited in Jack, C.R. & Willy, A.R, 2002.

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p.338), have led practitioners to move from the traditional forms of assessment to an alternative approaches. The former failed to give enough information about what can learners do in their foreign or second language. The following comparison illustrates how the old paradigm has slowly given to a new one called alternative assessment (Jack, C.R. & Willy, A.R, 2002. p.335):

Old Paradigm

1. Focus on language
2. Teacher-centred
3. Isolated skills
4. Emphasis on product
5. One answer, one-way correctness
6. Tests that test

New Paradigm

1. Focus on communication
2. Learner-centred
3. Integrated skills
4. Emphasis on process
5. Open-ended, multiple solutions
6. Tests that also teach

1.8.3. Alternative Assessment

The term alternative assessment is used as an alternative to traditional testing and all its shortcomings. Varieties of definitions were employed to refer to the term. Garcia and Pearson state that alternative assessment includes all those “efforts that do not adhere to the traditional criteria of standardisation, efficiency, cost-effectiveness, objectivity, and machine scorability” (Garcia & Pearson,1994. p. 355) They also use the following labels: authentic assessment, portfolio assessment, performance assessment, situated or (contextualised) assessment, and assessment by exhibition (Jack, C.R. & Willy, A.R, 2002. p.339).

The distinctive feature that differentiates alternative assessment from traditional testing is that the former asks learners to demonstrate what they can do, and instructors evaluate them on what they integrate and produce, not on what they can recall and reproduce. Another distinction is that the objective of alternative assessment is to “gather evidence about how students are approaching, processing, and completing real-life tasks in a particular domain”

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(Garcia & Pearson, 1994. p. 357). More importantly, the alternative assessment as the name suggests offers alternatives to traditional testing in these ways:

- a) _ does not intrude on regular classroom activities
- b) _ reflects the curriculum that is actually being implemented
- c) – provides information on the strengths and weaknesses of each individual student
- d) – provides multiple indices that can be used to gauge students' progress
- e) – is more multi-culturally sensitive and free of norm, linguistic, and cultural biases found in traditional testing. (Jack, C.R. & Willy, A.R, 2002. p.339).

The instruments included in the alternative assessment are apt to different situations and foster the use of checklists of learners' behaviour or products, self- evaluation questionnaires, videos of roleplays, audiotapes of discussions, teacher observations.

In all speaking assessment situations, the evaluator must apply certain categories, or competences, meaning areas or concepts to assess, besides to criteria for the assessment, meaning standards through which something can be judged. For example, The CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages provides useful descriptors for different skills, competences at each of its six levels which serve as criteria for teachers to assess their learners abilities. The CEFR differentiates between *speaking* (oral production), and *spoken interaction*. The table below presents the descriptors for all levels of oral production in the form of 'can do' statements.

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- Figure 10 : Council of Europe Overall Oral Production Descriptors (2001)

	OVER ALL ORAL PRODUCTION
C2	Can produce smoothly flowing well-structured speech with an effective logical structure, which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.
C1	Can give clear detailed descriptions and presentations on complex subjects, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.
B2	Can give clear systematically developed descriptions and presentations with appropriate highlighting of significant points and relevant supporting detail. Can give clear detailed descriptions and presentations on wide range of subjects related to his/her field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points.
B1	Can reasonably fluently sustain a straightforward description of one of a variety of subjects within his/her field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points.
A2	Can give a simple description or presentation of people, living or working conditions, daily routines, likes/ dislikes etc.as a short series of simple phrases and sentences linked into a list
*A1	Can produce simple mainly isolated phrases about people and places

Furthermore, the CEFR also provides a set of descriptors for spoken interaction:

- Turn taking skills
- Communication strategies
- Spontaneity
- Asking for clarification
- Information exchange
- Politeness strategies

The number of possible categories for oral assessment is big. The CEFR identifies the list below with relevance to oral assessment for which illustrative scales for assessment are developed. Each scale describes the level of proficiency. The competence categories are

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vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, vocabulary control, phonological control, turn taking strategies, co-operating strategies, asking for clarification, fluency, flexibility, coherence, thematic development, precision, and socio-linguistic competence. Due to the huge number of items, it is neither possible nor recommended to include all the items in the assessment at a time. When making choices for a very specific assessment situation, assessors need to select the most appropriate for each assignment and choose only 4 or 5 test criteria (Council of Europe, 2001, p.193).

1.8.4. Assessment Criteria

Concerning the assessment of the speaking competence, O'Sullivan (2012, p. 234) asserts, "It is not customarily believed that the most troublesome tests to expand and to execute are tests of spoken language ability". Luoma (2004) also affirms that speaking assessment is provoking, because there are too many elements that affect the conception of an assessor concerning how great a person is able of speaking. Hence, performing authentic and proper assessment of speaking competence is not a flexible task and needs considering many features.

There are two main ways to tackle the speaking competence assessment: either giving it a single score (holistic scoring), which is labelled as influential or global scale (Pan, 2016). This approach has the advantage of being quicker, less complicated and is probably appropriate for informal testing of progress. The second approach, the analytic or profile approach takes more time, and urges assessors to consider variety of factors that contribute to the fairness and reliability. Analytic scoring supplies satisfactory information about learner's language proficiency (Kondo-Brown, 2002) as it attempts to separate the notable properties of execution and to study every one solely on its own subscale.

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The disadvantage of this way is the categories that might influence the scorer and he might lose sight of the overall picture. The number of items to be included in the analytical approach is controversial. The Council of Europe (2001) includes the supplementary constituents of oral language: authenticity, fluency, range, adherence, and interaction. Davis (1999) stated that as usually applied classes in speaking exams are fluency, authenticity, pronunciation or comprehensibility, and appropriateness. Gondova (2014, p. 162) explains that “the accompanying criteria are regularly utilised: appropriateness, organisation of ideas, fluency, grammatical accuracy and the range of grammatical structures, the range of vocabulary and its accuracy, content, pronunciation and intonation, and interaction” (Metruk, 2018). On the other part, the scales in Cambridge English First Certificate is composed of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, speech management and interactive communication (Cambridge English: Understanding Results Guide, 2014). Tuan (2012) states that “based on the objective of the assessment, speaking performance might be evaluated on such criteria as content, organisation, cohesion, register, vocabulary, grammar, or mechanics” (p. 673).

Although the selection of particular classes should emerge from the aim of the assessment, assessors should be aware of the classes' quantity they implement when assessing speaking. Despite the fact that research has not supplied a clear cut number of compulsory classes “However, prior researches have not given sufficient experimental proofs to help the designation of ideal number of criteria inside rating scales” (Chen, 2016, p. 52), Finson, Ormsbee, and Jensen (2011) affirm that three to six classes are applied to the whole. For Ruammai (2014), the amount should fluctuate between three and seven. In the same vein, some enquiries have come to the scene with regard to the utmost number of scales as stated in the Council of Europe “Received wisdom is that more than 4 or 5 classifications begin to cause cognitive overload and that 7 classifications are psychologically an upper bound”

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(2001, p. 193). The agreement among, Green (2014), Razali and Isra (2016), and Thornbury (2005) estimate that four to five scales appear to be the most remarkable logical number concerning evaluating oral competence.

1.8.4.1. Pronunciation

Pronunciation refers to the ability to produce individual sounds, to link words together, and to use stress and intonation to communicate meaning (Thornbury, 2005, pp. 128-129). Generally, it concerns the ability to display comprehensible speech requirements. In the CEFR, pronunciation is included in an illustrative scale for phonological control, and a learner on proficiency level B1, for example, should attain the level “Pronunciation is clearly intelligible even if a foreign accent is sometimes evident, and occasional mispronunciations occur” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 117).

Among other speaking assessment criteria, pronunciation is seen the most difficult one to assess. According to Harris (quoted in Forum1997):

Pronunciation is the most difficult to assess, the central reason is the lack of general agreement on what a good pronunciation of second language means: is comprehensibility to be the sole basis of judgement, or must we demand a high degree of phonetics and allophonic accuracy, and can we be certain that two or more speakers will find the utterance of a foreign speaker equally comprehensible?.

Luoma (2004), on the other hand, believes that ‘the sound of speech’ is difficult to assess since people favour judging the status of both native and foreign speakers based on their pronunciation. Nowadays, it becomes hard to prefer a particular pronunciation as a standard in oral assessment and convince all people to imitate it. Besides, considering native-like speech as a criterion becomes a failure factor for most learners even being able to communicate well in the target language. “The aim of pronunciation improvement is not to achieve a

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perfect imitation of a native accent, but simply to get the learner to pronounce accurately enough to be easily and comfortably comprehensible to other speakers”(Hughes, 2002, p.68 quoted in Ur 1996).

Therefore, it is necessary to integrate other aspects than the sound of speech in the category of pronunciation. Hughes (2002) states that the key indicators for assessing pronunciation are the amount of strain caused to the listener, the amount of unintelligible speech, and noticed ability of L1 influence and hence, features as intelligibility, pitch, rhythm, pausing, stress and intonation are relevant to assessment of speech. Luoma adds that communicative effectiveness is a better criterion for oral interaction as it is based on comprehensibility and defined in terms of realistic learner achievement (2004, p. 10).

1.8.4.2. Accuracy

All languages have rules and patterns learners must apply to produce correct utterances. These rules are included in the knowledge of grammar. Bachman and Palmer (1996) assert that grammatical knowledge comprises vocabulary, syntax and morphology. This knowledge concerns the organisation of utterances and sentences (Luoma, 2004, pp. 99-100).

1.8.4.3. Grammatical accuracy is measured through the appropriate use of subordinate clauses, sentences structure and specifically concerned the number of grammatical errors occurring in a given amount of speech and their effect on communication (Hughes, 2002). Pye and Greenal, see testing accuracy as “evidence of a wide range of structures and vocabulary. Errors minimal in number and gravity” (1996, p.99). The CEFR combines vocabulary and grammatical competence and labels them as linguistic competence. The scale regarding the general linguistic competence considers a learner on the highest level to be able to “exploit a comprehensive and reliable

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mastery of a very wide range of language to formulate thoughts precisely, give emphasis, differentiate and eliminate ambiguity ... No signs of having to restrict what he/ she wants to say” (Council of Europe, 2001, p.110).

1.8.4.4. Vocabulary

Lexical competence is highly recommended to enable learners participate in oral communication. This competence involves knowledge of vocabulary and the meaning of words. In Simensen’s (1998) point of view, the lack of sufficient vocabulary constitutes the main obstacle to learning a language. Therefore, besides to acquiring an amount of vocabulary, the language learner has to apply lexical phrases (chunks of words occurring together), such as discourse markers, idioms and sayings (Thornbury, 2005, p. 23).

The CEFR contains illustrative scales concerning the range of vocabulary knowledge and the ability to control that knowledge. A learner on C2 has “a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 112).

Considering vocabulary as a criterion for oral assessment in testing situations involves the assessment of both knowledge and use of vocabulary (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p.276). Therefore, the range of the learner’s vocabulary (whether the vocabulary is broad enough to cover the topic), and accuracy (whether the selection of vocabulary is precise and learners can show understanding of applied vocabulary) are assessed.

1.8.4.5. Fluency

Fluency has a great impact on foreign language comprehensibility. It is the learner’s ability to express ideas and opinions in coherent connected speech. Hasselgren defines fluency as “The ability to contribute to what a listener, proficient in language, would normally perceive as coherent speech” (1998, p.155). In this situation, the speaker carries out the

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speech without strain, at a comfortable pace, and does not interrupt it with excessive hesitations. To render the speech smoother, Hasselgren suggests the use of 'smallwords' which refer to "small words and phrases occurring with high frequency in the spoken language". Examples include *really, I mean, Oh* In the same vein, House (1996, p.232) asserts that expressions like *yeah, okay, hm, I mean* can connect the interactions in speech to render it coherent and smooth.

In the CEFR scale regarding fluency, the learner of C2 proficiency level can "express him/herself at length with a natural, effortless, unhesitating flow. Pauses only to reflect on precisely the right words to express his/ her thoughts or to find an appropriate example of explanation" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 129).

When assessing learners' fluency, they are not expected to produce fast speech imitating the rhythm of native speakers, but to apply a normal speed with clear continuity and logical sequencing of sentences. "Testing fluency is to assess coherent spoken interaction with good speed, rhythm and few intrusive hesitations" (Pye & Greenall, 1996, p.99).

1.8.4.5. Turn taking

Turn taking involves taking the floor and keeping it via applying different conversational gambits. *First, then, besides* are conversational gambits used to keep the floor and bypass interruptions. *Well, now, but, oh, yes,* are gambits to gesture that the person wishes to speak (Simensen, 1998, p. 64). Gaining control of turn taking is extremely essential in oral interaction. The CEFR has described this competence in two different scales (pp. 86+124). It states that a learner on the highest proficiency levels regarding turn-taking is able to "select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his/ her remarks appropriately in order to get the floor, or to gain time, and keep the floor whilst thinking".

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Demonstrating turn taking in the classroom requires learners to listen carefully, attend to what other interlocutors say, identify the right moment to respond, and signalise when they wish to speak (Thornbury, 2005, pp. 8-9). The assessor should take into account the learner's manner of introducing a topic, manner of maintaining their arguments, manner of questioning, and manner of maintaining on questions by adding new input if turn taking is a criterion for assessment.

1.9. Types of Assessment

Assessing speaking requires that assessors either observe the test-taker's "live" oral performance or that they capture their performance by some means for evaluation later on. They also need a method for elicitation, and develop rating scales. The CEFR presents various types of assessment in a non-exhaustive list that are relevant when assessing oral competence.

Table 4: Types of Assessment (CEFR, 2001, p. 183)

1	Achievement assessment	Proficiency assessment
2	Norm- referencing (NR)	Criterion-referencing (CR)
3	Mastery learning CR	Continuum CR
4	Continuous assessment	Fixed assessment points
5	Formative assessment	Summative assessment
6	Direct assessment	Indirect assessment
7	Performance assessment	Knowledge assessment
8	Subjective assessment	Objective assessment
9	Checklist rating	Performance rating
10	Impression	Guided judgement

11	Holistic assessment	Analytic assessment
12	Series assessment	Category assessment
13	Assessment by others	Self-assessment

1.9.1. Achievement assessment / Proficiency assessment

Achievement assessment (oriented to the content of the course) gauges what the learner has learnt based on what he has been instructed. In other words, it relates to the period of work (week / term's work), the course book, and the syllabus. Whereas, proficiency assessment (oriented to the continuum of real world ability) measures the learner's overall knowledge in a certain subject. It states an external perspective as it measures what the learner can do/ knows in relation to implementation of the acquired knowledge in the real world.

1.9.2. Norm- referencing (NR) / Criterion-referencing (CR)

Norm- referencing assessment concerns ranking learners in relation to each other. Another benefit of this type of assessment is in placement tests to form classes. Criterion-referencing assessment is a reaction to the Norm- referencing assessment, and is based on a set of standards, and the learner is assessed based on how well he / she achieves individually in relation to these standards, irrespective of the achievement of the other members of the peer group.

1.9.3. Mastery learning Norm- referencing / Continuum Criterion-referencing

The mastery criterion-referencing approach is defined as "one in which a single 'minimum competence standard' or 'cut-off point' is set to divide learners into 'masters' and 'non-masters', with no degrees of quality in the achievement of the objective being recognised"(Council of Europe, 2001, p. 184). The substitution to the mastery approach is the

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continuum-referencing approach in which the learner's ability is referenced to a defined continuum of all relevant degrees of ability in the area in question.

1.9.4. Continuous assessment / Fixed -points assessment

Continuous assessment takes place throughout the year in contrast to fixed-point assessment, which is a snapshot of performance at a particular time. Continuous assessment takes into account some or all the work that learners do during the course on a regular basis and contributes to their final grade. Fixed- point assessment has its merits, because it can test knowledge, and assures that learners can still do tasks previously dealt with from the syllabus. Among the drawbacks of this assessment, it leads to examination traumas and does favour a certain type of learners.

1.9.5. Summative assessment / Formative assessment

The purpose of the summative assessment is to sum-up what the learner can or cannot do at a particular moment in time, generally at the end of a course, and consists of giving learners a mark or a grade. It is a gateway method to education and it is widely used in undergraduate teaching. Most of summative assessment is norm-referenced, fixed-point achievement assessment. Formative assessment is a criterion-referenced assessment that gauges learners' performance against the learning criteria in the learning programme. The learner obtains no 'mark' or 'grade', nor 'pass' or 'fail' remark, but he/she receives feedback to support high quality learning. Encouraging learners to accomplish various learning aims and raising awareness are types of positive feedback.

1.9.6 Direct assessment / indirect assessment

Direct assessment is assessing the performance of the candidate at the time being. For example, the assessor observes a group discussion and compares with pre-set criteria, and then provides an assessment. Indirect assessment generally tests the application prowess of

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the candidate. Reading is an example of indirect assessment when asking learners to show understanding evidence, finishing sentences, or answering questions.

1.9.7. Performance assessment / Knowledge assessment

Performance assessment concerns the learner's ability to speak directly as some kind of a performance, and which demonstrates his/ her ability to produce language as in an interview for example. Knowledge assessment tests the learner's linguistic knowledge and control via answering questions of a range of different item types.

1.9.8. Subjective assessment / Objective assessment

Subjective assessment refers to the assessor's judgement. It concerns the performance judgement quality. In direct performance assessment, the assessors award marks or grades to learners based on a judgement, which means that the decision on the learner's performance is made subjectively even taking into account the relevant factors, guidelines or criteria and experience. Objective assessment eliminates the judgement factor and considers the correctness factor. In multiple-choice questions where only one answer is correct subjectivity is removed and objectivity is realised in assessment.

1.9.9. Checklist rating / Performance rating

Rating on a scale is the process of judging a test-taker and placing him/her at a particular level or band on a scale constituted of a number of such levels or bands. On the other hand, the rating on checklist is judging a test-taker in relation to a checklist where the assessor ticks the presence or the absence of points included in the list. The emphasis in rating on a scale is on positioning the candidate on a series of bands, whereas the focus in rating on a

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checklist is on the quantity of the content of the module the candidate has successfully accomplished.

1.9.10. Impression / Guided judgement

Impression assessment is definitely subjective assessment as it is made on experience without reference to specific criteria. Guided judgement occurs when the assessor's subjectivity is reduced via a commitment to assess against clear criteria.

1.9.11. Holistic assessment / analytic assessment

Holistic assessment is making a judgement based on an overall impression. The assessor balances intuitively different aspects to assess the candidate. Analytic assessment in contrast tries to capture different aspects separately. Educational systems make use of both of them.

1.9.12. Series assessment / category assessment

Category assessment requires a unique task to judge the performance of the candidate, based on an assessment grid (as mentioned in the analytic approach). Series assessment comprises a series of separated assessment tasks. Role-play is an example of this type of assessment, in which the assessor rates the test-taker in relation to a simple holistic grade on a labelled scale.

1.9.13. Assessment by others / self-assessment

In most cases, assessment by others refers to judgements made by the teacher or the assessor. Self-assessment takes place when learners judge their own proficiency. It helps

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them reflect on their own learning achievement and hence, become involved in their own learning.

1.10. Types of spoken tests

Testing the oral competence of foreign language learners is a delicate task, which causes acute problems at all the stages of the process. The difficulties do not relate only to the adequate extraction of technique, and form of assessment, but they may arise during the designation or the administration of the test. Researchers and practitioners hold different opinions about the validity of oral testing and give arguments for and against it (Ur 1995, p. 143).

Despite the difficulties encountered in learner's speaking competence assessment, oral testing procedures make up an important proportion of overall learner evaluation in most institutional language courses. Testing could be the starting point of a course, (placement test), and usually happens at its end (achievement test). There could be also tests to gauge learners' progress at different times during the course. Oral testing is fulfilled by means of the following spoken test types (Thornbury, 2007, pp. 125,126):

- **Interviews** – interviews are somehow easy to implement. The examiner summons Learners individually for the examination. However, such interviews hardly ever allow for testing informal, conversational speaking styles and the interviewees generally underperform whether the interviewer is the learner's teacher or another examiner. Besides the effects of the interviewer (questioning style,) on the examinee are not easy to exclude.
- **Live monologues** – Learners perform a presentation or talk on a pre-selected subject. In this case, the interviewer effect is set aside and the test gives evidence of the candidates' ability to perform an extended turn. On the other hand, the test provides

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insufficient information on the learner's actual competence as it does not verify the learner's ability to tackle a casual conversation.

- **Recorded monologues or dialogues** – These are less stressful and more practicable than live performance. Learners can record themselves talking in turns about a topic. These tests offer examiners the opportunity to accomplish consistent, and to some extent, objective assessment.
- **Role-plays** – This type of tests is deemed valid when it matches the learner's needs and aims of the language course. Learners practise some role-plays in the course before they take the test. One problem with this form of exam is the influence of the interlocutor, which is difficult to predict or control on the performance of the test-taker.
- **Collaborative tasks and discussions** – In this type of test task, learners are not assigned roles to play, but to act as themselves. It also helps examiners to assess the test takers' ability to express personal points of view and interactive skills that resemble real life language use.

1.10.1 Descriptive Framework for Speaking Tasks

Regarding the components of spoken tests, Fulcher (2003, p. 35) provides a perspective on the advantages of employing a descriptive framework for speaking tasks that practitioners can evaluate with reference to the choices when defining the construct. Relying on Bachman and Palmer (1996) and Weir (1993), Fulcher devises a list that assessors may take into account in speaking tests comprising of the following components:

Table 5: A framework for describing Speaking tasks (Fultcher, 2003, p. 57).

<p>1. Task orientation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Open: outcomes based upon speakers . Guided: outcomes are directed by the rubrics, but there is an extent of flexibility in how the test-taker behaves to the input . Closed: outcomes imposed by intake or rubrics Non- interactional <p>2. Interactional correlations:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ - One- way ○ - Two-way ○ - Multi-way <p>3. Goal orientation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None • Convergent • Divergent <p>4. Interlocutor rank and familiarity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . No interlocutor <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher status • Lower status • Same status . Degree of familiarity with the speaker <p>5. Topic(s)</p> <p>6. Contexts</p>

Besides to the focus on the description of the tasks and task types, other elements as the test framework (the interview structure for example) should be clearly determined with a planned sequence of talk in addition to the phases of the test and its constituents (strategies and skills required, the language knowledge). According to Bachman and Palmer (1996),

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Fulcher (2003) and Luoma (2004) developing test specifications is highly recommended. Furthermore, these specifications and procedures of rating should be clear for reliable interpretation by both, the assessor and test-takers. Before the implementation of the test, the instructions and the materials included should be available. (Luma 2004, p. 51) lists these elements:

- The rubric and the assignments to the examinees
- The tasks materials that the candidates use when doing the task
- An interaction plan, which provides guidelines for the inquirers about the content and language of questions
- Plans and instructions for distribution.

Conclusion

Grouping “ear and tongue skills” has been increasingly regarded by practitioners, and learners as one of the major aims of foreign language teaching and learning. Even being thought of as the supreme disturbing competence to acquire as a language has to be generated promptly and randomly, that requires a significant deal of practice, the oral competence has become an enthusiastic zone of research over the past two decades. In this chapter, the researcher has shed light on different aspects of teaching and learning this competence and how it was evolved within the different approaches of teaching and learning foreign languages. Thus, the chapter presents an overview of strategies or techniques necessary for developing the speaking competence. The researcher has described the crucial role this competence plays in the communicative competence framework. To conclude, this chapter offers a unique description of theoretical and practical aspects related teaching and assessment of the oral competence.

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Chapter two: Learning in the 21st Century

Introduction

The history of foreign language learning and teaching reveals that teachers have been much affected by a range of methods and approaches rather than by contents, contexts and outcomes. However, a crucial issue worth discussion in this study concerns a possible relationship between learning and innovation skills (communication and collaboration) and EFL oral competence.

It is widely advocated that mastering a foreign language requires from foreign speakers a good speaking ability of the target language. Apparently, integrating communication and collaboration skills may provide a certain amount of motivation to interact in the target language, and thus foster EFL learners' oral competence.

The aim of this chapter is to review relevant literature. It demonstrates a critical analysis of the relevant body of literature by highlighting the learning process through reviewing different society's educational goals throughout the ages. It also sheds light on the key terms utilised in this study such as twenty-first century learning, formula and frameworks developed for twenty-first century learners with more focus on two important skills from skill set one; communication and collaboration skills as a basis for developing EFL speaking competence.

2.1. Learning Through Time

The year 1991 marked the beginning of the 'Knowledge Age'. It was the first time in the history of America the expenditures on information and communication technologies exceeded the amounts spent on industrial age goods. One hundred and seven billion dollars were spent on engines and machines for agriculture, mining, manufacturing, energy production, and transportation (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 3). On the other hand, one hundred and twelve billion dollars were invested in projects of computers, phones, servers, printers, software and networking devices and systems. That was the first year of a new age of information, knowledge and motivation. Henceforth, countries of the world have been investing huge amounts of money to make, manage, manipulate, and move bits and bytes of information rather than handling the material world's atoms and molecules.

This shift proposed new demands on education. One of its roles is to prepare people to handle the challenges of the future. Knowledge work can be done in all parts of the world and by all people who possess the expertise, a laptop, a cell phone, and the internet connection. To train expert knowledge workers, countries should develop educational systems that produce them. Hence, education becomes the key to economic survival in the 21st century. The next section shows what we expect from education in our times (*ibid*, p. 3).

2.2. Education's Purposes: Historical Roles and Purposes

'Education plays four universal roles on society's evolving stage'. These expectations include (a) - our empowerment to contribute to work and society, (b) - exercise and development of our personal talents, (c) - fulfilment of our civic responsibilities, and (d) - carrying

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on our traditions and values forward. These goals remain constant through time. The next table shows how people go about meeting these goals over time (ibid, p. 12).

Table 6: society's Educational Goals Throughout the Ages (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p.14)

Goals for Education	Agrarian Age	Industrial Age	Knowledge Age
Contribute to work and society	<p>Produce food for family and other people.</p> <p>Develop devices and crafts for basic uses.</p> <p>Take part in the local cottage economy.</p>	<p>Serve community through a specialised occupation knowledge work.</p> <p>Implementing engineering and science to give hand to industrial progress.</p> <p>Provide one piece of along sequence of production and dispensation.</p>	<p>Take part in collective information and bring new assistances to meet needs and work out problems</p> <p>Participate in the collective economy.</p>
Exercise and develop personal talents	<p>Learn the fundamental 3RS (reading, wRiting and aRithmetic, if possible study farming and craft/skills</p> <p>utilise tools to create beneficial artefacts</p>	<p>Attain fundamental literacy and numeracy (for the majority of people).</p> <p>Acquire factory, trade and job competences (for the majority).</p> <p>Acquire managerial and administrative talents, engineering and science (for minority at the top).</p>	<p>Improve individual development with technology-powered knowledge and productivity instruments.</p> <p>Benefit from expanded global opportunities for knowledge, work and entrepreneurship as middle class grows</p> <p>Utilise knowledge tools and technology to carry on learning and developing skills throughout life</p>
Fulfil civic responsibilities	<p>Give hand to neighbours</p> <p>Volunteer to local village needs</p> <p>Assist essential local activities and society celebrations</p>	<p>Take part in social and civic organisations to helpt the community.</p> <p>Participate in organised labour and political exercises.</p> <p>Contribute to local and regional civic development through volitional and philanthropy.</p>	<p>Participate in society decision making and political exercise online and in person</p> <p>Engage globally in affairs through online communities and social networks.</p> <p>Use communication and social media tools to make available time and resources to both local and global causes</p>

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Carry traditions and values forward	<p>Contribute to passing on farming culture and traditions to the coming generation.</p> <p>Bring up kids in the ethnic religious and cultural customs of parents and ancestors.</p>	<p>Learn the history of a trade, craft or a profession and disseminate it to the next generation</p> <p>Preserve one's own culture and values among a heterogeneity of traditions in urban life.</p> <p>Associate with other cultures and geographies as communication and transportation expand.</p>	<p>Quickly transfer old knowledge in a field and use its principles across other fields to get new information and innovations.</p> <p>Establish identity from a compassion for a various cultures and traditions.</p> <p>Take a share in various traditions and multicultural experiences</p> <p>Blend cultures and global citizenship into new cultures and values.</p>
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2.2.1 Education's Role in the 21st Century

Life nowadays is associated with Knowledge Age. The main features of our new flat world demands revolve around connected knowledge work, global markets, blended cultural traditions, and tele-liked citizens. Among the changes, humanity witnessed in the knowledge age is the replacement of the brawn power by brainpower and the mechanical horsepower by the electronic hertz power. Increasing powerful technologies for communicating, collaborating, and learning which has a crucial role throughout life has shaped the achievement of education goals in our times.

2.2.1.1. Contributing to Work and Society

Being a productive contributor to society in our time, assumes rapid learning of the core content of a field of knowledge with mastery of a broad portfolio of essential learning, technology, innovation, and career skills essential for life and work. Implementing these skills in today's knowledge and innovation work represents your participation in the global network.

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2.2.1.2. Fulfilling Personal Talents

In the Knowledge Age, countries are investing huge sums of money in education as an economic imperative. Therefore, learners are obtaining more chances to improve their talents. The overwhelming majority use cell phones and access rapidly to the internet, which is increasing in community centres, schools, and internet cafes.

Digital devices and the internet are nowadays power tools to build skills and share ideas. With the availability of the digital devices, people all over the world, will be able to contribute their abilities to the welfare the world societies (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 16).

2.2.1.3. Fulfilling Civic Responsibilities

The challenge for the 21st century learners is learning to manage the digital power tools and to apply the critical thinking and information literacy skills. The huge number of sources, including well-informed and reliable as well as uninformed and misleading, demand attention and critical thinking skills. Technology can also be a powerful tool of change for personally engaging citizens in political, social and community building issues (ibid, p.17)

2.2.1.4. Carrying Forward Traditions and Values

One of the high demand skill set in the knowledge age to introduce new knowledge, new products, and new services is blending the core principles of a field of knowledge and the knowledge and practices of other fields.

Building and preserving our identity constitutes another challenge in the 21st for all world citizens, and learning to apply tolerance and compassion for the other identities and values becomes more than necessary in nowadays blending and mixing communities.

2.3. Twenty-First Century Skills and Global Educational Roadmaps

Our lifestyles and ways of interaction with each other have changed due to the digital technologies that characterize the 21st century. In this period of intense transformation, business operations become so globalised and business core competencies have emphasised oknowledge, mobility, and collaboration. A human workforce with expert thinking and complex communication is required to run such businesses (Levy& Murnane, 2004).

Education today plays a great role and takes the lion's share to prepare learners as conscious and global citizens ready to face the new challenges. Thus, scholars in education argued for modifications to occur in the education system. Today, being successful lies in acquiring the ability to communicate, share and utilise information to tackle faced complexities. Besides, adapting and innovating to new and changing conditions, and being able to master the power of technology to create new knowledge is among the requisite skills and literacies of the 21st century education. To meet the challenge of new standards that learners should master, schools must be transformed to enable learners to learn creative thinking, problem solving, collaboration and innovative competencies to succeed at work and in life (Pacific Research Centre, 2010). This school transformation called for the insertion of the 21st learning skills, which seem necessary for the accomplishment of this transformation as argued by (Carroll, 2007; Burmack, 2002; Riddle, 2009; Frey & Fisher, 2008; Elkins, 2007; Trilling & Fidel, 2009) and organizations (Partnership for 21st Century Learning; National Science Foundation, Educational Testing Services, NCREL, Metiri Group, etc.).

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2.3.1. Definition and Formula of Twenty-First Learning

The 21st learning skills are defined by the Educational Testing Service, ETS, (2007) as “the ability to a) collect and / or retrieve information, b) organise and manage information, c) evaluate the quality, relevance, and usefulness of information, and d) generate accurate information through the use of existing resources” (Pacific Research Center,2010, p. 2). The North Central Regional Education Laboratory (NCREL) broadens 21st century skills to encompass digital literacy, inventive thinking, effective communication, and high productivity. The partnership for the 21st century skills focuses on six key components for improving 21st learning: 1- emphasise core subjects, 2- emphasise learning skills, 3- use 21st century tools to develop learning skills, 4- teach and learn in a 21st century context, 5- teach and learn the 21st content, and 6- utilise 21st century assessments that measure 21st century skills.

Trilling and Fadel (2009) have organised the core elements of the Partnership for the 21st century (P21) to make them easier to retrieve. They arranged them into seven skills starting with the letter ‘C’ representing 1– Critical Thinking and Problem Solving 2– Creativity and Innovation 3- Collaboration, Teamwork and Leadership 4- Cross-cultural Understanding 5- Communication and Media Fluency 6- Computing and ICT Fluency 7- Career and Self Reliance, and the core skills or the 3Rs (**R**eading, **wR**iting and **aR**ithmetic). They have thus explained the concept of the 21st century learning in the following formula:

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Figure 11: Formula of 21st Learning (Springer Science + Business Media Singapore, 2017, p. 24)

3Rs X 7Cs = 21st learning	
1- R eading 2- wR iting 3- aR ithmetic	1- C ritical Thinking and Problem Solving 2- C reativity and Innovation 3- C ollaboration, Teamwork and Leadership 4- C ross-cultural Understanding 5- C ommunication and Media Fluency 6- C omputing and ICT Fluency 7- C areer and Self Reliance

2.3.2. Frameworks Developed for 21st Century Skills

The term '21st century skills' seems as a modern one, nevertheless, some of these skills are "not new, just newly important" (Silva 2009, p. 631). Critical thinking and problem solving, which have gained importance due to the demands of knowledge-based economies, for example, have always been important in learning. Other skills are new because they are specific to the information era. Pedro (2006) thinks that continual updating is the main solution to meet the challenges of the 21st century. UNESCO's Delors Report (1996) for the 21st century also studied the development trends and concluded that education would be different from that of that period and recommended that it would be built on four key pillars: 1- learning to know, 2- learning to do, 3- learning to live together, and 4 – learning to be.

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The UNESCO's Delors Report was the first starting point that suggests the central education functions in the 21st century. Many other frameworks have been issued suggesting the ways education should be conducted to realise the requirements of the fast-paced technological progress in knowledge-based economy (Enright, 2000).

Among the frameworks supported by international organisations, governments, and consulting firms, we select three of them, based on the geographical origins and the nature of the funding bodies, to clarify the appearance of the main ideas and notions.

2.3.2.1. Framework based on Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (2009)

The OECD framework, which was developed by Ananiado and Claro (2009), was detailed in the document "*Twenty-first Century Skills and Competences for New Millennium Learners in the OECD Countries.*" The authors tried to supply ample definitions and comprehension of the skills and competences needed in the 21st century through examining and reviewing the effects of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) on the new generation. They also studied the resulting changes in the field of teaching and assessment systems of some OECD countries (including Australia, Belgium, Canada, Finland, Ireland, Korea, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Spain and Turkey). Ananiado and Claro designed a framework based on the skills and competences available in the aforementioned countries in relation to ICT role in education. The framework included three major dimensions: 1- Communication, 2- Information, and 3- Ethics and Social Impact.

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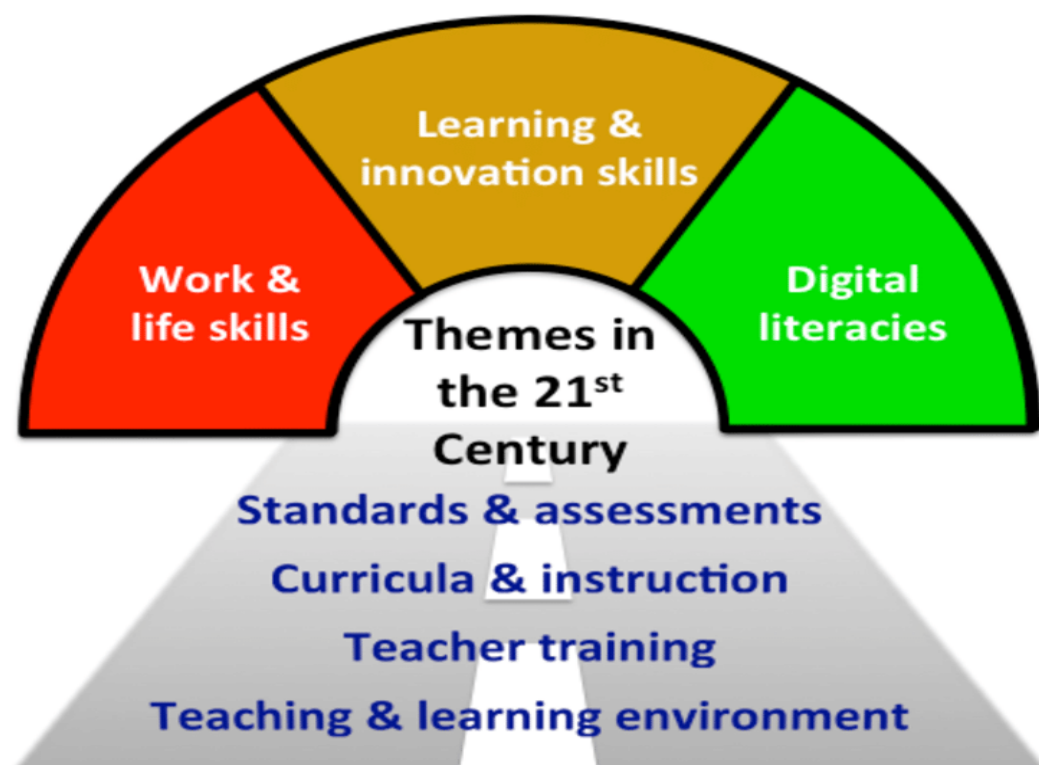
2.3.2.2 Assessment and Teaching of Twenty-first Century Skills (ATCS) (Griffin et al. 2012)

The international research initiative headquartered at the University of Melbourne and sponsored by Cisco, Intel, and Microsoft issued the ATCS framework. It aimed at helping learners develop skills necessary for success in the 21st century workplace. The focus of the group was analysing the roles of standards and assessments in improving the quality learning based on integrating technology to transform assessment systems and education. The ATCS framework categorised the skills into four types: 1- Ways of thinking, 2- Ways of working, Tools for working, 4- Living in the world.

