

Journal of Research in Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Technology (JRCIET)

A Regional Quarterly Refereed Educational Journal

Vol .1 , No. 1 January, 2015

ISSN: 2356-9107

**Sponsored by the Association of Arab Educators
(AAE)**

**AAE website: <http://www.aeducators.org/>
JRCIET website: <http://jrciet.blogspot.com/>**

Contents

1. Un programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif pour développer quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les futurs enseignants de F.L.E. 11-48
Dr. Héba Atia Ali Salem
2. Teachers' Dual Vision from a Culturally Bound Angle: Student-teachers' Voices. 49-96
Dr. Khaled El ebyary
3. The Effect of Learning Environment on College Undergraduates' Computer Assisted Language Learning Achievement and Attitudes. 97-128
Dr. Marwa Ahmed Refat Naeem
4. Making It 'Authentic': Egyptian EFL Student Teachers' Awareness and Use of Online Authentic Language Materials and Their Learning Motivation. 129-168
Dr. Hanan A. Abdelhafez & Dr. Mahmoud M.S. Abdallah
5. Effet de l'emploi de Stratégies Métacognitives d'apprentissage Sur le développement de la performance écrite créative. 169-200
Esraa Ahmed El-saeed Sharaf
6. The Effectiveness of Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) in Developing EFL Students' Oral -Micro Communicative Skills. 201-233
Dr. Tariq M. El-Ghonaimy

Editorial Board

- **Editor in Chief** : Prof. Dr. M. I. Sabry , Chair of the Association of Arab Educators (AAE)

Editors

- Prof. Dr. Ahmad Seifeddin , Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Menoufeya University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Aly Koura, Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Mansoura University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. El Sayed Da'dour, Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Damietta University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Mona Salem Mahmoud Za'za', Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Banha University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Hazem Mahmoud Rashad, Assistant Professor of Arabic Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Ein Shams University, Egypt
- Dr. Taher Mohammad Al-Hadi, Associate Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Suez Canal University, Egypt
- Dr. Jamal Hamed Jahin, Associate Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, The National Centre for Educational Research & Development (NCERD), Egypt
- Dr. Hesham Barakat Beshr Hussein, Associate Professor of Curriculum and Math Education, Faculty of Education, King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

Advisory Board

- Prof. Dr. Abdel-Reheim Saad Eiddin Abdel-Reheim, Professor of EFL Curriculum and Teaching Methods of English, Faculty of Education, Alazhar University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Adel Saraya, Professor of Educational Technology, Faculty of Education, Al-Areesh Branch, Suez Canal University, Egypt

- Prof. Dr. Ahmad Alhosary, Professor of Educational Technology, Faculty of Education, Alexandria University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Allan Thomas Rogerson, Director of CDNALMA, Teacher Training Institute, Poland.
- Prof. Dr. Ali Amer, Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Tanta University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Aly Gouda Mohammad, Professor of Curriculum and Social Studies Instruction, Faculty of Education, Banha University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Alyaa Abdallah Elgendy, Professor of Educational Technology , Faculty of Education, Om Alqura University, Saudi Arabia, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Amal Abdallah Khalil Ahmad, Professor of Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Girls, Ein Shams University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Awatef Shoeir, Professor of EFL Curriculum and, Educational Research Institute, Cairo University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. AytekinI Şman, Professor of Educational Technology and Dean of College of Communication, Department of Communication Design & Media, Esentepe Campus, Sakarya University, Sakarya , Turkey.
- Prof. Dr. Aziz Abdelaziz Kandeel, Professor of Curriculum and Math Instruction, Faculty of Education, Banha University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Bahaa Elsayyed ELnaggar, Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Zagazig University, Egypt.
- Prof. Dr. David Hung WeiLoong , Professor of the Learning Sciences, Associate Dean of Educational Research Office. National Institute of Education. Nanyang Technological University. Singapore
- Prof. Dr. Eid Abdelwahed Darweesh, Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Elminya University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Faramawy Mohammad Faramawy, Professor of Curriculum and Teaching Methods of Kindergarten , Helwan University, Egypt

- Prof. Dr. Hamdy Abul-Fetouh Oteifa, Professor of Curriculum and Science Education, Faculty of Education, Mansoura University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Hanan Mohammad Hafez Ibrahim, Professor of French Education, Faculty of Education, Ein Shams University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Hassan Sayed Shehata, Professor of Curriculum and Teaching Methods of Arabic , Faculty of Education, Ein Shams University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. James Paul Gee, Mary Lou Fulton, Presidential Professor of Literacy Studies, Regents' Professor, Arizona State University, USA
- Prof. Dr. Khadeega Ahmad Bekheet, Professor of Curriculum and Teaching Methods of Home Economics , Faculty of Education, King Abdul-Aziz University, Saudi Arabia
- Prof. Dr. Khaled Mohamed Fargoun Professor of Educational Technology,. Faculty of Education, Helwan University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Kawthar Ibrahim Kotb, Professor of EFL Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Elminya University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Lamaat Ismail Khalifa, Professor of Curriculum and French Instruction, Girls' College, Ein Shams University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Lawrence H. Shirley, Professor of Mathematics Education, Towson University, 8000 York Road. Towson, Maryland , USA
- Prof. Dr. Lee Sing Kong. Director, National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore.
- Prof. Dr. Louseil Barsoum Salama, Professor of Curriculum and French Instruction, Faculty of Education, Elminya University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Maha Elkaisy Friemuth, Department für Islamisch-Religiöse Studien DIRS , Praktischem Schwerpunkt, Friedrich-Alexander Universität Erlangen-Nürnberg, Germany
- Prof. Dr. Michael Connelly, Professor Emeritus, Department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto, Canada

- Prof. Dr. Mostafa Mohamed Abdel-Aty Badr, Professor Emeritus of EFL Curriculum and Instruction , Faculty of Education, Tanta University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Patrick Scott, Professor Emeritus, New Mexico State University, International Representative, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, USA
- Prof. Dr. Reda Abdou Alkady, Professor of Educational Technology , Faculty of Education, Helwan University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Reema Sado Al-Jarf , Professor of ELT and Translation, Faculty of Education, King Saud University, Saudi Arabia
- Prof. Dr. Rozhan M. Idrus, Professor of Open and Distance Learning & Technology, School of Distance Education, Universiti Sains, Malaysia
- Prof. Dr. Salaheddin Mohammad Khedr, Professor of Curriculum and Teaching Methods of Industrial Education, Faculty of Education, Helwan University, Egypt
- Prof. Dr. Zeinab Mohammad Ameen, Professor of Educational Technology, Faculty of Education, Elminya University, Egypt

Journal of Research in Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Technology (JRCIET)

Aims and Scope

The *Journal of Research in Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Technology (JRCIET)* is a regional quarterly refereed educational journal. It is one of the publications of the Association of Arab Educators (AAE), Egypt. JRCIET is published in English, French and German in January, April, July and October. It is issued both electronically and in paper forms. It accepts the publication of original high quality papers on both theoretical and empirical research in different areas of educational research related to curriculum, instruction and educational technology. In order for serving as a vehicle of expression for colleagues and/or for meeting university academic standards, or for promotion purpose, JRCIET publishes

dissertation abstracts (M.A & PhD) in addition to reports on symposiums, conferences and meetings held on topics related to its main concerns previously referred to.

JRCIET links everyday concerns of teachers, researchers and practitioners with insights gained from relevant academic disciplines such as applied linguistics, education, psychology and sociology (interdisciplinary research). The scope of JRCIET is deliberately wide to cover research on the teaching and learning in different disciplines. The primary aim of the JRCIET is to encourage research in curriculum planning, design, evaluation and development, teacher education, and approaches , methods, strategies, techniques and styles of teaching in the following disciplines: English, Arabic, French, German, Social studies, Science, Islamic studies, Mathematics, Agricultural sciences, Commercial sciences, Technical sciences, Home economics, Music, Physical education, Kindergarten, Any other related discipline, Educational technology, Special needs, Technical/vocational education. JRCIET also encourages and disseminates work which establishes bridges between educational sciences and other disciplines within or outside educational context.

The views , the opinions and attitudes expressed in JRCIET are the contributors' own positions, and not necessarily those of the Editor, Advisory Board, Editorial Panel, or the Publisher.

Contributions

Offers of contributions are welcome from researchers /academics interested in teaching, learning and educational technology. Contributors should consult the online "Instructions for Authors" on the AAE website: <http://www.aaeducators.org/> or JRCIET website on <http://jrciet.blogspot.com/> for manuscript preparation before submission. Submissions that do not fit with the "Instructions for Authors" will not be considered for publication.

Instructions for authors

Preparation of Manuscripts

JRCIET welcomes manuscripts in English, French and German. Manuscripts should be written in a concise and straightforward style. Authors are advised to have their manuscript proofread before final submission. A manuscript should not exceed 25 pages following JRCIET's formatting system (see section on formatting the manuscript). Submitted manuscripts should be written according to the APA style (for a brief manual of the APA style, consult the *Association of Arab Educators'* website on <http://www.aeducators.org/>)

Manuscript Formatting

The following formats should be followed: Title: Font (Times New Roman), Size 16 + bold, Heading 1: Font (Times New Roman), Size 14 +bold., Heading 2: Font (Times New Roman), Size 14 +bold+ italics, Heading 3: Font (Times New Roman), Size 14 +bold+ italics + indentation., Left margin = 2.5 cm, Right margin = 2.5 cm, Upper margin = 3 cm, Lower margin = 3 cm, Authors should use 1.5 space between lines and a double space between paragraphs.

Components of the research/article manuscript

Three copies of the research/article should be submitted. The manuscript should be typed, double-spaced on a A4 paper, on one side of the paper only. A cover page should contain only the research title, name(s) of author(s) and institutional affiliations on a separate page in order to preserve author anonymity on submission of the research/article to referees. An abstract not exceeding 200 words should be included on a separate sheet of paper. The main components of the research/article are Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion, Conclusion(s), Acknowledge- ments (if any), and References. Diagrams and Figures if they are considered essential, should be clearly related to the section of the text to which they refer. The original diagrams and figures should be submitted with the manuscript.

Footnotes should be avoided. Essential notes should be numbered in the text and grouped together at the end of the research/article.

Research Title

The title should accurately reflect the focus and content of the research. The title should be brief and grammatically correct. Titles do not normally include numbers, acronyms, abbreviations or punctuation. They should include sufficient detail for indexing purposes but be general enough for readers outside the field to appreciate what the paper is about. The title should be no more than 14 words in length.

Authors' names and institutional affiliations

This should include the full authors' names, affiliations (Department, Institution, City, Country), and email addresses for all authors.

Abstract and Keywords

The abstract should be comprehensive and concise and not exceeding 200 words in length followed by 5-7 carefully chosen keywords . It should be structured to give the purpose of the study, main procedures including sample and instruments, main findings of the study, conclusion(s) reached and their significance. Citations and specialist abbreviations are to be avoided..

Introduction

Authors should provide a brief literature survey avoiding citing literature over ten years old, unless absolutely necessary, background to the study, hypotheses and the significance of the research.

Method

The experimental procedures should be given in sufficient detail. Description of the participants, instruments and experimental design is necessary and should be detailed where possible.

Results

This section should provide details of the results that are required to support the conclusion(s) of the paper. The section may be divided into subsections, each with a concise subheading.

Discussion

This section should present a comprehensive analysis of the results in light of prior literature. Discussion may also be combined with results.

Conclusion(s)

The conclusion section should bring out the significance of the research paper, show how the author(s) have brought closure to the research problem, and point out some remaining research gaps by suggesting issues for further research.

Acknowledgements (if any)

The author(s) should first acknowledge the source of funding followed by acknowledgement of any support or help.

References

References should be written according to the APA style (6th edition). (See AAE website)

Submission can be made via e-mail to the editor-in-chief or deputy editor in chief and chair of the *Association of Arab Educators* (e.mail: mahersabry2121@yahoo.com)

Contacts and Information

Publishing, subscription, and queries from customers should be sent to:

Editor in Chief's email: mahersabry2121@yahoo.com

Mailing address: Prof. Dr. Maher Ismail Sabry, Ahmad Maher Street, from Alsharawy Street, Atreeb, Banha, Egypt.