2.3.2.3. Partnership for Twenty-first Century Skills (P21)

The American organisation, which was founded in 2002 by business leaders, consultants, and educators, conceptualised P21 framework. This framework comprises eleven competencies, which are organised in three basic sets: 1- learning and innovation Skills, 2- Information, media, and technology skills, and 3- Life and career skills. The P21 framework also involves standards, assessments, curriculum, instructions, professional development, and learning environments as illustrated in figure 11 on the next page.

Figure 11: Partnership for Twenty-first Century Skills Framework (adapted from P21, 2009)



2.3.1. Components of the Twenty-first Century Skills Sets

The following adapted version of the P21 framework demonstrates the three skill sets and the twelve components they comprise to help readers identify the set to which the following capabilities belong.

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Table 07: Components of each set of twenty-first century skills (adapted from P21, 2009)

3 skill sets	Learning and innovation	Digital literacies	Life and career skills
12 components	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Core subjects . Critical thinking and problem solving . Communication and collaboration . Creativity and innovation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Information literacy . Media literacy . Information and communication technology literacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Flexibility and adaptability . Initiative and self-direction . Social and cross-cultural interaction . Productivity and accountability . Leadership and responsibility

2.3.2.1. Skill Set 1: Learning and Innovation Skills

The learning and innovation skills set comprises four elements covering both knowledge and learning related skills. The core subjects refer to the 3Rs (Reading, wRiting, and aRithmetic) which are indispensable for all learners. The knowledge covered by the core subjects is similar in essence even the labels of the subjects vary across different countries in the world, and generally comprising knowledge of languages, science, mathematics, aesthetics, civics, and humanities.

Among the skills that learners need to thrive in today's global economy are critical thinking and problem solving, communication and collaboration skills, and creativity and innovation skills. These transferable skills prepare young EFL people for the work force and active participation as informed citizens (Anderson, 2014; Leabeater & Wong, 2010).

2.3.3.2. Skill Set 2: Digital Literacies Skills

As stated in table 7, three key components build digital literacies: information literacy (IL), information and communication technology (ICT), and media literacy (ML).

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According to the American Association of School Librarians (AASL, 2007), IL is the individuals' ability to select, evaluate and use information in an effective and ethical way to implement and disseminate their knowledge. Examples of IL include searching for information through the internet or other sources (You Tube, television, books...). The ICT skills refer to the mastery of implementing digital technology, communication tools and networks to integrate, access, manage, evaluate and create bodies of information (definition by International ICT Literacy Panel, 2002). Examples include using MS Excel to produce diagrams, charts, or histograms from a set of data. ML, besides to being interdisciplinary in nature, it concerns the ability to treat messages in different forms. It also refers to the ability to access, analyse, assess, and communicate messages (NAME, 2012).

2.3.3.3 Skill Set 3: Life and Career Skills

To navigate complex life and workplace requirements, the 21st learner needs to develop thinking skills, and social and emotional competencies. Life and career skills offer and aid to learners to be apt for a knowledge-based and globalised economy. These skills include 1-flexibility and adaptability, 2- Initiative and self-direction, 3-Social and cross-cultural skills, 4-Productivity and accountability, and 5- Leadership and responsibility. When these skills are under control, learners can adapt themselves for a more challenging working environment, manage huge workloads, and work and communicate with their counterparts to attain mutual benefits.

2.3.3. Learning and Innovation Skills: 1. Communication

Nowadays, mastering the three 'Rs' (reading, writing and arithmetic) becomes insufficient to cope with the demands of the modern "flat world". If learners want to compete in this global society, they must not rely only on the core subjects, but must be competent

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communicators, creators, critical thinkers, and collaborators (the four Cs). They also need to be proficient in additional subject areas such as foreign languages, arts, geography, science, and social studies because life becomes more complicated and work force skills and demands have changed a lot. In the 21st century, citizenship necessitates good levels of information and technological literacy, and workforce requirements witness a rapid increase in occupations involving non-routine, analytic, and interactive communication skills.

Therefore, the emphasis in the workplace will be on interpersonal (social, communicative) and intrapersonal (self-regulatory) skills, besides to cognitive skills (National Research Council, 2011). This shift in the 21st century workplace has led to increasing pressures on the educational system to instil the skills that are becoming important. One essential response to this requirement is the social emotional learning (SEL) which contains the programmes that foster “core competences to recognise and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, appreciate the perspectives of others, establish and maintain positive relationships, make responsible decisions, and handle interpersonal situations constructively” (Durlak et al., 2011).

According to the American Management Association (AMA 2010) Critical Skills Survey Study, the “four Cs” will become more important to organisations in the near future. More than 75% of executives who took part in the survey affirmed this view and 80% of them believe that fusing the “three Rs” and the “four Cs” would ensure that learners are better prepared to get opportunities in the global workforce.

It is clear now that the school system needs to go hand in hand with the changing world through fully integrating the learning and innovation skills (4Cs) into schools and classrooms to generate citizens and employees ready to face the 21st century challenges.

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Learning and innovation skills are being recognised as the skills that separate students who are prepared for increasingly complex life and work environments in the 21st century, and those who are not. Additionally, it becomes necessary to work effectively to help our learners connect learning to real life and to equip them with the essential competencies that guarantee their success. In this regard, Franklin D. Roosevelt once said, “We cannot build the future of our youth- but we can build our youth for the future” (Dennis Van Roekel, *An Educators Guide to the 4Cs*). This study intends to clarify some aspects of communication, as being highly sought after in today’s world. To help teachers and learners understand these concepts, the skills are treated separately, providing definitions, models, ways of teaching and ways of assessing them.

2.3.3.1. Understanding Communication

Communication is one of the “skills for today” and a key component of the 21st century skills. It can happen in various contexts, take different forms, and serve diverse goals. The communication skills necessary for academic and career success go beyond basic linguistic proficiency to encompass identifying desired outcomes of communicative acts and measuring others’ knowledge and beliefs. These skills are among others that can help people attain happy and successful lives. The Pew Research Centre recently tried to respond to questions about the most important skills for today. Surprisingly, communication skills were chosen by a full 90% ranking them as the most common response (Goo, 2015). Consequently, educators, employers and policy-makers need to highlight the importance of these skills and emphasise them in educational contexts.

The domain of communication is very broad and includes other sub-domains such as reading, writing, interpersonal communication, and public speaking. Academic definitions

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of the term take into consideration features relating to information exchange, exploitation of linguistic and non-linguistic symbols, social interaction, intentionality and mutual understanding (Dance,1970). Thus, communication is a social process in which communicators exchange information to found shared meaning and to attain desired outcomes. Chatting with friends, giving a presentation, reading a newspaper, or writing an email are all real world forms of communication. “It can be verbal or non-verbal, analogue or digital, casual or formal. It can achieve different outcomes: informing, persuading, questioning or entertaining, to name a few” (Metusalem, R., Belenky, D. M., & DiCerbo, K. (2017, p. 5).

2.3.3.2.Importance of communication skills

Communication skills have become a cornerstone in today’s digital world. Studies have shown that communication skills increase learning, target different learning styles foster group work, and help generate new ideas (Hobbs & Frost, 2015). Communication is a keystone of P21 (Partnership for 21st century Skills). It consists of articulating one’s thoughts and ideas orally and listening to others effectively in such a way to pay attention to their messages and perceptions. It also entails using new literacies and diverse technologies to attain knowledge and ascertain its effect. Overall, it is to be able to converse effectively in different contexts even in multi- lingual ones (P21, 2011a).

Research highlights the usefulness of communication skills at all levels. On a personal level, satisfaction in romantic relationships, and healthy levels of cohesion and stability with families, peer acceptance among schoolmates, building friendship, and improved health outcomes all associate with communication skills. Moreover, academic success links to communication skills. Mitigating negative effects of childhood poverty on academic achievement, higher grades and graduation rates also associate with communication skills.

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Not to forget their role in success in professional settings and securing a job and career advancement. On the other hand, anxiety, low grade-point averages, and increased dropout rates relate to decreased communication with instructors. (Metusalem, R., Belenky, D. M., & DiCerbo, K. (2017, pp. 5-6).

2.3.3.3. Models of Communication

Communication research is a broad field covering topics mainly mass communication, computer mediated communication, and interpersonal communication. There is also a number of influential theoretical models of communication models. Metusalem, Belenky, and DiCerbo (2017) in “Skills for Today” mention Aristotle’s Art of Rhetoric, Newcomb’s Model the Shannon , Weaver model, and Berlo’s SMCR model.

2.3.3.3.1. Aristotle’s Model: The Art of Rhetoric Model

This influential communication model which dated back to the 4th century BCE, focussed heavily on persuasion. Aristotle suggests the modes of Ethos, Pathos and Logos. The first mode concerns the power of persuasion, which can be achieved by wisdom or good intentions in order to establish credibility with the audience. The second mode, pathos, refers to the audience’s emotions. It aims at making him more receptive to a discussion. Logos, the third mode, refers to the argument’s logic and its role of effectiveness in persuasion. These modes of Aristotle’s model draw special attention to some important aspects of communication such as the act of communication, which has a desired outcome (convincing an audience), and the factors affecting communication such as emotions, beliefs, and social orientations of people involved. Besides, the content and structure of the message is another factor that helps achieve effective communication.

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2.3.4.3.2. Newcomb's Model

Newcomb's model (1953) of interpersonal communication addresses the two-way forms of communication in which communicators act as both as sender and receiver in interactive exchanges of information. According to this model, communication is seen as a means to help communicators realise a state of equilibrium between their feelings and beliefs, not only with respect to topic of communication, but with respect to one another as well. The model is based on the notion of ethos originated by Aristotle and which stresses the significance of social orientation of each communicator towards the other.

2.3.3.3.2. Shannon and Weaver Model

The highly influential Shannon and Weaver (1964) Model focused on the engineering of electronic communication systems. The model draws heavily on the following elements of communication systems:

- Source: The speaker or the sender of a message.
- Message: The sentence or the code expressing the information source's intended meaning.
- Transmitter: The apparatus, which includes the mouth and vocal cords, which interprets the message into a signal.
- Signal: The physical output, sound waves, of the transmitter.
- Channel: The medium (air) through which the signal travels.
- Receiver: The apparatus, or the listener's eardrum, that translates the signal back into a message.
- Destination: The message interpreter must recover the meaning desired by the information source.

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- Noise: Undesired alterations to the signal such as a loud cough.

(Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 7)

The above constituents draw special attention to some general characteristics of communication systems. The source or the sender and the destination constitute essential elements for communication, which involves the transfer of meaning. Meaning is interpreted into message, then into signal, next back to message, and finally back to meaning. Weaver clarifies that retrieving meaning from a message is not an easy task and depends on the sender's crafting of the message and the capability of the receiver to translate the message as intended. The channel of communication is also an indispensable component in this model, and according to Shannon and Weaver, it concerns the engineering issues such as information capacity, signal capacity with special emphasis on the importance of the means of the message transmission. The message transmission can take many forms not exhaustively, face-to-face interaction, instant messaging, oral presentation, written report.

2.3.4.3.4. Berlo's SMCR model

Unlike the Shannon and Weaver's model, which ignored human elements of communication, Berlo's (1960) seminal source- message- channel- receiver (SMCR) model contained components that influence the communication effectiveness. The model highlights the influence of communicators' attitudes, communication skill, background knowledge, and the social and cultural backgrounds to the success of conveying meaning. Regarding the message to convey meaning, Berlo stressed the role of content, structure, manner, particular form, and body language that accompanies it. Concerning the channel, this model focuses on the role of the five senses, as the fact of communication is the transmission of a signal and can involve any number of senses.

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The above small selection of theoretical approaches to communication are in agreement with the complexity of communication and collectively draw special attention to the following principles about it:

- Communication concerns expressing meaning.
- Meaning is required to obtain some outcome (e.g., informing, persuading, questioning).
- Meaning is expressed indirectly and must be transmitted through a message, which is interpreted personally by communicators.
- A message's success in conveying the desired meaning is dependent on the message's content, structure, and delivery.
- Messages can contain any linguistic and para-linguistic symbols.
- Messages can be sent via channels or mediums, holding particular aspects that affect messages' layout and meaning.
- Communicators' roles are crucial to the successful conveying of meaning.
- Communication can take the form of one-way or with an interlocutor.
- The messages are affected by emotions, beliefs, knowledge, social and cultural background, social orientation towards other communicators, and communication skills.
- Effective communication requires skills that help the successful expressing of message and the obtaining of the desired outcomes. (Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 7).

The last point suggests that the sender of the message has to reliably shape and present a clear message that conveys the targeted meaning and realise the desired outcome. On the other hand, the receiver should have the listening skills to interpret the intended meaning addressed by the sender. In the next section, we discuss some necessary skills for effective communication.

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2.3.3.4. Core Communication Skills

A person is socially skilled based on:

The extent to which he/she can communicate with others, in a manner that fulfils one's rights, requirements, satisfactions, or obligations to a reasonable degree without damaging the other person's similar rights, satisfactions, or obligations, and hopefully shares these rights, etc. with others in free and open exchange (Phillips, 1978, p. 13).

Communicators should possess skills for sending and receiving messages successfully and implement them in a variety of communicative contexts, with different groups of communicators and across various channels. With respect to the sender- receiver dichotomy, the following set includes some broadly practical domain-general skills encountered in real life situations. The discussion will emphasise first on skills necessary for producing effective messages, followed by focus on skills essential for successfully receiving messages.

2.3.3.4.1. Productive Skills

The section below summarises the factors and components needed for the messages production.

2.3.4.4.1.1. Identifying desired outcomes

Attaining any intended outcome, which is the requirement of any communication act, constitutes the starting point of effective communication. Combs and Slaby (1977, p. 162) defined social skill as "the ability to interact with others in a given social context in specific ways that are socially acceptable or valued and at the same time personally beneficial, mutually beneficial, or beneficial primarily to others". Identifying outcomes implies the ability to reason about principled outcomes with regard to any particular communicative act.

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Austin's (1962, cited in Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 10) concepts of illocution and perlocution serve this latter purpose. Illocution concerns the function of the communicative act whereas, perlocution refers to the effect the communicative act has on the receiver of the message. This idea is formerly expressed in Aristotle's Rhetoric focused on persuasion as a kind of perlocution in educational and professional contexts. Hence, when communicating, an effective sender must decide on the illocution, perlocution or both of them. Once this achieved, the sender must construct the production.

2.3.4.4.1.2. Crafting Clear Messages

After identifying the intended outcome, the sender has to shape the message that both necessarily gives a clear image of the gist of meaning and contributes to the attainment of the outcome. A clear message requires not only appropriate vocabulary, grammar, and logical structures, but also implies pragmatics and issues related to the message context. The best ideas in pragmatics to mention in this situation are Grice's (1975) maxims of conversational "cooperation"

1. provide the precise information;
1. present only necessary information;
2. be accurate and avoid redundancy;
3. Do not share fake information.

Applying these principles helps the receiver to interpret the message successfully and enhances positive social orientations. Non-linguistic components also offer clarity to the message: emblems, illustrators, regulators, adaptors and effect displays can convey mean-

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ings, beliefs and feelings. The non-linguistic message components can also regulate the dynamics of interpersonal interaction, or substitute for verbal information (Ekman & Friesen, 1969. Cited in Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 10).

2.3.4.4.1.3. Modelling Others' minds

Message production skills aim at helping the encoder to express the message clearly, taking into account that the meaning of the message is dependent on the interpretation of the decoder. This latter idea suggests the sender to acquire the skills to produce messages that are understandable and appropriate to the receiver to help him/her interpret them as intended. This skill of modelling others' minds is learnt in childhood (Bretherton, McNew, & Beeghly-Smith, 1981; Goldman, 2012) and is known as "Theory of mind" (Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 11).

2.3.4.4.1.4. Adhering to Conventions

Considering and committing to conventions is critical to crafting messages to be interpreted as intended. Different disciplines have their own conventions and use their own norms of discourse (Hagge, 1977 in Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 11). Therefore, the encoder of the message must account for the variety of conventions used in different disciplines, communication media, and professions. In academic writing, associations propose their own style manuals to guide participants on their norms of their disciplines. In business, individual organisations have their own communication conventions and can vary them over time to respond to the effective norms of attaining business goals (Suchan, 2006).

2.3.4.4.1.5. Accounting for social and cultural differences

One challenge to creating a message that will be decoded as intended is that communicators come from diverse social and cultural backgrounds. Generally, cultures may differ in

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two level aspects: low-level aspects and high-level aspects. In low-level aspects, communicators may encounter problems of speech pacing and pausing. In high-level aspects, the problem lies in the use of indirect language leading to miscommunication (Tannen, 1994. Cited in Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 11). To overcome this issue, and among the numerous models proposed, Wiseman suggests the concept of intercultural communicative competence “knowledge, motivation, and skills to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures (2002, p. 28).

2.3.4.4.1.6. Selecting Appropriate channels

In the modern world, communication channels multiply; besides to traditional forms such as presentations, papers, face-to-face conversations, there are other modern ones consisting of websites, blogs, wikis, and social media, and each of them has its advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, the message sender ought to select the most effective channel of communication to achieve the desired outcome. To exemplify, the sender could email the receiver to avoid disturbances and interruptions even the instant message can lead to an immediate answer and the former to a delayed one (Turner, Qvarfordt, Biehl, Golovchinsky, &Black, 2010).

2.3.4.4.2. Reception Skills

Message reception depends on many of the message production skills, as its interpretation entails linguistic and non-linguistic competencies. Moreover, receivers are required to model the sender's mind to get the gist of the intended meanings, and to possess the skills of intercultural communication when dealing with people of other social and cultural backgrounds. Besides, to message production skills, receiving messages calls for other skills such

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as those involved in listening and reading. Ergo, decoders need active attention to the message, monitor of their understanding, and consideration of the sender's intentions, emotions, and background.

2.3.4.4.2.1. Active listening

The best communicators are generally the best listeners. Active listening, which is one of the fundamental pillars to understanding the information appropriately, is essential in all contexts of communication. About active listening face-to-face communication, Hoppe (2007 cited in (Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 13) suggests the below six specific skills:

- 1- **Paying attention:** attending to the speaker's message builds a rapport and understanding, motivates communicators to say more and express themselves freely. Immediacy (behaviours that show a desire to communicate) behaviours are also useful. The listener proves his attention through looking at the person (good eye contact), gestures, smiling, nodding the head from time to time to acknowledge points.
- 2- **Withholding judgement:** emphatic listening helps the listener decode the message as intended. Understanding the emotions and underlying feelings of the speaker helps the decoder avoid misinterpretation of the message depending on his/her preconceived beliefs and social and cultural norms. Therefore, active Listening should be without judgment and for responding not reacting.
- 3- **Reflecting:** Being aware of the prejudices or misconceptions fosters communication. Reflecting entails paraphrasing the message, repeating key points to avoid possible misunderstanding, and clarify understanding of the message.

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- 4- **Clarifying:** Clarifying stimulates the speaker to provide the needed information through responding to questions that supply better quality information and help crystallise their thoughts. On the other hand, it helps the listener understand the speaker's views, feelings and attitudes.
- 5- **Summarising:** To identify any misunderstanding or unclear issues, summarising can improve the quality and accuracy of the meaning. Besides, the listener can ask probing questions by the end of the listening process to delve more deeply into the speaker's final point of view.
- 6- **Sharing:** The process of exchanging information and informing the speaker about our own points of view and feelings with respect to what the speaker conveyed comes at the end of the listening process. During the whole process, it is preferably for the listener neither to interrupt the speaker nor to ask the devil's advocate (provocative questions). The aforementioned active listening skills are especially critical in the expanding of accurately and objectively regaining intended meaning in the field of interpersonal communication.

2.3.4.4.2.2 Deep Reading

In written communication, the focus is not on the active listening skills but on 'deep' or 'close' reading skills. The receiver focuses mainly on critical analysis. Davis (1944, cited in Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 13) suggests the following basic reading skills: Knowing word meanings, answering questions using information stated in the text, drawing inferences about unstated information, determining a writer's intent. The above complex skills start to obtain the concept of 'deep' or 'close' reading. Wolf and Brazillai (2009, p. 32) define this latter as "The array of sophisticated processes that propel comprehension and that include inferential and deductive reasoning, analogical skills, critical analysis,

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reflection, and insight". Conclusively, these skills are applicable, not only to reading books and papers, but to any message requiring critical analysis and reflection. Additionally, close-reading skills interchange largely with general thinking skills (Ventura, Lai, & Decerbo, 2017 cited in Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 13). Table 8 summarises the core communication skills providing examples of behaviours and exhibiting the application of the skills.

Table 8: Communication skills with example behaviours (Metusalem, Belenky, & DiCerbo, 2017, p. 13).

Skill	Description	Example Behaviours
Identify desired outcome	Decide on one or more desired outcomes or results of the communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Pinpoint an author's principal argument -Identify the information needed to suitably respond to an enquiry. -Distinguish information that is unnecessary to the main point of a discussion.
Craft clear messages	Generate messages that precisely express the desired outcome, appropriately using paralinguistic cues (body language, visual aids)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Produce grammatically mistake free sentences - Effectively employ hand movements for emphasis - Eliminate digressions - Clarify a concept by using a diagram
Model others' minds	Identify and account for others' understanding, beliefs, attitudes, and emotions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - identify an audience's position of knowledge or expertise in a subject - Clarify how personal background might influence explanation of message -Anticipate emotional response or receptiveness to an expression or argument

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to Adhere conventions	Pursue the rules or standards of specific disciplines or situations	-Use rhetorical strategies regular to discipline -Apply terminology congruent with usage in domain - Mention sources appropriately - Note or utter at the adequate level of formality
Account for social and cultural differences	Identify and explain variability in social and cultural standards	-Identify cultural differences in communicative standards - Eliminate culturally particular slang or idioms - Look for information on an unknown culture before initiating cross-cultural exchange
Select appropriate channels	Employ the most adequate communicative channel	- Report the advantages and disadvantages of emailing or instant messaging to manage a conversation - Decide whether an in person conversation will be more useful than a remote conversation
Active listening	Actively listen a sender's message, constrain judgment, monitor and clarify comprehension	-Keep eye contact while listening - Ask for clarification when needed - Avoid making unnecessary assumptions - Accurately reformulate a sender's message
Deep reading	Critically examine passage or speech, monitor understanding, draw conclusions, question, and reflect	- Decide on important information in a passage or presentation - Critically examine an argument - Draw inferences about implicit information - Identify own uncertainty

2.3.4.4.3. Teaching Communication Skills

Implementing 21st century skills relies heavily on good practices, which encourage teachers and stakeholders to focus on real life obstacles, support learning experience based on inquiry, offer opportunities to learning through collaborative project approaches, and focus on making students aware of how to learn. At the heart of all these best practices lies

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the communication skill. Research on teaching communication skills deals with the issue holistically as reading, public speaking, or interpersonal communication. In the next section, the review will be on empirical research about best practices that help learners be prepared for encounters in future and academic contexts.

2.3.4.4.3.1. Public Speaking

Oral presentation or public speaking is a major aspect of communication that many learners are suffering from. The reason for this suffering links directly to oral communication apprehension. The notion 'communication apprehension' was introduced in 1970 as a form of anxiety related to oral communication (Nakatani, 2006). Therefore, researchers developed many instructional approaches attempting to help learners defeat their fear when giving presentations. A meta-analysis by Allen, Hunter, and Donohue (1989) come up with the most effective approaches that combine:

- Relaxation strategies to relieve physiological arousal;
- Cognitive re-estimation to re-plan the experience;
- Public speaking skill exercise to help improve confidence

The recent review of literature by Van Ginkel and colleagues (Van Ginkel, Gulikers, Biemans, & Mulder, 2015) generated a formulation of the following seven design principles for enhancing oral presentation skill:

- Set plain learning outcomes
- Make presentations congruent to authentic tasks in the discipline
- Portray expert and peer patterns of successful performance
- Propose performance opportunities.
- Supply clear and timely feedback.

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- Have colleagues provide constructive feedback.
- Aid students to tackle self-assessment, potentially by exploiting video recordings.

Using video resources that model conversation skills and students' practice of video recording themselves can ease self-reflection about their own performance, diagnose areas needing improvement, boost their confidence, and reduce their communication apprehension. Furthermore, feedback from peers and teachers when combined with recordings proved to be very beneficial for enhancing presentation skills (Van Ginkel et al., 2017). Another advantage of the use of the video- recorded practice is the learners' self-assessment, particularly in the availability of agreed upon rubrics.

2.8.4.4.3.2. Interpersonal Communication

One of the best techniques to teach interpersonal communication is the role-play, due to its resemblance to the real world situations. An example of the role-play, learners may be asked to play the roles of a salesperson and a customer in a shopping situation (Carrol, 2006). The "Johari Window Opportunity" is also operational to acquire interpersonal communication, as the communication process takes place at two levels: a) the overt level and which concerns what is actually said. , and b) the covert or hidden level and it refers to what is actually meant?

2.3.4.4.3.3. Writing

Recently, instructional approaches to writing have shifted from product writing to process writing. This latter stresses the steps of brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing to improve the effectiveness of writing. Besides, the use of effective writing strategies, the mood of positive attitudes towards the domain and about learners themselves as writers constitute another impulse to teaching effective written communication. The intervention

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expounded by De La Paz and Graham (2002) which consisted of training learners on effective learning strategies blended with suggestions and guidance on the writing process and self-regulatory strategies showed that trained learners wrote essays of high quality. A summary of the plan is given below.

Table 9: The PLAN-WRITE strategy (adapted from De La Paz and Graham (2002)).

Strategy	Description
Attend to the prompt	Recognise the item meant to be addressed and think about how a writing passage could respond it.
Note main ideas	Jot down some main ideas and choose some to focus on.
Add supporting ideas	Improve details and elaborations that empower the main ideas
Number your ideas	Consider the order of covering the main topics
Select from your plan	Ascertain that your writing contains the main ideas and links them to the thesis
Remember your goals	Think about your personal desires for the task and think on how you are progressing
Integrate transition words	Insert transition words, especially between paragraphs, to orient the reader
Try to use variety of sentences	Vary sentence patterns to hold the attention of the reader
Exciting, impressive words	Word choice can help render the text more impressive to read

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To summarise effective approaches, a list consisting of strategy instruction, as the one discussed above, training learners on how to summarise texts, collaborative writing and support for effective- goal setting (Graham & Perin, 2007) could be at the forefront. Peer review and instructor review are also good strategies to improve the writing skill. Additionally, other forms of written communication as emails, text messages, and instant messaging apps. become the dominant forms on which the modern world run on, and which need training on how to implement them successfully.

2.3.4.5. Teaching Reception Skills

The section below demonstrates the ways for teaching the reception skills, the intercultural skills and how to assess them.

2.3.4.5.1 Active listening

Efficient listening involves the integration of both top and bottom information the listener is able to exploit. The top down processing involves the listener in actively processing meaning. The listener exploits previous experiences, expectations, intentions, inferences, and schemata. On the other hand, the bottom-up listening is linear, data-driven process. To attain listening competence, Listening practice needs to be more task-based, more related to the notion of “authenticity” for listening materials. This latter need to be interpreted more broadly and that L2 listeners need to be encouraged to take more responsibility for developing their listening ability. Consequently, teachers need to work with a framework, which describes listening ability as a whole, in terms of competencies students needs to become proficient listeners. These competencies, described by Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006), involve linguistic, discoursed, pragmatic and sociolinguistic/intercultural knowledge and the ability to use that knowledge appropriately in specific listening contexts.

2.3.4.5.2. Reading Comprehension

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Research on reading comprehension in the English-speaking world of today can be divided into two perspectives, the “narrow” and the “broad.” The narrow perspective focuses upon the abilities of individuals, and it is psycho-linguistically-oriented research interested not only in establishing the components necessary for reading, but also with attempts to model the reading process by specifying the relations between components. On the other hand, the broad perspective is not concerned with the psycholinguistic process of reading, nor with how well the reader comprehends, but rather with literacy as social practice (social patterns of activities involving reading and social values attaching to these activities).

More importantly, the Self-explanation Reading Training Approach has gained a great value in empirical research (McNamara, 2005). The approach supports the process of explaining to one’s self the meaning of what one is reading. The following table describes the six strategies prescribed in SERT (Self-Explanation Reading Training):

Table 10: Strategies and descriptions used in Self-Explanation Reading Training (SERT), adapted from McNamara (2005)

Strategy	Description
Comprehension monitoring	Verifying one’s comprehension to ascertain that the text has been understood
Paraphrasing	Rewriting the text into one’s own ideas
Elaboration	Generate inferences that relate the text to related knowledge
Using logic	Associating text to common sense or daily knowledge
Prediction	create predictions of what might come afterwards in the text
Bridging inference	joining individual sentences together and portray their relation

2.3.4.5.3. Teaching Intercultural Communication Skills

The need for communication skills in the context of international discussions has become more widely acknowledged. Conversing with people from various social and

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cultural backgrounds, and functioning in two or three languages gained great importance. Ergo, in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, scholars of culture have designed grids to define and assess intercultural communication, as competence in this latter helps in understanding awareness of cultural diversity, teaches skills of showing respect to other cultures, and more importantly, preventing cultural conflicts and establishing continuous intercultural verbal contact.

Developing intercultural communication requires specific methods, techniques and materials. Among them, the direct instruction on important background knowledge, and practice with strategies indispensable for fostering intercultural communication. Group discussion is one of these approaches (Matveeva, 2008). Asking learners to gather artefacts of the target language (documentaries, videos, reports, books...) are helpful activities to learn the language and explore its culture (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2008). Another important approach is the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) developed by David March (2002). The approach is meant as March said in one of his interviews to “enhance and accelerate content learning, language learning and basically having fun” (November 11th, 2010). Other scientists (Cummins, J., Coyle, D., Hood, P. and Marsh, D.) distinguish a four-component system of CLIL: content, communication, cognition and culture (4 Cs). Additionally, living in a global digital culture makes the use of information and communication technology (ICT) in the educational context a must, and its accompanying effects in terms of learning often go beyond what any educational facilitator can predict. An example of the modern successful experiences is Office InterActors, a European project and online course that brought together learners from six countries, and an online course run within the framework of an e-twinning partnership. Consequently, ICT tools used in learning open up venues of creativity that can connect education, business and

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culture. Robinson (2011) explains, “Now, more than ever, we need to exercise the unique creative powers that make us human in the first place” (p. 17).

2.3.4.6. Assessing Communication Skills.

Assessing the 21st skills requires other assessment approaches different from the ones dominated assessment systems in the past , as some of them become inappropriate for gauging some skills as interpersonal skills of teamwork, communication, collaboration, creativity... In the next section, we summarise the current state of the art in gauging communication, highlighting the most popular practices of assessment, both self-ratings and rating by others, with some emphasis on the growing area of performance measurements, which exploit the advances of technology.

2.3.4.6.1. Self-ratings

Assessors can apply self-ratings to measure any 21st century constructs. Their uses comprise programme evaluation, background questionnaires and surveys, such as National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), and self-improvement, and engagement surveys as the High School Survey of Student Engagement (HSSSE; Yazzie-Mintz, 2010). The HSSSE questions students on the amount of time they spend on different activities and to what extent the activities are important to them, giving choice between: - not at all, - a little, - somewhat important, - very important, - or top priority. On the other hand, PISA applies Likert scales to get information on students' factors' like motivation and engagement abilities. Nowadays, there is an extensive use of the NAEP to assess the mentioned learners' factors (Smith, Chudowsky, Ginsburg, Hauser, Jennings, & Lewis, S. 2012).

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Due to the problems observed in using Likert scales such as the subjectivity, the openness to different interpretations by different people, and rendering the results hard to interpret, the behaviourally anchored rating scales (BARS) comes to be the substitution. BARS scales are similar to Likert scales, but with behavioural descriptions along the different steps of the scale. The anchoring vignette which is another new way with high validity characteristics, relies on asking respondents to assess people or situations on the construct of interest, using those judgements as anchors around which to place a respondents' actual ratings (Hopkins & King, 2010 cited in Kyllonen, 2012). A third method for increasing the comparability of ratings across people is the forced choice (the preference method). Students using the forced method are asked to mention their preferred item, rather than rating on a five point Likert scale.

2.3.4.6.2. Other's Ratings

Compared to self-ratings, other's assessment of personal factors, as shown in research, are more precise, far from bias, and very predictive of the results (Connelly & Ones, 2010). Not to forget that both of them add predictive validity to each other.

PISA, for example, relies on parents' questionnaires, NAEP on teacher questionnaires, and other large-scale assessments contain either of the two or both of them. These different perspectives (students, parents, and teachers) are good ways to predict students' outcomes.

2.3.4.6.3. Situational Judgement Tests

Situational judgement tests (SJT) are types of assessments in which respondents tell about their best responses to the situation. The responses often include Likert scale, or multiple choice. SJTs become popular rating methods for being appropriate to measure hard-to-measure constructs (teamwork, communication, and other 21st skills). Besides, the tests are

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founded on critical studies of job incumbent performance. They also mix between the rating of cognitive and non-cognitive skills (skills developed through schooling that are not reflected in cognitive test scores).

2.3.4.6.3. Biodata

It is the collection of activities (biographical, or bioactivities) that are considered indicators of students having attained a skill or a competence. An example of the biodata assessment is the one of college applicants conducted by Oswald et al.(2004) and Schmitt, et al. (2007) including biodata measures planned to track some of the 21st century skills.

New developments as the one known as badges raised interest in biodata measures. A badge is an approval for a fulfilment of a task that takes place outside school, but accounted for by schools or companies as a skill or competency attainment. The use of the “big data” technology is another advancement to verify information spread over social media such as Facebook, LinkedIn, Myspace, Google+, and Twitter.

2.3.4.6.5. Performance Tests

The desire to design performance tests originated to reduce subjectivity observed within the implementation of some of the aforementioned measures. Attempting to assess non-cognitive skills with objective ratings goes back to Cattell (1957, 1973). Unlike self-assessment of emotional intelligence where the examinee is asked to assess his/her competencies in interpreting emotions, a performance test might include photograph of a face and ask the candidate to give a judgement of the expressed emotion. Other forms of performance measures can include collaborative problem solving, and creativity, which proved to be appropriate to measure some of the 21st skills.

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2.3.5. Learning and Innovation Skills: 2- Collaboration

The ability to work successfully with others has gained importance as an indispensable skill for career and life success. Nowadays, organisations emphasise on structures that encourage and support team-based work, because employment seeks a workforce of flexible and collaborative learners with complex cognitive skills (American Management Association, 2010).

Collaboration is a 21st century trend that changed the type of learning from teacher centred to a team- based learning. Most 21st century models consider it a key skill and an important educational outcome (Griffin, McGaw, & Care, 2012; Pellegrino & Hilton, 2012; OECD PISA Collaborative Problem Solving Expert Working Group, 2013; Trilling & Fadel, 2009). The P21 considers collaboration as one of the 4Cs and a fundamental skill along with creativity, critical thinking, and communication. Collaboration can take any form ranging from face -to -face with colleagues to mediated interactions. “Collaboration is worthy of inclusion as 21st century skill because the importance of co-operative interpersonal capabilities is higher and the skills involved are more sophisticated than in the prior industrial era” (Dade, 2010, p.2).

2.3.5.1. Definition of Collaboration

In a widely- used definition of collaborative learning, Dillenbourg (1999) states it as “ a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together,” and more specifically as joint problem solving (p.1). Roshelle and Tesley (1995) define collaboration as “coordinated, synchronous activity that is the result of a continued attempt to construct and maintain a shared conception of a problem” (p.70). In a similar way, it is

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defined as “the activity of working together towards a common goal” (Hesse, Care, Buder, Sassenburg, & Griffun et al. 2015, p. 38).

2.3.5.2. Models of Collaboration

The various theoretical approaches to studying collaboration are surprising; Kuhn's (2015) classification of research on collaboration in the education contexts generated two broad categories. In the first one described by Kuhn as ‘the longer standing view’ (p. 46), collaboration is seen as the process leading to successful problem solving and enhanced intellectual development of both the individual and the group. This perspective aims at studying how working in teams of different sizes helps individuals attain certain cognitive outcomes. Within this paradigm, Dillenbourg, Baker, Blaye, & O'mlay et al. (1995) details three various conceptual approaches: 1) the social constructivist approach, 2) the sociocultural approach, and 3) the shared cognition or interactionist approach.

The first approach, the social constructivist approach, arises from the Piaget's work and regards collaboration as a catalyst for the individual's cognitive development (Chi, & Wylie, 2014). The second approach, the socio-cultural approach, expresses Vygotsky's view of social interaction as a transaction in which social interactions are internalised resulting appropriate new understandings for learners. The best example of this formulation is Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD) which is the distance between what learners can accomplish by themselves, and what they can accomplish with the help of a more capable person. The third approach, the shared cognition (interactionist) emphasises that we cannot separate social interactions from the individual learner's thoughts and actions (Plucker & Barab, 2005).

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Kuhn's second category deals with conceptualisations of collaboration as a 21st century skill, and considers it an important educational outcome in and of itself. This approach relies on P21 framework's concept of collaboration, which highlights four subskills of collaboration. These include: 1) showing the ability to work effectively and respectfully with diverse teams, 2) exercising flexibility and willingness to offer help in making necessary compromises to fulfil a common goal, 3) assuming shared responsibility for collaborative work, and 4) valuing the individual contributions made by each individual member. Samples of this second category include Johnson and Johnson's (1994) seminal work on collaborative learning which calls for three types of learning behaviours: competitive, individualistic, and cooperative. Johnson and Johnson define cooperative learning as group work in which learners have "vested interest in each other's learning as well as their own" (p. 31). They affirm that all the three behaviours are essential for the learning process even they occur at different degrees. Learners work as largely competitive, and to a lesser degree individualistic. Johnson and Johnson focused their work on facilitating students' cooperation skills for the sake of improving them (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1983).

The Assessment and Teaching of the 21st Century Skills Project (ACT21) views collaboration and teamwork as a "way of working" and specifies a set of associated knowledge, skills and attitudes. Besides to the subskills of collaboration in the P21, the ACT21 calls out the skill of guiding and leading others and an attitude of being responsible to others (Binkley, Erstad, Hermen, Raizen, Ripley, Miller-Ricci, & Rumble, 2012). Stevens and Campion (1994) give one of the most cited conceptualisations of collaboration and teamwork in higher education. They identify two dimensions of collaboration:

- interpersonal skills, which includes:

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- **Conflict resolution:** identifying constructive versus destructive disagreement and implementing conflict resolution techniques.
- **Collaborative Problem Solving:** fostering group inclusion during problem-solving,
- **Communication:** applying open and encouraging communication.

The second dimension encompasses self- management talents and contains:

- **Goal- setting and performance management:** planning for specific and challenging outcomes, monitoring practice, and offering feedback,
- **Planning and task coordination:** designing coordination of information and plans, and ensuring fair distribution of labour. (Lai, Dicerbo, & Foltz, 2017, p.9).

2.3.5.3. Levels of Collaboration Skill Development

The research on how collaboration skills develop in infants and children (Tomasello & Hamann, 2012). Zhuang, MacCann, Wang, Liu and Roberts (2008 cited in Lai, Dicerbo, & Foltz, 2017) discovered that teamwork skills assessed by self-report and situational judgement tasks improve with age in adolescents. On the other hand, Schellens, Van Keer, and Valcke (2005) introduced performance scales to identify different levels of collaboration and came up with five levels of collaborative knowledge construction:

- Level 1: spreading and comparing information with a concentration on attention, agreement, cooperation, clarification, and definition.
- Level 2: Dissonance or inconsistency with a focus on identifying and clarifying conflicts.
- Level 3: Co-construction with focus on compromising and proposing new ideas that resolve disagreements.

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- Level 4: Testing contingent constructions with a focus on corroborating new ideas versus other resources and perspectives.
- Level 5: Application of recently constructed knowledge with a focus on supporting co-constructed knowledge.

Table 11: Collaboration and teamwork performance levels (Lai, Dicerbo & Foltz, 2017 p. 11).

NON-PARTICIPANT	PARTICIPATOR	COOPERATOR	COORDINATOR	CONFLICT RESOLVER
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Does not take part in the task or is so often off-task that he/she does no contribution to the group objective. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participates in the activity, but does not collaborate with peers or with the group process - Takes part in discussions - Speaks own opinion and view - Stays focused on the topic. - Tackles some tasks individually 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Collaborates with the group process, but does not coordinate the participations with those of others. - Pays attention without interrupting. - Actively values other's ideas. - Accepts assigned exercises. - Obeys the group consensus. - Considers other's ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Associates both processes and products with those of colleagues, but does not work out major conflicts. - Attentively listens. - Exchanges constructive feedback. - Modifies ideas/process to accommodate colleagues. - Seeks consensus. - Works out minor disagreements effectively. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Student associates processes and products with those of colleagues. - Solves both major and minor disagreements effectively. - Conveys disagreements honestly but tactfully. - Assists group decisions even in total disagreement. - Seeks Compromise and negotiation to reach solution

The Pearson's Personal and Social Capabilities Framework takes into consideration not only the role a learner plays, but the task demands and the roles played by the other members

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of the group. These roles which reflect the differences in the extent to which a person regards the opinions of others, permits those opinions to affect their own ideas and processes, and hence, can lead to communication and resolve of minor and major conflicts honestly, tactfully and with diplomacy. Apparently, a single task may not elicit all roles. The type of tasks that assist the improvement of the different roles should foster the generation of ideas, prioritisation of opinions and the making of selections to converge towards more need for coordination and conflict resolution.

2.3.5.4. Teaching Collaboration Skills

Understanding how to teach or coach learners in developing collaboration and teamwork skills is a major step towards achieving the potential benefits of these skills. Nevertheless, there is no evidence that having learners work in groups will foster their collaboration skills. Comparatively, giving learners experience working in groups is different from having them practise their skills; practice implies “noticing what you are doing wrong and formulating strategies to do better (Rotherham, & Willingham, 2010, p. 10).

Kuhn's (2015) research review on collaboration as pathway perspective yields some important remarks about intervention studies. The surprisingly rarefied carefully controlled research on this topic, with few experimental studies for practice guidance is the first remark. Secondly, collaboration does not always fit all learners learning strategies as some of them learn at times better when working individually. Thirdly, an effective group may be due to the efforts of one competent individual. Fourthly, the intervention research conducted on collaboration focused on the learning of individuals within groups not on the achievements of the groups themselves.

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There are several examples of interventions for optimising learners' collaboration and teamwork skills. Chen et al. (2004) suggest a course for undergraduate level on teamwork skills for the work place comprising the following components:

- Explicit teaching of teamwork skills and collaboration strategies;
- Use of in-class group tasks;
- Implementation of three assessment centre exercises that encourage more “real world” cooperation experiences;
- A relatively considerable weight given to the collaborative items in terms of course grade.

2.3.5.4.1. Best Practices for teaching Collaboration

Emerging research on how to implement collaboration in school practices encourages teachers and other stakeholders to consider and prioritise these focal points; a) focus on real world problems and processes, b) support inquiry-based learning experiences c) provide opportunities for collaborative project approaches to learning, d) focus on teaching learners how to learn (Pacific Research Learning Centre, 2010 p.13). Several tactics have been suggested as effective in instructing the principles of collaboration. Founding team agreements and responsibility for assigned tasks paves the stage for division of labour and synergy of efforts. Teaching listening skills helps the generation of an environment where learners can share, receive and apply ideas. Teaching the art of asking open-ended questions and thought-provoking inquiries makes easy the spread of knowledge and helps improvement of optimised solutions. Furthermore, showing negotiation skills, listening patiently, flexibility, articulation of agreement points, and maintaining the ability to think clearly under pressure, is

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very important in any collaborative situation (Albert, 2012). The next section, discusses the best practices for implementing 21st century skills: Project-based learning, problem-based learning, and design-based learning as appropriate practices to teach collaboration.

2.3.5.4.2. Project-Based Learning

The main objective behind project-based learning is to offer learners the opportunity to direct, manage and take responsibility of their learning process. They design and construct actual solutions to real life problems when working in groups (Cornell University, 2014a). Trilling and Fadel (2009) describe the five key characteristics of effective project learning:

- Project outcomes are tied to curriculum and learning goals;
- Driving questions and problems lead learners to central concepts or principals of the topic or subject area;
- Learners' investigations and research involve enquiry and knowledge building;
- Learners are responsible for designing and managing much of their learning; and
- Projects are based on authentic real-life problems and questions that students care about (p. 109).

Project-based learning is an ideal instructional method for achieving the objectives of the twenty-first education. Tackling projects in teams requires learners to look for beyond subject boundaries, fulfil their parts of the project, criticise each other's work, and achieve a professional quality product to develop real world problem solving skills. Besides, learners' motivation to manage their time and presentation of their products will supply them with needed skills to get prepared for the 21st century workplace (P21, 2007b).

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2.3.5.4.3. Problem-Based Learning

A problem-based learning, which is a kind of project-based learning, inspires learners to focus on complex real life problems using a case study approach. Research by Bransford et al. (cited in P21, 2007a, p.8) states that learners are more successful at applying knowledge learnt at school when instruction explicitly fosters the process of transfer by providing real-world situations. When learners collaborate to look for and suggest solutions to problems, they create both a collaborative and multifaceted environment in which they can discover various solutions and best practices for dealing with projects.

2.3.5.4.4. Design-Based Learning

Designed-based learning has its most influence in the area of maths and science (Darling-Hammond et al., 2008). General design-based learning activities comprise robotics competitions; learner teams construct and pilot their robots in a series of competitive challenges. According to Hmelo, Holton, and Kolodner (2000), learners taking part in learning by design projects gain a more systematic understanding of a system's parts and functions that control groups (Pacific Research Learning Center, 2010, p.13). Collaborative and inquiry-based learning face a number of challenges, among them is the ability of teachers to select tasks and subjects that make use of differing opinions and lived experiences of learners. The second challenge is the need to select learners who will work well together and set solid rules to offer the opportunity for all learners to participate. In addition, the third challenge is encouraging multiple strategies to foster deeper discussion and better learning for every team member.

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There are many other different pedagogical tools that use collaborative learning, and across meta-analysis, they proved more effective in producing academic achievement than individualistic or competitive learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Stanne, 2000).

2.3.5.5. Assessing Collaboration Skills

The major difficulty with the assessment of collaboration is deciding accurately what to assess, the individual or group's outcomes, or the individual's readiness to work collaboratively. Besides, although "many problems in real life are collaborative and ill-defined, the vast majority of research on problem solving has dealt with well-defined problems that are presented to individuals" (Hess et al. 2012, p. 52).

Assessments of collaboration may focus on either the collaborative process or the quality of collaborative products. The former focuses on compromise, negotiation and communication while the latter deals with the quality of collaborative product. For this reason, assessment developers, as Webb (1995), notes need to be clear about the purpose of the assessment (process or product). Group interaction that seems maladaptive for the process, such as free riding or social loafing, can be considered effective if the goal is to maximise productivity.

2.3.5.5.1. Collaboration Assessment Models

According to Elina Silva, an advocate for the meaningful assessment of 21st learning, a 21st assessment instrument would move past multiple choice testing and encompass measures that foster creativity, demonstrate how learners arrived at answers, and even allow for collaboration. Moreover, an important consideration in elaborating collaboration assessment tasks is task demands, which influence the extent and the essence of interaction

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and group outputs. As an example, McGrath (1984) work originated four main task types organised by task demand:

- 1- Generate tasks necessitate production of ideas,
- 2- Choose activities require selection of a correct solution,
- 3- Negotiate exercises require resolution of opposing viewpoints,
- 4- Implement tasks necessitate physical skill (Lai, DiCerbo, & Foltz, 2017, p. 19).

Structural features are also indispensable points to consider in addition to task demands. These features constitute of group size, identifiability of individual contributions, and group structure. The next section discusses the evidence models, and the scoring model of collaboration assessment based on task on demands and structural features.

2.3.5.5.2. Evidence Models

The evidence model (Mislevy, Steinberg & Almond, 1999) describes the specific kinds of behaviours that should be measured to assess collaborative skill and how the behaviours connect to the competencies. Collecting evidence of collaborative skills is more complicated than gathering evidence of individual cognitive skills. First, there is multiple collaborating individuals' interdependence (dependencies on other team members, learner loafing on a team). Second, the higher order skills in collaboration require continuous monitoring of the process through the tasks because these skills are not generally clear in the work product but emerge from the process. Finally, some required behavioural variables (listening and responding behaviours, organising roles and word tasks, and discussing perspectives) to assess collaboration are not obtained by traditional standardised tests (multiple choice or essays).

To specify the kinds of behaviours related to collaborative skills, the majority of studies have focused on extracting information from the language in the communication stream

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during the collaborative process. Other studies examine events or actions occurring during the task to judge collaborative behaviours. On the other hand, some studies have identified the types of these behaviours. Table 12 on the following page illustrates some of them.

Table 12: Behaviours related to Collaboration Skills. Adapted from (Lai, DiCerbo, & Foltz, 2017, p. 22).

BEHAVIOURS	SOURCE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Questioning and listening to deal with miscommunication conflicts, group brainstorming, searching for common outcomes. Taking and giving offers, counteroffers, and concessions to attain interest, properly. Organising team meetings, valuing input from everyone , and active listening techniques, such as probing (encourage speaker to be more explicit), reflecting (reformulating a message to ensure comprehension), redirecting (relating analogies and examples to help the speaker grasp a problem, participating in a small talk. 	Stevens & Champion 1994
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number and type of utterance starters used, searching help, providing help, providing detailed explanations 	Baghael, Mitrovic, & Irwin, 2007
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employ different kinds of sentence starters as indicative of different cognitive levels – e. g., use of reasoning to offer justification for a point of view was valued higher than asking clarifying questions to remember or understand. 	Gogoulou, Gouli, Grigoriandou , & Samarakou, 2005
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Changes or modifies opinion if a reasonable argument is suggested by another team member, values and praises other team member's contributions, employs "win-win" negotiation techniques to resolve team 	Chen, Donhue, &

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disagreements, and discovers the important components of a problem situation.	Klimoski, 2004
- Planning and coordinating task according to the number of times teammates assisted one another.	Ellis, Bell, Ployhart, Hollenbeck, & Ilgen, 2005
- Use of refutations in argumentative discussion as proof of “two sided reasoning” which shows an openness to considering other viewpoints and willingness to discuss / make concessions to reach agreement	Garcia- Milla et al., 2013

2.3.5.5.3. The Scoring Model

Behavioural observation by instructors or experts, behavioural ratings by peers, or automated systems are common approaches to evaluating evidence of collaboration skills.

The most common approach to assessing collaboration is the behavioural observation. The observer uses a rubric to rate the various behaviours and their level of performance. Rubrics organise the behaviours needed for assessment. An example of such teamwork rubrics is the one issued by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU), which outlined four levels of performance ranging from benchmark to capstone. The main dimensions of the rubric are:

- **Contributes to team meetings:** the benchmark performer spreads ideas whereas the capstone performer declares the positive and the negative points of different substitutions

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- **Facilitates the contributions of team members:** the benchmark performer regards speaking turn taking and abrogates interrupting others, whereas the capstone performer values others' ideas and enquires on their perspectives.
- **Individual contributions outside of team meetings:** the benchmark performer regards the deadline of assigned exercises; on the other hand, the capstone performer looks for high degree of excellence and give help to others to accomplish their tasks.
- **Fosters constructive team climate:** the benchmark performer contributing communication is modifiable, whereas the capstone performer is fixed in applying supportive exchange.
- **Responds to conflicts:** the benchmark performer bears conflicting viewpoints negatively, whereas the capstone performer directly deals with conflict and works it out.

Other rubrics have focused on other dimensions like interpersonal and self-management skills (Taggar, & Brown, 2001 cited in Lai, DiCerbo, & Foltz, 2017, p. 23), and team decision-making in complex tasks. Furthermore, teacher's observation utilising these rubrics can be highly valid and reliable even the approach needs great efforts observing groups in real time or reviewing audio-videos later.

Peers' observation using the same rubrics used by instructors is another form of behavioural observation. These peer evaluations can be as valid and reliable as those of instructors (Loughry, Ohland, & Moore, 2007 cited in Lai, DiCerbo, & Foltz, 2017, p. 23). The advantage from this type of observation is that learners may learn about the appropriate behaviours when conducting the process of observing their colleagues.

Computer-based administration can also process automatically evidence of collaborative tasks. In this case, computers can supply some amount of command upon collaborative contexts, providing materials, media, and ways for learners to communicate, besides to being a means to gather and analyse evidence.

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Nowadays, researchers have utilised artificial intelligence technologies to assess collaboration skills. Computer-based agents or avatars can play the role of collaborators sample and communicate with learners using language or actions. The agents can play different roles and functions with the learners or with other agents, and hence, putting learners in different kinds of collaborative contexts (Dede, 2009; Graesser, Forsyth, & Foltz, 2016; Metcalf et al., 2011 cited in Lai, DiCerbo, & Foltz, 2017, p. 25). In conflict situations for example, two agents can dissent about a particular way to a solution, and the system can keep track of the behaviour of the learner dealing with the situation. The 2015 OECD PISA has incorporated this approach in the assessment of collaborative problem solving because it fits with doing controlled assessment across different learner populations (OECD PISA Collaborative Problem Solving Expert Working Group, 2013).

Although automated techniques permit for more control on the collaborative situations, and help in converting behaviours into scores and feedback, these automated methods are unable to detect all intricacies that can be derived from human observation, and their implementation needs all information to be installed through computers. Overall, the field of automated analysis is prospering very fast, and with more progress in natural language processing, speech recognition, and the machine learning, we consider this as a field that will witness more progress.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the emphasis was on the theoretical part of the learning process in general. It tried to review the relevant literature and build on the foundations needed to test the research questions put before in the beginning of this study. It attempted to shed light on the key concepts utilised in this study and sought to reflect the literature related to different society's educational goals throughout the ages as foundations for learning in the twenty-first century. It also focused on the formula and the frameworks developed to instruct twenty-first century learners to become global citizens.

The major focus was, thus, on the learning and innovation skills as motives for improving learners' oral competence. Hence, a part of the chapter was devoted to study communication and collaboration skills as requirements to succeed in both career and life contexts. This bulk of literature aims at constructing the foundations for the next practical chapter of this study.

Chapter Three:
Research
Methodology
and Design

Chapter Three: Research Methodology and Design

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Integrating Learning and Innovation Skills to Enhance EFL learners' Oral Competence**Introduction**

Language researchers stimulate the implementation of studies in different contexts and the use of a variety of approaches to obtain a deep understanding of the complexity of the nature of research in language learning. Ergo, this chapter intends to propose a class-based experimental framework and groundwork for integrating learning and innovation skills to foster learners' motivation and hence, enhance their oral competence.

This inquiry initiates with a bird's eye view of the objectives and perspectives of English in Algeria, and an account about the adaptation of the LMD system at the sector of the Algerian university. The chapter also reflects on classroom-oriented research in foreign language learning as a tool, which may foster our comprehension of the best practices for enhancing learners' oral competence.

Furthermore, it describes the research design and procedures, i.e. the way research was conducted, the approaches used for collecting data, the research instruments, sampling techniques and data analysis methods.

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3.1. The status of English in Algeria

The issue of the language education policies in Algeria is considered as a crucial matter in language research. The French colonialism has affected not only the social life, but the educational policy as well. It attempted to apply the policy of removing Algerian cultural identity and instilling the French one. The colonial policy resulted some impacts on the educational system even after the independence.

The linguistic diversity situation in Algeria ranks classical Arabic and Tamazight as national languages, French as the first foreign language and English as the second foreign language. The teaching of EFL has gained an official status and it has become a compulsory subject matter in the middle and secondary schools curricula.

In Algeria, the French language has dominated all domains of life such as the scientific, educational and linguistic ones for a long time. Notwithstanding, the Algerian authorities have thought of introducing the English language as an important language for education. According to the Global Research Organisation Euro-monitor International report for the British Council in April 2012, English in Algeria seems the least developed one as only 07% of the population command the use of the language compared to Morocco (14%) and Tunisia (15%). The same report adds that English will witness a significant progress among the new generation due to the growing interest in the American culture, growing exposure to media, and the wide spread of information and communication technologies.

Moreover, the socio-economic situation turned to the openness to worldwide connections, and the urgent need to use English, as a means of communication are ways to diminish the French interference. In this sense, Mami (2013) thinks, “disparities in the use of French

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started to fade away at the crossroads leaving more space to the teaching of English as a second foreign language” (p.243). Miliani also shares the same thought:

In a situation where the French Language has lost much of its ground in the sociocultural and educational environments of the country; the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills including economic, technological and educational ones (Miliani, 2000, p. 13).

Recently, the Algerian authorities have initiated the redesigning of the educational system. The first attempt was to introduce English at the primary education. Unfortunately, the experience failed because of some political reasons. On the other hand, English has been included in the other levels of the educational system. Hence, the teaching of English starts in the first year of middle school education. Since 2003, learners have started studying English as a compulsory subject matter for 7 years; four in the middle school and three in the secondary school. In higher education, learners study English either as a major speciality at the English departments or as an additional module in other departments.

3.1.2. Objectives of EFL Teaching

The Algerian educational framework has seen a slow, but deliberate change and progress at the level of curricula and methodologies to respond to the intensive research and the continuous globalisation process. The result was the adoption of the Competency-based Education as a new approach in 2005. This new approach aims at supplying learners with knowledge and skills that prepare them to identify and solve problems they face in their daily lives. Thus, English becomes a tool for communication that enables learners to make connections with the world and communicate something about one's self, community and country to others. To achieve this standard with the competency-based approach the ministry of

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education proposed three broad objectives: linguistic, methodological and cultural. The following table summarises the contents of each of them.

Table 13: Middle School Curriculum Objectives. Adapted from “Guidelines for Teachers of English in Charge of 3rd MS classes”

The syllabus aims at consolidating and developing:	
Linguistic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar: the learners will be trained in finding out the rules of English • Phonetics: enhancing the pronunciation and intonation • Vocabulary: enlarging the learners stock of lexical words • The four skills: more training on listening, speaking, reading and writing intending at communication and interaction in a free and communicative way.
Methodological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing pupils' learning strategies aiming at autonomy. • Making pupils learn methods for working and thinking. • Getting pupils acquire techniques of self-evaluation. • Getting pupils to be able to use various documents and get interested in topics that are not dealt with in class.
Cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making the learner open up his mind via discovering the context of English civilisation and culture. Thus , there is a necessity to: • Recognise pupils' real needs • Consider English as a real means of communication • Foster oral communication (listening and speaking) and written communication (reading and writing) • Establish situations of real communication • Select topics corresponding to pupils' age and interests. • Focus on the pupil (pupil centred teaching) • Use suitable teaching visual aids.

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At the secondary level, learners who are aged between fifteen and eighteen are supposed to master the basics of the English language. Learners in the high school study the four skills, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, language forms and functions besides to phonology. The allotted timing ranges from three to four sessions of contact with English in this level depending on the nature of streams. Programme designers believe the syllabi to offer activities that stimulate and develop learners' competencies. The files included in the textbooks are assumed to encourage interaction between learners and with their teachers. The table below illustrates the files included in the three secondary school textbooks.

Table 14: Secondary School Textbooks

Year of study	Textbook	
1st year Secondary school	At the Crossroads	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Getting Through - Once Upon a Time - Our Findings Show - EUREKA - Back to Nature
2nd Year SS	Getting Through	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Signs of the Time - Make Peace - Waste not, Wait not - Budding Scientists - News and tales - No Man in an Island - Science or Fiction - Business in Business
3rd year SS	New Prospects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ancient Civilisation - Ethics in Business - Education in the World

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		- Advertising, Emotions and Related Topics
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Despite the difficulties encountered in secondary school context (crowded classrooms, discipline problems, demotivated learners, shortage of teaching materials, insufficient teacher training...), the curriculum uses interactive tasks such as jokes and games, proverbs and sayings, portfolios and self-assessment. The course books highlight the speaking competence through introducing integrative tasks intended to ameliorate learners' abilities like listening for details, or for gist, and improve awareness to specific features of English pronunciation. Accuracy tasks such as identifying discourse markers, sequencers when listening to lectures, reports etc. are generally achieved individually, in pairs or in small groups.

3.1.3. The Oral Competence in the Algerian English Framework

According to the AEF (2009) version, "The Algerian English Framework (AEF) is a comprehensive, general description of the expected level of attainment of each of the competences for each grade level and across grade levels". The framework is elaborated around competences that are similar to those in the Common European framework of reference (2001). The only difference is that the competences in the AEF are adapted to reflect the context of the Algerian middle school and high school contexts. Thus, first year middle school (MS1) corresponds to level 'A1' (basic language user) in the CEFR, and MS2 is equivalent to level 'A2'. MS3 corresponds to an A2+ in the CEFR, and 'B1' (independent language user) which requires significant time is equal to MS4 in the AEF. On the other hand, first year secondary education (SE1) and second year secondary education (SE2) also correspond to 'B1' in the CEFR. Whereas, third year secondary education (SE3) rises to the

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level 'B1+' in the CEFR. Ergo, by the end of the seven years of English instruction, the Algerian pupils become independent users of the English Language.

The AEF allows the user to interpret the curriculum in two ways: one is vertical and the other is horizontal. In the vertical view, which is an overall view of learning targets by competence for a particular grade level, the competences are categorised according to:

- ❖ Interaction (speaking)
- ❖ Interpretive listening
- ❖ Interpretive reading
- ❖ Productive writing
- ❖ Productive speaking
- ❖ Linguistic competence

The horizontal view of the Algerian English Framework permits one to see pupils' expected progress in each of the competences over the course of the whole seven years of English instruction (AEF, 2009). The following table summarises the oral competence general descriptors of the AEF with examples to help teachers and material developers to plan lessons and develop materials.

Table 15: Oral Competence General Descriptors. Adapted from AEF (2009)

Grade level	Interaction (speaking)	Productive speaking
MS1	Can interact orally to ask and answer a question on topics and situations related to describing themselves and others, home and time using memorised phrases and basic sentences.	Can orally produce a very short simple self- introduction that is comprised of basic information such as name, age, school, address, interests.

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MS2	<p>Can interact orally to ask and answer a question in very short exchanges on concrete topics of family and people, places and living conditions, possessions, likes, dislikes, school and leisure activities and routines.</p>	<p>Can sustain a very short, simple oral description of everyday life, interests and abilities in a list of points, using formulaic sentences and phrases</p>
MS3	<p>Can interact orally to ask and answer questions in short exchanges and to respond briefly to the news of others on familiar, personal topics about self, community, personal experiences and plans, leisure activities, using simple sentences and frequently used expressions.</p> <p>Can deal with simple predictable travel situations related to restaurants (e.g. ordering), shopping (e.g. asking for an item) and transportation (e.g., asking where something is and how to get there, asking and telling times/ schedules).</p>	<p>Can orally tell a very short story or give a brief description about personal things (e.g. plans, routines, possessions, likes/ dislikes) in a simple list of points.</p> <p>Can plan for, use and evaluate the effectiveness and productive speaking strategies used to maintain interest.</p>
MS4	<p>Can interact orally to begin and maintain short conversations(i.e. asking/answering questions/ responding to information and news of others) on a range of common topics related to self and community using both routine and simple, spontaneous sentences</p> <p>Can continue a range of common functions in order to elaborate plans, express opinions and advice, give and follow directions and instructions, and ask for and offer help.</p>	<p>Can maintain a short oral narrative (story, experience or event) or a description on subjects of interest as a series or sequence of connected items.</p> <p>Can plan for, utilise and assess the effectiveness of productive speaking strategies used to sustain interest.</p>
SE1	<p>Can interact orally to begin and maintain a dialogue (e.g. greetings, asking and answering questions, opining and advising, responding to others ideas and news) on topics of interest and common matters of a primarily concrete nature (e.g. everyday life, travelling, current events) utilising simple language.</p> <p>Can carry out familiar functions involving two people (e.g. apologising, asking for and offering help, making plans, giving opinions and advice) in a few contexts and situations at a fundamental level.</p>	<p>Can maintain an oral narrative (story, personal experience or event) or a description on different topics of interest containing one or two paragraphs incoherently organised by topic and fundamental connectors.</p>
SE2	<p>Can interact verbally to start and maintain a dialogue (e.g. greetings, ask questions and follow-up questions, giving and seeking facts and opin-</p>	<p>Can accomplish an oral narrative or description on common matters and subjects of interest comprising more</p>

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	<p>ions) on topics of wellbeing and common matters (e.g. current events or concrete issues related to personal life and available on media, such as film, books and music), using usually simple language, with various expressions.</p> <p>Can accomplish functions involving two people (e.g. apologising, asking for and offering help, making plans, giving opinions and advice) with various contexts and situations – can take part in a basic exchange and group decision making on familiar issues that comprise the exchange of ideas and opinions.</p>	<p>than one, to some extent cohesive paragraph.</p>
SE3	<p>Can interact orally, initiate and maintain an exchange (e.g. greetings, asking and answering questions and follow-up questions, giving details, giving and searching facts, reasons, advice and opinions and agreeing and disagreeing), on subjects of interest and familiar issues (e.g. current events and contemporary issues, and concrete issues related to personal life and found in media such as film, books and music) employing a range of adequate simple language – can accomplish common functions comprising two or more people (e.g. making plans, giving opinions and advice, apologising, asking for and offering assistance), in various ways and contexts and situations, benefitting from a range of basic language – can help sustain a basic exchange and group decision making on common topics and issues of interest that consist of the exchange of ideas and viewpoints.</p>	<p>Can generate an oral narrative or description on a variety of topics (e.g. dreams, hopes, ambitions, plots of books, unpredictable occurrences such as accidents) comprising more than one, to some extent cohesive paragraph that contains some basic sensory details and expressive description.</p> <p>Can give an oral account prepared from researched facts</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - On a familiar issue or subject of interest - As cohesive, coherent 2-3 paragraphs.

3.1.2. ELT at University Level

Because of its universal status and importance, especially with the adaptation of the LMD system in 2004, English as a necessary module is taught nearly in all Algerian universities either in English departments or as an additional module in other departments. The application of the LMD as a three degree system for undergraduates (Bachelor degree) and

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graduates (Master and PhD degrees), was a move towards the continuous globalisation process because “this Anglo-Saxon programme has proved its success and it has, more or less, been adopted by most European countries” (Miliani, 2010, p. 71).

The LMD system is composed of the license degree (BA) lasting for three years (six semesters), the master degree for two years (four semesters), and the doctorate degree for three years of research. The LMD is based on “Teaching Units” which learners are required to accumulate by the end of each semester. These units correspond to a number of credits. In case learners do not obtain the required credits for the 1st semester, they pass to the second one with those lacking credits and remain as indebted ones even the learner passes to the second year. By the end, all learners should manage those lacking credits before graduation. The table on the next page illustrates the LMD system features and objectives.

Table 16: LMD System Features and Objectives (adopted from “Guide d’information sur le System LMD, 2005” cited in Djebbari Z.2014, p. 133)

Element	Aim
Semestrial Programme	For better organisation and more flexibility in the system, the division is based on semesters rather than years of formation.
Teaching Units	The teaching process is based on units; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Fundamental Unit: where the basic subjects are grouped; ▪ Methodological Unit: which is primarily destined to prepare learners to acquire skills in methodology; ▪ Discovery Unit: where the learners can be acquainted to new subjects in new fields.
Credits	Each teaching unit corresponds to a number of credits that can be capitalised and transferred.
Domains	They cover many disciplines including other subjects that lead to other specialities and particular options proposed to the learners.

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Tutoring	This is a new pedagogical task for the teacher introduced in the LMD system. This element permits a direct relation between the teacher and the student outside the academic sessions, i.e. it fosters the teacher-learner interaction.
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Despite the attempts to achieve the LMD objectives stated by the ministry of higher education (2003), a number of educationalists view this reform as un-appropriate for the Algerian context. Among them Miliani (2010) believes that “so much has been said by the ill-intentioned adversaries, the poorly-informed, and the badly-trained supporters. So between the rock and the hard place, this reform cannot develop harmoniously” (p.70).

3.2. Research Approaches and Methods

The following section presents the general research approaches and methods highlighting the research selected ones implemented in the current research.

3.2.1. Research Paradigm

Deciding on the suitable research paradigm is of paramount importance when conducting research. Among the various research paradigms, we mention the positivism and the interpretivism as they both represent a compromise of the pragmatism philosophy. The proponents of the pragmatism paradigm claim that “it was not possible to access the ‘truth’ about the real world solely by virtue of a single scientific method as advocated by the positivist paradigm, nor was it possible to determine social reality as constructed under the interpretive paradigm” (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p.35). The focus of the pragmatism philosophy is on the problem that urged researchers to use various approaches to understand it. Creswell (2003) claims, “pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different world

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views, and different assumptions, as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis in the mixed methods study” (p. 12).

Since our experiment is based on classroom-oriented research, the pragmatic research paradigm is found appropriate as believed by Allwright and Bailey (1991, p. 68) “increasingly it appears, second language classroom researchers are calling for judicious selection and combined approaches rather than rigid adherence to one approach over another”. Ergo, the researcher considers different approaches because he needs descriptions of the different instructional teaching materials, analysis of classroom practices matched with qualitative and quantitative analysis of learners’ achievements.

3.2.2. Classroom Oriented Research in Foreign Language Education

In the last decades, the increased professional activity in research in second and foreign language learning and teaching appeared in the increasing number of books and journals devoted to research issues. Classroom-oriented research is defined as:

Classroom- centred research is just that—research centred on the classroom, as a distinct form, for example, research that concentrates on the inputs to the classroom (the syllabus, the teaching materials) or the outputs from the classroom (learner achievement scores). It does not ignore in anyway or try to devalue the importance of inputs and outputs. It simply tries to investigate what happens inside the classroom when learners and teachers come together. (Allwright, 1983, p.191)

It was also described by Johnson (1993) as: “Research conducted in classrooms, research that deals with learning teaching in institutional contexts, and other research that is highly relevant to language teaching and learning” (p. 1).

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According to Johnson (1993), researchers think that classroom-oriented research may encompass conducting experiments on topics such as, language loss, learning strategies, pragmatics across cultures, affective factors, computer enhanced learning, language proficiency and testing, content-based learning, and discourse analysis. To sum up, all subjects related to classroom teaching and learning can be a subject in the classroom-oriented research. Our current classroom –oriented research is devoted to deeply analysing the effects of learning and innovation skills on learners' oral competence.

3.2.3. Research Approach

According to many researchers, when conducting the classroom-oriented research, a particular methodology needs to be adopted. Johnson (1993) suggests the following approaches pointing out that they are not mutually exclusive, but are interactive with each other in experimentation:

- Correlational Approaches: as Johnson (1993) states it, correlational approaches do not refer to “how one collects data, but the types of research questions that are asked” (p. 4). This type of methodology is generally quantitative, and may explore topics related to language testing and language learning strategies.
- Survey Research: it is the type of research that may supply needed information related classroom practice and teaching methods, offering the “status of the profession and about the political, demographic, and pragmatic contexts in which teachers teach and students learn languages” (Johnson, 1993, p. 9).

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- Ethnographic Research: It investigates cultural and social phenomena, and their effect on the classroom. Johnson (1993) believes that “Ethnographically-oriented research.....refers to work that involves the holistic study of social and cultural phenomena including communication” (p. 11).
- Discourse Analysis: This approach looks at the “the study of a language beyond the sentence”. It considers written texts and oral interchanges and analyses them in an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary fashion. Researchers use it to study classroom discourse, politeness strategies, teacher- student interaction, student-student interaction...
- Case Studies: deal with “an examination of a case in its context” (Johnson, 1993, p. 7). Researchers use them to explore issues of adult language learning, teaching strategies, programme evaluation, and child literacy.
- Experimental Research: Researchers apply this type of research aiming at establishing “cause and effect relationship between two different phenomena, to establish that a specific set of actions or conditions (the independent variable) causes changes in some outcome (the dependent variable)” (Johnson, 1993, p. 13). Experimental research chooses randomly the participants into the experimental and control groups. Nunan (1992) distinguishes between several types of experimental design:
 - ❖ Pre-Experiment: It may have pre-and post-treatment tests, but lacks a control group.
 - ❖ Quasi-Experiment: It has both pre-and post-tests, and experimental and control groups, with no random assignment of subjects.

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- ❖ True-Experiment: It consists of both pre-and post-tests, and experimental and control groups with random assignment of subjects.

In general, the present research opts for a Quasi-experiment method that involves the implementation of one control group and one experimental group, and a pre-test and a post-test with convenience non-random distribution of subjects.

The experimental method is related to the systematic way a researcher employs to manipulate one variable (independent) and controls or gauges any change in the other variable (dependent). Muijs (2004) asserts that “The basis of the experimental method is the experiment, which can be defined as: a test under controlled conditions that is made to demonstrate the validity of hypothesis” (p.13). In the same line of thought, Kothari (2004) states that “Experimentation is done to test hypotheses and to discover new relationships, if any, among variables” (p. 9).

In this respect, and in order to construct a comprehensive answer to a problematic, it is important to integrate several of the aforementioned methodologies. In our case, the study attempts to investigate how learners' motivation improvement through communication and collaboration practice may affect their oral competence. Therefore, the present study is based on a “cause and effect” dimension. It relies for the most part on experimental methodology, while fusing some case studies and survey techniques.

3.2.4. Research Variables

Variables are identified as changing constructs or qualities that attract researchers in experimental research. According to (Gohen et al., 2007), a variable is a construct the researcher is interested in. Mackey and Gass (2005) state that “variables are features or

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qualities that change” (p. 101). In research, variables are classified into dependent variables, and independent variables.

The independent variable: In Gohen et al., (2007) words, “An independent variable is an input variable, that which causes, in part or in partial, a particular outcome; it is a stimulus that influences a response, an antecedent or a factor which may be modified (e.g. under experimental or other conditions) to affect an outcome” (p.504). In this experimental study, communication and collaboration skills are the independent variable.

The dependent variable: A dependent variable is the variable, which is affected and changes because of the independent variable. In Gohen et al. (2007) words “A dependent variable, on the other hand, is the outcome variable, that which is caused, in total or in part, by the input, antecedent variable. It is the effect, consequence of, or response to, an independent variable” (p.504). Learners’ oral competence is the dependent variable in the present study.

3.2.5. Population and Sampling

Population is defined as “The total number of units from which data can be collected” (Parahoo, 1997, p. 218). It refers to the broader group of people concerned with the generalisability of the study results. On the other hand, the sample is defined as a subset of a population. Dornyei (2007) describes the difference between population and sample as “the sample is the group of participants whom the researcher actually examines in an empirical investigation and the population is the group of people whom the study is about” (p. 96).

Following the current research requirements, the researcher needs both learners and teachers to extract the sample of the study. The needed population of teachers constitutes of oral expression teachers (listening and speaking teachers). Their contribution is very crucial

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as they can supply the researcher with a bird's eye view of the way oral expression is dealt with when it comes to dealing with first year learners. On the other hand, the population of learners involved first year learners at Barika university centre. It is important to note that this is the only batch of learners studying English at the centre as it is the first time the centre opens the English speciality for baccalaureate holders. The overall registered number of the first batch in the academic year 2017 / 2018 is forty-eight learners. The administration split them into intact groups.