Association of Arab Educators (AAE) website : <http://aae999.blogspot.com>

Telefax: 0020133188442

JRCIET website : <http://jrciet.blogspot.com>

Copying

No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means : electronic, electrostatic, magnetic tape, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without permission in writing from the publisher.

Un programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif pour développer quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les futurs enseignants de F.L.E.

Dr. Héba Atia Ali Salem

Maître de conférences de Curricula

et de Méthodologie de F.L.E.

Faculté de Pédagogie

Université de Mansourah

Résumé de la recherche

Cette recherche avait pour but de mesurer l'efficacité d'un programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif au développement de quelques compétences de l'enseignement. Afin d'atteindre ce but, la chercheuse a élaboré cinq outils: un questionnaire des compétences de l'enseignement nécessaires aux étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche, une rubrique de la performance d'enseignement, une rubrique du portfolio de l'étudiant, un test des compétences de l'enseignement et un programme proposé. L'échantillon était composé d'un groupe expérimental au nombre de 66 étudiants à la troisième année, section de français, faculté de pédagogie, université de Mansourah, qui a appris selon les activités de l'apprentissage réflexif. Les résultats ont abouti à l'efficacité du programme proposé au développement de quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche.

Introduction

L'enseignement est un métier sublime qui occupe une place de plus en plus remarquable parmi les autres métiers dans la société. Il vise non seulement à transmettre et à faire acquérir les connaissances, le

savoir- faire et le savoir- être aux apprenants, mais aussi à favoriser leur formation et leur réussite. Il encourage les apprenants à établir des liens entre les savoirs antérieurs et nouvelles. Il promeut également leur participation, leur responsabilité du processus d'apprentissage, leur confiance en soi et leur personnalité.

En outre, il aide à comprendre, à respecter les différences individuelles et à développer l'intelligence, la découverte et la créativité chez les apprenants. Il les incite aussi à réutiliser et à appliquer ce qu'ils apprennent. D'ici, vient la grandeur du rôle de l'enseignant et la nécessité de sa performance professionnelle de l'enseignement.

I. Position du problème

En dépit de l'importance des compétences de l'enseignement et leur rôle vital à la formation professionnelle des enseignants et des futurs enseignants, elles ne prennent pas le soin suffisant d'études et de recherches faites dans le domaine de l'enseignement de la langue française en comparaison de compétences linguistiques, malgré qu'il y a une faiblesse au niveau des étudiants/ enseignants à la faculté de pédagogie aux compétences de l'enseignement.

La chercheuse s'est assurée de ce problème comme suit :

1. Elle a fait des rencontres avec quelques enseignants et inspecteurs du français pendant le stage pratique.

Ils ont confirmé le manque des compétences de l'enseignement nécessaires chez les étudiants/enseignants à la faculté de pédagogie.

2. Elle a observé le côté cognitif et pratique de l'enseignement chez les étudiants/enseignants pendant son enseignement des cours. De plus, elle a assisté à certains cours pendant le stage pratique avec eux où elle a observé que :
 - a. Plusieurs étudiants ne maîtrisent pas les compétences nécessaires à la performance de l'enseignement.
 - b. Plusieurs étudiants ne donnent pas le soin aux cahiers de préparation des leçons et ne respectent pas les règles essentielles de préparation de la leçon.
3. La chercheuse a appliqué un test exploratif à 32 étudiants de la troisième année à la faculté de pédagogie, université de Mansourah, pour vérifier leur niveau dans les compétences de l'enseignement. Les indices des résultats ont démontré que :
 - a. La fréquence de la compétence (la planification) est 41 %.
 - b. La fréquence de la compétence (l'exécution) est 39 %.
 - c. La fréquence de la compétence (l'intégration) est 38 %.
 - d. La fréquence de la compétence (la gestion) est 45 %.

- e. La fréquence de la compétence (la communication) est 47 %.
- f. La fréquence de la compétence (l'évaluation) est 43 %.

Ceci montre une faiblesse dans les compétences de l'enseignement chez ces étudiants, ce qui exige une étude expérimentale approfondie pour y développer.

Par conséquent, on devrait avoir recours à des stratégies et à des méthodes d'apprentissage qui contribuent au développement des compétences de l'enseignement, qui donnent un rôle positif à l'apprenant, qui donnent le soin à sa personnalité, à ses besoins, à ses intérêts et à ses aptitudes pendant le processus d'apprentissage et qui lui donnent la chance de l'échange de ses idées et de ses connaissances différentes avec ses camarades. L'apprentissage réflexif est l'une de ces stratégies qui convient à cet environnement.

Dans ce contexte, Pallascio & Lafortune (2000) assurent que l'apprentissage réflexif rend l'apprenant actif sur le plan cognitif de sorte qu'il puisse construire son savoir, seul ou avec l'aide de ses pairs. Les activités de l'apprentissage réflexif lui permettent de réfléchir et de traiter les notions étudiées afin de mieux les comprendre et les appliquer. De plus, cette approche réflexive joue un rôle très important à la formation du futur enseignant parce qu'elle constitue la base des décisions, de la planification et de l'action dans la classe. Elle suppose aussi l'aptitude à auto-apprendre, à s'auto-évaluer et à apprendre à enseigner.

II. Problématique de la recherche

La problématique de la recherche réside dans la faiblesse du niveau des étudiants de la troisième année à la faculté de pédagogie en ce qui concerne les compétences de l'enseignement. Cette faiblesse revient à l'absence de stratégies d'enseignement adéquates au développement des compétences de l'enseignement chez ces étudiants. Ainsi, la présente recherche vise à répondre aux questions suivantes :

1. Quelles sont les compétences de l'enseignement nécessaires aux étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche ?
2. Jusqu'à quel niveau les étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche maîtrisent-ils ces compétences?
3. Quelle est l'efficacité du programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif au développement de ces compétences chez les étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche ?

III. Objectifs de la recherche

Dans cette recherche, nous tentons de :

1. Déterminer les compétences de l'enseignement nécessaires aux étudiants de la troisième année à la faculté de pédagogie.
2. Mesurer l'efficacité du programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif au développement de quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche.

IV. Importance de la recherche

La recherche actuelle essaie de :

1. Développer quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les étudiants/enseignants à travers le programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif.
2. Attirer l'attention des chercheurs sur la nécessité de s'intéresser aux compétences de l'enseignement au cycle universitaire et aux autres cycles.
3. Solliciter l'attention des spécialistes sur l'importance de l'emploi de l'apprentissage réflexif dans l'enseignement / apprentissage du français.
4. Attirer l'attention des spécialistes sur l'importance du soin de la formation professionnelle des futurs enseignants.
5. Encourager les chercheurs à faire d'autres études et recherches nouvelles visant à mesurer l'effet de l'emploi de l'apprentissage réflexif sur le développement d'autres compétences en français.

V. Hypothèses de la recherche

1. Il ya des différences statistiquement significatives entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental au pré/post test des compétences de l'enseignement en faveur du post- test.
2. Il ya des différences statistiquement significatives entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental à la pré/post application de la rubrique de la performance d'enseignement en faveur de la post- application.
3. Il ya des différences statistiquement significatives entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental à la rubrique du portfolio de

l'étudiant et au niveau supposé de maîtrise (70%) en faveur de la rubrique du portfolio.

4. Il y a une efficacité du programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif au développement de quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche.

VI. Limites de la recherche

La recherche se limite à :

- Un échantillon d'étudiants au nombre de 66 de la troisième année, section de français, Faculté de Pédagogie, Université de Mansourah.

VII. Outils de la recherche

Afin d'atteindre les objectifs de cette recherche, la chercheuse a élaboré les outils suivants :

1. Un questionnaire des compétences de l'enseignement nécessaires aux étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche.
2. Une grille d'évaluation critériée (rubrique) de la performance d'enseignement.
3. Une grille d'évaluation critériée (rubrique) du portfolio de l'étudiant.
4. Un test des compétences de l'enseignement.
5. Un programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif en vue de développer quelques compétences de l'enseignement.

VIII. Curricula de la recherche

La chercheuse adopte deux curricula :

1- Le curriculum descriptif : en ce qui concerne le

cadre théorique de la recherche (l'apprentissage réflexif et les compétences de l'enseignement).

2- Le curriculum expérimental : en ce qui concerne l'étude expérimentale et l'application d'une rubrique de la performance d'enseignement, d'une autre du portfolio de l'étudiant et d'un test afin de mesurer l'efficacité du programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif au développement de quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les futurs enseignants.

IX. Démarches de la recherche

1- Pour répondre à la première question, nous procédons comme suit :

1. Passer en revue les recherches et les études antérieures concernant les compétences de l'enseignement pour en tirer profit à l'élaboration du questionnaire des compétences de l'enseignement.
2. Élaborer un questionnaire des compétences de l'enseignement pour les étudiants de la troisième année à la faculté de pédagogie.
3. Présenter ce questionnaire au jury afin de déterminer les compétences les plus nécessaires et convenables aux étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche.

2- Pour répondre à la deuxième question, nous procédons comme suit:

1. Élaborer une rubrique de la performance d'enseignement et une autre du portfolio de l'étudiant et un test pour détecter jusqu'à quel

niveau les étudiants/ enseignants maîtrisent les compétences de l'enseignement.

2. Présenter ces trois outils aux membres du jury pour déterminer leur validité.

3- Pour répondre à la troisième question, nous procédons comme suit:

1. Préparer un programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif.
2. Présenter ce programme proposé aux membres du jury afin de déterminer sa validité.
3. Choisir l'échantillon de la recherche (un groupe expérimental).
4. Pré - appliquer les outils sur l'échantillon de la recherche.
5. Enseigner le programme proposé au groupe expérimental selon les activités d'apprentissage réflexif.
6. Post - appliquer les outils sur l'échantillon de la recherche.
7. Analyser les résultats en employant les méthodes statistiques convenables.
8. Discuter et interpréter les résultats.
9. Proposer des recommandations et des suggestions.
10. Présenter un résumé de la recherche en langue française.

X. Terminologie de la recherche

L'apprentissage réflexif

Schön (2002) définit l'apprentissage réflexif comme "Amener l'apprenant à prendre conscience de ses stratégies d'apprentissage et de sa progression tout

au long de son parcours pédagogique. L'apprentissage réflexif est en gros réfléchir pour apprendre à apprendre."

Kelchtermans (2008) définit l'apprentissage réflexif comme "le discernement et les connaissances de l'enseignant qui lui permettent de lire, d'interpréter et de percevoir une situation d'enseignement dans ses aspects différents et la compétence d'agir ou de réagir efficacement dans de telles situations."

- Définition opérationnelle

La chercheuse définit l'apprentissage réflexif comme une activité d'apprentissage qui permet à l'enseignant ou au futur enseignant à travers ses expériences personnelles, ses valeurs, ses croyances et ses connaissances antérieures et nouvelles de réfléchir à son développement cognitif et professionnel et à sa pratique de l'enseignement.

- Les compétences de l'enseignement

Bosman (2000) définit les compétences de l'enseignement comme "Un habitus, autrement dit un système de schèmes d'action, la meilleure manière d'y former serait alors de mettre l'enseignant dans des situations où règnent les contraintes objectives du métier, de façon à ce qu'il trouve par essais et erreurs les schèmes de comportements qui conviennent."

Coupremanne (2003) "La mobilisation de ressources cognitives, affectives et motrices d'un enseignant pour faire face efficacement à des familles de situations professionnelles."

- Définition opérationnelle

La chercheuse définit les compétences de l'enseignement comme un ensemble organisé d'acquisitions cognitives et pratiques et d'attitudes que l'enseignant ou le futur enseignant doit maîtriser et par lesquelles on peut vérifier sa performance et sa formation professionnelles à la situation d'enseignement / apprentissage.

Cadre théorique de la recherche

L'enseignement est un moyen par lequel l'enseignant peut transmettre des connaissances, des idées et des valeurs en permettant aux apprenants d'échanger, de mieux se connaître, de se comprendre et d'avancer ensemble. En conséquence, le bon enseignant doit maîtriser les compétences essentielles de l'enseignement afin d'atteindre les objectifs visés d'apprentissage.