When conducting a study, the researcher faces some of the most defying tasks; the recruitment of the appropriate sample which is the central unit on which the experiment is constructed in any investigation, and the need to decide about sampling in the early stages of planning any research work. In this line of thought, Cohen et al. (2005) state that "questions of a sampling arise directly out of the issue of defining the population on which the research will focus. Researchers must take sampling decisions early in the overall planning of a piece of research" (p. 92).

An important issue about sampling is that it differs according to the way of conducting research, either quantitatively or qualitatively. Dornyei (2005) states that in quantitative investigations the aim is "straightforward: we need a sizeable sample to be able to iron out idiosyncratic individual differences. Qualitative research, on the other hand, focuses on describing, understanding, and clarifying a human experience" (p. 126).

The most crucial issue and the most frequently asked question that arises when conducting a study is how large the sample for the research should be. Cohen et al. (2005, p. 92) assert that there is no clear-cut response for the correct sample size, but it depends on the nature of the concerned population and the purpose of the study, pointing out that some factors need to be considered by researchers to accurately decide on the appropriate sampling

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strategy. These factors include the sample size, the representativeness and parameters of the sample, access to the sample, and the sampling.

According to a latest perspective at educational research directed by Fraenkel and Wallen (2003), the following minimum sample numbers as a suggested guideline: 100 for descriptive studies, 50 for correlational studies, and 15 to 30 per group in experimental studies. In the present study, the researcher adopted this view to decide on the appropriate sample i.e., two groups of 18 learners were selected.

A successful research is based on the appropriateness of the adopted sampling strategy. (Cohen et al., 2007). Among the strategies to achieve a representative sample, Cohen and Holliday (1997, 1982, 1996); Schofield (1996) propose probability sampling (random sampling) and non-probability sampling (purposive sampling).

- ❖ **Probability Sampling:** in this type of sample, the possibilities of the selected population is known, and any member of the population has an equal chance to be part of the sample. It is also called 'chance sampling' or 'random sampling'. There are several kinds of probability samples: simple random samples, stratified samples, cluster samples, systematic samples, multi-phase samples, and stage samples. Random sampling design is superior over the deliberate sampling design because "The results obtained from probability or random sampling can be assured in terms of probability i.e., we can measure the errors of estimation or the significance of results obtained from a random sample" (Kothari, 2004, p. 60).
- ❖ **Non-probability sampling:** also called 'deliberate sampling', 'purposive sampling', or 'judgement sampling'. In this type of sampling, the chances of the chosen population are unknown (Cohen, 2005, p. 99). It aims to represent a particular group of the wider population. Types of non-probability sampling include convenience sampling, dimensional

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sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, and snowball sampling (Cohen et al. 2005). Non-probability sampling is rarely utilised in large inquiries of importance. “However, in small inquiries and researches by individuals, this design may be adopted because of the relative advantage of time and money inherent in this method of sampling” (Kothari, 2004, p. 59).

In the present study, the researcher adopted a non-probability sampling to select the appropriate sample. Therefore, the target population for this study includes teachers and LMD learners at Barika university centre. The selected sample are first-year LMD learners and English teachers of oral expression at the department of English at Batna 2 University.

3.2.5.1. Learners' Sample

The participants in this research constitute of two intact groups of first-year LMD learners at Barika university centre. Being the first time the centre opened registration for the English speciality; only forty-eighty baccalaureate holders have registered. The centre administration grouped them into two equal number groups. Unfortunately, after a month period only thirty-six learners maintained their regular attendance. The administration issued new grouping lists to split them into intact groups of eighteen learners and allocated them to the researcher. Based on the pre-formed groups, the researcher assigned them conveniently into control and experimental groups. Non-random sampling is used when subjects selected for the study are constituted of groups of people already formed and easy to use (Griffe, 2012, p. 58).

To conduct the study, the researcher selected participants according to some characteristics, mainly their oral achievement competence. The researcher got assured of the equivalence of both groups in terms of oral achievement based on the pre-test results. The T test was to verify the existence of any difference in the statistical significance of participants'

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performance of both groups. The obtained results revealed that the test values (T) are equal to (0.272) and the degree of significance of the test (Sig) is equal to (0.787), which is greater than the level of significance (0.05) for Control and experimental groups in the pre-test, which signifies an equivalence between the two samples.

First-year LMD learners at Barika university centre who constitute the population of this study, come from public schools and are aged between 18 and 25 years old. They got their baccalaureate in one of the following streams: life and natural sciences, humanities, foreign languages, and letters and philosophy. All of them have studied English for seven years, and share the same educational background and nearly have the same level of competence as they all have studied English as a second foreign language. Teachers in the middle school and the secondary school instructed them the basic vocabulary, written skills and grammatical knowledge, applying the competency-based approach, which aims at preparing them for real life contexts. At university, they study grammar, written expression, listening and speaking, phonetics, civilisation, and ICT, literature, and study skills. In this study, the researcher dealt with thirty-six learners. The majority of them were females (77.77%) and the male proportion was only 22.33%. The allocated time of oral expression for subjects in the experimental and control groups was three hours weekly. The only difference between them was that the experimental group was taught through the integration of the treatment (communication and collaboration) whereas, the control group in the traditional way.

3.2.5.2. Teachers' Sample / Biodata

The researcher opts for a purposive sampling technique to build up a sample satisfactory to his specific needs. The informants are ten teachers from Batna 2 University in charge of teaching oral expression module at the department of English. Some of them (5) are part time teachers holding master degree or doctoral students, others (4) are magister holders

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preparing for their PhD, and one doctor in didactics. Their teaching experience varies from 2 years to 18 years and are in charge of teaching other modules in addition to listening and speaking module. The following table summarises learners and teachers sample size.

Table 17: Learners and Teachers' Sample Size

Participants	Population	Intact groups	sample	Sampling Method	Sampling Technique
Learners	36	36	36	Non-probability	Intact groups (Convenience)
Teachers	10	10	Non-probability	Purposive sampling

3.2.5.3. Case Study setting

The case study research outputs from the desire to obtain a close understanding of a single case, set in its real world contexts and hopefully, generating a new learning about real world behaviour and its meaning (Bromley, 1986, p. 1). On the other hand, Yin (2009) defines case study research, as “An empirical inquiry about a contemporary phenomenon, set within its real-world context.....especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 18). In this regard, the case study adopted in this study seeks to investigate the effects of learning and innovation skills on learners' oral competence in a specific date and place. More precisely, the study, took place at Barika university centre (Department of Foreign Languages / English Section) in the academic year 2017 / 2018.

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3.2.6. Data Collection Tools

The researcher has elaborated this study based on a multi-method approach that relies on multiple source of data collection, as opting for a single method of collecting and analysing data would not supply a complete description of the investigated case. Being a valuable tool for the validity of any research study, and to collect data to deal with the problem from different angles triangulation becomes a necessity. Denzin (1978) defines triangulation as “the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon” (p. 291). Denzin (1978) and Patton (1999) state four types of triangulation:

1. Data Triangulation: entails collecting data through several sampling strategies, so that data at different times and social situations, as well as on a variety of people, are gathered;
2. Investigator Triangulation: refers to the use of more than one investigator to collect and interpret data;
3. Theoretical Triangulation: refers to the utilisation of more than one theoretical position in interpreting data.
4. Methodological triangulation: concerns the use of more than one method for collecting data. This type employs qualitative and quantitative data.

In our case, the methodological triangulation consists of the use of the quasi-experiment (pre-and post-oral tests, progress tests), learners' interview, observation grid, and questionnaires.

3.2.6.1. Questionnaires

The questionnaire is one of the most popular tools of data collection in foreign language research. In Cohen et al. (2007) words “The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being

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able to be administered without the presence of the researcher and often being able comparatively straightforward to analyse” (p. 317). A questionnaire is a series of written questions with blanks for the respondents to answer. Brown (2001) defines the questionnaire as “Any written instrument that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”(p.6).

As with any research instrument, there are always limitations, and pros and cons regarding their implementation. Some researchers think that questionnaire data are not in fact reliable and valid when it comes to their serious limitations. In the following table, Dornyei (2003, p. 9 cited by Djebbari, 2014, p.155) outlines the advantages and disadvantages resulting from questionnaire application for researcher to be aware of when conducting research.

Table 18: Advantages and Disadvantages of Questionnaires

Advantages	Disadvantages
Collect a huge amount of data in little time	It is very easy to produce unreliable and invalid data by means of ill-constructed questionnaires
Data gathering can be fast and relatively straightforward	Simplicity and superficiality of answers by participants
Cost-effectiveness	Unreliable and unmotivated respondents
Can be successfully used with a variety of people in a variety of situations targeting a variety of topics	Respondents literacy problems (especially in social research)

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Questionnaires layout can take many forms like closed, open, mixed and Likert scales. In closed / closed-ended questions, the respondents generally choose by ticking or surrounding the ready-made options. "Closed questions prescribe the range of responses from which the respondent may choose. In general, closed questions are quick to complete and straightforward to code and do not discriminate unduly on the basis of how articulate the respondents are" (Wilson & Mclean, 1994, p. 21). In this type of questionnaires, the researcher requests the informants to choose one the proposed answers without adding a note or commenting.

E.g. – How often do learners communicate to solve problems during oral expression sessions?

Never – Rarely – Sometimes – Often - Always-

In mixed questions questionnaires, the informants are asked to select one of the given responses then justify the answer or add a response.

E.g. – How do you choose the topics to be discussed in class? Tick the best option.

- You make your own choice
- You follow a special syllabus
- Learners' choice
- After a discussion with learners
- Others (specify)
.....

When dealing with open questions, the researcher invites the respondents to express their opinions freely using their own expressions. Dornyei (2003) states that open questions "include items where the actual question is not followed by response options for the respondent to choose from but rather by some blank space (e. g. dotted lines) for the respondent to fill" (p. 47).

E.g. – Mention the points that encourage you to speak in class.
.....
.....

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Besides to the aforementioned types of questionnaire questions, the researcher also employed Likert scales. The word 'Likert' refers to the inventor of this type of ratings scales Rensis Likert in 1932. Likert scales gained popularity because of their simplicity, versatility, and reliability. Furthermore, they are constructed of a series of statements linked to particular aim. The following description gives more details about Likert scales:

A set of items composed of approximately an equal number of favourable and unfavourable statements concerning the attitude object, is given to a group of subjects. They are asked to respond to each statement in terms of their own degree of agreement or disagreement.... The specific responses to the items are combined so that individuals with the most favourable attitudes will have the highest scores while individuals with the least favourable (or unfavourable) attitudes will have the lowest scores. (McIver & Carmines, 1981, pp. 22-23)

In Likert scales informants indicate to which extent they agree or disagree with the given statements by selecting one of the responses ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. For scoring purposes, each option is accompanied by a number. E. g.

statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
The strategies we use in class motivate me to perform better in speaking					
	5	4	3	2	1

In the present research work, two questionnaires were administered to learners and one to teachers for eliciting data to investigate the hypothesis and the research questions. The first questionnaire was administered to both groups at the onset to elicit information about problems learners face when expressing themselves or when interacting with others. It aims at identifying areas that need improvement. The first part contains thirteen close-ended

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questions, and the second part eleven Likert Skirt statements aiming at identifying learners' views about studying English and the ways they prefer to study it.

The second questionnaire was distributed to the experimental group after the experiment to elicit their views and attitudes about the integration of the learning and innovation skills (communication and collaboration) and the strategies used to implement them. It comprises eleven closed questions (Likert Skirt statements. (Seven positive questions and four negative ones). Being a teacher at the centre, the researcher used one-to-one administration method, and was present while learners were filling in their questionnaires. The presence of the administrator when respondents complete the questionnaire is of paramount importance especially when help or clarification is needed.

Regarding teachers' questionnaire, the researcher divided it into three sections. The first section concerns the general information of the informants. The second section deals with learners' speaking difficulties in the teachers' point of view. The third section revolved around the strategies teachers offer to learners to develop their oral competence. It contains 11 mixed questions to elicit information from teachers to help learners overcome the obstacles they encounter when communicating in English.

3.2.6.1.1. Piloting the questionnaire

To determine if the items in a questionnaire are giving the needed kind of information, and to collect feedback on the functionality of the questionnaire, the researcher needs to conduct a pilot study prior to its administration. Piloting the questionnaire, which is one of the backbones of any survey study, is an important step in its construction. "An integral part of a questionnaire construction is field testing; that is piloting the questionnaire at various stages of its development on a sample of people who are similar to the target sample the instrument has been designed for" (Dornyei, 2003, p. 63). Pilot studies achieve a range of

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useful functions and can supply valuable insights for other researchers. “The wording of questionnaires is of paramount importance and that pretesting is crucial to its success. A pilot has several functions, principally to increase the reliability, validity, and practicability of the questionnaire” (Cohen et al., 2005, p. 260). Therefore, the researcher piloted the questionnaire at the onset of the academic year 2017 / 2018 in order to gather feedback on its functionality. In order to improve the standard of the questions in the questionnaire and to render them easy to understand by the respondents, 10 learners were selected to answer the questionnaire. Based on learners' feedback, the researcher did some minor modifications, and made some adjustments including refinement of some questions, omission of some unnecessary questions, and reformulation of some ambiguous ones.

3.2.6.1.2. Reliability

In order to be sure about the stability of the questionnaires results, the researcher administered them for the second time after a week. The obtained results are presented in the tables below.

1. The psychometric characteristics of the first questionnaire (learners' Difficulties .

Questionnaire)

Stability of scale by retesting-

Table 19: Reliability of the Learners' Difficulties Questionnaire

Questionnaire 1	Pearson Correlation	Sig	N
	0.980**	0.000	36

From table 19, we find that the degree of reliability of the questionnaire by retesting is equal to (0.980), which is a high degree, greater than (0.7) indicating a high stability of the scale that enables it to be used in data collection.

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2 – Teachers Questionnaire

For questionnaire two (Teachers Questionnaire), the researcher discussed it with the supervisor and agreed on its adequacy to be used for data collection.

3 - The psychometric characteristics of the third questionnaire:

Stability of scale by re-testing:

Table 20: Reliability of the Attitudes Questionnaire

Questionnaire 3	Pearson Correlation	Sig	N
	0.944**	0.000	18

From table 20, we find that the degree of reliability of the questionnaire by retesting is equal to (0.944), which is a high score greater than (0.7) indicating a high stability of the scale that enables it to be used in data collection

3.2.6.2. Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is a very helpful method of data collection. It offers the observer the chance to study a situation in its real context and supplies him / her with “live data” from “live situations” that he/ she cannot perceive with other research tools (Cohen et al., 2000). Researchers also use this direct method to investigate about different aspects of human behaviour. In this line of thought, Mackey and Gass (2005) state that:

Observations are a useful means for gathering in-depth information about such phenomena as the types of language, activities, interactions, instruction, and events that occur in second and foreign language classrooms. Additionally, observations can allow the study of a behaviour at close range with many important contextual variables present. (pp. 186- 187)

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In classroom situations, researchers value it as one of the basic data source for empirical research as it provides direct information. In Flick's view (1998, p. 138, as cited in Cohen et al.2007, p. 398) researchers have to consider observation along five dimensions:

- Structured versus unstructured observation;
- Participant versus non-participant observation ;
- Overt versus covert observation ;
- Open versus closed settings observation; and
- Self-observation versus observation of others.

In the structured observation, the researcher prepares in advance the objectives and the hypotheses, besides he / she defines the grid of observation and the rating scale before the observation setting. On the other hand, unstructured observation entails completing narrative field notes during the observation without prior preparation of the grid and the rating scale beforehand.

According to Gold (1958), the observer can be:

- ✓ Complete participant
- ✓ Participant-as-observer
- ✓ Observer-as-participant
- ✓ Complete observer.

The complete participant is an observer, who is inherent in the situation and a full participant. The participant-as-observer is a participant of the observed group and the participants are aware of his / her mission; observer-as- participant is the situation in which the researcher is concerned with asking participants questions, and the complete observer is a non-participant and not involved in the setting of observation.

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The third dimension of observation is “overt versus covert observation”. The former refers to a situation in which observation is open and the participants know that they are observed. The latter concerns the observation where the researcher does not inform the observed group about the research at hand.

The observation can occur in an open or closed setting. The open setting is open to the public whereas, in the closed one (e.g. schools) the researcher needs permission from the target authority to fulfil the closed setting observation.

In our case, the structured, covert, closed-setting observation was carried out during all phases of the experiment to collect the necessary data about learners' oral performance. For this purpose, the researcher elaborated a grid for structured classroom observation to note how learners apply the innovation skills, besides to the grid used to assess their level of oral competence. The observation grid consists of five components of the speaking competence (language, production, participation, expression and coherence). Each of them is classified in the table ranging from “very good 4/4” to “very poor 1/4”.

3.2.6.3. Learners' Interview

The interview method is implemented through personal meetings, which allow the interviewer to collect information by asking questions to the interviewee personally. It supplies in-depth data about a special research issue shared between a researcher and a respondent. In Kvale (1996) words:

An interview is a conversation that has a structure and a purpose. It goes beyond the spontaneous exchange of view as in everyday conversation and become a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge. (p. 6)

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The interview method has some surprising advantages. Besides to collecting more information in greater depth, researchers can record verbal answers and collect personal information and opinions of the interviewees regarding the survey. The interview method is also characterised by flexibility. "A flexible tool for data collection, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard" (Cohen; Lawrence & Morrison, 2007, p. 349). On the other hand, this method has some weaknesses. It is a very time consuming, and costly method besides to its probability that the interviewer's reactions may affect the results of the interview.

Additionally, the types of interviews play important roles in language research. LeCompte and Prreissle (1993) proposed the following types of interviews; standardised interviews; in-depth interviews; ethnographic interviews; elite interviews; life history interviews; focus groups. Two more types (semi-structured interviews, group interviews) were added to the list by Bogdan and Biklen (1992). Further, Lincoln and Guba added the type of 'structured interviews'. The following table summarises the strengths and weaknesses of the four categories outlined by Patton (1980): Informal conversational; interview guide approaches; standardised open-ended interviews, and closed quantitative interviews.

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Table 21: Strengths and Weaknesses of Different Types of Interviews (Patton, 1980, p.206 cited in Djebbari, 2014)

Type of Interview	Characteristics	Strengths	Weaknesses
Informal Conversational Interview	Questions appear from the immediate context and are posed in the natural course of things; there is no occurrence pre-determination of the question topics or wording.	Increases the importance and relevance of questions; interviews are constructed on and come out from observations; the interview can be related to individuals and circumstances.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Different information gathered from different people with different inquiries. . Less systematic and exhaustive if certain questions do not emerge naturally. . Data organisation and analysis can be very hard.
Interview Guide Approach	Topics and matters to be covered are identified in anticipation, in outline form; interviewer specifies sequence and working of questions in the course of the discussion.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . The outline fosters the comprehensiveness of the information and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each participant. . Logical gaps in data can be expected and closed. Interviews stay fairly conversational and circumstantial. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Important and salient subjects may inadvertently deleted. . Interviewer flexibility in ordering and wording questions can result in substantially different answer, thus reducing the comparability of answers.
Standardised Open-ended Interviews	The exact wording and lay out of questions are determined in anticipation. All interviewees are questioned the same fundamental questions in the same order.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participants answer the same questions, thus fostering comparability of responses; data are complete for each individual on the topics discussed in the interview. Decreases interviewer effects and bias when several interviewers are used. Allows decision makers to use and revise the instrumentation used in the valuation. Facilitates ordering and analysis of the data. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Little resilience in relating the interview to particular people and circumstances; organised wording of questions may restrain and limit naturalness and pertinence of questions and answers.

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Closed Quantitative Interviews	<p>. Questions and response types are identified in advance. Responses are consistent; participant chooses from among these fixed answers.</p>	<p>. Data analysis easy; responses can be directly analysed and easily counted; many short questions can be asked in a short time.</p>	<p>Participants must fit their experiences and fillings into the researcher's categories; may be regarded as impersonal, extraneous, and mechanistic.</p> <p>. Can change what respondents really mean or experienced by so completely limiting their response choices.</p>
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In the present study, the researcher utilised the standardised open-ended interview (appendix D) with learners of the experimental group to access to their perceptions because “the interview is a good way of accessing people’s perceptions” (Punch, 1998, p. 174). In semi-structured interview, the researcher asks the same type of questions as in the structured interviews, but with less rigidity. He may adapt the questions to the way the informant responds.

The semi-structured interview aimed at clarifying the researcher’s initial interpretation of classroom observation collected data and at checking the consistency of the collected data. “The interviews were considered a method of triangulation, a checking out the consistency of the data obtained from the questionnaire responses” (Patton, 1990, p. 464). As with the questionnaires, a pilot study of the interview was conducted with the same ten (10) learners to avoid unclear questions and to reformulate some of them.

After the researcher had explained the aim of the interview and got reassured of the relaxing atmosphere, interviewees were approached individually. The interviewer conducted this interview to elicit information from learners about their degree of motivation after applying the learning and innovation strategies, trying at the same time to check their oral competence level, as the medium of the interview was English. The pool consisted of 18

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learners and the interviews lasted 10 to 15 minutes. The interviewer recorded learners' answers in note forms for later analysis.

3.2.7. The Experiment

To confirm or refute the hypothesis formulated at the onset of this classroom-oriented research, the researcher conducted a quasi-experimental study that required a pre-test, progress tests, and a post-test.

3.2.7.1 The Pre-test

To gauge learners' oral competence entry level, the researcher administered a speaking test to both experimental and control groups. Tests are means to collect data "about the subject ability and knowledge in areas such as vocabulary, grammar, reading meta-linguistic awareness and general proficiency" (Selinger & Shohamy, 1989, p. 167).

Learners were assigned a monologic task to present a talk of three minutes about their "Baccalaureate success day". "In monologic tasks, learners get a chance to speak extensively on a topic without any initial interruptions" (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 211). After preparing in a low-pressure situation for ten minutes, learners started to present their discourse individually. They tried to express themselves in an enthusiastic way because the task relates to a realistic and authentic communicative situation. On the meanwhile, the researcher recorded their performance using his smart phone, besides to recording the monologue in note forms. The data will be scored using the speaking scoring scale (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency).

3.2.7.2. The Treatment

Understanding learners' needs is a crucial issue for establishing a good content selection that goes with their level and their requirements. Therefore, a content of the speaking module

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was proposed based on the results of the pre-test, on learners' selection of topics among a list, and on learners' suggestions of some topics of their own interest.

In the experimental group, learners dealt with the chosen topics applying the treatment. This latter consisted of applying the learning and innovation skills in all sessions of listening and speaking. A great deal of time within the allotted time for the module (a three hours session a week) was devoted to interaction and collaboration between learners and the teacher, and learners with their colleagues. Improving the practice of communication and collaboration in EFL classes implies the application of a set of tasks and techniques in the classroom as a basis for out of class practices. These techniques are referred to as "active learning strategies". In the present study, the active learning strategies encouraged learners to practise the language in both, fluency and accuracy aspects. They also supplied learners with opportunities to speak freely and hence, learners maximized their talking time, targeted their learning styles, and fostered their opportunities of negotiating meaning and social skills. To conclude, learners were not expected to simply listen and memorise, instead they helped each other demonstrate processes, analyse arguments or apply concepts to real world situations.

On the other hand, the control group tackled the same topics, but in the traditional method. The researcher handled the listening and speaking sessions traditionally through asking learners to prepare presentations or discuss topics without the integration of any of the active learning strategies that help foster the learning and innovation skills.

The treatment phase comprised nine topics and lasted three months. A progress test was assigned at the end of each month to measure learners' proficiency improvement while applying the treatment.

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Table 22: First Year Syllabus Suggested Content

Lesson	Topic	Strategy	Output
The pre-test			
One	Telling jokes	-icebreakers -Classroom mingle	Describing peer jokes
Two	Telling lies	-Pair work -classroom mingle	- Sharing peer's lie to the class
Three	Describing Nature	-Running dictation -Gallery walk	Choice of the best picture + justification
The first progress test			
Four	Expressing opinion	-Pair work -Group discussion	Identifying and practising communication strategies
Five	Importance of collaboration	-Jigsaw - Collaborative learning group	- Marshmallow challenge
Six	Budding Journalists	- Pair work -Simulation	Presenting TV news
The second progress test			
Seven	Shopping	-Role-play	Buying necessities
Eight	Solving Problems	-Think-pair-share	Solving the puzzle
Nine	Idioms in everyday interaction	-The Round Robin Strategy - Learning cell	Guessing meaning of English idioms/ local idioms
The third progress test			
The post-test			

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It is worth mentioning that, learners experienced the treatment for a period of three months, and sat for a progress test each month (after each three session). The allocated time for each session was three hours each and the sessions comprised a three-step procedure, input, practice, and output or production. The variety of topics in the syllabus content aimed at raising learners' awareness of how English is used in different contexts and how to invest it in real life situations.

In the first stage (first month), the experimental group learners tackled the tasks incorporating learning and innovation skills through applying a set of active learning strategies. Teachers employ this latter to enhance the motivation, capture the minds, and evolve the interest of learners. Ergo, learners implemented icebreakers, classroom mingle, pair work, running dictation and gallery walk.

Icebreakers are tools that instructors use to foster learners' interaction and creative thinking encouragement. Pillai (2007) thinks that the purpose of icebreakers is to help new and shy learners to strike an interaction by improving communication skills and team building, demolishing cultural barriers among learners, fostering sense of trust and friendship among them, motivating and preparing them to learn by stimulating their minds and bodies.

Classroom mingle allows learners to share ideas with each other when they move around and ask for information or respond to a peer's question. Mingle activities encompass matching activities, group dictations, role-plays, and class questionnaires. The focus of this strategy could be on language, communicative functions, or meaning. The strategy is beneficial to structure meaningful interaction at any point in the lesson.

Pair work or learning cell (sometimes referred to as learner dyad) is an effective strategy for a pair of learners to study and learn together. It is the process of learning when

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learners fulfil a task cooperatively, or alternate answering or asking questions on studied materials. Pair work can take the form of peer correction or peer evaluation.

Running dictation is a very motivating strategy because it gets learners out of their seats and engages listening, reading, writing, and speaking skills. The strategy can take the form of pair work or group work. In this strategy, one learner is designated a writer while the members of the group supply him with information from the source which is placed somewhere in or outside the room. This continues until the dictation is complete. It could be a competition form if the winner pair or group (finishes first) is awarded extra marks.

Gallery walk entails learners working in groups to prepare a poster, a picture, or a chart then displaying it on the classroom wall to other learners. It requires learners moving around while one spokesperson stands beside the poster to answer the visitors' questions or give clarifications. Learners take turns standing by their posters so that all of them will get the chance to visit the other group's posters and take part in the discussion. Gallery walk is a classroom-based strategy where learners are encouraged to build on their knowledge about the topic or content to improve high-order thinking, interaction and cooperative learning (Francek, 2015).

In this stage, some learners seem reluctant to take part in the discussions and even not willing to collaborate or communicate with their colleagues (some female learners did not like to consult male learners and vice-versa). The researcher decided to involve them through asking them to report about their peers in the production phase through appointing learners to respond using numbers randomly (A learner suggested a number, the researcher counted and identified the respondent). Using numbers to nominate the respondent proved very beneficial as it keeps all learners feel concerned with the task as they may be assigned at any time.

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Moreover, learners experienced the technique of preparing in low-pressure situations before they shared their ideas with the whole class. Generally, this preparation takes five to ten minutes and it is done individually, in pairs or in small groups. Most learners stated their satisfaction with preparing in low-pressure situations and thought it was the secret of their self-confidence when talking in front of the class.

Concerning the learning environment, learners seemed lucky for some advantages. The first one was the classroom size; each group included only 18 learners and hence, the researcher can apply whatever techniques and strategies in this small group setting. The second advantage was the classroom environment. Due to the lack of rooms, the human sciences staff room was allocated as a classroom to English students. The room contained moving tables and chairs, which was helpful to organise the desired seating style. Two styles of seating dominated the scene during the academic year: horseshoe seating style and cluster seating style. The first phase ended with the assignment of the 1ST progress test to both groups, the experimental and the control groups. (Appendix F)

In the second phase, learners practised other communication and collaboration strategies to tackle new topics. As shown in table 22, First year learners discovered new strategies to tackle the chosen topics. These include “Expressing Opinion”, “Importance of Collaboration”, and “Budding Journalists”. To handle the topics in an interactive, communicative and collaborative way, the researcher selected a set of active learning strategies. Among them, we can mention pair work, group discussion, Jigsaw, and Collaborative learning group.

Group discussion is an interactive strategy for teaching the oral competence and it is more effective in smaller groups' settings. Small group discussion generally benefit learners in many ways. Burton (1990) stated that among the benefits would be learning good group management skills and effective interpersonal skills that are necessary for life roles in work

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and social contexts (p. 4). In the current study, learners dealt with the 'debate', which is a formal type of small group discussion. It involves discussing a topic from two opposing viewpoints.

The jigsaw strategy, developed by Elliot Aronson and his learners at the University of Texas and the University of California in the early 1970s. At that time, the strategy was invented to treat the problem of racial discrimination between white and black learners in classrooms. In a jigsaw puzzle, each learner's part is crucial for the final product. The strategy is very effective because it enables each learner of the 'home group' to specialise in one aspect of a topic. After learners' meeting with members from other groups (assigned the same task) and mastering the material, they return to the home group to teach the material they are experts in to their group individuals.

Collaborative learning group is a successful way to equip learners with the spirit of collaboration. In this strategy, learners are assigned a task to be done depending on the contribution of the group members. In this study, learners experienced a real collaborative work. They tried to cope with the 'Marshmallow Challenge'. They had fun time, trying to build the highest tower in order to challenge and win the other groups. During the construction of the tower, all members practised their English orally in a meaningful communicative real life situation.

During the second phase, learners become accustomed to working with each other and giving help to their peers when needed. At the end of this period, the researcher administered a second progress test to both groups to pinpoint the degree of learners' oral competence progress. The test consisted of answering various questions about materials learnt before or probable daily life questions. Learners prepared their questions and asked them to the guest when assigned by the researcher.

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More learning strategies fostered the acquisition of communication and collaboration skills in the third stage of the experiment. To deal with the topics outlined in table 22. above, the researcher adopted Role-play, Think-pair-share, Round Robin, and learning cell strategies.

The think-pair-share strategy (TPS) is the strategy that fits most types of learners' learning strategies. It works for reflective learners (when they work individually), impulsive learners (when working in pairs or groups). This strategy entails learners to (1) think individually to solve the problem or answer the question; (2) compare with a peer; and (3) share ideas with the whole class. This three-step answer maximises participation, focuses attention, and engages students in understanding the material at hand.

The Round Robin strategy (the round table) is a brainstorming activity in which learners sit around a table in an academic discussion and produce ideas or give suggestions on a specific topic or issue. It is also a means to foster a collaborative learning environment where equal participation among learners and multiple discussions are taking place. In this strategy, participants start considering the question or topic and a contributor takes the initiative while the other participants remain quiet. When all participants enriched the topic, the facilitator concludes the session with a group discussion. In our study, learners guessed the meaning of some idiomatic expressions after they listened to them in their context (dialogue).

3.2.7.3. The Post-test

By the end of the experimental phase, the researcher administered the post-test to both groups to verify the effectiveness of integrating learning and innovation skills in enhancing first-year LMD learners' oral competence. The researcher conducted the test and rated it. The test task reflected some aspects of real life situations. It was a role-play activity in

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which, learners were supposed to conduct a shopping event. They selected the type of shopping they preferred to fulfil and the peer with whom to role-play. They also prepared in low-pressure situations. Learners referred to the posters representing different types of goods to act their role-plays, which were video-recorded and analysed by the researcher. The grades obtained from the post-test were compared to the ones of the pre-test to decide on the effectiveness of the treatment.

3.2.7.4. Validity of the Tests

Validity is an essential and most necessary concept in language assessment because “accepted practices of test validation are critical to decisions about what constitutes a good language test for a particular situation” (Chapelle, 1999, p. 254). In recent years, other perspectives of conceptualising validity have broadened the term to mean “an overarching logical structure that provides a basis both for test design and development and for score interpretation and use” (Bachman 2005, p.25). Validity of assessment involves what should be assessed is actually being assessed and the test task should be designed with the intention of allowing candidates to attain a particular goal in a particular context (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 44). To assure validity of tasks, practitioners should assure that the purpose of each test is clear and what is being tested and assessed is being achieved.

Besides, the test tasks should reflect some aspects of real life situations, or at least in accordance with speaking in the real world. According to Fulcher, such authentic tasks maintain validity and prepare learners for real life situations, and not only prepare them for school tests (2010, pp. 52-57).

Reliability, which is the consistency of a test, means that the result will be the same when the test is administered, and hence, results can be compared (Simensen, 1998, p. 253).

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For the CEFR, the concepts of validity and reliability are very essential elements. Reliability is realised when the assessment is consistent and trustworthy (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 177). According to Bygate (1987), the concept of reliability is difficult to attain because speaking is a 'real time' phenomenon. A suggested way for increasing reliability is to adopt an agreed marking scale with clear fixed set of criteria on which grades are based.

Concerning the relationship between validity and reliability, Simensen, notes that a criterion for validity in assessment entails that the test is reliable, which means that it gauges the same for whatever it is utilised (1998, p. 254). She adds that validity for a test could be realised based on pre-set assessment criteria, as executing certain criteria for accomplishing the assessment attests measuring what one intends to measure.

3.2.7.5. Oral Competence Assessment

In order to evaluate learners' oral competence, the researcher administered various tests (a pre-test, progress-tests, and a post-test) adopting a speaking rating scale with a set of criteria based on appropriate descriptors. These criteria include comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency.

Based on the descriptors, learners attain grades ranging from 0/4 to 4/4 marks in each criterion, which the researcher rated separately during the study. Ergo, we distinguish between four bands levels in the suggested rubric. The highest mark (4/4) was attributed to the remark 'excellent', $\frac{3}{4}$ to 'good', $\frac{2}{4}$ to Average, $\frac{1}{4}$ to 'poor', and 0/4 to the remark 'very poor'. The indicators in the rubric help the examiner score learners' oral performance out of twenty. Table 23 below is a sample of the oral competence rating rubric utilised in the present study with detailed indicators for each speaking component. The final average mark is calculated depending on the candidate's oral performance.

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Table 23: A Sample of Speaking Rating Scale

Speaking component	Excellent (4/4)	Good (3/4)	Average (2/4)	Poor (1/4)	Very poor (0,5/4)
Comprehension	Understands conversation and classroom exchange easily. Shows no difficulty in grasping the oral language spoken by native speakers.	. Grasp of nearly everything in classroom exchange with occasional hardships. Understands with less difficulty and repetitions the speech uttered by native speakers.	. Understands utterances in the classroom with some difficulty. .understands native speaker's speech with difficulty	Has great difficulty grasping a conversation and classroom exchange even with repetition. .understands native speaker's speech with great difficulty	Understanding and communication are not possible. Cannot understand native speaker's speech.
Grammar	.Accurate and efficient use of grammatical patterns .Use of simple and complex structures adequately	Almost all grammatical patterns are accurate with few minor grammatical mistakes. .Acceptable grammatical accuracy in both simple and compound structures	Frequent mistakes in grammar and word order leading to misunderstanding. The speaker sometimes uses inadequate verb tenses and unappropriated parts of speech.	. Almost all grammatical patterns are inaccurate. Fundamental grammatical errors lead to miscomprehension.	. Vague speech. .No control or knowledge of grammar.
Vocabulary	. Use of accurate and pertinent vocabulary. .Use of a variety of lexis comprising idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs.	Almost appropriate range of vocabulary. .Few occasional inadequate words	. Frequent use of inadequate and irrelevant vocabulary. Limited vocabulary renders comprehension quite difficult.	. Vocabulary is extremely limited. .Irrelevant vocabulary renders comprehension quite hard.	. Vocabulary is irrelevant for even the simplest conversation.

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Pronunciation	Pronunciation is accurate/ intelligible. .Stress placement, intonation, and connected speech are implemented appropriately.	.Pronunciation is acceptable in most cases .Stress, intonation, and connected speech are seldom incorrect.	. Frequent errors in pronouncing some words.. .Phonemic articulation, stress, intonation, and connected speech are generally incorrect.	. Pronunciation of some simple sounds and words wrong .Inadequate use of stress, intonation and connected speech.	. Very weak and unintelligible pronunciation with serious mistakes
Fluency	. Speech is produced freely, coherently, and fluently with no pauses and hesitations. .Speech rate is normal	. Speech is produced properly with few pauses, occasional repetitions or self-correction. .Speech rate is generally adequate.	. Speech delivery is slow with frequent breakdowns, pauses and hesitations that hinder communication	.Speech is broken up because of long pauses, hesitations and difficulty in getting suitable words. .Speech delivery rate is inappropriate.	. Speech is unclear and incoherent that makes discussion impossible.

3.2.8. Data Analysis Procedures

As referred to earlier, the researcher opted for a classroom research experimental study to pinpoint the effectiveness of integrating learning and innovation skills in enhancing the oral competence of first- year LMD learners. Therefore, the data analysis of the present research study can be categorised as consisting of qualitative and quantitative analysis in an attempt to control the multiple sets of data. This combination builds a basis to carry out research in an analytic-deductive design. In this context, Newman and Benz (1998) state that “a combination of qualitative and quantitative constructs ... are often regarded as a matter of continuum rather than a clear-cut dichotomy” (quoted in Davies, 2004, p. 488).