Dans ce contexte, Bosman (2000) assure que les compétences de l'enseignement comportent nécessairement des façons d'être, de faire, fortement intériorisées que l'enseignant met en œuvre sans avoir à délibérer. Ces façons subissent l'effet de contraintes matérielles, relationnelles, etc. De plus, il y a cinq caractéristiques des compétences de l'enseignement:

- a. Elles se fondent sur un ensemble de ressources que l'enseignant sait mobiliser dans un contexte d'activité professionnelle.
- b. Elles se manifestent par une action professionnelle réussie, efficace, efficiente et récurrente.

- c. Elles se situent sur un continuum qui va du simple au complexe.
- d. Elles sont liées à une pratique intentionnelle.
- e. Elles constituent un projet, une finalité qui dépasse le temps de la formation initiale.

Alors, les compétences de l'enseignement jouent un rôle très important à la performance et à la formation des enseignants, d'autant plus les futurs enseignants. Par suite, il est nécessaire d'utiliser des stratégies d'apprentissage qui contribuent à leur acquisition.

L'apprentissage réflexif, l'une de ces stratégies, traverse nombre de courants théoriques des sciences humaines et sociales. Il apparaît comme un concept fondamental de la sociologie de l'action. Depuis les travaux de Schön à la fin des années 1980, ce concept est perçu comme une des voies du développement professionnel des enseignants, qu'ils soient étudiants / enseignants (preservice teacher) ou déjà praticiens (in-service teacher).

Dans son sens large, ce concept comprend non seulement les aspects techniques de la connaissance et de la compétence dans l'enseignement, mais prend également en considération les aspects moraux, politiques et affectifs. Il prend aussi en compte non seulement des changements du comportement d'enseignement, mais surtout le changement des idées, des concepts et des représentations dans l'esprit des enseignants. (Legendre, 2004)

Dans ce cadre, l'étude de Colomer, Pallisera & Fullana (2010) a assuré l'importance de l'apprentissage réflexif avec ses aspects : la connaissance et la réflexion de soi, le lien entre l'expérience et la connaissance et la régulation du processus d'apprentissage au développement de performance des étudiants/enseignants.

De plus, les études de Cucos, Diac & Ghiasau (2006) et de Bubnys & Žydžiūnaitė (2010) ont affirmé l'importance de l'application de l'apprentissage réflexif au cycle universitaire car il contribue à faire acquérir aux étudiants / enseignants des expériences à l'enseignement et au succès à leur vie pratique.

Qu'est-ce qu'une pratique réflexive en enseignement?

C'est une pratique qui est à la recherche d'une continuité par la réflexion incessante sur les actions posées. La pratique réflexive s'amorce par l'expérience d'une situation d'enseignement : même dans sa forme la plus immédiate, cette expérience s'accompagne d'un savoir-dans-l'action intuitif, tacite, instinctif, engrammé et appuyé sur des préstructures qui guident l'action et qui déterminent la réaction première à la situation rencontrée. L'action est toujours le creuset de cette pratique réflexive. De plus, celle - ci comporte trois niveaux :

- a. **La réflexion-dans-l'action** qui n'a pas nécessairement du médium des mots et qui permet des ajustements dans l'action sans en interrompre le déroulement.
- b. **La réflexion-sur-l'action** s'exerce de deux façons : elle peut être un effort pour découvrir les significations que l'on s'est formées dans l'action, cela exige de revoir mentalement le déroulement

de l'action et de tenter de retracer la réflexion-dans-l'action qui s'y est opérée. L'autre type de réflexion-sur-l'action est celui de la conversation réflexive avec la situation qui permet de construire du sens à partir de l'ensemble des matériaux qu'offre l'expérience d'intervention (incluant donc à la fois l'agent, le sujet et l'objet de la situation d'enseignement / apprentissage).

- c. **La réflexion sur les systèmes** qui pilotent les actions (c'est l'aptitude à reconsidérer, à repenser et à reconstruire mentalement ses expériences et ses actions d'une manière réfléchie et plus ou moins systématique). (Lang, 2014)

Dans ce cadre, l'étude d'Overton & Cooper (2011) a assuré que la réflexion est nécessaire au développement de performance de l'enseignant et ses compétences de l'enseignement. De plus, elle aide à faire sa pratique de l'enseignement plus effective. Cette pratique résulte d'une interaction complexe de quelques facteurs essentiels :

1. **Réflexion de l'enseignant**: un triple processus qui comporte l'expérience directe, l'analyse des croyances et des valeurs et une action résultante de cette analyse.
2. **Amitiés de l'enseignement**: consistent en les obligations et les amitiés de l'enseignant avec ses apprenants.
3. **Modèles de l'enseignement**: représentent le niveau le plus général de l'enseignement.
4. **Compétences et stratégies de l'enseignement : stratégies** sont les outils convenables à l'enseignement et à l'apprentissage que

l'enseignant a recours et **compétences** sont les moyens par lesquels l'enseignant peut choisir et utiliser ces outils afin de réaliser un enseignement efficace.

5. **Contexte de l'enseignement** : une mixture d'aspects qui contient le lieu de l'enseignement, les objectifs et les résultats visés de chaque session, de plus, la nature des apprenants, leur niveau et leurs styles d'apprentissage.

Ces composantes sont dépendantes et reliées les unes aux autres et travaillent ensemble afin de favoriser un apprentissage et un enseignement efficace qui atteint les objectifs visés de l'apprentissage.

De plus, ces composantes présentent une partie essentielle de la réflexion de l'enseignant. Celui-ci doit réfléchir à toutes ces composantes pendant qu'il planifie, pratique et évalue l'enseignement. Le schéma suivant illustre la relation entre ces composantes:

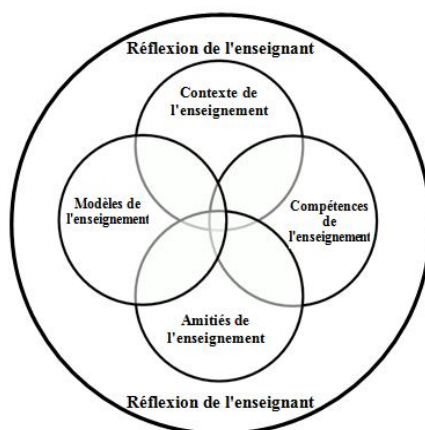


Schéma No.1
Composantes de la pratique d'enseignement

Comment caractériser les approches réflexives en enseignement ?

Les principaux attributs du concept de pratique réflexive en enseignement peuvent se résumer comme suit:

1. La pratique réflexive consiste en l'analyse de l'expérience de l'enseignant d'enseignement passée, présente, future et conditionnelle. Elle s'accompagne d'une démarche de structuration et de transformation de ses perceptions et de son savoir, elle vise à l'émergence ou à l'explicitation d'un savoir tacite.
2. La pratique réflexive nécessite l'application d'une pensée rationnelle à l'enseignement (rationalité instrumentale et rationalité par rapport à des valeurs éducatives).
3. La pratique réflexive est une démarche qui fait appel à la conscience et à la prise en charge du développement professionnel de l'enseignant ou du futur enseignant. (Perrenoud, 2004)

Dans ce contexte, l'étude d'Altet (2000) a assuré que la pratique réflexive constitue une des médiations inter-psychiques fondamentales de l'appropriation des savoirs professionnels et du développement cognitif des futurs enseignants.

Par ailleurs, l'étude de Pimet (2003) a affirmé que la formation initiale des enseignants et la professionnalisation du métier prennent réellement en charge la construction d'une posture réflexive. Par conséquent, il est nécessaire d'orienter la formation vers la pratique réflexive.

Pourquoi la réflexion est-elle si importante pour l'enseignement ?

La réflexion est un outil puissant pour réussir à saisir et à gérer les complexités de la classe. Elle complète l'utilisation des instruments didactiques et techniques spécifiques (par exemple, les tests ou les instruments qui permettent de clarifier la dynamique de groupe) pour obtenir un retour sur l'apprentissage des élèves et l'efficacité de l'enseignement, ou encore sur les liens sociaux dans le groupe classe ainsi que la délibération réfléchie sur les décisions appropriées que l'enseignant doit prendre.

D'ailleurs, la réflexion sur l'enseignement ne saurait être considérée comme un but en soi, elle pourrait même servir à consolider certaines croyances préexistantes à la formation plutôt qu'à construire des savoirs professionnels au service de l'apprentissage et du développement des élèves.

La réflexion constitue donc un élément clé du développement professionnel des enseignants ou des futurs enseignants. Elle leur permet d'améliorer les fondements de leurs choix et de leurs actions professionnelles. (Sommelet, 2006)

Dans ce cadre, les études de Houpert (2005), de Sikka & Timoštšuk (2008) et de Proulx, Fallu & Bartosova (2012) ont montré que la réflexion joue un rôle très important au développement des compétences pratiques de l'étudiant / enseignant et de son succès professionnel et à la compréhension de la profession de l'enseignement. Elle contribue aussi à la (re)construction identitaire de l'étudiant / enseignant

en futur puisqu'elle lui permet de saisir la raison d'être et les conséquences de ses actions avant, pendant et après son enquête sur le terrain. De plus, les enseignants qui se montrent réflexifs sont signalés comme ayant un grand sens de l'efficacité dans leur travail aussi bien qu'une grande appropriation de leur classe et des buts de l'école.

En outre, les études de Leroux, Théorêt & Garon (2008), de Le Lardic (2008) et de Hagevik, Aydeniz & Rowell (2012) ont souligné que la pratique réflexive est nécessaire à la formation initiale et continue des enseignants. Elle engage l'enseignant dans la construction de savoirs issus de la pratique et lui permet d'envisager les situations d'enseignement / apprentissage dans leur singularité et leur complexité. Elle ne conduit pas seulement l'enseignant à devenir autonome pour des prises de décisions motivées, réfléchies et pertinentes pour le contexte d'enseignement / apprentissage, mais aussi dans son développement professionnel.

De plus, cette compétence de l'enseignant et l'expérience du travail réflexif qu'il a mis en oeuvre pour y parvenir lui servent aussi à guider l'apprenant dans son apprentissage et particulièrement dans le développement de son aptitude de (l'apprendre à apprendre).

Par ailleurs, l'étude de Guervil & Duchesn (2014) a assuré l'efficacité de la réflexion au développement des compétences de l'enseignement et la prise de décision qui y est associée et comment ces compétences peuvent affecter les attitudes et les résultats des élèves.

Qu'est-ce qu'un enseignant réflexif (praticien réflexif) ?

Être un enseignant réflexif (praticien réflexif), c'est:

1. Bien gérer sa classe.
2. Bien définir ses objectifs.
3. Préparer un plan de cours qui ne laisse pas place aux surprises.
4. Se demander ce que les élèves ont appris à la fin du cours.
5. Répondre aux questions de ses élèves.
6. Inciter les élèves à se poser des questions sur leur apprentissage.
7. Parler et écrire correctement la deuxième langue dans la classe.
8. Modifier ses comportements et ceux des élèves en classe.
9. Avoir une classe calme et docile.
10. S'interroger sur son propre rôle et celui des élèves dans
11. la classe. (Schön, 2002)

Dans ce cadre, l'étude de Paquay & Sirota (2001) a assuré l'efficacité d'un modèle de l'enseignant professionnel. Ce modèle comporte six compétences essentielles qui ont un grand effet sur la pratique de l'enseignement. La compétence de réflexion est l'une de ces compétences. En outre, à côté de cette compétence, il y a d'autres compétences répertoriées comme constitutives de l'enseignant professionnel qui peuvent faire l'objet de la formation continue efficace, mais qu'elles le sont à des degrés divers en fonction des

situations et des enseignants eux-mêmes. Le schéma suivant montre ce modèle:

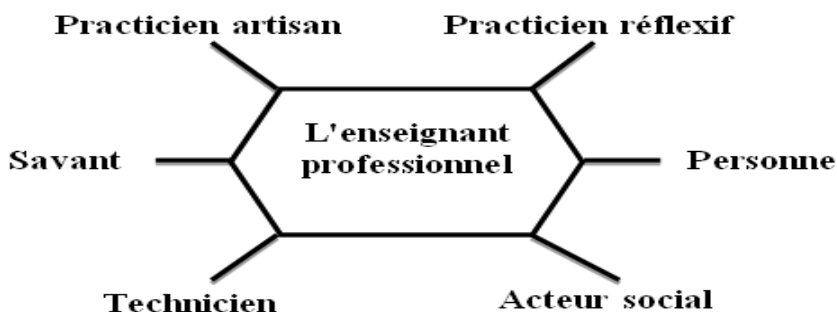


Schéma No. 2

Modèle de l'enseignant professionnel

Étapes de la réflexion en enseignement

Legros (2014) détermine les cinq étapes suivantes qui contiennent des éléments facilitant la réflexion de l'enseignant et la régulation de ses actions :

1. **La planification de l'enseignement** a lieu avant l'enseignement. Elle sert à l'analyse des besoins des apprenants et à l'élaboration d'un plan d'action.
2. **La préparation** caractérise le début de l'action en classe. Elle sert à préciser les intentions pédagogiques, les défis à relever et les connaissances antérieures des apprenants à activer.
3. **La réalisation** caractérise le moment où les apprenants réalisent la tâche et effectuent des apprentissages. L'enseignant accompagne ses

apprenants et prévoit des mesures de soutien différentes selon les besoins.