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3.2.8.1. Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

Researchers use quantitative data analysis to explain phenomena by collecting numerical data to be analysed via mathematical methods. Dornyei (2001c) defines quantitative research as:

Quantitative research employs categories, viewpoints and models as precisely defined by the researcher in advance as possible, and numerical or directly quantifiable data are collected to determine the relationship between these categories, to test research hypotheses and to enhance the aggregation of knowledge. (p. 192)

The quantitative data analysis relies on numerical analysis, which can be implemented manually, or by software such as the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). In the present research, the 23rd, version SPSS software was utilised to calculate statistical tests, and questionnaires. As raw data cannot be informative if they are not organised and described. The researcher applied descriptive statistics, with focus on frequency, mean, percentage, and standard deviations for a better understanding of the obtained results.

- As the majority of the questionnaires' items are closed questions, questionnaires data and observation grid data will be analysed quantitatively, coded, organised, described, and interpreted before drawing conclusions. The analysis will take the form of descriptive statistics that depends on computing frequencies, percentages, and means. The researcher then synthesises and transforms the data into tabular form, bar graphs, and pie charts.

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- The researcher will also utilise T-Test of independent sample for data analysis in order to test the significance of integrating the learning and innovation skills.

3.2.8.2. Qualitative Data Analysis Procedures

The focal point in applying qualitative analysis is to gain an in-depth understanding of reasons and motivations. Researchers generally implement methods and procedures associated with qualitative research into second / foreign language research. Cohen et al. assert “Qualitative data analysis involves organising, accounting for and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in terms of the participants’ definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes categories and regularities” (2005, p.461). The qualitative analysis is exploratory and descriptive- oriented in purpose, and data may take the form of interview, written responses to open-ended questions or observations (Weir & Robert, 1994).

The qualitative data analysis is used in this research to analyse the results of the learners’ interviews and some open-ended questions from both teachers and learners’ questions. After coding the qualitative data, the researcher’s focal point will be the establishment of some links between the different data results to establish reliable results to the research questions. This combination will serve as a foundation of a useful mixture between the qualitative and quantitative data within the overall framework of the raised problematic. For more clarification of this research procedure, the researcher outlined it in the following table.

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Table 24: Design of the Study

Phase	Instrument	Method	Period
Pre-experimental Phase	Teachers' questionnaire learners' questionnaire	Quantitative Quantitative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The onset of the study • The onset of the study
Experimental phase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiment • Observation • learners' questionnaire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative • Quantitative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The end of the first term. • Throughout the study
Post-experimental phase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • learners' questionnaire • learners' interview 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative + quantitative • Qualitative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The end of the second term

Conclusion

Before constructing the foundations of the practical chapter, the researcher favoured initiating it with a bird's eye view of the status of English in Algeria, objectives of EFL teaching, the oral competence in the Algerian English Framework, and ELT at university level.

In the next step, the researcher supplied a detailed explanation of the research approaches and methods as an introductory step. Then, the chapter introduced the population and the sampling of the study with focus on discussion of the data collection tools. This latter constituted of the questionnaires, the observation grid, and the interview.

Additionally, the chapter supplied a full description of the experimental design with reference to the analysis procedures and techniques. It also displayed the suggested topics and the active learning strategies learners applied to practice communication and collaboration skills. These details pave the way to the practical chapter in order to analyse the data obtained and discuss the study results.

*Chapter Four:
Analysis,
Interpretation
and
Discussion of
Findings*

Chapter Four: Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion of Findings

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Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher will report, analyse and interpret the data from the teachers and learners' questionnaires, learners' tests, the researcher's observation, and learners' interview. Each phase in the study will be tackled separately before the main results are summarised to discuss the research questions.

This chapter also presents the results of the data analysis in terms of absolute and relative frequency counts and analyses the collected data in a triangulation method to provide evidence to answer the research questions. Finally, the obtained results will be discussed in descriptive statistics form and through graphic representations.

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The research Questions

In the current classroom-oriented study, four research instruments (table 25.) were employed to investigate the research questions settled at the onset of this study.

Table 25: Research instruments used to answer research questions

Research Questions	Research Instrument
1-What problems do first year students of English face when interacting orally in English?	-Learners' speaking difficulties Questionnaire -Learners' Pre-Test
2- What strategies do teachers offer to help learners overcome their obstacles in oral interaction?	-Teachers' questionnaire
3- What are the effects of learning and innovation skills on the participants' oral competence?	-Learners' speaking tests -Learners' Interview - Observation Grid

4.1. Pre-experimental Phase

As presented in table 25, the researcher administered two questionnaires and a test at the onset of the study to gain a full picture of how first year oral expression teachers handle the teaching of this competence, and to explore the hurdles learners face when speaking the target language. The analysis of the results will display the learners' oral competence level, their range of problems and the strategies teachers adopt to help them.

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4.1.1. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

Section 1: General information

The questionnaire administered to teachers encompassed three sections named subsequently general information, learners' speaking difficulties, and teachers' strategies to develop their learners' oral competence. In the general information section, the teachers declared that their teaching experience ranged from two years to eighteen years. They held qualifications ranging from Master to Ph.D. degrees and taught different modules besides to oral expression. These included civilisation, grammar, written expression, research methodology, phonetics, and didactics.

Section 2: Learners' Speaking Difficulties

In the learners' speaking difficulties section, the results obtained from the teachers' questionnaire are shown in the table below with a reflection on their level of motivation.

Item 2: - How do you rate your learners' level of motivation to speak English?

Table 26: Learners' Level of Motivation

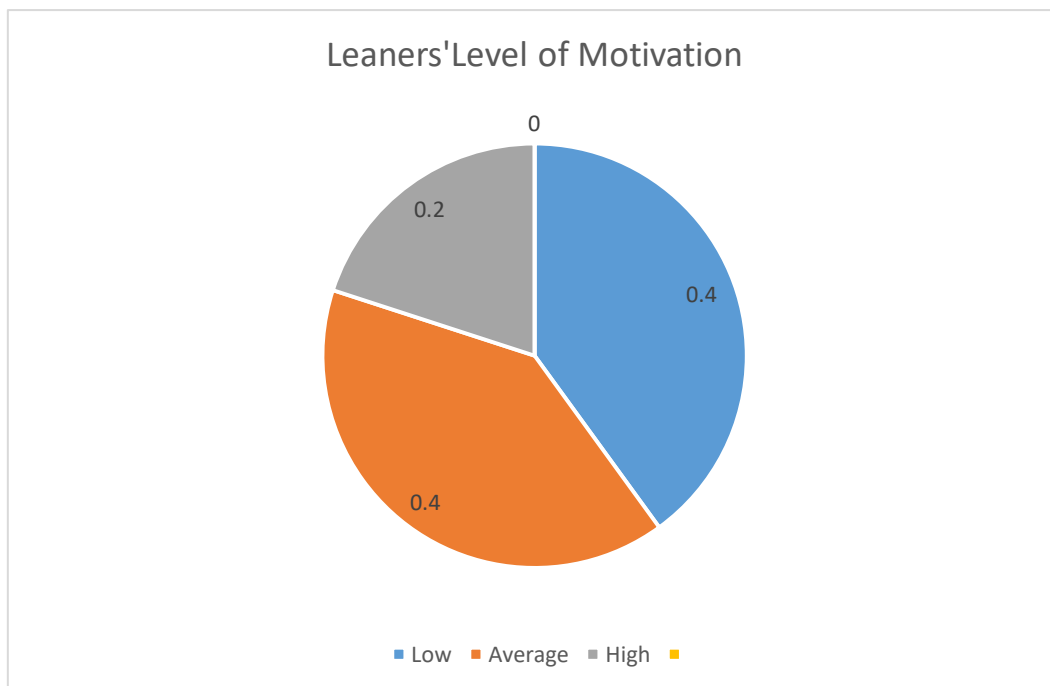
Statement / Question	Low	Average	High
2- How do you rate your learners' level of motivation to speak English?	40%	40%	20%

The second item concerns the learners' motivation level to speak the target language. The respondents thought that learners have inconstant levels. As shown in table 26, four teachers (40%) declared that their learners had a low level of motivation. Another four teachers (40%) stated that their learners possessed an average level of motivation, and only two teachers (20%) expressed their satisfaction of their learners' motivational level because they

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had a high level of motivation to apply the target language in different contexts. The results may be represented in a Pie chart as follows:

Figure 13: Learners' Motivation Level



It is clear from the chart that one of the hurdles 40 % of learners are struggling with is their low level of motivation. This latter is affected by many factors. Danis (1993, p. 3) stated “...interest in the subject matter, perception of its usefulness, general desire to achieve, self-confidence, self-esteem, as well as patience and persistence”. Therefore, teachers need awareness about learners' individual differences, preferences, and psychological factors.

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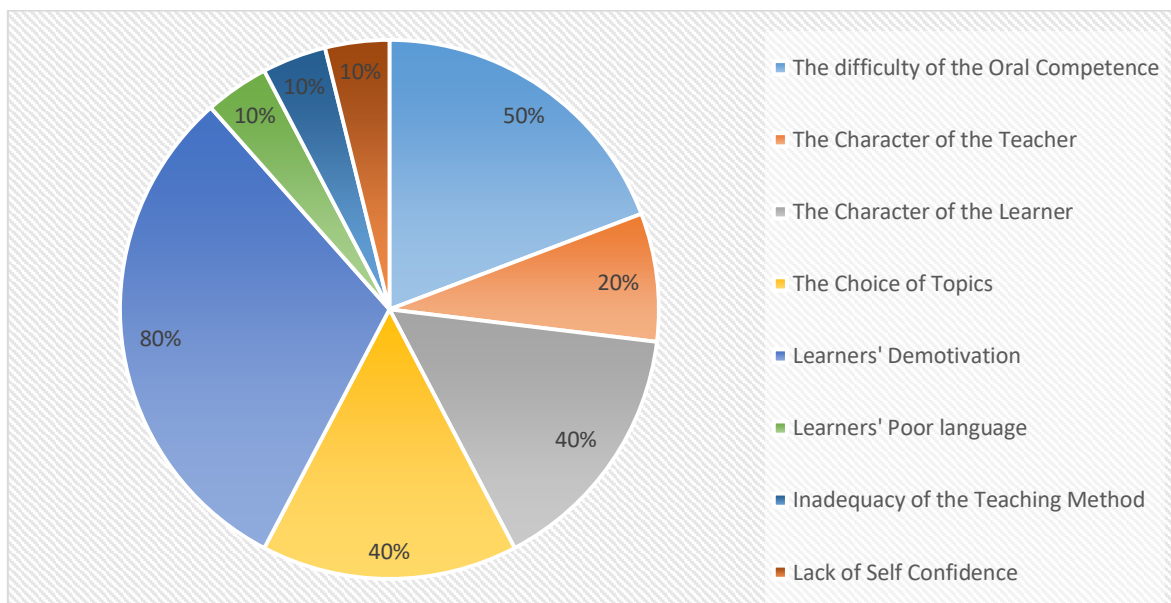
Item 3: Teachers' views about the source of learners' difficulties

Table 27: Teachers' Views About the Source of Learners' Mistakes

3-In your point of view, some learners face difficulties in the oral competence because of :	
- 1-The difficulty of the oral competence	50 %
2 - The character of teacher	20 %
- 3- the character of Learner	40 %
- 4- The choice of topics	40 %
- 5-Learners' demotivation	80 %
-Others(specify)...6- Poor language	10 %
7-Inadequacy of the teaching approach	10 %
8-Lack of confidence (fear of mistakes)	10 %

The results of the third item about teachers' views on the source of learners' difficulties revealed that learners' demotivation as presented in table 27 above, (80 %) could be the major source of the difficulties they face in the oral competence. 50% of the teachers' responses affirmed that the difficulty of the oral competence might be a second source of the problem. They ranked the factors of 'the character of the learner' and 'the choice of topics' as a third cause of the problem with a percentage of 40 %. In their views, the character of the teacher (20 %) was the last and the least factor affecting learners' oral competence. The respondents added three more factors as contributing to the difficulties. These include learners' poor language, inadequacy of the teaching approach, and the lack of confidence (fear of making mistakes). A summary of teachers' views is summarised in the following pie chart on the next page:

Figure 14: Learners' Difficulties



Item 4: Causes of Learners' Reticence

When teachers were asked about the causes of learners' reluctance to participate in the oral expression sessions, they rated the elements suggested by the researcher giving the following results:

Table 28: Causes of Learners' Reticence

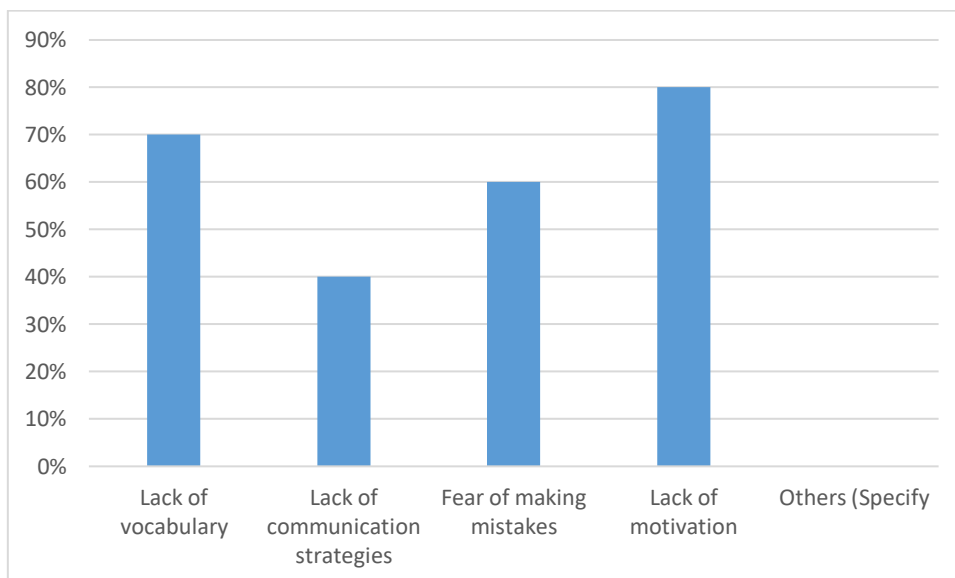
Cause	Percentage (%)
-Lack of vocabulary	70 %
-Lack of communication strategies	40 %
-Fear of making mistakes	60%
-Lack of motivation	80 %
Others(specify).....	00 %

The results in the table above (28), ranked 'lack of motivation' as the primary cause of learners' reticence to practise the target language orally with a high percentage of (80%). On

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the other hand, seven respondents (70 %) thought that 'lack of vocabulary' represented the second obstacle. Furthermore, teachers did not add other factors and limited their responses to rating 'fear of making mistakes' as the third cause of the problem with a percentage of 60 % and 'lack of communication strategies' as a last barrier to learners' speaking competence with a percentage of 40 % as shown in table 28. The graph on the following page presents the results in detail:

Figure 15: Causes of Learners' Reticence to Speak English



Item 5: Types of Learners' Mistakes

The Last question in the second section revolves around the types of mistakes learners often commit when interacting in the target language. All teachers agreed that mistakes included areas of grammar, pronunciation, word choice and fluency, but in varied degrees. The highest degree registered in pronunciation (90 %) and nearly all participant teachers affirmed that learners struggle with pronunciation (9/10). The second area of struggle for EFL learners was fluency. Eight teachers declared that learners found it difficult to speak English fluently, and the majority of

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learners' speech was characterised by lots of hesitations, false starts, and pauses that caused incomprehensibility. As presented in the table below, fluency problems represented 80 % of learners' mistakes, grammar mistakes 70 % and the least area concerned word choice with a percentage of 40 %, which means that only four teachers asserted the occurrence of mistakes in this area.

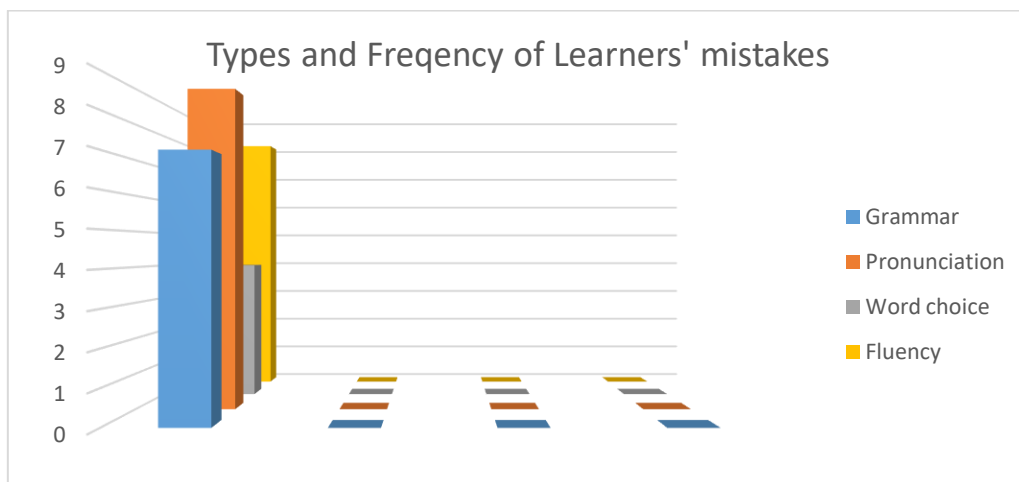
Table 29: Frequency of Learners' Mistakes

2- Learners' Types of Mistakes	Range
- Grammar	70 %
- Pronunciation	90 %
- word choice	40 %
- Fluency	80 %
Others (specify).....	00 %

Being aware of learners' common mistakes, teachers could take the initiative to solve the problem through assigning tasks, raising their learners' awareness of their own mistakes, and providing an encouraging learning atmosphere.

The above data could be put in the following bar graph to visualise a clearer picture.

Figure 16: Types and Frequency of Learners' mistakes



Section 3: Teachers' Strategies to Develop Learners' Oral Competence.

The third section in the teachers' questionnaire entitled 'teachers' strategies to develop learners' oral competence' comprises six items with a blank space to suggest other factors or suggestions to the ones given by the researcher. Table 30f gives a general view about the items and the obtained results.

Table 30: Teachers' strategies to develop learners' oral competence

6 - Which aspect do you focus on more when teaching Speaking?					
-Speaking tasks	100 %				
-Learners' interaction	60 %				
-Learners' motivation	80 %				
-Learners' engagement	80 %				
Other (s) Specify	00 %				
Statement	never	rarely	some-times	Often	Always
7 -How often do you give learners opportunities to do collaborative tasks during oral expression sessions?	00 %	00 %	20 %	40	40

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8 -How often do learners communicate to solve problems during oral expression sessions?	00 %	10	10	60	20
9 - Which of the following strategies you use more during oral expression sessions?	Jigsaw	Round-table	Gallery walk	Running dictation	Other(s)
	60	60	20	00	Role play10% +debate10% Games 10%
10- How do you choose topics to be discussed in class?					
You make your own choice	20%				
- You follow a special syllabus	20%				
- Learners' choice	50%				
- After a discussion with learners	70%				
- Others (specify).....	00 %				
11- How do you help learners improve their oral competence?					
-Through group discussion	80 %				
-Through achieving projects	70 %				
-through giving feedback	60 %				
- Others (specify)...self-assessment	10 %				

Item 6: Elements of Focus in teaching Speaking

When asked about the elements of focus when dealing with teaching speaking, all teachers stated that their focal point was the speaking tasks (100 %) because this latter play a

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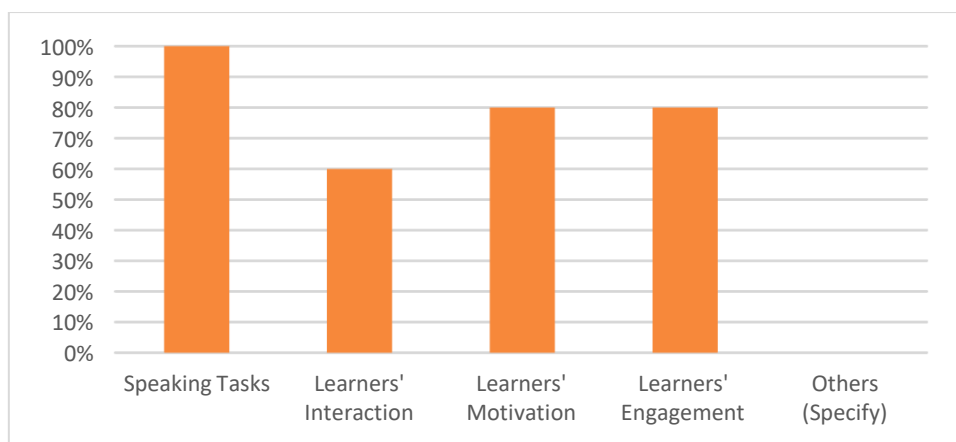
crucial role in fostering learners' oral proficiency. As illustrated in table 31 below, teachers also focused on learners' motivation (80 %), Learners' engagement (80 %) besides to learners' interaction (60 %).

Table 31: Elements of Focus in Teaching Speaking

6 - Which aspect do you focus on more when teaching Speaking?	
-Speaking tasks	100 %
-Learners' interaction	60 %
-Learners' motivation	80 %
-Learners' engagement	80 %
Other (s) Specify	00 %

The respondents focus was thus limited to the above elements as key components to enhance the speaking competence of their learners. All of them left the space for other suggestions blank (00 %). The bar graph on the next page clarifies the information presented in table 31.

Figure 17: Focus Elements in Teaching Speaking



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Item 7: Frequency of collaborative tasks in speaking lessons.

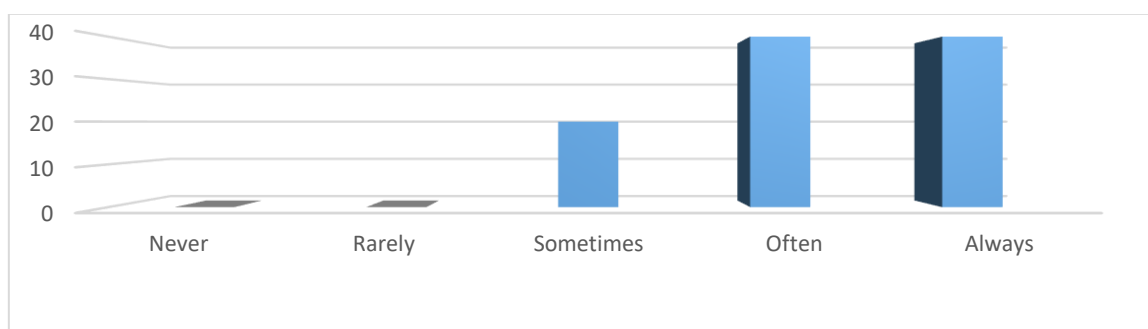
Based on information in table 32, Teachers not only focused on speaking tasks, but also favoured collaborative tasks as well. Four (4) teachers (40%) declared that they always gave learners opportunities to do collaborative tasks, and another four (4) said they often did so. The rest, representing 20 %, asserted that they sometimes tackle collaborative tasks in class.

Table 32: Frequency of Collaborative Tasks in Speaking Classes

Statement	never	rarely	some-times	often	Always
7 -How often do you give learners opportunities to do collaborative tasks during oral expression sessions?	00 %	00 %	20 %	40 %	40%

None of the respondent teachers chose the options of 'never' and 'rarely' in the rubric. They all agreed on the importance of collaborative tasks to enhance communication and collaboration among learners. The results of item 7 are presented in the following graph on the next page:

Figure 18: Frequency of Collaborative Tasks in Speaking Classes



Item 8: Frequency of Learners' Communication.

As far as communication is concerned, all teachers focus on improving their learners' communication skills. Two teachers affirmed that they always offer learners opportunities

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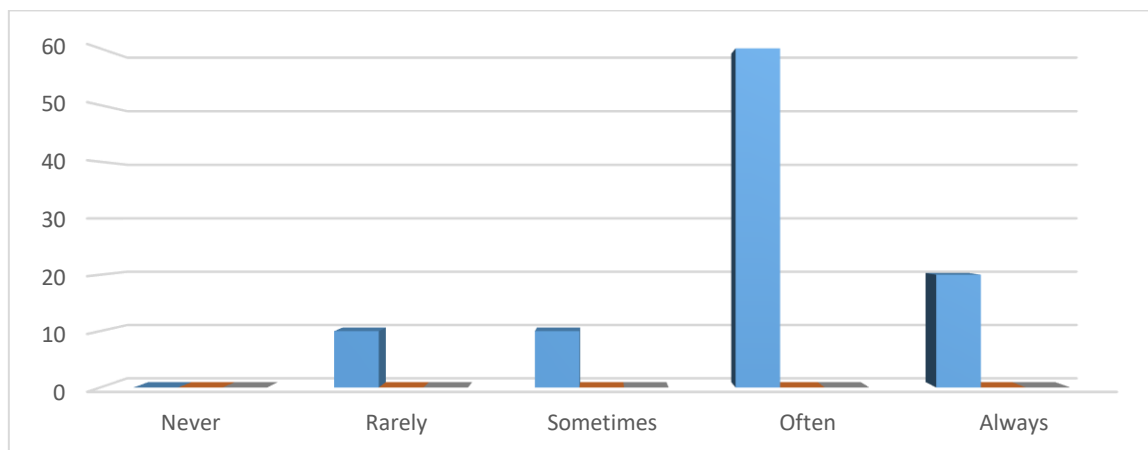
to communicate and collaborate to solve problems. Table 33 shows that the majority of them (60 %) stated they often foster learners' communication in their classes.

Table 33: Frequency of learners' Communication in Oral classes

Statement	never	rarely	some-times	often	Always
8 -How often do learners communicate to solve problems in oral expression sessions?	00 %	10%	10%	60%	20%

On the other hand, the minority of teachers (1) declared that they rarely implement communicative tasks, and another one (10 %) said that communication between learners sometimes takes place when dealing with oral expression session. None of the questioned teachers was in favour of the idea of neglecting this type of tasks. The following graph summarises teachers' perceptions about the practice of communication skills.

Figure 19: Learners' Communication in Oral classes



Item 9: Types of strategies to improve Learners' Oral Competence

When asked about their preferred tasks in teaching the speaking competence, the majority of teachers (60 %) favoured the jigsaw method and the round table strategy. Table 34

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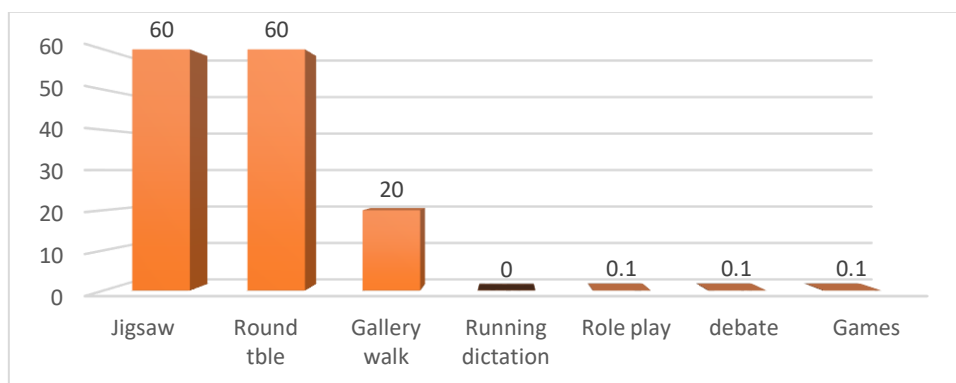
below shows that only two teachers (20%) selected the strategy of gallery walk and no one of the respondents agreed on using the running dictation in their classrooms.

Table 34: Types of strategies to improve Learners' Oral Competence

9 - Which of the following strategies you use more during oral expression sessions?	Jigsaw	Round-table	Gallery walk	Running dictation	Other(s)
	60	60	20	00	Role play10% +de-bate10%G ames 10%

In the column of 'others' devoted to adding other suggestions or strategies, one teacher (10%) added the task of 'role play' as an important task. Another teacher suggested 'debates' as an active strategy to teach speaking. The last suggestion was about using 'games' as an active strategy to enhance learners' oral competence. The summary might be put in the bar graph as shown on the following page:

Figure 20: Types of tasks to improve Learners' Oral Competence



Item 10: Ways of topics choice

Topics choice represents a fundamental pillar and a crucial issue in teaching speaking. Authentic teaching materials engage learners and motivate them to take part in the learning

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process. Teachers adapt various ways to select the topics that interest learners. When asked about the process of topics choice, two teachers (20%) made their own choice, and another two followed a special syllabus. Half of the teachers (50 %) gave learners the opportunity to choose topics from a list. The statement 'After a discussion with learners' was chosen by the majority of the respondents as shown in table 35 below. The discussion may result in changing some topics, adapting them, or adding others.

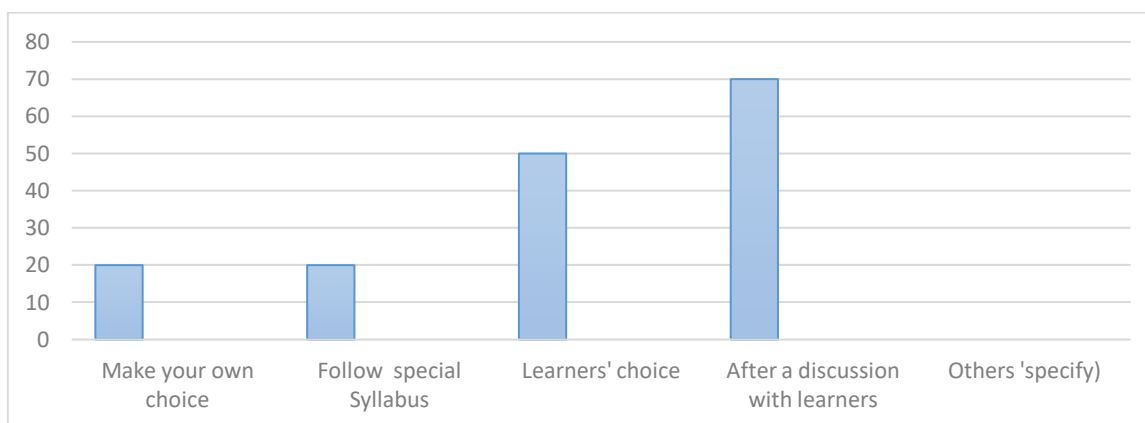
Table 35: Ways of the teaching material choice

10- How do you choose topics to be discussed in class?	
You make your own choice	20%
- You follow a special syllabus	20%
- Learners' choice	50%
- After a discussion with learners	70%
- Others (specify).....	00 %

As far as the choice of topics is concerned, teachers deal with different topics and generally do not collaborate due to the unavailability of an official planning syllabus devoted to teaching the speaking competence. Nevertheless, the respondents did not propose other ways to select teaching materials for the oral expression course. They limited their contribution to rating the given options presented in graph 19 below.

Figure 21: Ways of Choosing Topics

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Item 10: Ways of improving learners' oral competence

Table 36: Ways of Improving Learners' Oral Competence

11- How do you help learners improve their oral competence?	
-Through group discussion	80 %
-Through achieving projects	70 %
--Through giving feedback	60 %
- Others (specify)...self-assessment	10 %

Getting an overall view about the teaching of the speaking competence from teachers' viewpoints is very helpful for the researcher, and gaining some basics on how to enhance it, constitutes one of the researcher's targets. Eight teachers (80%) chose the option of the group discussion as their preferred technique to enhance their learners' oral competence. and another seven answers (70 %) selected the option of 'through achieving projects'. Six teachers (60%) think that giving feedback is a good way to foster it. In the column of giving other suggestions, only one teacher (10%) added the element of 'Self -assessment'. The obtained data might be shown in the bar graph on the following page.

Figure 22: Ways of Improving Learners' Oral Competence



4.1.2. Analysis of Learners' Questionnaire

4.1.2.1. Questionnaire 1: Learning Difficulties

Section 1: Demographic information -Item 1. Learners Gender

Table 37: Learners' Gender

Response	Male	Female	Total
Participants	11	25	36
Percentage	30.55	69.44	100%

The table above (37) highlights the proportions of participants of the current investigation. The female participants outnumbered the males, because the latter generally favour the scientific streams, while the females are more interested in foreign languages especially the English language.

Item 2. Learners' Age

Table 38: Learners' Age Groups

Response	17-19	20-22	23-25	No answer	Total
Participants	21	07	05	03	36
Percentage	58.33	19.44	13.88	08.33	100%

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The data in item 2 inform us about the different groups of learners' age. The first group age, ranging from 17 to 19 years old, constitutes the majority of learners (as shown in table 38). Among them, four learners are early school joined pupils (at the age of five) and 27.77 of them are aged 19. The second group includes seven learners ageing between 20 and 22 years old. The least percentage (13.88) appeared in the third group, which included learners of 23 to 25 years old. These data reveal that learners are homogeneous since the majority are under the age of 22.

Section 2: Learners' Speaking Difficulties

Item 1: I make mistakes in grammar when I speak English.

Table 39: Frequency of Learners' mistakes in grammar

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	5	13.9
Sometimes	10	27.8
Often	11	30.6
Always	10	27.8
Total	36	100.0

As presented in table 39 above, one of the prevailing difficulties learners face when they speak English is their incapability to master the grammar of English. More than 30% of them stated that they often make mistakes in grammar. The reason behind the problem is the lack of the language practice, as the majority of them do know the rules when it comes to speaking about them in isolation. Ten (10) participants declared that they always make mistakes in grammar and another 10 stated that they sometimes do so. Only five participants responded that they rarely commit grammar mistakes when they speak the target language. The results of item 3 confirm the data obtained from the teachers' questionnaire that 70% of learners make mistakes in the area of grammar when they speak the language.

Item 2: I make mistakes in pronunciation.

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Table 40: Frequency of Learners' mistakes in pronunciation

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	8	22.2
Sometimes	12	33.3
Often	8	22.2
Always	8	22.2
Total	36	100.0

The second area learners struggle with in their learning is pronunciation. Intelligibility constitutes an important aspect in the speaking competence. In the current investigation, more than 44% of the respondents affirm that they either often or always commit errors in pronunciation. Only eight (8) participants stated that they rarely make mistakes in their oral production. Oral expression teachers asserted that pronunciation is the language area in which learners suffer a lot. They ranked it as the first area that causes inhibition for learners to participate in their speaking classes.

Item 3: I cannot remember vocabulary when speaking.

Table 41: Frequency of lexis need

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	4	11.1
Sometimes	11	30.6
Often	10	27.8
Always	11	30.6
Total	36	100.0

Among the learning difficulties is the learners' inability to remember vocabulary items and to select the appropriate ones when expressing their thoughts in the target language. This difficulty is due to the lack of language practice, or the unavailability of the

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items in the lexical repertoire. Our respondents affirmed the existence of the problem. More than twenty participants stated that either they always or often cannot remember vocabulary items, and eleven (11) stated that they sometimes do so. Only four participants gave positive answer thinking that they cannot remember words in rare occasions.

Item 4: I speak with pauses and hesitations.

Table 42: Frequency of Fluency Hurdles

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	6	16.7
Sometimes	9	25.0
Often	8	22.2
Always	13	36.1
Total	36	100.0

Second and foreign language learners find it nerve-wracking to perform coherent speeches especially in impromptu speaking. Speaking with long pauses and too many hesitations lead to the breakdown of the interaction and cause incomprehensibility. The need to consider the issue of fluency in teaching speaking is a crucial point, as fluency is the learners' ability to speak in an intelligible way in order to keep the flow of communication to maintain the listeners' interest.

In the current study, thirteen respondents (13) ascertained the occurrence of the problem with great frequency and eight (8) stated that they often experienced the situation of speaking with pauses and hesitations. Likewise, nine (9) respondents think that it sometimes happens to them and six (6) pretend to face the problem in very rare occasions.

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Item 5: I use substitution words for those I do not know.

Table 43: Frequency of the substitution strategy

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	9	25.0 %
Sometimes	10	27.8 %
Often	10	27.8 %
Always	7	19.4 %
Total	36	100.0 %

Communication strategies help learners keep the interaction going on and avoid the breakdown of the conversation. Using substitution words helps speakers convey their ideas and maintain the attention of the interlocutors. In our study, ten respondents favour the use of the strategy, a similar number affirmed that they sometimes use it, and seven stated that they always use it in their interactions. On the other hand, nine respondents declared that they sometimes employ the strategy to convey their messages.

Item 6: I ask for repetition / clarification when communicating with others.

Table 44: Frequency of asking for clarification/ repetition strategies

Despite the importance of the communication strategies, learners do not appreciate its effectiveness in repairing the communication breakdowns.

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	11	30.6 %
Sometimes	15	41.7 %
Often	5	13.9 %
Always	5	13.9 %
Total	36	100.0 %

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The results obtained from item 6 represent the little use of asking for clarification / repetition when the message is not conveyed clearly. Fifteen participants use the strategy very occasionally, and eleven very rarely. Only five respondents confirmed using the strategy all the time. Likewise, another five participants confirmed that they often utilise this communication strategy.

Item 7: I worry about making mistakes.

Table 45: Frequency of worrying about making mistakes

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	5	13.9
Sometimes	8	22.2
Often	10	27.8
Always	13	36.1
Total	36	100.0

Fear of making mistakes is one the causes of learners' reticence to speak the language. Too much apprehension about one's self to lose face yields inhibition. Our respondents affirmed the spread of the problem among them to varying degrees. Twenty-three (23) participants representing more than 63% of the study sample declared they either always or often worry about mistakes in grammar and pronunciation. The rest of participants consider the problem less acute and state that they sometimes or rarely worry about language mistakes when communicating with others.

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Item 8: my listeners misunderstand me

Table 46: Level of Intelligibility Frequency

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	12	33.3
Sometimes	17	47.2
Often	4	11.1
Always	3	8.3
Total	36	100.0

A good command of linguistic components of language like phonology, syntax, vocabulary, and semantics constitutes a prerequisite for intelligibility. Conveying clear and comprehensible messages is the ultimate goal of second and foreign language learners. In our study, the majority of participants have a positive opinion towards their intelligibility. Seventeen participants representing 47.2 % think that they sometimes produce unclear speech. On the other hand, a small proportion constitutes of seven respondents have a negative view about their level of intelligibility.

Item 9: I speak English in class.

Table 47: Frequency of Classroom Language Practice

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	10	27.8
Sometimes	8	22.2
Often	12	33.3
Always	6	16.7
Total	36	100.0

Language practice in the classroom is influenced by a set of factors such as learners' self –confidence, classroom atmosphere, the teaching material and the teaching method. In

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the classroom, Learners can overcome their difficulties through emphasising on language practice. Half of the respondents expressed their interest in the classroom language practice. The other half is reluctant to practise the target language in the classroom for a reason or another. This fact of low practice interprets the low level of learners' speaking competence.

Item 10: I speak English outside the class.

Table 48: Frequency of English Language Practice outside the Classroom

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	13	36.1
Sometimes	11	30.6
Often	8	22.2
Always	4	11.1
Total	36	100.0

Using English outside the classroom is the goal of learning the foreign language. As investing knowledge acquired at school to solve daily-life problems renders learning very meaningful. Our respondents (66.7) asserted that they speak English outside the classroom in rare occasions only. The language lack of practice deepens the problem and contributes to learners' low level of the oral competence. Hence, teachers could orient their learners to widen their scope of language practice using the available media means.

Item 11: I feel shy when I speak English.

Table 49: Frequency of the Shyness Factor in Speaking Classes

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	6	16.7
Sometimes	11	30.6
Often	8	22.2
Always	11	30.6

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Total	36	100.0
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Diffidence is a personality trait that prevents learners from taking part in discussions carried out in the language classrooms. It may also result from fear of being criticised in front of a large number of friends. More than half (52.8) of the questioned learners declared that they are obsessed by shyness when they practice the English Language. This affective factor could also contribute to learners' reticence to speak the target language, and hence to low performance in the oral competence.

Item 12: I feel nervous when speaking English in front of the class.

Table 50: Learners' Level of Anxiety

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	8	22.2%
Sometimes	8	22.2%
Often	9	25.0%
Always	11	30.6%
Total	36	100%

Although the speaking skill is anxiety provoking, teachers should think of providing relaxing environments to help learners overcome their psychological problems. One way to make them comfortable in their learning is to understand their interests and feelings, improve their self-confidence, inform them that making mistakes is a part of the learning process, and offer them much guidance and more practice of the language. In our case, our respondents (55.6%) affirmed having trouble with anxiety in the speaking sessions, and hence, the anxiety factor could be added to the list of learning difficulties.

Item 13: I understand English native speakers.

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Table 51: Native Speaker's Comprehension Frequency

Response	Participants	Percentage
Rarely	10	27.8%
Sometimes	12	33.3%
Often	9	25.0%
Always	5	13.9%
Total	36	100.0%

Comprehension of the foreign language is fundamental to communication and an important criterion of the language practice. It is based on attentive listening and the ability to decode the received messages. To understand native speakers, one needs to have an idea about the target culture and some knowledge of supra-segmental features of pronunciation. Ergo, our respondents (61.1 %) stated their inability to understand native speakers. On the other hand, five participants (13.9 %) think they always understand native speakers, and another nine (25 %) they often do so.

4.1.2.2. Discussion of Results

The above thirteen items can be classified into six domains which represent the learning difficulties domains for first year LMD learners at the university centre of Barika. 1- Linguistic knowledge (Items 1,2,3), 2- Fluency(Items 4,5,6), 3- Fear of making mistakes (Items 7,8), 4- Language practice (Items 9,10), 5- Psychological factors (Items 11, 12), 6- Comprehension (Item 13).

The results of the items 1 to 13 represent the answer to the first question asked at the onset of this study: What problems do first year students of English face when interacting orally in English?

The linguistic knowledge domain appeared in all learners responses. This entails that learners face difficulties in learning linguistic components of the English language. Hence, they need more instruction and active strategies to learn all aspects of language mainly

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pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. Likewise, fluency domain appears as a serious hurdle for our learners. Fluency is a characteristic of the oral competence. Therefore, teachers need to think of tasks that help learners learn how to speak coherently through connecting vocabulary items and phrases, uttering the sounds appropriately utilising stress and intonation.

Fear of making mistakes when speaking the target language represents another serious hitch in front of our learners. Now it is clear that this domain is the reason behind our learners' reticence to take part and express themselves in speaking classes. Other psychological factors such as motivation, self-confidence, shyness, and anxiety represent a considerable glitch for EFL learners to improve their oral competence. Furthermore, lack of language practice inside the classroom or outside it also contributes to low English proficiency, and the obtained results show a correlation between them. Lastly, comes the comprehension domain, which is considered low compared to other domains, but the researcher thinks that it is another hurdle that hinders learners' improvement in the speaking competence.

The above problems in the different domains can be solved by using appropriate strategies and tasks, freedom of topics choice to make learners more comfortable, decreasing their anxiety level, increasing their self-esteem and raising motivation levels.

4.1.2.3. Questionnaire 2: Learning Styles

When applying the treatment, the researcher administered a second questionnaire to identify the learners' learning styles in order to decide on the appropriateness of the treatment and to select tasks and strategies pertinent to them.

Item 1: Speaking English is my priority.

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Table 52: Status of English for Learners

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	3	8.3 %
disagree	4	11.1 %
Neutral	0	0 %
Agree	11	30.6 %
Strongly agree	13	36.1 %
Total	36	100 %

The aim of the statement of item one (1) is to gauge learners' need for the English language and to avoid other extraneous issues (English is imposed on them, they just study the language without interest or aim, they study English because it is the only option they are offered...). The results demonstrated that more than 66 % of the participants are aware of the benefits of studying the language, and Less than 20 % of them stated that learning English is not of their priorities.

Item 2: I learn how to speak English when I study alone.

Table 53: Studying Alone learning style

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	10	27.8 %
disagree	12	33.3 %
Neutral	3	8.3 %
Agree	6	16.7 %
Strongly agree	5	13.9 %
Total	36	100 %

Learning styles represent an important issue in the teaching and learning process. Sufficient knowledge about them helps instructors to target all learners, and to implement strategies that respond to their learners' needs. The results from table 54 show that the majority

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of learners (61.1%) disagree or strongly disagree with the idea of studying alone. Three (3) respondents are not sure whether to study alone helps them to learn English, six (6) prefer studying alone and the other five (5) strongly favour the idea of studying alone as their preferred way of learning.

Item 3: I learn how to speak English better when I study with a friend.

Table 54: Studying With Peers

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	2	5.6 %
disagree	5	13.9 %
Neutral	2	5.6 %
Agree	10	27.8 %
Strongly agree	17	47.2 %
Total	36	100 %

The majority of learners prefer to study with friends. The pair -work strategy is a focus of the 21st learning. In our situation, the majority of participants (75 %) stated their preference of the strategy. Two (2) participants are neutral about the idea, and less than 20 % think that studying with a friend is not so helpful for them to speak English in a better way.

Item 4: I benefit a lot when we work in groups. Table 55: Group work Advantages

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	4	11.1 %
disagree	4	11.1 %
Neutral	4	11.1 %
Agree	10	27.8 %
Strongly agree	14	38.9 %
Total	36	100 %

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Working in groups is the focus of new teaching methods as the cooperative learning. It provides opportunities for learners to maximise the interaction and use of language. Our respondents, as shown in table 56, appreciate the strategy of working in groups as a beneficial way to improve their speaking competence. Forty-one point seven percent believe that they benefit a lot when they work in groups and 27.8 % stated that they agree with the statement of item 4. On the other hand, four (4) respondents are neutral, the same number disagree with the idea of the benefit of working in groups, and a similar number totally does not believe in the idea.

Item 5: A lot of interaction in the class gives me confidence.

Table 56: Advantages of Interaction

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	3	8.3
disagree	4	11.1
Neutral	2	5.6
Agree	12	33.3
Strongly agree	15	41.7
Total	36	100.0

Interaction between learners and with their teacher is one of the best means to foster communication skills. It also helps learners overcome their problems of speaking the target language. The high proportion of respondents (41.7 %) strongly agree that interaction in the class solved their confidence problems. One-third (1/3) of them also agree with the statement and only two (2) participants are not sure about it. The least proportion comprises participants who oppose the idea. Three participants do not believe that interaction gives them confidence and another four (4) disagree with it.

Item 6: The strategy of thinking in English is helpful.

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Table 57: The Strategy of thinking in English

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	2	5.6
disagree	3	8.3
Neutral	4	11.1
Agree	9	25.0
Strongly agree	18	50.0
Total	36	100.0

There are many strategies to learn a new language. Thinking in English is one that helps learners to acquire English. It comprises using English in all daily life situations and starts with naming items using the target language (think in individual words). Then comes the stage of thinking in complete sentences. After that, learners are supposed to practise functional English. Finally, comes the stage of narrating in English. Concerning the strategy, our respondents believe that it is helpful and beneficial for them to learn the language. Seventy-five percent of the participants affirm its usefulness for them. On the other hand, the investigation registered seven (7) opponents and one (1) neutral answer.

Item 7: I prefer preparing to speak in low-pressure situations.

Table 58: Speaking Preparation Styles

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	3	8.3
disagree	4	11.1
Neutral	1	2.8
Agree	15	41.7
Strongly agree	13	36.1
Total	36	100.0

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The majority of learners find it hard to speak in front of the class. Therefore, instructors should help learners to overcome this problem. Preparing in low-pressure situations seems an adequate solution. It constitutes of preparing what to say in advance, either alone taking notes to refer to, practise what to say individually or with a colleague. Nearly all participants find it useful except seven (7), who strongly disagree (3) or disagree (4) with the suggestion.

Item 8: It is difficult for me to speak in high-pressure situations.

Table 59: Preparing in High Pressure Situations

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	5	13.9
disagree	7	19.4
Neutral	6	16.7
Agree	8	22.2
Strongly agree	10	27.8
Total	36	100.0

The results obtained from item 8 confirm the difficulty learners face when speaking English in front of the class. Half the participants either strongly agree (10) or agree (8) that speaking in high-pressure situations is not an easy task. Six (6) respondents stated their neutrality towards the idea, and the remaining learners either disagree (7) or strongly disagree (5). This entails that this minority do not find difficulties when interacting or giving presentations in English in front of a large audience.

Item 9: I discover my mistakes when I record my speech.

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Table 60: Self-assessment techniques

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	2	5.6 %
disagree	5	13.9 %
Neutral	5	13.9 %
Agree	12	33.3 %
Strongly agree	12	33.3 %
Total	36	100 %

Another strategy to improve one's oral competence and speak correctly is to carry out self-assessment through recording one's-self, and reflecting on it to find out mistakes to correct. Two-thirds (2/3) of the respondents find it beneficial to adapt this strategy. Five (5) participants are not sure about its usefulness and a similar number states their disagreement, and only two (2) participants oppose the suggestion.

Item 10: Feedback from my teacher is very important.

Table 61: Teacher's Feedback

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	1	2.8 %
disagree	3	8.3 %
Neutral	1	2.8 %
Agree	11	30.6 %
Strongly agree	20	55.6 %
Total	36	100 %

Another important feedback is the teacher's feedback. There is a total agreement on the importance of this type of feedback. 55.6 % of the questioned learners state their strong agreement with this idea, and 30.6 % find teachers' feedback the best way to improve the

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speaking competence. Only four (4) participants hold an opposing view, and one (1) neutral one.

Item 11: I need feedback from my classmates.

Table 62: Classmates Feedback

Response	Participants	Percentage
Strongly disagree	3	8.3 %
Disagree	7	19.4 %
Neutral	3	8.3 %
Agree	16	44.4 %
Strongly agree	7	19.4 %
Total	36	100%

Working in groups is not limited to only exchanging information, but it extends to giving feedback to each other. Getting feedback from classmates or members of the group is a favourable means for language learners to foster their communication skills. The highest proportion (16) participants representing 44.4% agree to get feedback from classmates and appreciate it and another seven (7) strongly agree that they need feedback from their friends. The other ten (10) participants oppose feedback from classmates, and another three (3) confirm that they neither agree nor disagree with the idea.

To sum up previous data, the items can be categorised into five main aspects to represent the learners' types. They include learners' need for English (item 1), concrete learners (items 5, 10, 11), analytic learners (items 2, 6, 9), collaborative learners (items 3, 4, 7), and reflective learners (item 8).

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Table 63 gives a clear picture of this division.

Table 63	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8	Item 9	Item 10	Item 11
Participants	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
%	66,7	30,6	75	66,7	75	75	77,8	50	66,6	86,2	63,8

After the division of the questionnaire items, the researcher calculates the percentage of the five main aspects of learners' learning styles to identify the dominant learning styles and to decide on the appropriateness of the treatment. Table 64 illustrates the idea.

Table 64: Percentage of Learners' Styles

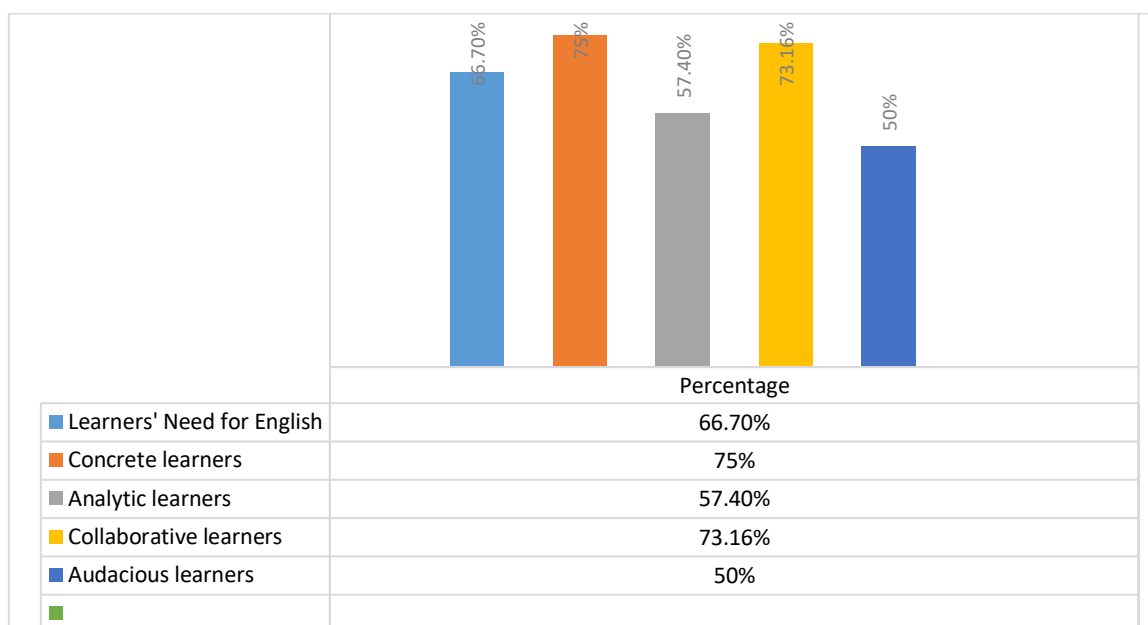
Types of Learners	Learners' Need for English	Concrete Learners	Analytic Learners	Collaborative Learners	Audacious Learners
Participants	36	36	36	36	36
Percentage	66,7%	75%	57,4%	73,16%	50%

As shown in the table above, the concrete learners' style gets the highest percentage of 75% and ranks the first. This shows that the majority of learners belong to the type of concrete learners. In the second position, the results classified the collaborative learners directly after the concrete learning style with a slight difference. Collaborative/ communicative

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learners learn through conversation, enjoy talking to friends in the target language, and listening to native speakers. This type of learners enjoy using videos, games and films. They prefer practising the language outside the classroom and working in pairs. Participants ranked the item of 'learners' need for English' in the third position. This shows that learners are aware of the importance of English and are conscious why they study it. The analytic learners' style ranked before the last with a percentage of 57,4%. Analytic learners like reading, studying grammar and working alone. Lastly comes the type of audacious learners with a percentage of 50%. This shows the majority of learners are reluctant to leave the comfort zone and take risks. The majority of them are not sure about their success to talk in high-pressure situations. The figure below displays a clear view of learners' learning styles.

Figure 23: Percentage of Learners' Styles



The obtained results confirm the appropriateness of the treatment (communication and collaborations skills) as pertinent to the learners because the majority of them have the required learning styles that are congruent with the elements of the treatment.

4.2. The Experimental Phase

Previously, the researcher pointed out that his objective is to investigate the effect of learning and innovation skills on improving the oral competence of first year learners of English at Barika university centre. To conduct the study, the researcher opted for a classroom research convenience experimental study. It involves an experimental and a control groups. The study lasted four months stretching from the month of November to March in the academic year 2017/ 2018. Learners took learning sessions of three hours a week to complete the study of nine lessons in about thirty hours.

To achieve the requirements of the convenience experimental study, the researcher planned for a control group, experiment group pre-test, progress tests, and a post-test by the end of the experiment. The pre-test and post-test aimed at identifying the effectiveness of the treatment and how it influenced the learners' oral competence.

4.2.1. Analysis of the Pre-test Results

Table 65: Learners' Achievement in the Pre-Test (Experimental and control groups)

Experimental Group		Control Group	
N	Score	N	Score
Learner 1	8	Learner 1	8
Learner 2	7	Learner 2	6
Learner 3	9	Learner 3	10
Learner 4	6	Learner 4	7
Learner 5	10	Learner 5	3
Learner 6	11	Learner 6	8
Learner 7	10	Learner 7	7
Learner 8	3	Learner 8	11
Learner 9	5	Learner 9	8
Learner 10	13	Learner 10	8
Learner 11	3	Learner 11	7
Learner 12	9	Learner 12	7
Learner 13	10	Learner 13	7
Learner 14	6	Learner 14	6
Learner 15	6	Learner 15	8
Learner 16	7	Learner 16	11
Learner 17	8	Learner 17	3

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Learner 18	8	Learner 18	10
$\sum XE$	139	$\sum XE$	135
\overline{XE}	7.72	\overline{XE}	7.5

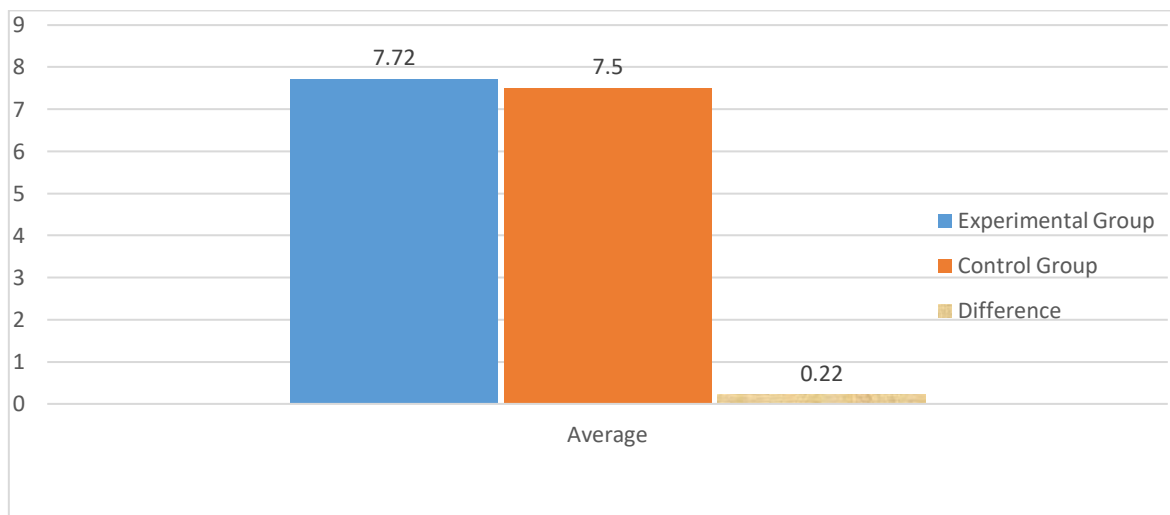
As shown in table 65, the learners' achievement revealed the initial level of their oral competence in both groups on the one hand. On the other hand, it revealed learners' low speaking level when expressing themselves in the target language. Through analysis of the pre-test results, the researcher noticed the failure of learners to get acceptable scores in many areas of the speaking competence. They achieved below the required level, nearly in all speaking components. Their score was estimated 01.23/ 4 in fluency, representing the poorest domain, followed by pronunciation with a score of 01.25 / 4. Additionally, learners' achievement was inappropriate even in grammar (01.52/ 4) and vocabulary (01.54/ 4). These results represent an obvious evidence of the existence of the problem in the oral competence for first year learners at Barika university centre.

Additionally, the pre-test revealed the general equivalence between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the general scores of the oral competence. The SPSS. Independent Sample –T- Test was implemented to check the existence of any statistically significant difference between the achievements of the participants of both groups. The test values (T) are equal to (0.272) and the degree of significance of the test (Sig) is equal to (0.787), which is greater than the level of significance (0.05) for Control and experimental groups in the pre-test, which signifies that there is an equivalence between the two samples. Thus, the null hypothesis was confirmed, and it was decided that both, the experimental group and the control group were at the same level of competence before the implementation of the treatment. Thus, the inference that any difference in the achievement of participants after applying the independent variable, Learning and Innovation Skills, would be due to efficacy or inefficacy of the treatment. Figure 24 illustrates the equivalence of both groups

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and their below level of performance in the oral competence. Therefore, both groups require improvement in their speaking performance

Figure 24: The Pre-test Means of Experimental and Control Groups



The results of the pre-test, which is necessary for the experimental study, revealed the low initial level of speaking competence of both groups, the experimental group and the control group. It also helped the researcher identify the areas that needed improvement.

4.2.2. Analysis of the Progress-tests Results

Tracking learners' progress requires the implementation of formative assessment after each unit of the speaking syllabus is fulfilled. In the current situation, the formative assessment is applied in the form of a progress test. Its major aim is to pinpoint the difficulties that hinder learners to perform better in their speaking tasks. Furthermore, progress tests help trace the progress achieved in learners speaking competence. The researcher adopted the same criteria used in the pre-test and post-test to score learners' performance. These include comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency.

4.2.2.1 Description and Analysis of the Progress-test 1 Results

Progress test one revolved around describing a trip during the last holidays. Learners prepared their answers individually (low-pressure situation 1). Then, they practised with a

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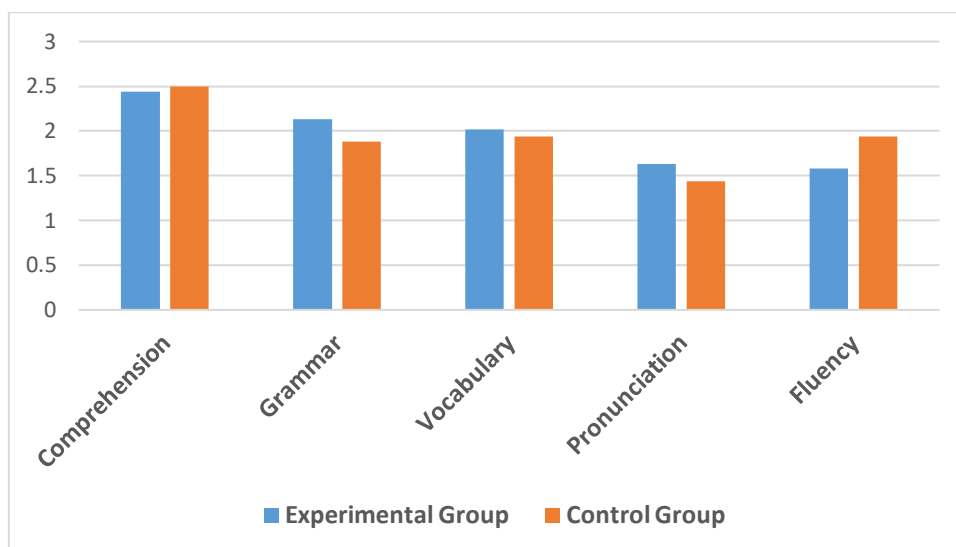
peer (Low-pressure situation 2). After that, learners are called upon to perform in front of the class (high-pressure situation for first year learners). The researcher recorded learners' speech for later analysis, besides to assessing their performance on the spot based on the criteria utilised in the pre-test (comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency). The researcher thinks the task is motivating as it relates to learners daily activities. The progress test 1 results are summarised in table 66 below.

Table 66: Learners' Scores in Progress Test One

Criteria	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Total	Average	Total	Average
Comprehension	44	2.44	45	2.5
Grammar	38.5	2.13	34	1.88
Vocabulary	36.5	2.02	35	1.94
Pronunciation	29.5	1.63	26	1.44
Fluency	28.5	1.58	35	1.94

Based on the first progress test, the results of both groups reveal the learners' low level in the criteria of fluency and pronunciation. The experimental group could attain improvement in comprehension, grammar and vocabulary. Whereas, the control group remained under the average nearly in all assessment criteria, even they showed improvement in fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. Graph 25 presents a clear comparison view of the results of both groups in the first progress test.

Figure 25: Learners' Scores in the First Progress Test



The results comparison shows a slight difference between the achievements of both groups. Learners in the experimental group could score slightly better in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. On the other hand, the control group could attain improvement in comprehension and fluency. The results of both groups are still not sufficient and more efforts need to be taken.

4.2.2.2. Description and Analysis of the Progress-test 2 Results

The second progress test revolved around conducting an interview on a topic of interest. Learners chose their peers and selected their topics. After preparing in a low-pressure situation, they were called upon to conduct the interview of six minutes in front of the class. The topics were related to daily life problems such as studying at the university, strikes, street demonstrations, cheating in exams... The researcher recorded learners' performance and scored them using the criteria of the first progress test. The obtained results are summarised in table 67 on the next page.

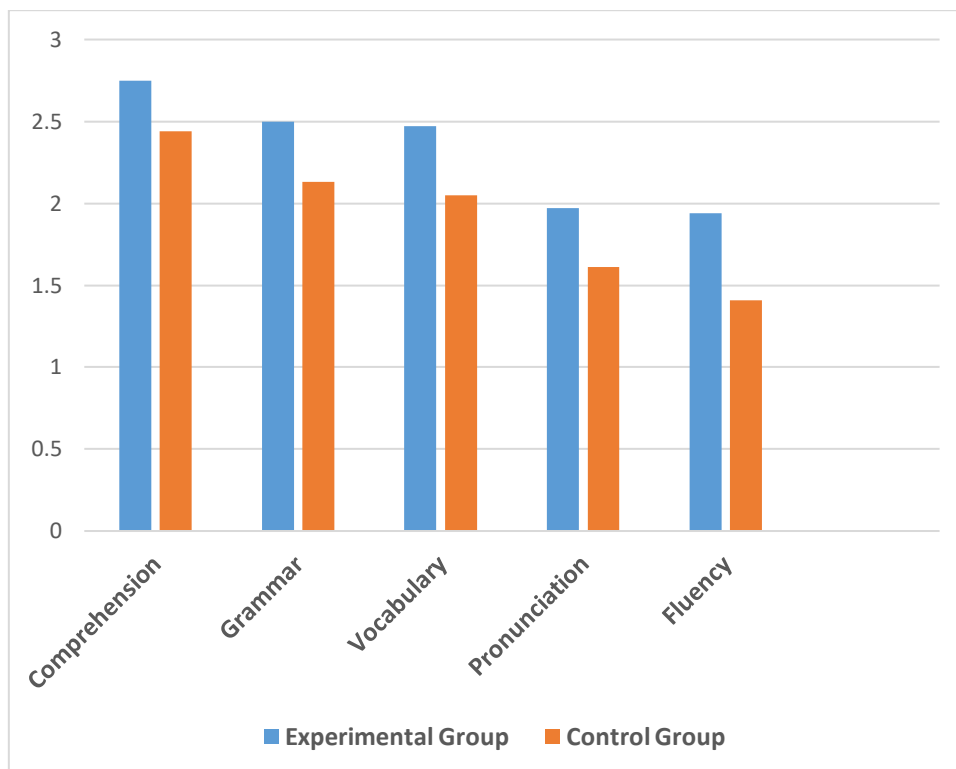
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Table 67: Learners' Scores in Progress Test Two

Criteria	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Total	Average	Total	Average
Comprehension	49.5	2.75	44	2.44
Grammar	45	2.5	38.5	2.13
Vocabulary	44.5	2.47	37	2.05
Pronunciation	35.5	1.97	29	1.61
Fluency	35	1.94	25.5	1.41

A quick glimpse at learners' scores in progress test 2 confirms the improvement of the experimental group over the control group in all criteria of the assessment. The remark that astonished the researcher was that Learners in the control group attained low scores in the criteria of fluency less than in progress test 1. The interpretation could be the lack of interaction between learners unlike the experimental group. The two domains that remained not sufficient for both groups were pronunciation and fluency. Learners still have problems with sounds, word stress besides to the supra-segmental features. They also spoke with many hesitations and sometimes did not find the words and stop talking for some time. Graph 26 clarifies the difference in scores of both groups.

Figure 26: Learners' Scores in the Second Progress Test



4.2.2.3. Description and Analysis of the Progress-Test 3 Results

To give learners an idea about the test, the researcher displayed a role-playing of some people doing their daily shopping activities as an input. Then, learners were paired and were asked to role-play a shopping scene in front of the class, after preparing in low-pressure situations. The researcher applied the same previous procedure for assessing learners' performance. Learners talked about different shopping types and interacted in order to get their needs using previous acquired knowledge. The following table presents a summary of the obtained results based on the scores of participants in progress test three (Appendix H).

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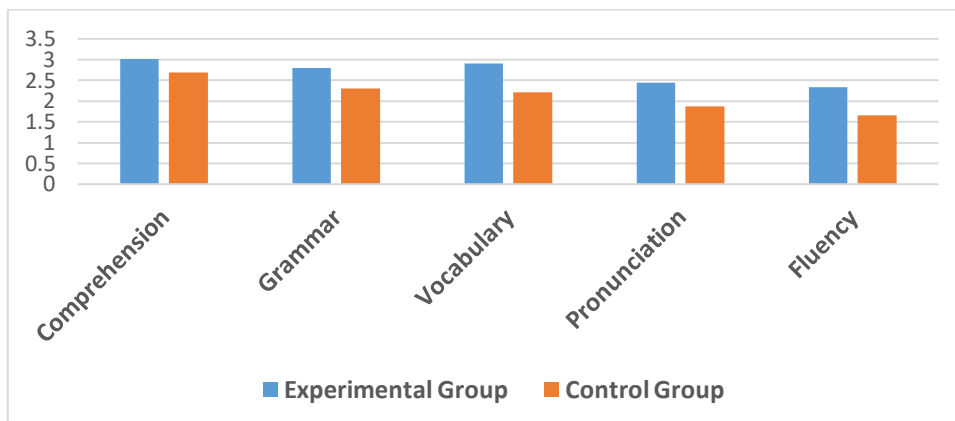
Table 68: Learners' Scores in Progress Test Three

Criteria	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Total	Average	Total	Average
Comprehension	54.5	3.02	48.5	2.69
Grammar	50.5	2.80	41.5	2.30
Vocabulary	52.5	2.90	40	2.22
Pronunciation	44	2.44	34	1.88
Fluency	42	2.33	30	1.66

Learners' scores in progress test three evince the progress attained by participants in both groups. In terms of comprehension, grammar and vocabulary participants in both groups could overcome their difficulties and achieve acceptable results. The results also manifest some kind of grades advancement of the experimental group when compared to the control group scores. This difference is clear as far as pronunciation and fluency are concerned. The experimental group members could transcend the average while participants in the control group remained not able to get the average estimated two / four, although they demonstrated some slight progress. The graph underneath exhibits the experimental group apparent progress in all the aspects of assessment, and its transcendence.

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Figure 27: Learners' Scores in the Third Progress Test



4.2.3. Results of the Post-test

The researcher administered a post-test to the experimental and the control groups in order to pinpoint the effectiveness of the treatment (communication and collaboration), and how the independent variable affected learners' oral competence. The test was scheduled by the end of the third month of the experiment. The researcher created a real life situation via using posters of different goods in the room, similar to the goods exhibited in the supermarket. Learners move around to do their shopping. The researcher assessed the learners' interactions and videotaped the exchanges for further investigation. The table below presents learners' final scores in the post-test.

Table 69: Learners' Achievement in the Post-test (Experimental and control groups)

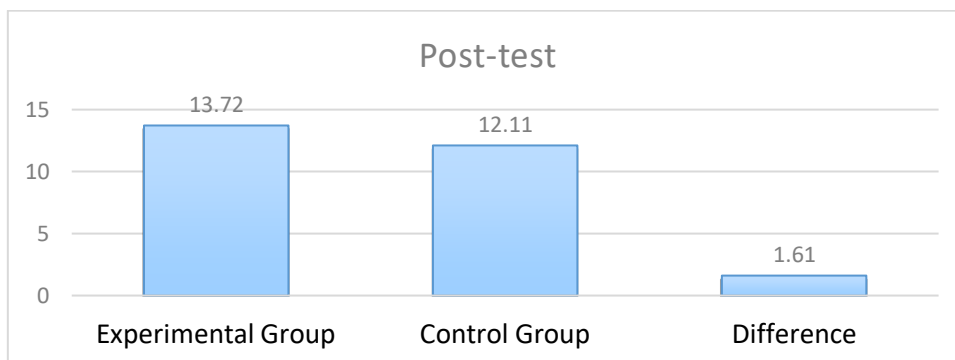
Experimental Group		Control Group	
N	Score	N	Score
Learner 1	15	Learner 1	13
Learner 2	13	Learner 2	8
Learner 3	16	Learner 3	15
Learner 4	14	Learner 4	13
Learner 5	15	Learner 5	12
Learner 6	16	Learner 6	12
Learner 7	15	Learner 7	14
Learner 8	12	Learner 8	14
Learner 9	12	Learner 9	13

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Learner 10	14	Learner 10	14
Learner 11	8	Learner 11	13
Learner 12	15	Learner 12	7
Learner 13	16	Learner 13	14
Learner 14	14	Learner 14	7
Learner 15	12	Learner 15	13
Learner 16	11	Learner 16	14
Learner 17	15	Learner 17	10
Learner 18	14	Learner 18	12
$\sum XE$	254	$\sum Xc$	202
$\bar{X}E$	13.72	$\bar{X}c$	12.11

The analysis of the post-test results indicates the unequal progress achieved in the experimental group and the control group. Both groups' scores seemed higher and acceptable compared to previous tests, but the average of the experimental group is better than those of the control group in the post-test (table 69). Graph 28 helps to explain and to give a clear view of the difference in scores between the two groups.

Figure 28: Experimental and Control Groups Means difference in Post-test



A study of the graph above shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-test. Furthermore, after the integration of the treatment, the researcher could observe a difference between scores in the pre-test and post-test for both groups. The table below, shows the difference in means for both groups in the pre-test and the post-test.

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Table 70: Means Difference in Pre-test and Post-test (Experimental& Control groups)

Groups	Descriptive Status	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
Experimental Group	Means (M)	7.72	13.72	6.0
Control Group	Means (M)	7.5	12.11	4.61

As indicated in table 70. the two groups could obtain better scores in the post-test if a comparison is carried out with the pre-test. For the experimental group the difference between the mean of the pre-test (M=7.72) and the mean of the post-test (M=13.72) is estimated as M= 6.0. On the other hand, the control group pre-test mean (M=7.5) and the post-test mean (M=12.11) could result a difference of M= 4.61. Therefore, the two groups demonstrated a better performance in their oral competence. From another perspective, it is crucial to conduct an Independent –Sample T-Test to check if the treatment (learning and innovation skills) had any statistically significant difference in the experimental group.

4.2.3.1. Statistical Analysis and Interpretation of Results

The researcher needs to treat the quantitative data in the post-test oral performance of the experimental and control groups to determine the difference between the groups. Therefore, it is essential to calculate the frequency distribution of scores, the mean, the variance, the standard deviation, and finally to verify the validity of all the statistical results using the T-Test. The researcher adapts the following procedure to calculate the T-Test for the post-test data:

Step one: the distribution of the data

To pave the way for the statistical analysis, the researcher sets up the test of normality for both groups and tests. The results are summarised in the table below:

Table 71: Distribution of the Data

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-Test-Exp-G	0,097	18	0,200*	0,973	18	0,849
Pre-Test-Con-G	0,189	18	0,088	0,911	18	0,088
Post-Test-Exp-G	0,220	18	0,022	0,872	18	0,019
Post-Test-Con-G	0,260	18	0,002	0,810	18	0,002

Referring to table 71, we find The data for pre-test experimental group / pre-test control group are subject to a normal distribution because the significance score (Sig) for them on both tests is greater than the significance level (0.05), consequently, we will use the parameterized statistical tests (Parameter) in their analysis. The data for post-test experimental group / post-test control group are subject to an abnormal distribution because their (Sig) score on both tests is less than a significance level (0.05), and hence, we will use nonparametric statistical tests in their analysis. In the event of an analysis meeting of data that are subject to a normal distribution with data that are subject to an abnormal distribution, nonparametric statistical tests will be used.

Step two: Presentation and analysis of the results of the hypothesis

- Learner who apply learning and innovation skills in their oral expression sessions would enhance their oral competence and would be ready for spontaneous oral communication.

A- Calculating the parity between the control and experimental samples in the pre-test

The table below displays the statistical description of the control and experimental samples in the pre-test.

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Table 72: The parity between the control and experimental samples in the pre-test

		Statistics	
		Pre-Test-Exp-G	Pre-Test-Con-G
N	Valid	18	18
	Missing	0	0
Mean		7,7222	7,5000
Median		8,0000	7,5000
Mode		6,00a	7,00a
Std. Deviation		2,65254	2,22948
Variance		7,036	4,971
Range		10,00	8,00
Minimum		3,00	3,00
Maximum		13,00	11,00
Sum		139,00	135,00

Based on statistics from table 72, we notice that there are no clear statistical differences between the control and experimental samples in the pre-test, which predicts a parity between them, and we will confirm this by applying the Independent Samples T Test to calculate the differences between two independent samples since the distribution of the two samples is normal. The following table exhibits the statistical differences between the control and experimental samples in the pre-test.