4. **L'intégration** est la phase où les apprenants prennent conscience des apprentissages effectués avec le soutien de l'enseignant. Elle permet aussi de préciser les transferts possibles dans d'autres contextes.
5. **L'évaluation** est le moment où l'enseignant analyse le processus d'enseignement-apprentissage dans le but de le réguler. Les prises de conscience effectuées l'amènent à retourner à la phase de planification.

En outre, afin de bonifier la réflexion pédagogique, il doit aussi tenir compte de la gestion de la classe.

Activités de l'apprentissage réflexif

1- La discussion collective

La discussion collective est toujours le résultat d'une production interactive. Elle s'élabore au cours des échanges et les partenaires en partagent la responsabilité. De plus, l'interaction implique la réflexivité. Celle –ci qui fonde et articule la discussion collective : se mettre à la place de l'autre pour emprunter son regard sur la discussion est le principe même de la réflexivité.

En outre, la discussion collective permet à l'apprenant de s'exprimer librement, d'échanger ses idées, ses points de vue et ses expériences, d'écouter, de respecter les autres opinions, de participer à l'apprentissage, de discuter les conceptions et les

connaissances et d'exprimer ses suggestions ou ses oppositions avec ses camarades et avec l'enseignant.

2- L'observation des pairs

L'importance de l'observation pour l'enseignement et l'apprentissage est devenue de plus en plus évidente dans le domaine éducatif. L'observation est une activité simple à utiliser pour mieux connaître les caractéristiques spécifiques des élèves ou des pairs, mais il demande de définir clairement l'objectif et l'objet de la focalisation. Observer le comportement, l'acquisition d'une compétence ou la réalisation d'une tâche au sein d'une classe requiert une focalisation claire.

D'ailleurs, l'observation des pairs dans le domaine de l'enseignement permet à évaluer les pratiques de l'enseignement, à donner un feed – back et à échanger les points de vue et les suggestions en vue d'améliorer les compétences de l'enseignement.

3- Le journal personnel

Dans ce journal, l'apprenant écrit par semaine avec liberté ses idées, ses opinions et ses expériences. Ce journal aide l'apprenant en ayant recours à l'enseignant à réfléchir à ces expériences en vue d'enrichir ses points forts, de fortifier ses points faibles et de résoudre ses problèmes d'apprentissage.

4- L'étude de cas

L'étude de cas donne la chance à l'apprenant d'analyser une situation didactique qu'il a rencontrée avec tous ses aspects, d'apprendre et d'acquérir des

expériences de cette situation. Dans la classe, l'enseignant en identifiant les réactifs et les réponses des élèves, demande à chacun de présenter son cas ensuite le discuter avec ses camarades.

5- Le portfolio

Le portfolio comporte une collection de travaux de l'élève (productions). D'une part, il aide l'enseignant à mieux comprendre le processus d'apprentissage de l'élève, à garder une trace, à démontrer le développement personnel de l'apprenant et à découvrir les besoins et les points faibles et forts de l'apprenant.

D'autre part, il permet à l'apprenant de participer de façon active et réfléchie à ses parcours, à son progrès, de découvrir les moyens d'atteindre ses objectifs, de développer sa pensée et d'accroître sa confiance en soi. Il aide aussi l'apprenant à inscrire ses connaissances, ses idées, ses opinions, ses croyances et ses réflexions. Par conséquent, il peut revenir au portfolio pour relier ses connaissances antérieures et nouvelles, prendre conscience de ses apprentissages et reconnaître les améliorations possibles. (Vasseur, 2009) (Robin, 2013)

Étude expérimentale de la recherche

I- Choix de l'échantillon de la recherche

L'échantillon de la recherche se compose d'un groupe expérimental (66 étudiants) qui apprend selon les activités d'apprentissage réflexif.

II- Outils de la recherche

1- Le questionnaire

Le questionnaire dans sa forme finale se compose de 45 compétences de l'enseignement nécessaires aux

étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche. Pour vérifier la validité du questionnaire, la chercheuse l'a présenté aux membres du jury (certains spécialistes en didactique de la langue française et certains inspecteurs de la langue française). Les membres du jury ont apprécié le questionnaire. À la lueur de leurs suggestions, nous l'avons mis en considération.

2- La grille d'évaluation critériée (rubrique) de la performance de l'enseignement

La grille dans sa forme finale contient 32 indicateurs de la performance de l'enseignement de chaque étudiant, on l'a présentée aux membres du jury. Ils ont apprécié la grille. À la lueur de leurs suggestions, nous l'avons mis en considération.

3- La grille d'évaluation critériée (rubrique) du portfolio de l'étudiant

La grille dans sa forme finale comporte 6 critères de l'évaluation de la performance de l'enseignement des étudiants, on l'a présentée aux membres du jury. Ils ont apprécié la grille. À la lueur de leurs suggestions, nous l'avons mis en considération.

4- Le test

Ce test se compose de 4 questions qui mesurent le côté cognitif de l'enseignement chez les étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche. On a consacré (un point) à chaque item, sauf 6 phrases fautes à la quatrième question, on leur a consacré (2 points). La note totale du test est donc (55 points).

L'étude pilote du test

A- La fidélité du test

Pour calculer la fidélité du test, nous avons ré-appliqué le même test dans une période de 21 jours sur le même échantillon en calculant les coefficients de corrélation des notes des étudiants dans les deux applications par la formule de Pearson :

$$R = \frac{N \sum XY - \sum X \sum Y}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

R= Le coefficient de corrélation.

N= Le nombre des étudiants.

Σ = La somme.

X= Les notes des étudiants à la première application.

Y= Les notes des étudiants à la deuxième application.

X²= Les carrés des notes des étudiants à la première application.

Y²= Les carrés des notes des étudiants à la deuxième application.

$$R = \frac{1643}{2297.35} = 0.72$$

Alors, le coefficient de fidélité du test des compétences l'enseignement = 0,72.

Cette valeur indique que le test est fidèle.

B- La validité du test

Pour calculer la validité du test, on a eu recours à deux moyens :

1. On a présenté le test aux membres du jury. Ils ont décidé que le test est valide à mesurer les compétences évaluées.
2. On a calculé la validité à partir de la fidélité en appliquant la formule suivante:

La validité du test des compétences de l'enseignement = $\sqrt{\text{la fidélité}}$

$$\text{La validité} = \sqrt{0.72} = 0,85$$

C'est une validité élevée. Donc, le test est valide.

C- La durée du test

Pour calculer la durée de l'application du test, la chercheuse a calculé la moyenne du temps pris par le premier et le dernier étudiant pour répondre à toutes les questions du test selon la formule suivante:

$$D = \frac{T_1 + T_2}{2}$$

D = La durée du test

T₁ = Le temps pris par le premier étudiant.

T₂ = Le temps pris par le dernier étudiant.

$$D = \frac{100 + 140}{2} = \frac{240}{2} = 120 \text{ minutes (2 heures).}$$

5- Le programme proposé

Ce programme vise à faire acquérir aux futurs enseignants le côté cognitif et pratique de l'enseignement et à améliorer leur performance et leur formation professionnelles. Il comporte trois unités concernant le côté cognitif et trois autres unités concernant le côté pratique de l'enseignement. Chaque

unité a ses objectifs, le matériel utilisé, les activités d'apprentissage réflexif utilisées et quelques consignes nécessaires à appliquer ces activités. La chercheuse a présenté ce programme aux membres du jury. Ils l'ont apprécié. À la lueur de leurs suggestions, nous l'avons mis en considération.

III- L'expérience

L'enseignement du programme s'est déroulé au premier semestre de l'année universitaire 2014/ 2015. D'une part, en ce qui concerne le côté cognitif de l'enseignement, l'expérience a duré 3 mois à raison d'un cours par semaine. Chaque cours dure 2 heures. D'autre part, en ce qui concerne le côté pratique de l'enseignement, l'expérience a également duré 3 mois à raison d'un cours par semaine. Chaque cours dure une heure. De plus, l'observation et le suivi de la performance des étudiants au stage pratique.

Résultats de la recherche

I- Analyse statistique des résultats

1- Pour vérifier les trois premières hypothèses, nous avons utilisé:

- Le test de (T) pour examiner l'existence des différences entre les moyennes des notes du groupe expérimental à la rubrique de la performance d'enseignement, à l'autre du portfolio de l'étudiant et au test des compétences de l'enseignement. Nous avons obtenu les résultats qui figurent dans les tableaux suivants:

Tableau No.1:Résultats du groupe expérimental au test des compétences de l'enseignement

Domaine	Mesure	M.	E.	D.L.	T	S.	V.L.
Planification	Pré	3.47	1.81	65	23.20	0.05	0.89
	Post	9.03	1.63				
Exécution	Pré	3.15	1.04		21.40		0.88
	Post	6.92	1.27				
Intégration	Pré	2.73	0.87		17.51		0.80
	Post	4.68	0.73				
Gestion	Pré	3.02	0.97		12.80		0.61
	Post	5.94	1.29				
Communication	Pré	3.18	0.99		15.80		0.77
	Post	6.38	1.38				
Évaluation	Pré	3.00	0.96	19.78	0.83		
	Post	5.68	0.80				
Note totale	Pré	17.50	2.80	26.80	0.92		
	Post	36.30	2.93				

M. : Moyenne des notes.

E. : Écart-type.

D.L. : Degré de liberté.

T : Valeur de T.

S. : significative.

V.L. : Valeur de l'influence.

Commentaire du tableau:

Ce tableau montre qu'il y a des différences statistiquement significatives au niveau de 0.05 entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental au pré/post test des compétences de l'enseignement en faveur du post- test. Par suite, la première hypothèse de la recherche est réalisée.

De même, les valeurs de l'influence à toutes les compétences sont élevées, surtout celles qui concernent la planification (0.89) ainsi que la valeur de l'influence à la note totale est élevée (0.92).

**Tableau No.2:Résultats du groupe expérimentalb
à la rubrique de la performance d'enseignement**

Domaine	Mesure	M.	E.	D.L.	T	S.	V.L.
Planification	Pré	9.80	2.27	65	44.10	0.05	0.93
	Post	26.38	2.53				
Exécution	Pré	10.41	2.10		35.60		0.91
	Post	23.61	1.83				
Intégration	Pré	4.29	1.05		12.97		0.72
	Post	7.68	1.77				
Gestion	Pré	8.11	1.22		30.02		0.89
	Post	15.80	1.81				
Communication	Pré	8.30	0.99		26.01		0.87
	Post	15.50	0.92				
Évaluation	Pré	5.32	1.54		26.04		0.87
	Post	11.88	1.47				
Note totale	Pré	36.20	4.34	49.10	0.94		
	Post	67.80	4.67				

Commentaire du tableau:

Ce tableau montre qu'il y a des différences statistiquement significatives au niveau de 0.05 entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental à la pré / post application de la rubrique de la performance d'enseignement en faveur de la post-application. Par suite, la deuxième hypothèse de la recherche est réalisée.