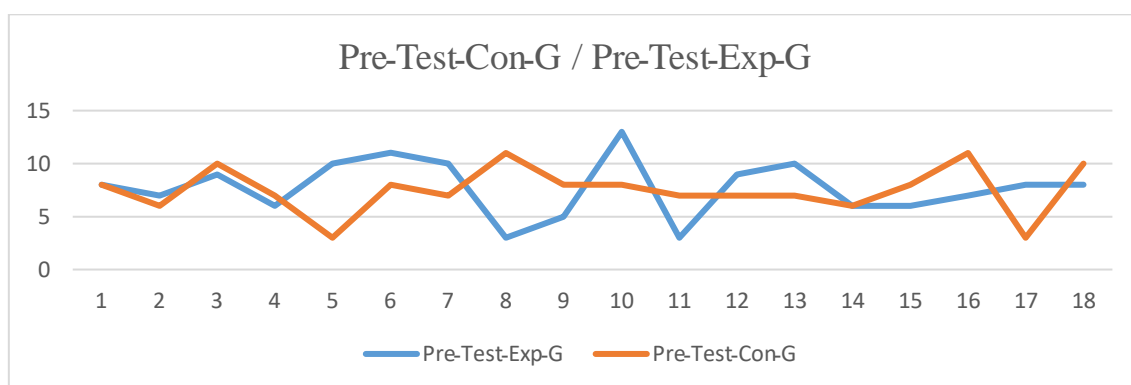
Table 73: The Statistical Differences Between the Control and Experimental Samples in the Pre-test

Independent Samples Test				
Pre-Test-Exp-G/ Pre-Test-Con-G	t-test for Equality of Means			
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
		0,272	34	0,787

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As shown in table 73, we find that the test values (T) are equal to (0.272) and the degree of significance of the test (Sig) is equal to (0.787), which is greater than the level of significance (0.05) for Control and experimental groups in the pre-test, that is, there is an equivalence between the two samples. The graph below explains the results of the control and experimental samples in the pre-test.

Figure 29: Results of the control and experimental samples in the pre-test



B- Calculating the differences between the pre- and post- tests of the experimental sample.

After calculating the statistical differences between the control and experimental samples in the pre-test, then we need to have the statistical description of the pre and post-tests of the experimental sample as demonstrated in the following table:

Table 74: The Differences Between the Pre -and Post- Test of the Experimental Sample

Statistics		Pre-Test-Exp-G	Post-Test-Exp-G
N	Valid	18	18
	Missing	0	0
Mean		7,7222	13,7222
Median		8,0000	14,0000
Mode		6,00a	15,00
Std. Deviation		2,65254	2,08088

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Variance	7,036	4,330
Range	10,00	8,00
Minimum	3,00	8,00
Maximum	13,00	16,00
Sum	139,00	247,00

From table 74, we note that there are clear statistical differences between the pre- and post- tests of the experimental sample in favour of the post -test.

The following table shows the statistical differences between the pre and post- tests of the experimental sample.

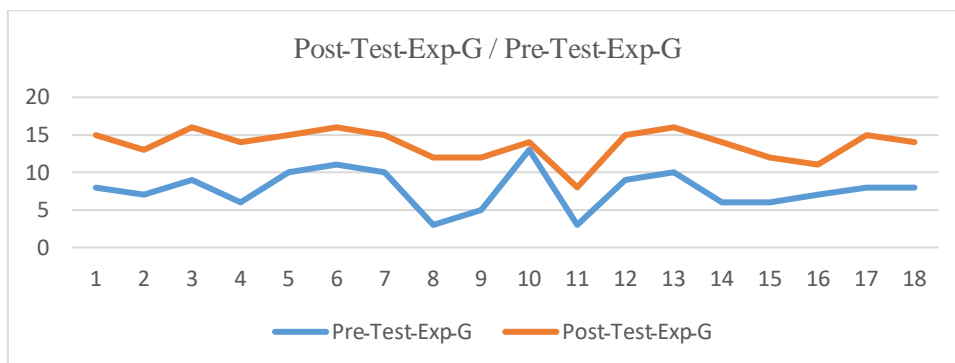
Table 75: The Statistical Differences Between the Pre- Test and Post- Test of the experimental sample

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test	Post-Test-Exp-G - Pre-Test-Exp-G
Z	-3,742b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000

Through analysis of test statistics in table 75, we find that the value of the test (Z) is equal to (-3.742) and the degree of significance of the test (Sig) is equal to (0.000) which is less than the level of significance (0.01). Therefore, there is a statistical significance for the test, which means there are statistically significant differences between the pre-test and post-tests of the experimental group., and when comparing the mean in the (statistical description table), we find that the differences are in favour of the post test, with an error rate of 1.% as clarified in the graph below.

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Figure 30: Results of the Pre and Post-Tests of the Experimental Sample



C- calculating differences between the control and experimental samples in the post-test.

Below is the table illustrating the statistical description of the control and experimental samples in the post-test.

Table 76: differences between the control and experimental samples in the post-test

Statistics		Post-Test-Exp. -G	Post-Test-Con-G
N	Valid	18	18
	Missing	0	0
Mean		13,7222	12,1111
Median		14,0000	13,0000
Mode		15,00	13,00a
Std. Deviation		2,08088	2,47074
Variance		4,330	6,105
Range		8,00	8,00
Minimum		8,00	7,00
Maximum		16,00	15,00
Sum		247,00	218,00

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From table 76, we notice clear statistical differences between the control and experimental samples in the post test in favour of the experimental sample, and we will confirm this by applying the Mann-Whitney U test to calculate the differences between two independent samples since the two samples are subject to an abnormal distribution.

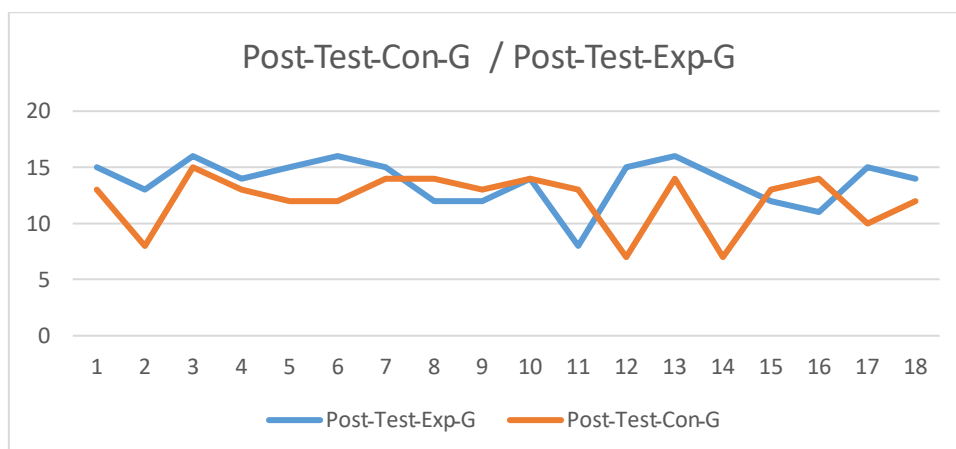
The statistical differences between the control and experimental samples in the post-test are displayed in the forthcoming table.

Table 77: the statistical differences between the control and experimental samples in the post-test

Test Statistics	
	Post-Test-Exp.-G / Post-Test-Con.-G
Mann-Whitney U	92,000
Wilcoxon W	263,000
Z	-2,248
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,025

Based on test statistics above, we find that the value of the test (Mann-Whitney U) is equal to (92.00), and the degree of significance of the test (Sig) is equal to (0.025), which is less than the level of significance (0.05) and therefore, there is a statistical significance for the test. Consequently, there are statistically significant differences between the control and experimental samples in the post-test. When comparing the mean in the statistical description table, we find that the differences are in favour of the experimental sample with an error rate of 5%. The graph below shows the results of the control and experimental samples in the post-test.

Figure 31: Results of the Control and Experimental Samples in the Post-test



Analysing the results in light of the hypothesis:

The hypothesis: - Learners who apply learning and innovation skills in their oral expression sessions would enhance their oral competence and would be ready for spontaneous oral communication.

- **Results:** - There are no statistically significant differences between the control and experimental samples in the pre-test test.

- The presence of pre-equivalence.

- There are statistically significant differences between the pre- and post-tests of the experimental sample in favour of the post-test, which indicates that the application of learning and innovation skills in the oral expression learning lessons enhances the oral competence of learners under study.

From the above, we conclude that the hypothesis (Learner who apply learning and innovation skills in their oral expression sessions would enhance their oral competence and would be ready for spontaneous oral communication) is accepted and confirmed.

4.2.3.2. Analysis of the Observation

In order to obtain primary source information, the researcher adopted a classroom observation as an instrument for recording the needed information about the research at

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hand. Observations are crucial in our investigation to observe objectively a determined phenomenon in the context in which it occurs. According to Hernandez, Fernandez and Baptista (1991, p. 316) observation “is the systematic documentation of valid and trustworthy components of behaviour. They can be used as instruments in many diverse circumstances.” The observation was very helpful to identify the learners’ actual practices implementing the learning and innovation skills, and to compare them to the traditional practices of teaching oral expression to first year university learners. The instrument also helped the researcher to reflect on his pedagogical practice and to search for better active teaching strategies to foster oral communication among learners.

Besides to documenting the learners’ comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary level of improvement, the researcher adapted an observation grid (appendix E) to collect the required data, and to note other issues encountered by learners when applying the treatment. On the other hand, the researcher took notes to describe the general atmosphere of learning the oral competence, and to capture details about learners’ reactions towards applying communication and collaboration skills in their classes.

At the beginning of the experiment, learners seemed unfamiliar to working in groups or in pairs. The majority of them appeared uncomfortable when asked to join a group or to work with a peer. Many of them did not favour interaction of males with females and vice-versa. When asked to mingle for information purposes, learners were not ready to consult peers and interview them. At this stage, learners needed to be encouraged to practice their oral competence in a communicative way, and it was the duty of the instructor to provide a context of collaboration and communication in the classroom.

The second issue encountered during the experiment was the use of the mother tongue when learners worked in groups. Learners referred to the use of Arabic especially when they could not find the vocabulary needed to express their ideas. To cope with that issue, an

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observer was appointed in each group to report about the use of the mother tongue or other language mistakes, especially when some individuals were assigned to report about the group contributions.

A third observed issue during the second and the third week of the experiment was some learner's negligence about their tasks and their being off task most of the time. The problem led the teacher to think of items related to their experiences and interests on the one hand. On the other hand, using the strategy of numbers to nominate the reporter of the group, or the learner charged of supplying the answer could solve the problem, as the strategy made all learners feel responsible and concerned to give their contributions.

By the fourth week of the experiment, the atmosphere was suitable and everything settled down. Learners became familiar with the treatment and started to enjoy communicating with each other, and collaborating to fulfil their tasks. They implemented active learning strategies such as mingling activities, running dictation, think-pair-share, round table, pair work, small group work... They told stories about themselves, they narrated their holidays, they discussed their life conditions in the university, they defended their opinions about whether to immigrate or to settle down in Algeria.

In the second group, learners dealt with the same topics, but in the traditional way of teaching oral expression. They worked individually most of the time and they presented their work to the class. They had the same input as the experimental group, but they learnt without any active learning strategies. Moreover, learners in the control group did not exchange information with peers or groups and did not receive peer feedback. They carried out non-interactive and non-communicative tasks.

Classroom environment plays an important role in the success or failure of many tasks. Among the planned arrangements the researcher took into account was the modification of the traditional classroom seating arrangements, which often hinder the interactive teaching

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of the oral competence. Consequently, the researcher selected a horseshoe seating arrangement, aiming for a situation, which permitted all learners to see each other's faces, the teacher and the board at the same time. Moreover, it allowed more eye contact between respondents.

The room allocated to first year EFL learners was originally the foreign languages staff room. To help the opening of English department at the centre, the administration allocated it to teaching English to first group of English in the academic year 2017/ 2018. Because no other groups shared the room with the learners of English who were divided into two small groups (18 learners in each group), and the furniture was movable, the researcher organised the seating arrangement in the shape of a horseshoe. This latter permitted the easy transition between whole class, group and pair work. It also offered space for the teacher and learners to move around for tasks such as mingling activities, running dictation, role-plays and it needed no rearrangements for pair or small group work.

The learners attendance was estimated very high, as nearly all of them attended the course regularly. Absence cases rarely occurred between the two groups. This might be due to some factors. Firstly, presence was compulsory and learners could not be absent for the sessions more than three times, otherwise the administration could exclude them. Secondly, first year learners experienced a new environment and were eager to discover some facts about it. They enjoyed being university learners, as they felt freer than when being high school pupils. Thirdly, they were still new and were not accustomed to playing truant from class.

The researcher observed the learners in both groups for a term period. He filled in the observation grid (appendix E) and noted all remarks and comments. Learners in the experimental group showed an engagement and involvement in the learning of the target language from the fourth week on. They showed a great interest in applying the active

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learning strategies. They enjoyed interacting and collaborating in groups in competitive ways. They became absorbed in the playing out of their own experiences and forgot their self-consciousness, which inhibited their learning and caused reticence to be active in the sessions.

Unlike the experimental group, the control group learners showed less interest in the classroom tasks and were off task and reticent in most cases. Some of them showed a kind of boredom and lack of motivation in the lessons. Despite these facts, learners could attain a level of proficiency due to some factors. These included being a small group and experiencing the new classroom environment.

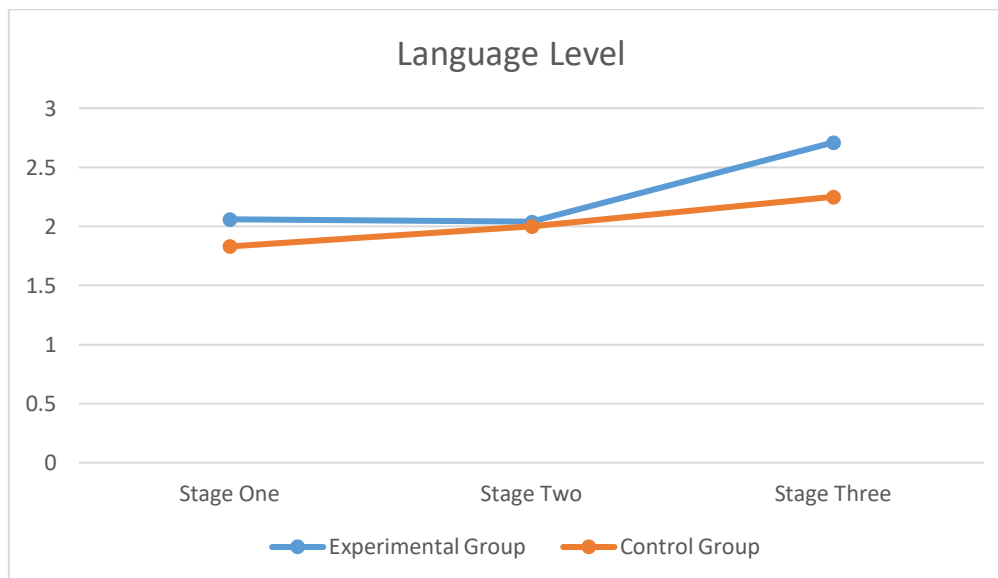
Throughout the three stages of the experiment, the researcher filled in the observation grid that comprised five components: language, production, participation, expression, coherence, and blank columns for comments. In each of these criteria, scores can be given for different features. The grid is an example of a numerical rating scale for a discussion task adapted from Goh and Burns (p. 275). The comments column helped the researcher offer feedback to learners, and provided more information about the performance quality and the area the improvement might occur.

1- Language: the criterion of language encompasses structure and organisation, grammar and vocabulary, and accuracy. Learners' performance in language increased gradually through the different phases of the experiment. As shown in graph 32, learners could attain an average level in language by the end of the second phase. Then, both groups achieved better in the third phase of the experiment, but the experimental group showed better improvement in language than the control group. The average of language criterion in the experimental sample was estimated 2.39/4 whereas; the average of the same criterion in the control sample was estimated 2.02/4. In the third phase of the experiment, the experimental group achieved an average of 2.71/4, and the control group made a slight

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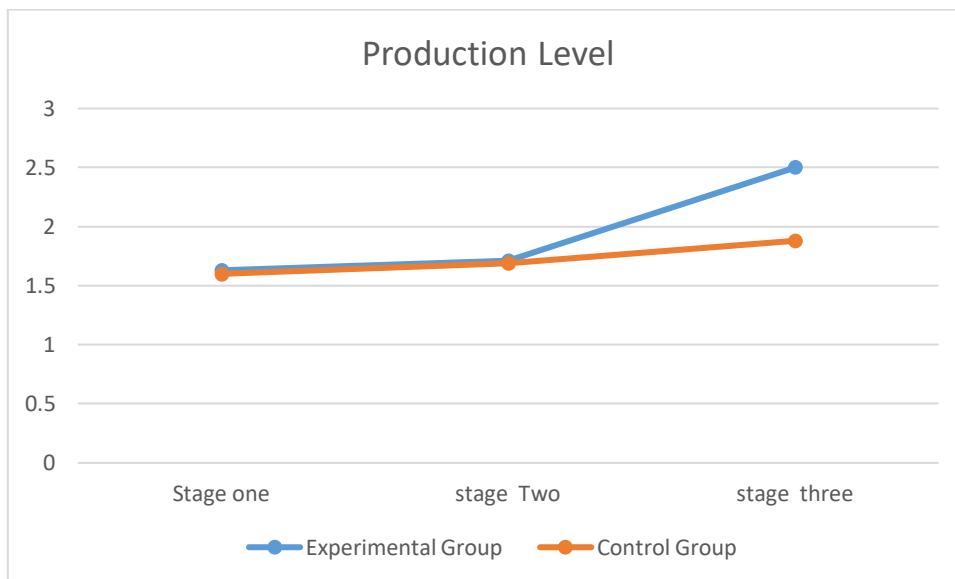
improvement of an average of 2.25/4. A clearer picture of learners' achievement in the first phase language criterion is shown in graph 32 below.

Figure 32: Level of language in the experimental and control groups



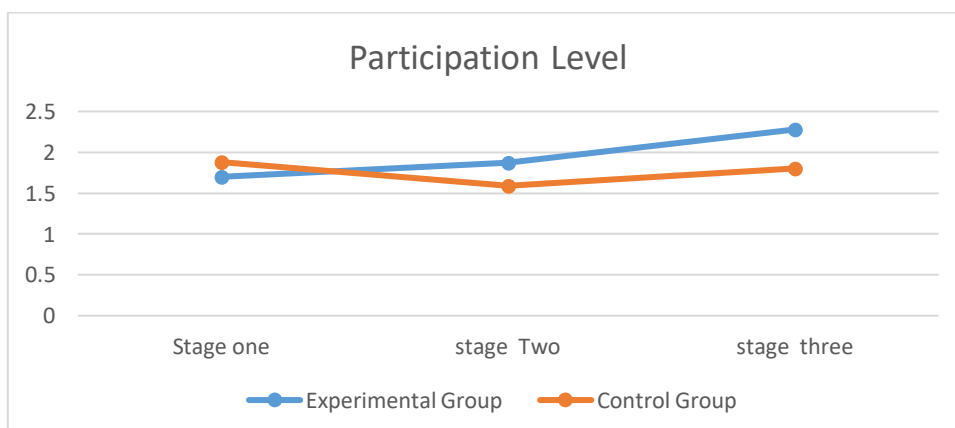
2- Production: the criterion of production focuses on fluency, syllable/ word pronunciation, intonation, stress and rhythm. Learners struggled a lot in this area. They mispronounced words and misplaced stress in many words. In the criterion of production, learners could not improve in the first and the second stages of the experiment. They were unable to get the average. Learners' improvement appeared in the third stage and in favour of the experimental sample. The overall average of the control group was 1.72/4 and the experimental group was 1.94/4. In the third phase, the control sample could attain an average of 1.88/4 and the experimental sample the average of 2.5/4. Graph 33 shows the results in the criterion of production throughout the three phases.

Figure 33: Level of Production in the Experimental group and the Control Group



3- Participation: The focal points in the criterion of participation include turn taking, maintenance of interaction and feedback. Likewise, the participation domain results remained under the expected average in the first two stages. The results of the control group got worse in the second phase and settled under the average in the third phase (1.8/4). On the other hand, the experimental group learners could obtain better results in the third phase with an average of 2.28/4. The graph below demonstrates the results obtained in the criterion of participation in the three phases of the study.

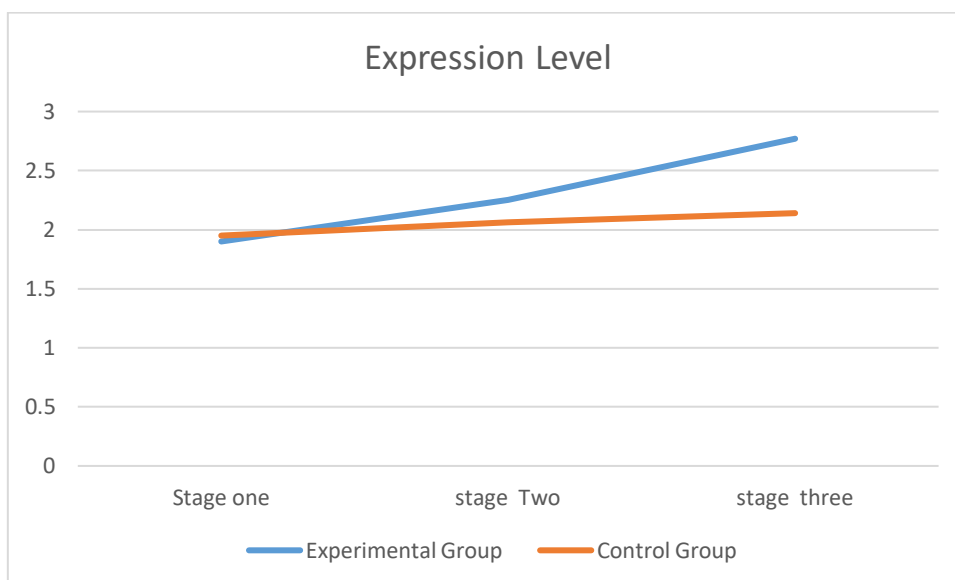
Figure 34: Level of Participation in the Experimental Group and the Control Group



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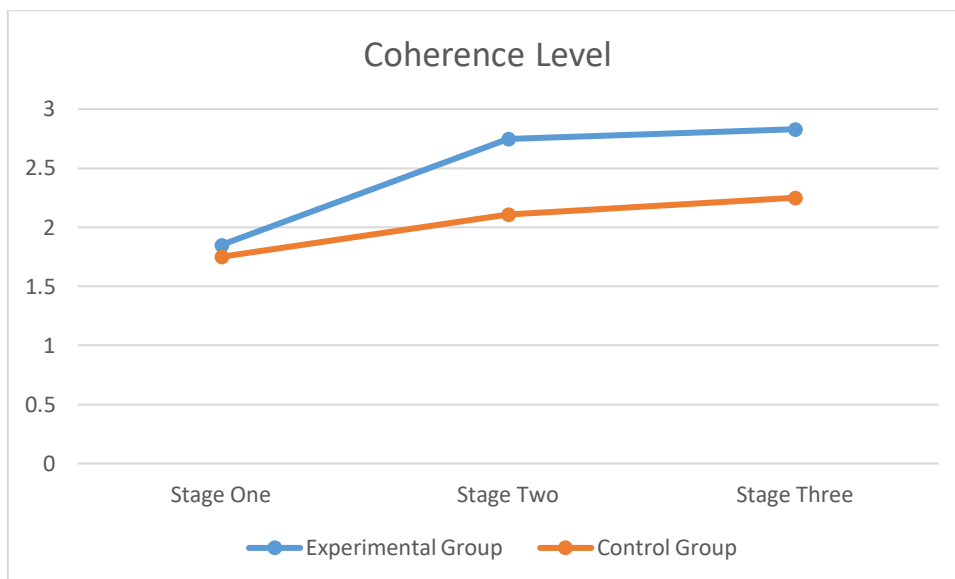
Expression: The criterion of expression includes the clarity of ideas and the quality of the ideas. Unlike the previous criteria, both groups' learners could score the average by the end of the third phase. The control group average in the expression criterion third stage reached 2.14/4, and the experimental group average was 2.77/4, which is considered as the second highest average in the observation. The graph below traces learners' improvement in the expression criterion.

Figure 35: Level of Expression in the Experimental group and the Control Group



4- Coherence: the criterion of coherence focuses mainly on the linking of ideas and the justification of point of view. Both groups could improve through the stages of study, but to varying degrees. As shown in the graph 36, the control and experimental groups could attain the average in this criterion before the beginning of the second stage. By the end of the third stage of the study, the average of the coherence criterion was 2.25/4 for the control sample, and 2.88/4 for the experimental group. (The highest average in the observation). A clear view of the improvement in the coherence criterion is displayed in the graph below.

Figure 36: Level of Coherence in the Experimental group and the Control Group



Additionally, the progress in the linking of ideas and the justification of viewpoints of learners remained acceptable in the two last stages with a clear difference in favour of the experimental sample.

4.2.4. Performance in Progress Tests Versus Observation Grid Performance

To have an overview of learners' oral competence level, the researcher needed to compare learners' results in the progress tests to the observation grid. The difference of the Significance can be obtained through calculating the means of learner's oral performance in the different stages of the study. Table 78 displays the overall results.

Table 78: Progress Tests versus Observation Oral Performance

Stage	Group	Progress Tests		Observation	
		Total	Average	Total	Average
One	Experimental	9.8	1.96	9.14	1.82
	Control	9.7	1.94	9.01	1.80
Two	Experimental	11.63	2.32	10.98	2.19
	Control	9.64	1.92	9.45	1.89
Three	Experimental	13.49	2.69	13.09	2.61
	Control	10.75	2.15	10.32	2.06

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As shown in the table 78, the overall difference in the mean between the progress tests and the different observation stages was not significant and it did not exceed 0.1. These results show that learners' achievement in the progress-tests and in the observation are similar. For the experimental sample, the learners' average in the three post-tests is successively 1.96, 2.32, and 2.69 and the observation average in a successive way is 1.82, 2.19, and 2.61. On the other hand, the researcher recorded a low average in the control group compared to the experimental sample, but also with a minimum difference between the post-tests mean and the observation mean. The control group average in the post-tests in a successive manner is 1.94, 1.92, and 2.15 and the average in the observation is successively 1.80, 1.89, and 2.06. Therefore, the obtained results are reliable since they are akin and no calculated difference was recorded.

4.2.4.1. Results Discussion

During the investigation, both groups achieved some progress in all areas of speaking. The majority of them overcame the problems they encountered in the first stage. Learners were unable to communicate orally, afraid of making mistakes and afraid of speaking in front of their class. Their oral production was poor as they responded in isolated words and disconnected answers. They did not negotiate for meaning nor did they use communication strategies to support their ideas.

During the second and the third stages of study, learners got familiar with the new learning environment and did their best to achieve better especially in the experimental sample. Learners experienced topics related to their interests, exchanged information about themselves and expressed their feelings. They turned their fear of making mistakes to learning opportunities to improve their oral competence. The speaking competence becomes a social skill as learners communicated and collaborated in many occasions of group work.

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The integration of the learning and innovation skills in oral classes represents an instrument for the researcher to decide on the effect of the treatment in developing learners' oral competence. The results obtained from the observation and the different tests ascertain the learners' oral competence improvement in the experimental and control groups. Clearly, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the second and third stages of the investigation. The experimental sample average in progress test 2 was 2.32, whereas for the control group was 1.92.

Moreover, the results of third progress test showed a clear difference in the performance of learners in favour of the experimental group. The average of the experimental group was 2.69 compared to 2.16 for the control group. The experimental group outperformed the control group in all criteria of the test. For the language criterion (structure and organisation, grammar and vocabulary and accuracy), the experimental group learners attained the average of 2.39 while the control group learners got the average of 2.02. The experimental group also excelled in production (fluency, syllable/ word pronunciation, intonation, stress and rhythm), in participation (turn taking, maintenance of interaction, and feedback) and in the criterion of expression (clarity of ideas and quality of ideas). The experimental sample average in these criteria is successively 1.94, 1.95, and 2.3, while the control group attained 1.72, 1.75, and 2.05 in the 3 stages of the observation. In the coherence criterion, (clarity of ideas and justification of point of view) learners in the experimental sample exceeded the expected level of performance and attained the average of 2.39, while their counterparts in the control sample attained the average of 2.03.

Consequently, the enhancement of learners' oral competence can be attributed to the integration of learning and innovation skills in the listening and speaking lessons. During the study, learners carried out communicative and interactive tasks, collaborating in small groups to achieve the desired outcomes. They solved problems together and sometimes

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competed to win the games. They practised their language in a relaxed atmosphere where they exchanged ideas and supplied feedback to each other. They also adopted the strategy of practising in low-pressure situations to build self-confidence and to get rid of the fear of making mistakes.

Excitingly, learners started to communicate in structured complete sentences with fewer hesitations. They used the target language in most occasions, and their mother tongue only when necessary. They enhanced their pronunciation through negotiating for transcribing the new vocabulary, and hence they pronounced words correctly and spoke with little influence of the mother tongue. To some extent, their speech became clear and comprehensible in most situations. Besides, they felt the importance of the body language and facial expressions in conveying their messages to their interlocutors. Briefly, learners in the experimental sample displayed confidence in their interactions and enhanced their oral competence through the integration of communication and collaboration skills in the listening and speaking sessions.

Intriguingly, the findings of the present investigation are approximately similar to the findings of studies conducted in the field of education by some researchers (Herbers et al., 2012; Hernandez, 2011; Ellis, Bell, Ployhart, Hollenbeck, and Ilgen, 2005; Mckinney and Denton, 2006) who confirmed that communication skills have been linked to academic success. The collaboration learning, on the other hand, helps the improvement of the metacognition, enhancement of ideas formulation, and develops discussion and debate higher levels (Laal et al., 2013; Trilling and Fadel, 2009, p. 107).

The experimental group learners' attained results were due to the integration of the treatment, which demanded new classroom arrangements and new active learning strategies. The learning environment encouraged learners to do their best to enhance their speaking competence. All the above elements helped learners to ameliorate their level of motivation

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and alleviate their level of anxiety. The applied learning strategies helped learners overcome their reticence to participate in class, their fear of making mistakes and lose face when speaking. Practicing language in groups and in low-pressure situations improved their self-confidence to share their ideas with their classmates and to defend their opinions.

4.3. The Post- Experimental Phase (learners' questionnaire / learners' interview)

In the current section, the researcher resumes the methodological process of data analysis about the post- experimental phase. The instruments to collect information from learners included an attitude questionnaire and an interview to crosscheck the obtained results. A questionnaire was handed on to the experimental group to elicit their attitudes about their practices with regard to the integration of the learning and innovation skills in learning the speaking competence. It also tried to answer the question stated at the onset of the study. After the experiment, the researcher proceeded with the statistical analysis of the questionnaire.

4.3.1. Analysis of the Attitudes Questionnaire

The attitudinal questionnaire contained twelve statements, nine positive items and three negative ones. The statements focus mainly on the learning environment, the learning strategies learners experienced in class and out of class, and their opinions about their practices in the listening and speaking sessions (Appendix C).

S.1. Classroom physical environment was motivating (videos, activities, topics, shape of the classroom: U-shape,) to practise speaking.

S.2. The seating arrangement was helpful for interaction and communication.

S.3. The strategies we used in class (TPS, running dictation, interviewing,...) motivated me to perform better in speaking.

S.4. Preparing in low- pressure situations offered me self-confidence.

S.5. Lots of interaction encouraged me to participate in class.

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S.6. Solving problems with the help of each other was a means to learn how to speak and correct my mistakes.

S.7. Working in groups and getting information from each other helped me overcome my speaking problems and improve my oral performance.

S.8. Practising my speaking three minutes a day outside the classroom helped develop my oral competence.

S.9. Giving presentations in class is a good way to train on speaking situations.

S.10. I felt nervous when I was asked to speak by the teacher or by a suggestion from a friend.

S.11. The strategy of numbered heads annoyed me.

S.12. I am not comfortable when I am asked to represent the group.

In the aforementioned statements, the two first items dealt with the learning environment and the degree of motivation learners have experienced in the centre as they were implementing the treatment. They describe the layout of the classroom, classroom atmosphere, and the seating arrangement and their effect on the learning process. Whereas, items three, four, five, six, and seven deal mainly with active learning strategies, types of interaction and collaboration learners benefited from while they were practicing their language. Item 8 studies the three minutes out of class practice and how it helped the improvement of their oral competence. Lastly, the four last items treat the learners' ways and feelings about their oral production.

The obtained results are summarised in table 79 on the next page.

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Table 79: Learners' Attitudes Towards the learning and Innovation Skills

Item	Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
S.1.	07	38.88	09	50	02	11.11	00	00	00	00	18	100
S.2.	06	33.33	06	33.33	04	22.22	02	11.11	00	00	18	100
S.3..	06	33.33	06	33.33	03	16.66	02	11.11	01	05.55	18	100
S.4.	10	55.55	07	38.88	01	05.55	00	00	00	00	18	100
S.5.	7	38.88	07	38.88	02	11.11	01	05.55	01	05.55	18	100
S.6.	06	33.33	07	38.88	03	16.66	01	05.55	01	05.55	18	100
S.7.	06	33.33	05	27.77	04	22.22	02	11.11	01	05.55	18	100
S.8..	10	55.55	06	33/33	02	11.11	00	00	00	00	18	100
S.9.	06	33.33	07	38.88	02	11.11	03	16.66	00	00	18	100
S.10	03	16.66	03	16.66	05	27.77	04	22.22	03	16.66	18	100
S.11	03	16.66	06	33.33	04	22.22	03	16.66	02	11.11	18	100
S.12	00	00	04	22.22	06	33.33	05	27.77	03	16.16	18	100

As observed in table 79, the majority of learners were comfortable with the learning atmosphere and the learning strategies they applied in class. Thus, learners' most enjoyable and preferred strategies during the experiment were preparing in low-pressure situations before sharing the production with colleagues, and practicing speaking three minutes daily outside the classroom.

For statement 1, learners expressed their admiration for the classroom physical environment. Thirty-eight point eighty-eight percent stated that they strongly agree, 50%, they agree that it was motivating and they liked the videos, the activities, and the topics. Only two

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learners expressed their neutrality and none disagrees or strongly disagrees with the statement.

Likewise, 33, 33% of learners strongly enjoyed the new seating arrangement, and the same percentage (33, 33%) agrees that the U-shape seating arrangement was helpful for collaboration and other types of interaction. Only four respondents (22.22 %) were neutral about the idea and 2 (11.11%) disagrees, and no learner strongly disagrees.

As mentioned earlier, learners strongly admired the strategy of preparing in low-pressure situations. Fifty-five point fifty-five percent expressed their profound desire for the strategy, 38, 88 % agreed with the notion as a solution to the problem of low self –esteem, and it offered them some self-confidence to speak in front of their classmates.

Concerning the interaction patterns, learners dealt with pair-interaction, group-interaction, whole class-interaction. Learners found these patterns as encouraging factors to participate in class. In item five, 38.88% of participants strongly agree with the statement and the same percentage agrees that interaction ridded them of their reticence to participate in class. Eleven point eleven percent were neutral, 05.55% were recorded in disagree and strongly disagree options.

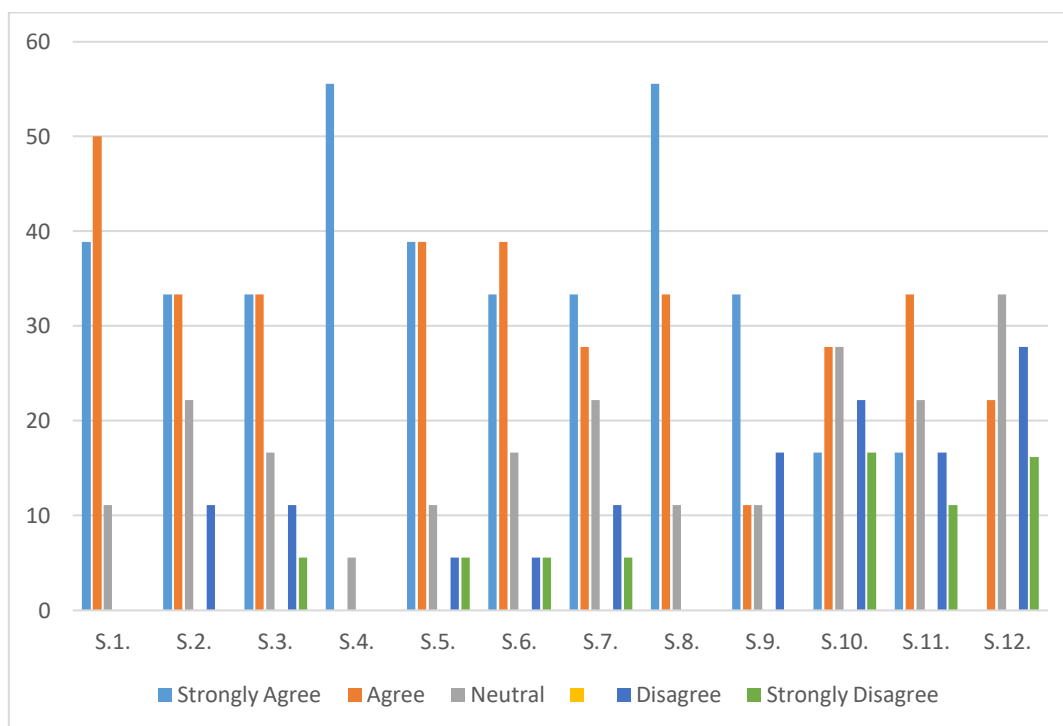
As far as collaboration is concerned, learners helped each other to solve problems. The results of item 6 demonstrated that the highest proportion was recorded in the option of 'agree' (38.88%), followed by strongly agree (33.33%). Only 16.66% were neutral and 05.55% stated their strong disagreement or disagreement about collaboration as a means to learn how to speak and to correct mistakes.