De même, les valeurs de l'influence à tous les indicateurs sont élevées, surtout celles qui concernent la planification (0.93) ainsi que la valeur de l'influence à la note totale est élevée (0.94).

Tableau No.3
Résultats du groupe expérimental
à la rubrique du portfolio de l'étudiant

Critères	M.	D.M.	D.L.	T	S.
Sélection des artéfacts	3.36	0.60	65	8.00	0.05
Réflexions	3.35	0.54		7.84	
Utilisation du matériel approprié	3.36	0.60		7.65	
Respect des règles de la préparation de leçon	3.32	0.52		7.18	
Mise en page et lisibilité	3.36	0.63		7.65	
Qualité de l'écriture	3.42	0.65		8.69	
Note totale	20.20	3.40		19.20	

D.M. : Différence entre les moyennes des notes.

Commentaire du tableau:

Ce tableau montre que la valeur des moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental à la post-application de la rubrique du portfolio (20.20) est plus élevée que la valeur de la note de maîtrise 70% (16.80) de la note totale de la rubrique du portfolio (24).

Ce tableau démontre aussi qu'il y a des différences statistiquement significatives au niveau de 0.05 entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental à la rubrique du portfolio de l'étudiant et au niveau supposé de maîtrise (70%) en faveur de la rubrique du portfolio. Par suite, la troisième hypothèse de la recherche est réalisée.

2- Pour vérifier la dernière hypothèse, nous avons calculé :

- Le pourcentage du gain modifié de Black et la moyenne du pourcentage de l'efficacité de Mc Gugian

pour vérifier l'efficacité du programme proposé. Nous avons obtenu les résultats qui figurent dans le tableau suivant:

Tableau No.4

Pourcentage du gain modifié et moyenne du pourcentage de l'efficacité concernant les compétences de l'enseignement

N.T.	M.N.Pré.	M.N.Post.	P.G.M.	M.P.E.
55	17.50	36.30	1.21	0.65

N.T. : Note totale.

M.N.Pré. : Moyenne des notes du pré-test des compétences de l'enseignement.

M.N.Post. : Moyenne des notes du post-test des compétences de l'enseignement.

P.G.M. : Pourcentage du gain modifié de Black.

M.P.E. : Moyenne du pourcentage de l'efficacité de Mc Gugian.

Commentaire du tableau:

Ce tableau montre que le pourcentage du gain modifié de Black est (1.21), cette valeur est plus élevée que la valeur fixée (1.2) ainsi que la moyenne du pourcentage de l'efficacité de Mc Gugian est (0.65), cette valeur est plus élevée que la valeur fixée (0.6). Ceci prouve l'efficacité du programme proposé basé sur l'apprentissage réflexif au développement de quelques compétences de l'enseignement chez les étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche. Par suite, la quatrième hypothèse de la recherche est réalisée.

II- Interprétation des résultats

On peut dire que les résultats et la justification des hypothèses de notre recherche reviennent aux facteurs suivants:

1. L'adéquation des activités d'apprentissage réflexif aux étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche et aux compétences de l'enseignement.
2. La convenance du contenu théorique et pratique du programme au développement des compétences visées.
3. L'acte de donner une idée complète de l'apprentissage réflexif (ses principes, son importance, ses étapes et ses activités) aux étudiants de l'échantillon avant de commencer l'enseignement du programme les a aidés à achever le contenu de ce programme facilement.
4. Les activités d'apprentissage réflexif ont permis aux apprenants de discuter, d'échanger leurs idées, leurs points de vue et leurs connaissances, de communiquer les uns avec les autres et de prendre en charge la responsabilité de l'apprentissage, cet environnement d'apprentissage a favorisé leur acquisition des compétences de l'enseignement.
5. Les connaissances antérieures et le bagage linguistique des étudiants de l'échantillon de la recherche en français leur ont permis de préparer les leçons de manière satisfaisante.
6. L'observation de la performance des apprenants pendant leur pratique de l'enseignement et l'intervention au temps convenable pour les aider.
7. Le suivi et la révision du portfolio de chacun d'apprenants ont contribué au développement des compétences de l'enseignement chez eux.

8. Le "feed-back" que l'apprenant obtient soit de l'enseignant, soit de ses camarades sur sa performance et sur son comportement professionnels a amélioré son interaction avec eux et sa pratique de l'enseignement.

Recommandations de la recherche

À la lumière des résultats obtenus, la chercheuse propose les recommandations suivantes:

1. S'intéresser aux programmes et aux stages de la formation professionnelle des futurs enseignants et des enseignants.
2. Présenter des contenus variés et modernes pour développer les compétences de l'enseignement au cycle universitaire.
3. S'intéresser à l'apprentissage réflexif dans l'enseignement / apprentissage du français aux différents cycles éducatifs.
4. Fournir aux conseillers pédagogiques et aux enseignants du français des informations sur les nouvelles stratégies et méthodes dans le domaine de la didactique du français à travers les stages pédagogiques, les vidéoconférences du Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement et les sites d'internet.
5. Faire des stages afin d'entraîner les enseignants du français à l'emploi des activités d'apprentissage réflexif dans la classe.
6. Consacrer une partie du contenu de la méthodologie que les étudiants/ enseignants étudient aux facultés de pédagogie pour leur enseigner l'apprentissage réflexif et les entraîner à l'emploi de cette stratégie au stage pratique.

Suggestions de la recherche

À la lueur des résultats de la recherche, la chercheuse suggère les recherches suivantes:

1. Étudier l'efficacité de l'apprentissage réflexif sur le développement de différentes variables (l'expression orale ou écrite, la lecture, la grammaire, le lexique, la pensée critique ou créative et la motivation).
2. Comparer l'efficacité de l'apprentissage réflexif aux autres variables comme l'apprentissage par résolution de problèmes ou le brainstorming pour développer des compétences linguistiques.
3. Élaborer un programme basé sur l'emploi de l'ordinateur et de l'apprentissage réflexif pour développer les différentes compétences.
4. Effectuer des modèles et des stratégies proposés pour développer les compétences de l'enseignement.

Bibliographie

Références en langue française

- Altet, M. (2000) : L'analyse de pratiques: une démarche de formation professionnalisante?, Recherche et Formation, No.35, PP. 40-50.
- Beckers, J. (2007) : Compétences et identité professionnelles : l'enseignement et autres métiers de l'interaction humaine, Bruxelles : De Boeck, P.30.
- Berrahou, Z. & Roumanet, M. (2013) : Rôle du portfolio dans l'évaluation des compétences. <http://www.consulte.com/article/8071>
- Berthiaume, D. & David, J. (2011) : Réduire la subjectivité lors de l'évaluation des apprentissages à l'aide d'une grille

- critériée, *Revue Internationale de Pédagogie de L'enseignement Supérieur*, Vol. 23, No.7, Fév, PP. 70-85.
- Bosman, C. (2000) : *Quel avenir pour les compétences ?* Bruxelles: De Boeck, PP. 20-23.
- Bru, M. & Talbot, L. (2007) : *Des compétences pour enseigner : entre objets sociaux et objets de recherche*, Rennes: P. U. R., P.53.
- Côté, R. & Tardif, J. (2010): *Les grilles d'évaluation critériées*.
<https://pedagogie.wordpress.com/2010/03/22/les-grilles-devaluation-criteriees>
- Coupremanne, M. (2003): *Quels dispositifs favorisent le développement des compétences professionnelles dans l'enseignement supérieur? Et à quelles conditions?*, *Recherche*, No. 94, Août, PP. 33-40.
- Cucos, C., Diac, G. & Ghiasau, R. (2006) : *Les futurs enseignants : stratégies de formation et d'évaluation des compétences professionnelles*, F.D.M., No.122, Déc, PP. 23-29.
- Daele, A. (2010) : *Le portfolio pour évaluer les apprentissages des étudiant-e-s*.<https://universitaire.com/2010/11/03/le-portfolio-pour-evaluer-les-apprentissages-des-etudiant-e-s>
- Guervil, M. & Duchesn, C. (2014) : *Le stage comme dispositif de transfert des compétences professionnelles d'enseignants haïtiens en formation initiale*.<http://www.science.com/article/pii/S0346X130087>
- Houpert, D. (2005) : *En quoi la formation continue des enseignants contribue-t-elle au développement des compétences professionnelles?* *Cahiers Pédagogiques*, No.435, Mai, PP. 36-50.
- Hussein, E. (2012) : *Élaboration d'un référentiel de compétences pour les futurs enseignants de FLE*, Thèse de Doctorat, Non publiée, Faculté des études supérieures et postdoctorales, Université de Montréal, PP. 159-169.

- Kelchtermans, G. (2008) : Formation des enseignants : L'apprentissage réflexif à partir de la biographie et du contexte. *Recherche et Formation*, No. 37, PP. 15-35.
- Lang, V. (2014) : La pratique réflexive : un apprentissage à partir de ses pratiques. <http://dinakas.wordpress.com/reflexions>
- Langevin, D. (2010) : La préparation d'une leçon est une condition première et essentielle à son bon déroulement, *Cahiers Pédagogiques*, No.441, Avril, PP. 76-88.
- Legendre, M. (2004) : Pratique réflexive et études de cas : quelques enjeux à l'utilisation de la méthode des cas en formation des maîtres, *Revue des Sciences de L'éducation*, Vol. 24, No. 2, PP. 390-399.
- Legros, D. (2014) : Approche réflexive : Introduction de la réflexivité dans la classe.http://fle.fr/formation/eur_refl/dossier1.htm
- Le Lardic, M. (2008) : Pratique réflexive et formation des enseignants de français langue étrangère au Japon. <http://aced.org/spip.php?article79>
- Leroux, M., Théorêt, M. & Garon, R. (2008) : Liens heuristiques entre la réflexion sur la pratique et la résilience des enseignants en zones défavorisées, *Revue des Sciences de L'éducation*, Vol. 36, No.9, PP. 200- 208.
- Marshall, K. (2011) : Grilles d'évaluation du travail de l'enseignant, *Cahiers Pédagogiques*, No.443, Juillet, PP. 28- 40.
- Pallascio, R. & Lafortune, L. (2000) : Pour une pensée réflexive en éducation, *Sainte-Foy : P. U. Q.*, P.45.
- Paquay, L. & Sirota, R. (2001) : Le praticien réflexif. La diffusion d'un modèle de formation, *Recherche et formation*, No.36,PP. 98-106.
- Perrenoud, P. (2004) : Développer la pratique réflexive dans le métier d'enseignant, Paris: ESF, P.37-38.
- (25) Pimet, O. (2003) : Mettre la pratique réflexive au centre du projet de formation, *Cahiers Pédagogiques*, No. 390, Août, PP. 67-74.

- Pradère, F. & Tricot, A. (2012) : Comment concevoir un enseignement ? Bruxelles : De Boeck, PP. 65-67.
- Prégent, R. (2010) : La préparation d'un cours, Montréal : Éditions Logiques, P. 36-40.
- Proulx, A., Fallu, C. & Bartosova, L. (2012) : La réflexivité : exercice pédagogique et outil d'accompagnement aux cycles supérieurs, *Revue Internationale de Pédagogie de L'enseignement Supérieur*, Vol. 25, No.9, Mars, PP. 150-175.
- Rocbex, J. (2002) : Guide de la planification, du suivi et de l'évaluation axés sur les résultats du développement, Lyon : Chronique Sociale, PP. 31-33.
- Roegiers, M. (2010) : Gestion pédagogique d'une classe, Paris : De Boeck, PP. 48-49.
- Schön, D. (2002) : Le praticien réflexif. À la recherche du savoir caché dans l'agir professionnel, Montréal : Éditions Logiques, P.50
- Sommelet, D. (2006) : Le tournant réflexif, Paris : Armand Colin, PP.70-71.
- Vasseur, M. (2009): Les activités réflexives en situation de communication: Acquisition et interaction en langue étrangère *F.D.M.*, No.301, Oct, PP. 19-26.

Références en langue anglaise

- Bubnys, R. & Žydžiūnaitė, V. (2010): Reflective learning models in the context of higher education: Concept analysis. *Problems of education in the 21 st century*, **Educational Research**, Vol. 20, PP. 53-77.
- Colomer, J., Pallisera, M. & Fullana, J. (2010) : Reflective learning in higher education : A comparative analysis, **D.A.I.**, Vol. 70, No.30, Mai, PP. 1626.A.
- Hagevik, R., Aydeniz, M. & Rowell, G. (2012) : Using action research in middle level teacher education to evaluate and deepen reflective practice, **ERIC**, ED. 554194, PP. 45-56.

Overton, C. & Cooper, S. (2011) : The initial training of further education teachers. **The Journal of Effective Teaching**, Vol. 8, No. 2, PP. 39-47.

Robin, J. (2013) : Service - learning reflection activities
<https://www.wartburg.edu/cce/assessment%20and%20reflection/SL-Reflection%20Activities>

Sikka, H. & Timoštšuk, I. (2008): The role of reflection in understanding teaching practice, **ERIC**, ED.485148, PP. 32-41.

Références en langue arabe

El Kinani, M. (2002) : La statistique descriptive et inductive en sciences comportementales et sociales: Maison d'édition universitaire, 2ème édition.

Teachers' Dual Vision from a Culturally Bound Angle: Student-teachers' Voices

Dr. Khaled M. El-ebyary

Curriculum and Methods of Instruction Dept.

Faculty of Education

Damanhour University, Egypt

Abstract

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) has become a well-known practice within different levels of language teaching in various parts of the world. However, research has generally acknowledged challenges in adopting TBLT in many foreign language teaching / learning contexts. . Besides, there has been little interest in finding out whether the use of certain approaches (TBLT in our case) is compatible with the views that student teachers in the Egyptian context might have about teaching and learning. The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of intensive TBLT training on student teachers' views (acceptability) and teaching practice (usability). It also focused on the extent to which intensive TBLT training would/would not alter any pre-conditioning state towards foreign language teaching. In addition to the training course, the current study involved the use of surveys, interviews and classroom observation. TBLT training led to positive views toward TBLT as an approach, but further findings revealed that participants' previous experience with English language learning still influence their use of the approach. Analysis of classroom observation during the practicum showed a paradox as tasks as work-plans aligned with TBLT, but tasks-in-process (implementation) were geared more towards traditional teaching approaches.

Keywords: *task-based - language teaching - student teachers -acceptability - usability*

Introduction

The relatively short history of language teaching and learning research has certainly seen rapid development over the last few decades. Such development has tended to be in the changing nature of question(s) researchers in the field have posed over the years. One of the early moves in this field of study was in search for the appropriate language teaching method (Klapper, 2001) and this more or less resulted in a gradual move away from traditional methods that focused on forms towards more communicative approaches to language teaching. A legitimate development of such a move was Task-based Language Teaching (henceforth TBLT), now a well-established approach in its own right. In this respect, Klapper (2003) states that TBLT is one version of communicative language teaching (CLT), i.e. it represents one aspect of development within the CLT theory. This viewpoint has often been re-stated by various researchers in different teaching/learning contexts (e.g. Esfandiari et al., 2012).

Background

Although TBLT has become a well-established approach in terms of syllabus design, classroom teaching and other aspects of teaching/assessment practices, there is no universally adopted definition of the approach. To Van den Branden et al. (2009), TBLT is a model of second language education that (a) derives originally from various principles (e.g. holistic, learner-driven and communication-based), (b) places communication at the centre of teaching procedures,

and (c) involves the performance of meaningful functional tasks using meaningful language. TBLT literature has witnessed considerable debate over, among other issues, the nature of tasks and, consequently, their intended focus. Such an issue has been the subject of heated discussions among researchers in the field. One major result has been what came to be known as focus on form vs. focus on meaning. Proponents of meaning (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Nunan,1989; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1998; Swan, 2005; Willis, 1996) criticized traditional form-focused approaches for being inefficient in meeting students' needs, leading to boring lessons, having unrealistic samples of language in use, ignoring language learning processes derived from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research and producing failed beginners who would be demotivated. Advocates of this viewpoint believed that language teachers should focus on meaningful communication first even though pupils make language errors during their communication. Given that tasks can be designed to be as simple as doing a puzzle or as demanding as making a telephone airline booking. Willis (1996), therefore, refers to tasks as "activities where the target language is used by the learners for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome" (p.24). So, it has been suggested that by concentrating on meaning, learners are provided with opportunities to use the language that they have been taught in a natural environment, i.e. their only concern being to complete the task with the language that they already know. In this respect, Willis & Willis (2007) state that "Our ultimate goal [in using TBLT] is to end up with a task

that engages learners and generates as much meaningful use of language as possible” (p.156).

Similarly, Bygate et al. (2001) state that - in a task - learners are required to use language, with their emphasis on meaning, in order to achieve certain objective(s). Ellis (2003) therefore, suggests that TBLT is compatible with the predominant learner-centered philosophy in language teaching. Here, Ellis (2003) explains further by stating:

A task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world (p. 16).

Consequently, in order for a task to be successful, it has to be blurring the lines between the classroom and the actual language use in real world.

Yet, focus on meaning has been criticized for leading to ungrammatical errors and being insufficient for second language learning. For instance, Seedhouse (1999) suggests that students often lower their language ability in order to complete the task. He further suggests that the language that they speak is similar to a pidgin. Subsequently, students would tend

to lose focus on the language that they were using and concentrate on the meaning they were trying to convey to complete the task. Furthermore, if students do not have the skills to communicate or complete the task in the target language, this could hamper future inspiration to continue studying languages for these students. Focus on form is therefore described by Long and Crookes (1992) as using pedagogic tasks in a way that would raise students' awareness of the 'target language code' (p.71). This stance suggests that if pupils master grammar rules, they could communicate successfully when they have a chance to do so. Yet, the general criticism directed to TBLT has generally described the approach as being unsuitable for low-level learners (Bruton, 2002; Swan, 2005), lacking both theoretical and empirical support (Bruton, 2002; Sheen, 2003; Swan, 2005) and lacking sufficient focus on form (Burrows, 2008; Sheen, 2003; Swan, 2005).

However, development in understanding TBLT has led some researchers such as Ellis (2003) to distinguish between 'unfocused' and 'focused' tasks. In unfocused tasks, there is no attempt to entrap language learners into using specific linguistics elements, while focused tasks try to stimulate language learners to 'process, receptively or productively, a predetermined linguistic feature'. Nevertheless, focused tasks would encourage communi- cative language use and "target the use of a particular, predetermined target feature in meaning-centered communication" (p.65).

It is worth mentioning however, that a consensus definition of task and task focus remains unsettled. The literature has a diversity of definitions in which each draws attention to specific aspect(s) of TBLT (Johnson, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 1993). In this respect, Long (1997) states that focus on form and focus on meaning have problems, which, as Long (1997) describes, often lead to further pendulum swings, as supporters of one side erroneously perceive defects in the opponent position as rationalization for their own. Despite the heated debate between proponents and opponents, none of them can deny that it should be clear to language learners that both meaning and form must be central priorities in the instruction process.

Task Design and Implementation

Task design characteristics have been linked to a number of frameworks in the literature. One important framework is Willis's (1996), which consists of three major stages: pre-task, task cycle and post task. The pre-task (also called priming stage) "prepare[s] students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition" (Ellis 2003, p.244). This can be through introducing useful and necessary lexis and preparing students for the content of the task to come. The task cycle, the main section of the lesson, facilitates second language acquisition as activities are designed to provide opportunities to negotiate for meaning (NfM) and notice formal features of the input and the gap between the input and interlanguage (fluency, accuracy and complexity). This stage consists of the task itself,

planning and reporting to small or large groups in the classroom. This stage involves what Prabhu (1987) describes as the 'process of thought', which is "cognitive thought stimulated by the task" (Prabhu, 1987). It is meant to get the students to connect given instruction and information they already know from the real-world. Planning and reporting to whole class (or strategic planning as described by Ellis, 2003) aims at reducing the cognitive load learners experience during the task, as result of making more use of their memory-based system, and thus, Skehan (1998) explains, allowing them to focus on fluency. To Nunan (2004), TBLT should have the right balance between accuracy and fluency. Thus, TBLT does not neglect the importance of teaching grammatical structures and hence the final stage of Willis's (1996) framework, i.e. language analysis. In this stage, the teacher focuses on the relevant parts from the lesson for the students to analyse. S/he might urge students to notice certain language forms. The teacher would explicitly highlight the language that the students used during the report phase. Form, explains Klapper (2003), is therefore taught through communication rather than in isolation. Here, Nunan (2004) points out that TBLT strengthens authentic content-oriented language learning rather than focuses on linguistic forms.

However, various studies in the literature (e.g., Van den Branden, 2006) have illustrated the extent to which previously designed tasks might change in classroom contexts. Such research refers to contexts where

teachers and/or learners modify tasks once such tasks are used in specific classroom settings (e.g. Coughlan & Duff 1994; Ellis 2000; Samuda 2009). Using Breen's (1987) terminology, instructors might convert 'task-as-work plan' into 'task-in-action' when they are in the classroom (Breen 1987:24-25). At the design level, a task is often considered a mere work plan. From a psycholinguistic perspective, task-as-work plan is seen as having the potential to determine opportunities for language use and learning (Ellis, 2000). According to such claims, tasks should be designed to allow opportunities for negotiation for meaning (Long, 1983 and 1996), output (Swain, 1985 and 1995) or production of fluent, accurate or complex language (Skehan, 1998). A workplan, describes Breen (1989), is only ever an "idealisation" that will be reconstructed by the students and led by the teacher in the classroom. Such reconstruction is known as task-in-process. This is the dialogic processes learners engage in while performing a task and such processes work on shaping language use and learning (Ellis, 2000). This highlights, ever more so, the need for a dual vision (Van Lier, 1996) and that the necessity for teachers to think on their feet is paramount. Of key importance here is the idea that learners will interpret the task each in his/her own way and hence (a) language produced collaboratively is acquired (Lantolf, 2000) and (b) one speaker can assist (or scaffold) another in performing a task he/she cannot perform alone (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976). In this regard, Scrivener

(2005) states that although this is likely to increase the amount of stress a teacher may feel in class, stress levels are likely to decrease with experience and the acquisition of alternative strategies.

Previous Studies

Various research studies have shown interest in evaluating CLT in general and TBLT in specific in non-western contexts. Some of the studies were concerned with examining the beliefs, attitudes and motivation of either/both teachers or/and students while others looked at the impact of using such approaches on students' language performance and yet other studies focused on the constraints that emerged in teaching, learning and assessment. Such studies were carried out in various contexts including, but not limited to, Japan, Vietnam, China, Hong Kong, Korea and Malaysia. Examples are Sato's (2010) study in Japan, Beibei and Xueping's (2007) study in Russia, and Carless's (2003) in Hong Kong. Although some of the studies found in the literature have given controversial results, many still emphasized the potential within TBLT. Researchers such as Ho and Wong (as cited in Littlewood, 2007, p. 246) report that teaching approaches such as TBLT, which originated Western educational contexts was generally perceived as incompatible with the demands of public assessment and sometimes in conflict with certain educational values in the non-Western contexts. Other studies reported contextual constraints as the main impediments to the success of approaches such as TBLT. In this respect, Xiongyong and Samuel (2011)

conducted a study which focused on identifying challenges and possibilities in TBLT implementation in China. The researchers examined EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions of task-based language teaching (TBLT) and the impact on their classroom practices. Results of the study revealed a higher level of understanding of TBLT concepts among those teachers and that most teachers involved in the study held positive attitudes toward TBLT implementation. However, large-sized class and difficulty in evaluating students' task-based performance were the major impediments to the use of TBLT.