Group work aimed at fostering communication opportunities in which learners share ideas and give feedback to each other. Learners opinions about working in groups ranged from 33.33% in the strongly agree option to 05.55% in the strongly disagree one. Twenty-seven point seventy-seven percent agreed, 22.22% expressed their neutrality and 11.11%

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disagreed that communication helped them overcome their speaking difficulties to improve their oral competence. The graph below represents a clear picture of learners attitudes about the different elements related to communication and collaboration.

Figure 37: Learners' Attitudes towards the Effectiveness of Learning and Innovation Skills



Practising English inside the classroom proved not sufficient to acquire a good oral competence. Hence, the researcher and the participants agreed on the daily three minutes practice of the language outside the classroom. The next session, some learners would present their daily practices in front of their mates. The researcher selected the respondents using the numbered heads strategy. As shown in the graph 38, learners expressed their ultimate admiration for the strategy (55.55%). A third of the participants (33.33%) agreed with the strategy and 11.11 were neutral. No one disagreed or strongly disagreed that practising speaking three minutes daily would help the development of the oral competence.

The last four items revolved around the ways learners presented their productions and how they felt about them. Giving presentations in class were considered as good ways to

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train on speaking situations. Thirty-three point thirty-three percent strongly agree and 38.88% agree with the idea. Sixteen point sixty six percent disagreed and the low proportion representing 11.11% were neutral.

Involving learners and engaging them in the learning process is a crucial issue in the development of the oral competence. Some learners sometimes felt nervous when asked to speak. After applying the strategies to foster communication and collaboration skills, respondents stated that only 16.66% of them still feel nervous when asked to speak by the teacher or by a suggestion from a friend. Sixteen point sixty-six percent strongly agree, 27.77% were neutral, 22.22 % disagreed, and 16.66 % strongly disagreed.

To sensitise learners about the importance of their contributions in the discussions held in the classroom and to raise their awareness of their responsibility about their learning, the researcher suggested the strategy of the numbered heads to nominate the respondents in all situations requiring participants to share views or answer tasks. Learners' views about the strategy varied according to their personality traits. Thirty-three point thirty-three percent said that the strategy annoyed them and 16.66% thought that the strategy was very annoying. Four respondents (22.22%) expressed their neutrality and the rest (27.77%) believed that the strategy did not cause them any embarrassment.

Lastly, learners' feelings about their socialisation with their classmates varied according to their learning styles and personality traits. Thirty-three point thirty three percent felt neither comfortable nor uncomfortable about representing their groups in classroom discussions. Four respondents (22.22%) stated that they agreed that they felt uncomfortable when asked to represent their groups. The percentage of 27.77% expressed their disagreement with the statement and 16.66% strongly disagreed. Overall, learners have developed the socialisation skill after applying the strategies suggested in the investigation.

4.3.2. Analysis of the Learners' Interview results

The researcher conducted an interview to extract information on learners' feelings and attitudes about the learning and innovation skills (Appendix D). He also attempted to identify the strategies learners liked or disliked in their course. Furthermore, he tried to evoke learners' opinions about their level of oral competence and how it was affected after the integration of the different ingredients of treatment.

The interviewer proceeded the interview and recorded the answers in note forms to study them afterwards. It included six questions. Question one centred on learners' feelings along the course. The analysis of the results indicated that the majority of them (66.66%) liked the course and felt comfortable. Four interviewees said that it was ordinary and only two had experienced anxiousness during the course.

The second question revolved around learners' opinions about the content of the course. Half of the respondents (50%) affirmed that it was interesting and the other half considered the course content as challenging, but they admired it for its variety of topics and techniques. None of the interviewees spoke about the option of boredom of the content.

The interviewer elicited some information about the level of the respondents in the third question, in which learners were supposed to rate their level of oral competence after the implementation of the content. Half of them had very positive attitudes towards their level of speaking competence. They felt the improvement and started to enjoy discussions in the target language. Six of them thought that they had an average level and tried to express themselves without referring to the mother tongue. The rest (16.66%) believed that they still had a low level in oral expression.

As far as the influencing factors are concerned, learners mentioned various factors among them we can mention,

- 1- When we had time to prepare with a friend made me confident.

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- 2- I did not feel shy when I discussed the topics with my group.
- 3- I improved because the teacher helped me to speak and corrected my mistakes.
- 4- Practising English at home was important for me.
- 5- I liked the topics.
- 6- The classroom was helpful and I liked the small group of learners.
- 7- I enjoyed the games especially when we compete with other groups.
- 8- I improved my pronunciation because my group always negotiates for pronunciation.
- 9- The tasks were motivating and meaningful.
- 10- We had the chance to practise English when we worked in groups.
- 11- I liked the strategy of practising speaking three minutes a day.
- 12- I enjoyed myself when we moved and asked each other different questions.
- 13- The strategy of thinking in English is very helpful. ...

Questions 5 revolved around the best strategies learners liked best in the classroom. Learner's answers agreed on the mingling activity as the best one besides to the Jigsaw and running dictation. The Think pair -share and the round table ranked the second. After that, learners mentioned the Strategy of 'find someone who...' interviewing each other and working in competitive groups.

Concerning the strategies learners did not enjoy much, some of them mentioned the numbered heads and when asked to represent the group.

Finally, when learners asked to give other suggestions they would like to implement, they insisted on keeping applying the strategies they experienced in their oral expression lessons. They affirmed that practising the language outside the classroom would be a focal point in their plans to improve their oral competence. They added that the strategies were very beneficial for them as they ridded them of their fear of making mistakes and speaking

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in front of the class. Moreover, they started to accept their colleagues' feedback and corrected their grammar and pronunciation mistakes. They even developed the discussion and convincing habits, and improved their social skills as well when discussing topics with others.

Concisely, the post-experiment results gained from the learners' questionnaire and the interview affirmed that learners have developed a positive attitude towards the implementation of communication and collaboration skills in their weekly learning sessions. Additionally, these skills even raised their level of motivation and inspired them to adhere to discussions organised in the classroom. In all cases, only two or three participants showed some kind of negative attitudes due to their learning styles or personality traits.

In a more detailed way, learners expressed their love and admiration towards all the positive statements in the questionnaire; 88.88% thought that classroom physical environment was motivating, 66.66% stated that the seating arrangement was helpful for interaction and collaboration, a similar percentage affirmed that the active learning strategies motivated them to perform better in their speaking tasks. Furthermore, more than 90% of participants adored the way of preparing in low-pressure situations for its effectiveness in lowering anxiety and shyness. Seventy-seven point seventy-seven said that lots of interaction encouraged them to get rid of their reticence, and 72.22% considered collaboration and communication a solution to overcome speaking difficulties.

Strikingly, participants (88.88%) expressed their positive attitudes towards the idea of practising speaking three minutes daily outside the classroom, and no participant (00%) opposed it as being the best way to develop the habit of speaking the foreign language. On the other hand, learners' attitudes towards the negative statements ranged from the percentage of 33% to 11.11%. Learners expressed their most negative feelings towards the idea of numbered heads, 49.99% stated that it annoyed them and they did not feel comfortable about

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it. The second most negative feeling revolved around being asked to be the representative of the group (by the teacher or by a suggestion from a friend). Thirty-three point thirty-three percent felt nervous when asked to do so.

Concerning the interview results, most learners also showed positive attitudes towards the practice of communication and collaboration skills. Among their comments, we can mention that the majority of them (66.66) felt comfortable along the course and thought that the content was either interesting or challenging. They expressed their satisfaction about their oral competence level if compared to their previous level. Among the factors that affected their speaking competence, they mentioned the majority of practices they exercised in the classroom.

Likewise, when learners asked what strategies they liked best they mentioned the majority of the active learning strategies they used to practise the language. They expressed their negative feeling about two items to varying degrees. These strategies are the strategy of numbered heads and the strategy to represent their groups. When asked what suggestions they would like to experience in their future practices when dealing with oral expression sessions, they affirmed their desire to practise the experienced strategies for longer periods, which is an evidence of the influence of these strategies and skills on learners' attitudes and motivation.

The findings support the results from study conducted by Herbers et al., 2012 on the importance of communication on the academic success. In higher education, communication skill assessed at the outset of college is linked with higher grades and graduation rates (Hawken, Duran, & Kelly, 1991; Rubin, Graham, & Mignery, 1990 cited in Metusalem, 2017).

Conclusion

This chapter displayed the practical part of the investigation and attempted to supply a response to the research questions with reference to the employed research methodologies. The first part analysed teachers and learners' questionnaires, while the analysis of the experiment results including T-Test and analysis of the observation form results was presented in the second part of the chapter. The post-experiment phase results were discussed in the third part. The researcher focused on the learner's attitudes through interpretation of the attitudinal questionnaire and the learners' interview results.

The findings obtained in the chapter highlighted the importance of learning and innovation skills in the teaching of the oral competence to university learners. Besides to their positive effects to enhance the oral competence, they proved to be an impulse to raise the motivation level and inspiration for learning. Moreover, they helped learners to overcome some learning difficulties. Among these, we can mention the fear of making mistakes, reticence to participate and anxiety.

Therefore, teachers are invited to integrate the learning and innovation skills in their teaching of the oral expression modules. They need to think of the learning environment as the first step in the process of teaching the oral competence. Creating the relaxing atmosphere and adapting the appropriate active learning strategies to practice communication and collaboration would yield the desired outcomes.

General

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General Conclusion

Following the different phases of the experiment to verify the impact of learning and innovation skills on learners' oral competence development, and having successfully implemented the desired strategies, the current section provides a summary of the study via investing the findings and the foregoing discussions to propose some recommendations and offer suggestions for further research.

5.1. Summary of the Study

The overall aim of this study was to investigate the feasibility and the effectiveness of implementing the learning and innovation skills and their impact on first-year EFL learners. More specifically, this thesis scrutinised three issues: (a) identifying difficulties first-year EFL learners face when interacting orally in English, (b) the strategies teachers offer to help their learners overcome their obstacles in oral interaction, and (c) the effects of learning and innovation skills on the participants oral competence.

The pre-experimental phase provided a clear-cut image of the difficulties learners encounter in their oral interaction of the target language. The data obtained from the teachers' questionnaire helped the researcher identify the common problems faced by first-year EFL learners. This would be a basis for the researcher to plan the lessons according to learners' needs. More importantly, the researcher got a prolonged intense look about the causes of learners' reticence, the areas they make mistakes in, level of motivation to speak English, learners' mistakes types, elements of focus when teaching speaking and the strategies teachers apply to develop their learners oral competence.

Besides to the teachers' questionnaire data, which served as a roadmap for the researcher to tackle the study, learners' questionnaire also supplied crucial information about the frequency of learners' mistakes in different areas of the speaking competence, level of

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shyness and anxiety, and crucially the learners' learning styles. Based on the questionnaires information, the researcher could have adapted the appropriate learning strategies.

The data obtained from the questionnaires confirmed the learners' speaking low level. Learners struggle to speak the foreign language due to difficulties in all areas with varying degrees. The highly ranked areas of difficulties are pronunciation and fluency. Teachers' suggestions to develop their learners' oral competence included the speaking tasks, with less focus on communication and collaboration skills, learners' engagement and motivation, and discussion of topics choice with learners.

The experimental phase constituted of the integration of the treatment of communication and collaboration skills through some active learning strategies. Interestingly, the obtained results from the post-test at the end of the experiment revealed a significant improvement. The progress was recorded in both the experimental and the control groups. The results of the experimental group were clearly better than the control group ones due to the impact of the treatment.

During the experimental phase, experimental group learners showed some kind of resistance to apply the strategies at the start, then, they became familiar with them gradually, because the learning atmosphere was encouraging for the psychological resilience. This latter refers to "adaptation and survival of a system after perturbation, often referring to the process of restoring functional equilibrium, and sometimes referring to the process of transformation to a stable new functional state" (Masten, 2001, p. 9).

The experimental phase results also ascertained the effectiveness of integrating communication and collaboration skills to enhance learners' oral competence as demonstrated here. The pre-test results means showed no difference in the oral competence of first-year experimental and control groups. On the other hand, the Independent T-Test identified significant difference in the oral performance between the two groups in the post-

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test. The value of the test (Z) is equal to (-3.742) and the degree of significance of the test (Sig) is equal to (0.000) which is less than the level of significance (0.01). Therefore, there is a statistical significance for the test, which means there are statistically significant differences between the pre-test and post- tests of the experimental group. Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected and the researcher's hypothesis was confirmed.

Likewise, the data from the post-experimental phase also confirmed the effectiveness of the treatment. The attitudinal questionnaire data affirmed the positive impact communication and collaboration skills have on learners' oral performance. The majority of learners expressed their positive attitudes towards the strategies they applied in their course. Besides, collaboration and communication proved their positive impact on raising learners' level of motivation and lowering their level of anxiety and reticence. Additionally, the learners' interview revealed the socialisation skills learners have developed through the study. They become aware of communication strategies, asking for clarification, turn taking, and body language, initiating and ending discussions.

Despite their low occurrence in teaching speaking to EFL learners, learning and innovation skills proved to be a solution to help first year learners overcome some of the difficulties they encounter. The results obtained from classroom observation, learners' interview and attitudinal questionnaire, alongside with learners' post-test results of the experimental group, constitute an evidence for the researcher to confirm the positive effectiveness of communication and collaboration skills in enhancing first year EFL oral competence.

5.2. Main Findings

After conducting the experiment, the researcher has drawn the following conclusions, based on the organisation of the research questions and the findings of the current study.

RQ1: What problems do first-year learners of English face when interacting in the target language?

Aiming at getting some information about learners' difficulties in the oral expression, the researcher administered two questionnaires, one to first-year oral expression teachers at Batna 2 University and the other to first year EFL learners at Barika university center. The diagnosis revealed the learners actual low level in speaking. Learners considered speaking as an individual activity in which they carry no interaction with each other. The majority of them were not able to communicate orally. Instead, they only pronounced isolated words or disconnected sentences.

All Learners expressed their interest to study English. Despite this fact, they showed poor oral production in the pre-test. In grammar, they frequently omitted subjects, used wrong verb tenses, and supplied wrong verb-subject concordance. In vocabulary, they made inappropriate word choices and were not aware of using the right words. Learners showed serious difficulties in the aspects of pronunciation and fluency. They often mispronounced words, misplaced stress and spoke with many pauses and hesitations.

RQ2: What strategies do oral expression teachers offer to help learners overcome their obstacles in their oral interactions?

Oral expression teachers generally thought their learners' level ranged from low to average and learners faced difficulties in the oral competence due to its difficulty and due to learners' demotivation level. Teachers also stated that they focussed on speaking tasks, learners' motivation, and learners' engagement and to a less degree on learners' interaction.

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The majority of them often gave learners opportunities to do collaborative tasks, and they often communicate to solve problems during oral expression sessions.

Furthermore, teachers applied some active learning strategies to help learners overcome their difficulties in their oral interactions. They implemented jigsaw and round table strategies to some extent and the gallery walk to a less degree and role-play, debate and games to a least degree. In order to help learners improve their oral competence, teachers, integrated group discussion and assigning projects. Meanwhile, to raise learners' interest and engagement, teachers decide on the topics for discussion after a discussion with learners.

RQ3: What are the effects of integrating learning and innovation skills on the participants' oral competence?

This investigation provided a clear vision of the effects of integrating communication and collaboration in first year EFL oral expression sessions. The findings revealed their positive effects on learners' oral competence. Additionally, learners could improve other aspects such as psychological resilience, level of participation and level of motivation.

Communication and collaboration are twenty-first century trends that modified learning from lecture-settings to interactive collaborative ones. In most communicative collaborative learning contexts, learners work in groups or with peers, mutually seeking understanding, meanings, solutions, or creating a product (Smith & Macgor cited in Barkley, Cross and Howell, 2014, pp. 4-5). In the communicative collaborative learning environment, learners discuss their thoughts with each other, exchange their experiences, question each other and search for clarification.

In communicative collaborative tasks, members of the group are responsible for teaching their colleagues and facilitating questions and giving clarifications. Differently said, learners are not only responsible for their own learning, but are responsible for others'

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learning as well (Srinivas, cited in Laal, Laal and Kattami- Kermanshahi, 2012). Communicative collaborative learning prepares learners for real-life social and employment contexts and is learner-centred.

Collaborative learning fosters meta-cognition, develops ideas formulation and social skills. Learners orient each other, detect errors and learn how to correct mistakes. Commonly, collaborative learning develops learners' participation in self, individual, group assessment, and heighten attendance rate (Trilling and Fadel, 2009, p. 107).

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

The current research has yielded a set of implications as an evidence of the positive effect of the integration and practice of the learning and innovation skills in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages. Besides to its effectiveness in enhancing learners' oral competence, the following benefits are evidenced:

- ✓ Communication and collaboration skills are appropriate for most of learning styles.
- ✓ They raise the level of motivation for EFL learners.
- ✓ They foster the psychological resilience and encourage engagement.
- ✓ They develop socialisation skills
- ✓ Communication and collaboration skills are associated with personal, academic and career success.
- ✓ They help learners' maximise their on -task time.
- ✓ They encourage learner centeredness learning.
- ✓ They awaken the curiosity for learning.
- ✓ In other words, having better communication and collaboration skills yields better results in communicative collaborative learning contexts.

5.4. Importance of Communication and Collaboration skills

Besides to the aforementioned benefits, research generally supports them in other life domains:

- ✓ On a personal level, the skills of communication and collaboration are positively associated with satisfaction in romantic relationships (Eğeci & Gençöz, 2006; Litzinger & Gordon, 2005; Meeks, Hendrick, & Hendrick, 1998).
- ✓ On a family level, these skills enhance abilities to attain good cohesion and stability levels (Olson, 2000).
- ✓ On interpersonal level, they help peer acceptance among pre-schoolers (Hazen & Black, 1989) and foster friendship formation strategies among college learner (McEwan & Guerrero, 2010).
- ✓ On the health level, increased patient satisfaction and improved health outcomes are associated with good communication between patients and physicians (Chang et al., 2006; Shaw, Zaia, Pransky, Winters, & Patterson, 2005; Thompson, Collins, & Hearn, 1990).
- ✓ On the psychological level, communication anxiety is related to decreased communication with instructors outside the class (Martin & Myers, 2006).

5.5. Recommendations

Owing to the conclusions and findings of this study, and in the light of the results achieved along the different phases, the researcher intends to suggest some recommendations to enhance EFL learners' oral competence.

Teachers are called for to focus more and more on integrating the 21st century skills, namely communication and collaboration through applying the appropriate active learning

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strategies that encourage learners to leave their comfort zone and to move towards the learning zone. This can be achieved only when some conditions are realised.

Adequate learning environment is available to ensure learners' roles as active co-creators of knowledge. This means the flexibility in the design and arrangement of the classroom where learning takes place.

Topics for discussion are related to learners' interests and concern and resemble real life situations with focus on real world relevant problems.

Sufficient time is allotted to learners to prepare in low-pressure situations in order to build self-confidence. This can be done individually or with a peer followed with a peer feedback.

Feedback is incorporated in the speaking session to help learners identify their mistakes and learn from them. It can take the form of peer-feedback, teacher feedback or the group feedback.

Learners' attitudes are considered when assigning or working out tasks. They constitute the most important elements in the competence.

Outside classroom, speaking practice is recommended to develop the habit of self-training that helps learners improve accuracy and fluency.

Metacognitive skills are taught explicitly. 'Thinking about one's thinking' "Metacognition refers to the process used to plan, monitor and evaluate one's understanding and performance" (Scott, 2015, p. 10).

5.6. Suggestions for Further Research

The foregoing research implies that not only do learning and innovation skills enhance learners' oral competence, but can strongly and indirectly affect positively the psychological resilience, motivation and attitudes. The competence investigated in this study was the oral

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competence; hence, future research could also focus on whether the same results will be obtained by investigating the impact of communication and collaboration on other skills such as reading and writing.

Future research should also replicate the same study on other disciplines and in all learning cycles: primary, middle, secondary and in higher education. The learning and innovation skills should also be tested in these levels of education.

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that teachers of English should undertake the integration of the learning and innovation in their classroom practices in different forms: face-to-face communication and collaboration, and virtual communication and collaboration to satisfy the needs and desires of the digital generation.

Finally, the results gained from this study denotes fascinating new ways for research within the field of communication and collaboration. Ergo, the findings of this investigation could be taken as the starting point of a new research investigation. Stated differently, future similar research should be conducted on other learning and innovation skills including critical thinking and creativity because, in our times, these skills (21st century skills) are necessary for people to live, work and succeed in academic and career contexts.

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Appendices**Appendix A: Teachers' Questionnaire**

Faculty of Letters
and Foreign Languages
Department of foreign Languages
Section of English

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

The present questionnaire is part of a study on teaching methods for English first year LMD students to identify the difficulties learners encounter and the possible strategies to help them overcome their obstacles in speaking. You are kindly requested to answer the following questions by choosing the answer that best reflects your opinion and adding comments where required .

Section 1: General Information

- 1- Teaching experience :
- 2- Speciality :
- 3- Modules in charge :

Section 2 : Learner's Speaking Difficulties / teachers' strategies to develop the oral competence

- 1- How do you rate your learners' level of motivation to speak English ?

Low Average High

- 2- In your point of view, some learners face difficulties in the oral competence

because of :

- The difficulty of the oral competence
- The character of teacher
- the character of Learner
- The choice of topics

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- Learners' demotivation
- Others (specify)...
.....
.....

3- Which aspect do you focus on more when teaching ?

- Speaking tasks
- Learners' interaction
- Learners' motivation
- Learners' engagement

Others (specify).....
.....

4- In your opinion, learners are reluctant to participate in oral sessions because of :

- Lack of vocabulary
- Lack of linguistic competence
- Fear of making mistakes
- Lack of motivation

Others (specify)...
.....
.....

5- When learners speak, in which area do they make more mistakes?

- In grammar
- In pronunciation
- In word choice
- In Fluency

Others (specify).....
.....
.....

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6- How often do you give learners opportunities to do collaborative tasks during oral expression sessions?

Never rarely sometimes often always

7- How often do learners communicate to solve problems during oral expression sessions?

Never rarely sometimes often always

8- Which of the following strategies you use more during oral expression sessions?

Jigsaw Round table Gallery walk Running dictation

Others (specify)...

.....
.....

9- How do you choose the topics to be discussed in class?

- You make your own choice
- You follow a special syllabus
- Learners' choice
- After a discussion with learners

- Others(specify).....
.....
.....

10- How do you help learners improve their oral competence?

- Through group discussion
- Through achieving projects
- through giving feedback

Others (specify).....
.....
.....

Thank you for your collaboration

Appendix B: Learners' Difficulties Questionnaire

Barika University Center
Department of English Language

Name:

Group

Age

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is a part of a study on learners' speaking difficulties . it aims at collecting data on the common difficulties and the strategies learners prefer to apply in order improve their oral competence. You are kindly requested to give your opinion by selecting the answer that best reflects your opinion.

1-Choose the appropriate answer for each of these statements.

- A –rarely B - Sometimes C – often D – always
- 1- I make mistakes in grammar when I speak English .
- 2- I make mistakes in pronunciation.
- 3 - I cannot remember some vocabulary when speaking.
- 4 I speak with pauses and hesitations .
- 5 – I Use substitution words for those I do not know.
- 6 – Iask for repetition / clarification when communicating with others.
- 7 – Iworry about making mistakes .
- 8 – I'm misunderstood by my listeners .
- 9 – I speak English in class .
- 10- Ispeak English outside the class.

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- 11 . I Feel shy when I speak English .
- 12- I Feel nervous when speaking English in front of the class
- 13- I Understand English native speakers.

Read these statements and put a tick (☐) in the right box

N	statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
01	Speaking English is my priority				
02	When I study alone , I learn how to speak English				
03	I learn how to speak English better when I study with a friend				
04	I benefit when we work in groups				
05	A lot of interaction in the class gives me confidence.				
06	The strategy of thinking in English is helpful				
07	I prefer preparing to speak in low pressure situations				
08	It is difficult for me to speak in high pressure situations				
09	I discover my mistakes when I record my speech				
10	Feedback from my teachers is important				
11	I need feedback from my classmates				

Adapted from Zhiquin Wang (2014)

Thanks for taking the time to fill in this questionnaire

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Appendix C

Learners' Attitudes Questionnaire

Questionnaire

This questionnaire attempts to collect data about factors affecting your oral competence. Thus, you are requested to select the option that best reflects your personal opinion.

1-Put a tick in the box that best reflect your opinion

No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
01	Classroom physical environment is motivating (videos, activities, topics ,shape of the classroom: U-shape, ...) to practise speaking.					
02	The seating arrangement is helpful for interaction and communication.					
03	The strategies we use in class (TPS, running dictation, interviewing,...) motivates me to perform better in speaking.					
04	Preparing in low- pressure situations offers me self-confidence.					
05	Lots of interaction encourages me to participate in class.					
06	Solving problems with the help of each other is a means to learn how to speak and correct my mistakes.					
07	Working in groups and getting information from each other helps me overcome my speaking problems and improve my oral performance.					
08	Practicing my speaking three minutes a day outside the classroom helps develop my oral competence.					
09	Giving presentations in class is a good way to train on speaking situations.					

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10	I feel nervous when I am asked to speak by the teacher or by a suggestion from a friend.					
11	The strategy of numbered heads annoys me.					
12	I am not comfortable when I am asked to represent the group.					

Thanks for your cooperation

.....

Appendix D

Learners' Interview

The present interview is an attempt to collect data about learners' attitudes after experiencing oral expression courses with the integration of learning and innovation skill. Thus, they are invited to authentically reflect their personal viewpoints through answering the following questions:

1. How did you feel about your oral expression course?
 - a) Anxious b) Neutral c) Comfortable
2. What do think of the course content?
 - a) Interesting b) boring c) challenging
3. How do you rate your level in oral expression?
 - a) low b) average c) good
4. In your opinion, what are the factors that affected your level of oral competence?

.....
5. What are the strategies that you liked best in your oral expression course?

.....
6. What are the ones you did not like?

.....
7. Are you satisfied with your oral competence level? Explain.

..... Thank you for your collaboration

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Appendix E

• The Observation Grid

	1	2	3	4	Comments
Language <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structure and organisation • Grammar and vocabulary • Accuracy 				
Production <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fluency • Syllable/ word pronunciation • Intonation, stress and rhythm 				
Participation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Turn taking • Maintenance of interaction • Feedback 				
Expression <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarity of ideas • Quality of ideas 				
Coherence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linking of ideas • Justification of point of view 				

Adopted from Goh and Burns (2012, p. 275

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Appendix F

Learners' Scores in Progress Test One

Learners	Experimental Group	Learners	Control Group
Learner1	10	Learner1	10
Learner2	09	Learner2	06
Learner3	11	Learner3	11
Learner4	10	Learner4	08
Learner5	13	Learner5	07
Learner6	11	Learner6	09
Learner7	12	Learner7	10
Learner8	06	Learner8	10
Learner9	07	Learner9	11
Learner10	13	Learner10	10
Learner11	05	Learner11	11
Learner12	11	Learner12	06
Learner13	12	Learner13	11
Learner14	10	Learner14	05
Learner15	09	Learner15	09
Learner16	08	Learner16	11
Learner17	08	Learner17	08
Learner18	11	Learner18	09
Sum	175		161
Average	9.72		08.94

.....

Appendix G

Learners' Scores in Progress Test Two

Learners	Experimental Group	Learners	Control Group
Learner1	12	Learner1	11
Learner2	11	Learner2	06
Learner3	12	Learner3	12
Learner4	13	Learner4	09
Learner5	14	Learner5	08
Learner6	13	Learner6	10
Learner7	14	Learner7	11
Learner8	11	Learner8	10
Learner9	13	Learner9	11
Learner10	15	Learner10	11
Learner11	07	Learner11	13
Learner12	13	Learner12	06

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Learner13	12	Learner13	11
Learner14	13	Learner14	06
Learner15	11	Learner15	10
Learner16	09	Learner16	10
Learner17	11	Learner17	09
Learner18	11	Learner18	09
Sum	215		184
Average	11.94		10.22

.....

Appendix H
 Learners' Scores in Progress Test Three

Learners	Experimental Group	Learners	Control Group
Learner1	14	Learner1	11
Learner2	14	Learner2	06
Learner3	14	Learner3	13
Learner4	15	Learner4	12
Learner5	15	Learner5	10
Learner6	15	Learner6	10
Learner7	14	Learner7	13
Learner8	12	Learner8	12
Learner9	13	Learner9	11
Learner10	16	Learner10	13
Learner11	06	Learner11	13
Learner12	15	Learner12	06
Learner13	14	Learner13	12
Learner14	14	Learner14	08
Learner15	13	Learner15	12
Learner16	11	Learner16	10
Learner17	13	Learner17	11
Learner18	15	Learner18	12
Sum	243		195
Average	13.5		10.83

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Appendix 'I'

Observation scores: Control Group

Cont. G	1- Language			2- Production			3- Participation			4- Expression			5- Coherence		
Learner 1	2	2.25	2.25	1.5	2	2	1.5	2	2	2	2.5	2.5	2.	2.	2.
Learner 2	1	1	1	1,5	1.5	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Learner 3	2,5	2.25	2.5	2	2	3	2	2,5	3	2	3	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Learner 4	1.75	2	2.5	1,5	1.5	2	2	1,5	2	1.5	2	3	2.	2.	2.5
Learner 5	1.5	1.75	2	1	1.5	2	2.5	1	1.5	1,5	1.5	2	2	2	2,5
Learner 6	1.5	2	3	2,5	2	1.5	2	1	1	1.5	2.5	2.5	1.5	1.5	2
Learner 7	2.25	2.5	2.5	1.5	2	2.5	2.5	1.5	2	2	2.5	3	2.5	2.5	2.5
Learner 8	2.5	2.5	2.5	1.5	1.5	2	2	1	2	3	2.5	2.5	2.5	3	2.5
Learner 9	2.5	2.5	2.5	2	2	2	2	1.5	1.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Learner 10	2,5	2.5	3	1.5	1.5	2.5	2.5	2,5	2	2.5	2.5	2.5	2	2.5	3
Learner 11	2.25	3	3	2,5	2	2	1	2	2	2.5	3	3	2	3	3
Learner 12	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,5	2.5	1	1,5	1	1	1	1,5	1,5	1,5
Learner 13	2.25	2.25	2.5	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2.5	2.5	2	2,5	3
Learner 14	1	1.5	2,5	1	1	1	2.5	0.5	1	1,5	1.5	2.5	1	1.5	1.5
Learner 15	2	2,5	2.5	1	1,5	2.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	2	2.5	2.5	2	2	2.5
Learner 16	2.5	2	2	2	2	2	2	1.5	1.5	2.5	2	2	2.5	2	2
Learner 17	2	2.25	2.5	1	1	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	2,5	2,5	2.5	2	2.5	2.5
Learner 18	2	2	2.5	1	1	2	1.5	1.5	2	2	2	2.5	2	2	2.5
Average	1,83	2	2,25	1,6	1,69	1,88	1,88	1,59	1,8	1,95	2,06	2,14	1,75	2,11	2,25

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Appendix 'J'

Observation scores : Experimental Group

Obs. Ex.G	2- Production			3- Participation			4-Expression			5- Coherence			1-Language		
Learner 1	1.5	2	2.5	1.5	1.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	3	2	2.5	3	2,5	2.5	3
Learner 2	1.5	1.5	3	1.5	2	2.5	1,5	2.5	2.5	2	2.5	3	2	2.5	2.75
Learner 3	2	2	2.5	2,5	2	3	2.5	2	2.5	2	2.5	3	2.25	2.5	2.75
Learner 4	2	2.5	3	2	2	2.5	2	2.5	3.5	2	3	3.	2	2.75	3.25
Learner 5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2	2.5	3	2,5	2,5	3.5	2.5	3	3	2.75	3	3.25
Learner 6	2	2.5	2.5	2	2	2.5	2	2.5	3	2.5	3	3.5	2.5	2.75	3.25
Learner 7	1.5	2.5	2.5	2	2.5	2.5	1,5	3	3	2.5	3	3	2.75	3	3
Learner 8	1	1	1.5	1	2	2.5	1,5	2.5	2.5	1,5	2.5	2.5	1	1.5	2.5
Learner 9	1	2	2	1,5	2	2	2	2	3	1	3	3	1.5	2	3
Learner 10	2	2.5	3	2.5	2.5	3	3	2	3	2.5	3.5	3.5	3	3.25	3.25
Learner 11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1,5	1.5	1
Learner 12	2	2.5	3	2	2.5	2.5	2	2.5	3	2.5	2.5	3	2.25	2.5	3
Learner 13	2	2	2.5	2	2	2.5	2,5	3	3	3	2.5	3	2.75	2.75	3
Learner 14	1.5	2	3	1.5	2.5	2.5	2	2	2.5	2.5	3	3	2,5	2.75	2.75
Learner 15	2	2.5	3	1,5	1.5	2	1.5	1.5	2.5	1.5	2.5	2.5	1.5	2	2.5
Learner 16	1.5	1.5	2	1.5	1.5	1.5	1,5	2	2.5	2	2	2.5	1.5	2	2.5
Learner 17	1	1.5	2	1	1.5	2	1,5	3	3	2	2.5	3	2	2.75	3
Learner 18	1.5	1.5	2.5	1.5	1.5	2.5	2	2.5	3.5	2.5	2.5	3	2.5	2.5	3.25
Average	1.63	1.71	2.5	1,7	1.87	2.28	1,9	2.25	2.77	1,85	2.75	2.83	2,06	2.4	2.71

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الملخص

هذه الدراسة هي محاولة للتحقيق في فعالية دمج مهارات التعلم والابتكار في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية لتعزيز الكفاءة الشفوية لمتعلمي هذه اللغة كلغة أجنبية في السنة الأولى في مركز جامعة بريكة. افترض الباحث أن المتعلمين الذين يطبقون مهارات التواصل والتعاون في حصص التعبير الشفهي سيعززون كفاءتهم الشفوية بشكل أفضل من أقرانهم الذين يختبرون طريقة تقليدية للتعليم. تم تنفيذ تصميم شبه تجريبي مع مجموعتين سلیمتين في العام الأول. تم جمع بيانات الدراسة الحالية في مراحل مختلفة من التجربة لتحديد فعالية مهارات التعلم والابتكار على الكفاءة الشفوية للعينة. من الناحية العملية، تم اختبار الكفاءة الشفوية للمجموعتين أولاً من خلال اختبار شفهي للغة الإنجليزية قبل وبعد تطبيق بعض استراتيجيات التعلم النشط والابتكار. بعد ذلك، تم تقديم استبيانين للمتعلمين قبل الدورة التدريبية وفي نهايتها لتحديد مواقف المتعلمين تجاه دمج مهارات التعلم والابتكار في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية. تم تحليل البيانات باستخدام الطرق الإحصائية الأساسية والاستنتاجية بما في ذلك متوسط الدرجات والانحرافات المعيارية واختبار للعينة المزدوجة وحجم التأثير. أظهرت النتائج تطوراً ملحوظاً في الكفاءة الشفوية والمواقف لدى المتعلمين بعد دمج استراتيجيات التعلم والابتكار. في ضوء هذه النتائج، يوصي الباحث بضرورة استفادة المعلمين من تطبيق مهارات التواصل والتعاون في الفصول الشفوية للغة الإنجليزية، والتي بدورها قد تعزز مهارات المتعلم ومواقفه.

لكلمات المفتاحية: مواقف، مهارات التواصل والتعاون، مهارات التعلم والابتكار، الكفاءة الشفوية

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Cette étude est une tentative d'enquêter sur l'efficacité de l'intégration des compétences d'apprentissage et d'innovation dans les salles de classe d'anglais pour améliorer les compétences orales des apprenants de première année (d'anglais comme langue étrangère (ALE) au centre universitaire de Barika. Le chercheur a émis l'hypothèse que les apprenants qui appliquent des compétences de communication et de collaboration dans leur séance d'expression orale amélioreraient leurs compétences orales mieux que leurs pairs qui expérimentent un mode d'enseignement traditionnel. Une conception quasi-expérimentale a été mise en œuvre avec deux groupes intacts de première année. Les données de la présente étude ont été recueillies aux différentes phases de l'expérimentation pour déterminer l'efficacité des compétences d'apprentissage et d'innovation sur la compétence orale de l'échantillon. En termes pratiques, les compétences orales des deux groupes ont d'abord été examinées par le biais d'un test oral d'anglais avant et après l'application de certaines stratégies pédagogique d'apprentissage actif et d'innovation. Ensuite, deux questionnaires ont été administrés aux apprenants avant et à la fin du cours pour identifier les attitudes des apprenants envers l'intégration des compétences d'apprentissage et d'innovation dans les cours d'anglais. Les données ont été analysées à l'aide de méthodes statistiques de base et inférentielles, notamment les scores moyens, les écarts types, le test t d'échantillons appariés et la taille de l'effet. Les résultats ont montré un développement remarquable de la compétence orale et des attitudes des apprenants après l'intégration des stratégies d'apprentissage et d'innovation. À la lumière des résultats, le chercheur recommande que les enseignants bénéficient de l'application des compétences de communication et de collaboration dans les cours d'anglais oral, ce qui peut à son tour améliorer les compétences et les attitudes des apprenants.

Mots-clés : *Attitudes, Compétences d'apprentissage et d'innovation, compétences de communication et de collaboration, Compétence orale.*