Adopting an Action Research approach, Ruso (2007) examined applying TBLT to a traditional EFL classroom context in Turkey with the aim of finding answers to certain problems such as poor learner motivation. In the study, learners' views about TBLT were examined through a question-naire, diaries and semi-structured interviews. Results showed that implementing a TBLT approach in such EFL classes created variety for the students. Moreover it improved their learning, as the TBLT tasks used in the study were seen to be encouraging student participation and leading to significant developments concerning their language performance. Participants revealed that they did not prefer teacher-directed lessons where enough opportunities to express themselves in the target language were unavailable. Similarly, Ismaili (2013) carried out a study to examine the effectiveness of the task-based learning approach on the development of students' speaking skills in academic settings. Results indicated that task-based

teaching offers 'variety' for learners as the approach can improve learning. The research also referred to the positive attitudes of the students towards TBLT. They were also able to acquire new linguistic knowledge. The author concludes that TBLT was found to be very beneficial in mixed ability classrooms as it supports cooperative learning.

The Current Study

Research Context and Problem

Having established a highly examination-oriented system under Napoleon Bonaparte in 1798, successive education systems in Egypt have maintained the same orientation, be it for military, political or supremacy purposes (Hargreaves, 2001). Despite such orientation, the Egyptian Ministry of Education has embraced CLT in teaching English as a foreign language. Schools have less freedom, generally, on the selection of materials either at the provincial or the municipal levels, i.e. course books (students' books and teachers' guides) are provided at a national level. While the content of such textbooks cater for the four language skills as well as the language system, at the practical level teachers tend to teach to the test whether inside the classrooms or in their private tutoring as pupils' progression to any subsequent educational stages is often determined by achievement.

In alignment with the policy of the Ministry of Education, the EFL student teacher training programme at Damanhour Faculty of Education trains student teachers in diverse pedagogical innovations and, as a

part of their training, the teaching methodology course for third year EFL students teachers provides a general background of some teaching methods (i.e. starting with grammar translation and ending with CLT) and some skills that they will use in the future (e.g. lesson planning and classroom management). Similarly, the course for fourth year EFL student teachers is intended to focus on the use of CLT in teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar. Although the course familiarized the students with CLT and enables them to plan and micro-teach lesson accordingly, it enhances a weak version of CLT. The training course designed in the current study gave particular attention to TBLT. Students were required to use TBLT to peer teach in microteaching sessions, and to teach actual pupils in the practicum. Junior staff members at the faculty supervise the microteaching sessions and Ministry of Education supervisors supervise the practicum. As the current researcher claims that the voices of EFL student teachers generally go unheard and their perception and use of approaches enforced by the Ministry of Education is often under-researched, this study examines the impact of an intensive TBLT training on student teachers' views (acceptability) and teaching practice (usability). It also focuses on the extent to which intensive TBLT training would/would not alter any pre-conditioning state of student-teachers' views of how foreign language should be taught.

Research questions

This study examined the following main question:

- What is the impact of intensive TBLT training of EFL student teachers on its acceptability and usability?

In order to provide answers to such a question, three sub-questions were formulated. These were:

1. What are the student teachers' views of how English is best taught prior to TBLT training?
2. How far do student teachers' views of how English is best taught change after TBLT training?
3. How far do student teachers use TBLT after the training?
4. How far do student teachers' tasks-in-process conform to/differ from their original views of how English should be taught?

Participants and Study Delimitations

As the current study was delimited to fourth year student teachers studying EFL methodology course at Damanshour Faculty of Education, the participants involved in this study were 88. At the time this study was carried out, the students' age varied between 20 and 22. Females comprised 98% of the cohort and such gender-biased cohort was not deliberate, but it is a true representation of the actual student teachers population. However, gender was not dealt with as a variable in this study. When asked about their pre-university schooling, 92% of the participants attended large classes at governmental schools (average between 30 and 50) some of which were located in rural areas (41%) and others in urban ones (59%) (See figure 1).

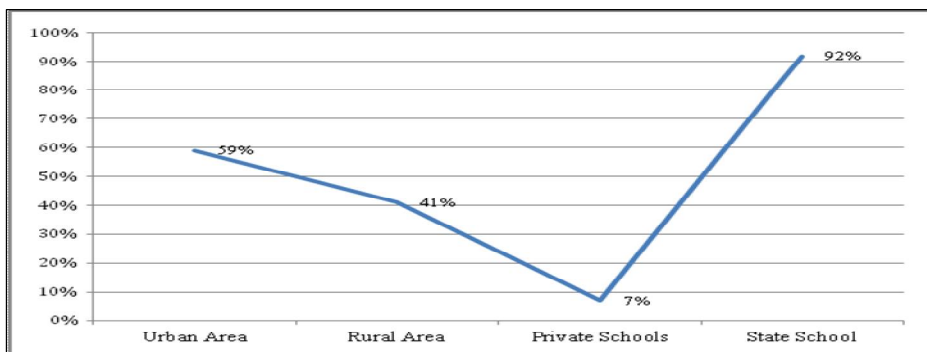


Figure 1. Participants Previous School Settings

Table 1. Participants ' Marks in the Teaching Methodology Course

		Frequency	Per cent
Result of Teaching Methodology Course	Distinction	10	11.4
	Very Good	51	58.0
	Good	26	29.5
	Pass	1	1.1
	Total	88	100.0

The majority of participants (85%) started learning English at the age of 6. Furthermore, none of the sample involved here has ever studied in or travelled to an English speaking country. Likewise, none ever took any internationally recognized language tests such as TOEFL or IELTS, but all scored highly at English at the secondary school certificate exam in which 42% of participants scored 45 out of 50, and the rest scored even higher. Similarly, when asked about their scores at the teaching methodology course in the previous year, participants maintained high scores as 51% scored 'very good' and 26% scored 'good' (see

table 1 above). Hence, the sample was homogenous in ways more than one.

The TBLT Course

Studying teaching methodology at the faculty of education occurred at third and fourth years. TAs mentioned earlier in this study, third year course generally aimed to introduce teaching methods (e.g. grammar translation, audio lingual, suggestopedia ... etc.) in addition to classroom management strategies and lesson planning skills. At fourth year, student teachers study the use of CLT in teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar. The intensive TBLT course designed for this study aimed at enabling student teachers to a) recognize the relationship between CLT and TBLT, b) identify major TBLT frameworks and c) plan and teach lessons using TBLT. The content of the course included (a) a critical view of the different teaching methodologies, (b) communicative competence, (c) weak vs. strong version of CLT, (d) TBLT overview and research, (e) TBLT design and planning, (f) TBLT and interaction patterns, (g) Task-based language assessment and (h) evaluation of TBLT lessons. Course teaching was undertaken through a combination of full group lectures and microteaching sessions providing opportunities for critical reading and discussion, and for preparation of task materials. Each session lasted for 2 hours and was followed by 1-hour microteaching session in which students split into non-concurring microteaching session groups. Readings were provided week by week and students were expected to prepare these before

coming to class. The course textbooks were mainly Willis (1996) and Ellis (2000). Based on Unit 16 (Tourism Today) in second year secondary student book, the student teachers were assigned a task in which they were required to plan, design and implement a 30-minutes task-based lesson. A student teacher would teach his/her task twice: once at a microteaching session (in which opportunities for peer feedback is available) and another at the practicum (which involves actual pupils at school and feedback from a supervisor). They were asked to demonstrate the task in three stages: task-as-work plan, task-in-process, and task outcomes.

Design, Techniques and Data Collection

The study aimed to examine the impact of intensive TBLT training on student teachers' views (acceptability) and teaching practice (usability). It also focused on the extent to which intensive TBLT training would/would not alter any pre-conditioning state towards how English is best taught. As seen in Table 2, the study adopted a qualitative approach that involved the following procedures:

- a. a pre-training questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to collect data about student-teachers' views of how English is best taught,
- b. the TBLT training course,
- c. classroom observation of tasks being implemented at the practicum, and
- d. post training questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

Table 2. The Study Data

Instrument	No of Respondents
Pre-treatment semi-structured interviews	15
Pre-treatment questionnaire	88
Task-as-work plan for microteaching sessions	88
Task-as-work plan for practicum lessons	88
Practicum observations (task-in-process)	10
Post treatment semi-structured interviews	15
Post treatment questionnaire	84

It is worth mentioning here that no tasks were filmed for ethical reasons. Having lived in small villages, most of the participants (being females) preferred not to appear in the video when the researcher sought their consent to video recording. As a result, classroom observation was employed, which turned out to be beneficial to the feasibility of this study because interviews (as well as informal discussions) with observed student teachers were undertaken immediately after the lessons.

Results

This paper mainly examined the main question “What is the impact of the intensive TBLT training on EFL student teachers?”. In order to do so, four sub-questions were formulated. In this section, results obtained to such questions are respectively presented.

Q1. What are the student teachers’ views of how English is best taught?

In examining participants’ past experience with English language learning, it was obvious that the participants’ previous experience generally aligned

with traditional approaches to language teaching (see table 3 below). Out of 88 participants, 71% labeled language instruction as generally form-oriented and 20% thought that teachers targeted communication. Similarly, 65% disagreed that teachers explained grammar rules only when necessary for communication. The majority (84%) described the language of instruction in their English classrooms as mainly Arabic. Furthermore, 70% showed that accuracy, rather than fluency, was targeted by teachers. While participants referred to the constant correction of grammatical errors (81%), less attention was given to pronunciation errors (54%). Attention given to grammar, rather than pronunciation, mainly aligned with the needs to prepare students to do well in the final examinations, which tested knowledge of grammar and not pronunciation, i.e. the aim was not language accuracy as such, but it was responding accurately to the questions of grammar in the final test. Following the same line of thought, participants thought of their roles as learners in terms of memorizing grammar rules (87%) and vocabulary lists (92%). On the other hand, few participants (20%) agreed that their English language learning experiences focused on communication and slightly more participants (32% and 33%) thought teachers created such communicative and interactive learning atmosphere. Data collected also showed awareness of the significance of 'communication' as the intended outcome of the process of language learning and teaching. Even though

89% of participants thought communication was important, in the interviews this was not mentioned as an aspect of the good teaching they had experienced themselves.

Table 3. Participants' past experience with language learning

	Item	Yes (%)	No (%)	Can't Remember (%)
a	English teaching in my school focused mainly on grammar rules and this helped us communicate.	71	28	1
b	The language used in the classroom by my English teacher was mostly Arabic.	84	15	1
c	Our focus in class was on communication, and the teacher would explain grammar when necessary.	20	65	15
d	My English teacher often designed activities to mainly have us interact in English even if we made errors.	33	54	13
e	Our pronunciation errors were often corrected on the spot throughout the lesson.	54	38	8
f	Our grammatical errors were often corrected on the spot throughout the lesson.	81	9	10
g	It was important for us to memorize grammar rules.	87	13	0
h	It was important for us to memorize vocabulary lists.	92	8	0
i	My English teacher often created an atmosphere for us to communicate in English.	32	59	9
j	Our focus in class was on accuracy rather than fluency.	70	16	14
k	The aim of teaching English was to help us communicate.	100	0	0

These issues were investigated further in the interviews. In terms of teachers' roles, the conventional roles of teachers were emphasized. It was also revealed that those students still considered role-playing with pre-defined language as being communicative and interactive activities. Such perception would probably justify why 32% and 33% of participants thought of

their classroom as communicative and interactive. When prompted about what they could remember about their own best teacher, they indicated that such teachers were those who helped them get higher marks in high stakes tests. Those teachers focused most on grammar and vocabulary plus some aspects of reading and writing. It was even revealed that those learners were given previously written paragraphs to memorize. Such paragraphs addressed topics that were likely to be included in final tests. As plan B, one interviewee mentioned that when she was a pupil at school, her teachers were even keen to train pupils to memorize generic simple mistake-proof sentences that can be used in writing a paragraph on whatever topics in the exam regardless of what teaching writing is all about. Examples of such sentences were:

It's a worldwide fact that ... [pupils insert the topic given in the prompt]... is so important and can play a vital role in our life as individuals on one hand and can change the shape of life all over the world on the other hand. First of all, it has a lot of good effects and advantages which if well-exploited, will change and modify our life completely to the best so we should do our best to develop it by all possible means. In my opinion, it's the golden key to a happy life full of peace and success. If it has any bad effects or disadvantages, they will be of no importance, if outweighed by its marvellous merits and benefits.

As for participants' reflection on their experience as student teachers, the data collected examined their views of how language is best taught. In this respect, it was obvious that although many participants thought that learning a language is learning to communicate in

this language, considerable numbers highlighted the extreme importance of mastering forms. In this respect, 66% still thought that focusing on forms would lead to communication if the chance arises. 66% of participants also believed that Arabic should be frequently used in class to assure comprehension. Therefore, more than 70% emphasized the importance of memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary lists. This was reflected in their rating of the significance of accuracy (84%) over fluency (16%) (See table 4).

Table 4. Participants' current experience with language teaching

	Item	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Not Sure (%)
a	If pupils master grammar rules, they can communicate successfully when they have a chance to do so.	76	24	0
b	I believe Arabic should be frequently used in English class for better understanding of the lessons.	70	19	11
c	EFL teachers should focus on communication first even though pupils make language errors during their communication	73	27	0
d	EFL teachers should help their pupils get their messages across even though they make language mistakes.	73	9	17
e	It is important for the teacher to immediately correct students' grammatical errors in class.	89	11	0
f	It is important for the teacher to immediately correct students' pronunciation errors in class.	70	30	0
g	I believe the more grammar rules pupils memorize, the better they are at learning English.	77	23	0
h	I believe the more vocabulary pupils memorize, the better they are at learning English.	79	20	0
i	Teachers should create an atmosphere for pupils to communicate in English.	74	26	0
j	Teaching EFL should focus on accuracy rather than fluency.	84	16	0
k	The aim of teaching English is communication.	100	0	0

Overall, data analysed to answer the first research question indicated that, as student teachers, views of how English should be taught were very much consistent with how they were taught English at schools. Such experiences fostered forms because of the nature of high stakes examinations and the pressure such examinations had over the teaching/learning context.

Q2. What are the student teachers' views of how English is best taught after TBLT training?

The second research question also examined whether or not student teachers' views on how language should be taught would change as a result of TBLT training. Data collected from the post-training questionnaire (see table 5) showed no change in relation to student teachers' views about the significance of 'communication' as the intended outcome of the process of language teaching/ learning. This was supported by 84% of the participants who thought teachers should design activities that would help pupils to practice English in real-life or real-life like situations. Although emphasis on the importance of grammar mastery and memorization of vocabulary lists had been stated by 77% and 79% respectively in the pre-training questionnaire, there was a significant alteration in views among participants concerning other issues. Data obtained from the post treatment questionnaire revealed that a considerable number of participants (49% and 37% correspondingly) disagreed to the absolute significance of grammar mastery and memorization of vocabulary lists shown in their earlier responses prior to training. More student teachers also

started to move away from traditional views to consider focus on meaning as opposed to focus on forms. Clear examples of this were that 27% showed agreement that EFL should focus on accuracy, as compared to 59% disagreement prior to TBLT training, and that 57% thought that communication should be targeted even though this would involve students' making grammatical mistakes during communication.

Table 5. Post treatment questionnaire

	Item	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Not Sure (%)
a	EFL teachers should focus on grammar as mastery of grammar rules can eventually lead to communication.	41	49	10
b	EFL teachers should encourage pupils to memorize vocabulary lists.	47	37	16
c	EFL teachers should focus on communication first even though pupils make language errors during communication.	57	29	14
d	Teaching EFL should focus on accuracy rather than fluency.	27	59	14
e	The formal study of grammar is essential to eventual mastery of EFL.	46	19	35
f	I believe my English improves most quickly if I study and practice the grammar rules.	55	34	11
g	Grammar rules should be explicitly explained in class.	65	23	12
h	Learning English by practicing the language in communicative activities is essential to eventual mastery of a foreign language	94	1	5
i	A teacher should create an atmosphere in the classroom to encourage interaction as a class or in groups.	97	1	1
j	Teachers should design activities that would help pupils to practice English in real-life or real-life like situations	84	14	2
k	The aim of English language teaching is communication	100	0	0

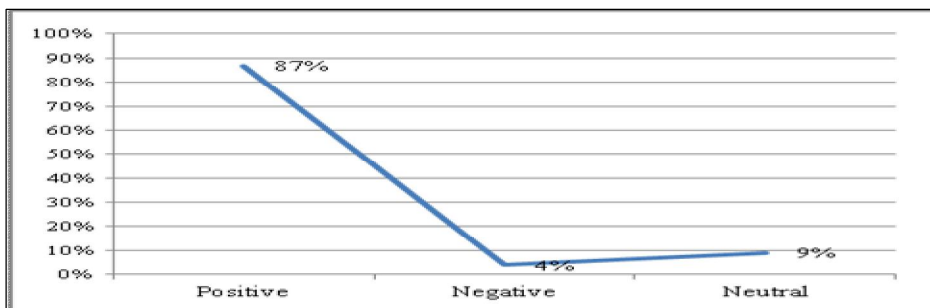


Figure 2. Participants' Attitudes towards TBLT

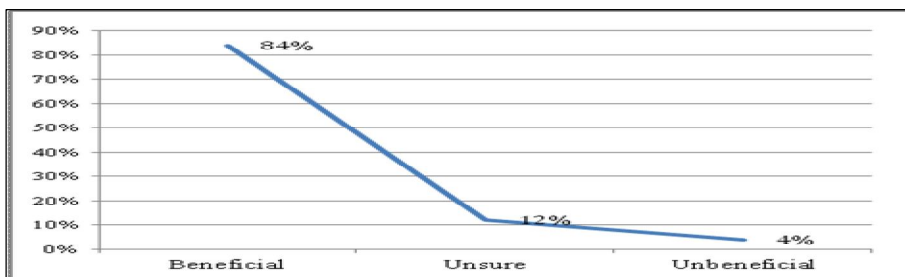


Figure 3. Participants' Perception of the Benefit of TBLT

It is worth mentioning that this research question also focused on student teachers' attitudes, particularly towards TBLT after the training, as well as their perception of the benefit of such an approach. The data elicited to address such an issue was obtained from the post-training questionnaire and the interviews. This data was meant to examine the extent to which student teachers accepted TBLT and this, at that point, might be indicative of the likelihood of using it. The majority of participants (87%) showed positive attitudes towards TBLT and a similar percentage (84%) saw such an approach as beneficial. Interviews with participants

ascertained such positive attitudes. Many interviewees expressed understanding that it is imperative for EFL teachers to have the necessary knowledge and develop the required skills needed to use TBLT efficiently.

Q3. How far do student teachers use TBLT after TBLT training?

The third research question in this study aimed to examine whether or not student teachers actually used TBLT and if so, the extent they used it in the microteaching sessions and the practicum. As mentioned earlier in this study, participants were required to 'demonstrate the capability of designing and implementing a 30 minutes long TBLT lesson' for the microteaching and for the practicum at schools. Initially, in the post-training questionnaire students were asked about their use of TBLT, as compared to other approaches. Data showed that the majority of student teachers (81%) used TBLT in their microteaching. Although the result might seem impressive, this was interpreted as a logical result as designing and implementing a TBLT lesson was a course requirement. Nonetheless, 5% of participants used TPR and 13% specifically used grammar translation rather than any of the other less traditional approaches (e.g. PPP) (see figure 4). As for the microteaching task, most student teachers were resourceful adapting an elementary task from One Stop English (see <http://www.onestopenglish.com>). The lesson procedures followed the lesson plan suggested on the website and the researcher could not determine

whether the student teachers actually wanted to use TBLT.

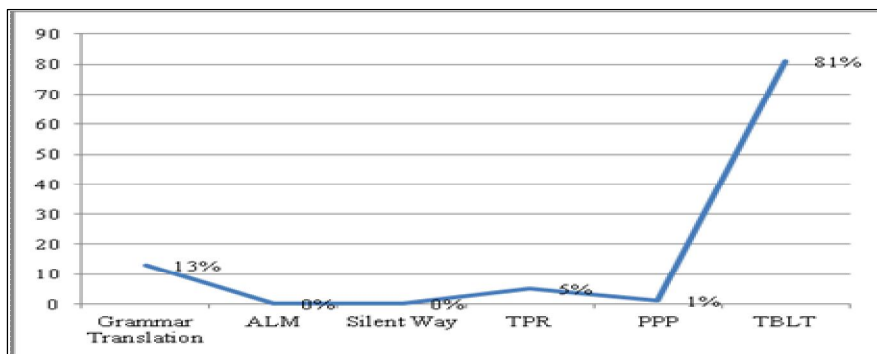


Figure 4. Participants' Use of Teaching Methods in Microteaching

However, the finding obtained here was seen as significant by this researcher because it would be symptomatic of whether or not TBLT use would extend beyond the microteaching, i.e. practicum data collected from participants about the use of teaching approaches at schools (during teaching practice) was interesting. TBLT shifted to be extremely unpopular among the majority of student teachers as only 12% reported use of TBLT in the practicum. This result was significant in itself as these student teachers were a few months away from graduation and obtaining full time teaching jobs. Surprisingly, PPP and grammar translation were adopted by a considerable number of student teachers. It was obvious that 56% of student teachers preferred to use PPP and 24% used the grammar translation approach. A small number of student teachers (5%) used TPR and none of them used audio lingual or the silent way (see figure 5).

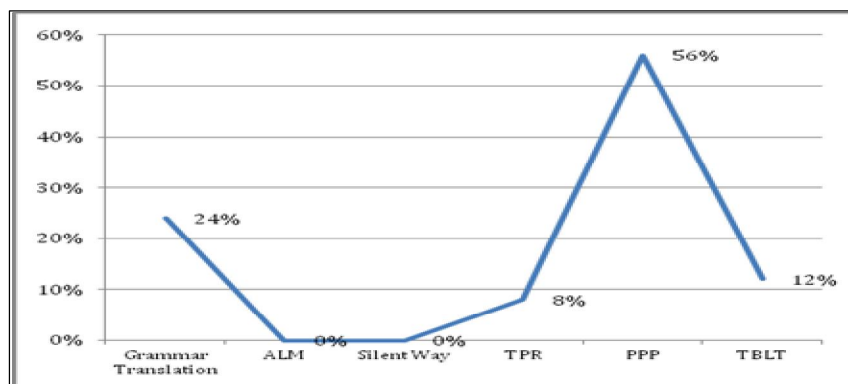


Figure 5. Participants' Use of Teaching Methods in TP

Further investigation of such a paradox was sought in the interviews, which were informative to this researcher. It was interesting that one participant related teaching approaches used during the practicum to what can be literally translated as 'safety'. According to this participant, specific teaching approaches such as TBLT were seen as 'unsafe'. To this particular participant, full time teachers are generally not concerned with developing pupils' communicative ability as much as their concern with the consequences on pupils' future, i.e. scoring high in final examinations. Another interesting issue elicited from the interviews with another participant was the idea of 'familiarity' and 'the fear of change'. Data revealed that participants believed that their pupils were used to the more traditional approaches, which seem to be capable of preparing them for the final examinations. Another dimension brought to the interviews was what one participant referred to as 'the danger' of adopting

approaches to language teaching that can be considered generally untried specifically with particular pupils. Another concern pinpointed during the interviews was the unknown reaction on the part of parents and the community to the use of an approach that might/might not fulfil their desired objective (high scores). According to this interviewee, most language teachers do private tutoring after school and such teachers would risk their reputation should they adopt 'untested' and 'less-trusted' approaches that might not produce the desired performance in summative tests. In fact, the exam-oriented context forced various student teachers in this study to consider the traditional approaches risk-proof. For them, there are possible risks when adopting TBLT as the approach. Other participants however, discussed concerns similar to those raised in several studies undertaken in similar EFL context. One student teacher stated:

I tried hard, but being a teacher of a monolingual classroom, the students consistently use their L1 instead of the L2 when working in pairs or groups, thus not benefiting from the opportunities to practice the L1. Many pupils in my class are conscious about their errors. Just like in other classes, the English class is about getting the "right" answer rather than communicating.

Another student teacher put forward the following statement:

Most tasks depend on group or pair work, but how would such tasks be implemented in my class which had 46 pupils?

A typical concern was :

I think that most of my students become afraid to lose face when it comes to communicating in English. They therefore become shy by choice or prefer to be considered so by their teacher as this would be an acceptable excuse for many of them. As a student teacher, I find it difficult to ask them to communicate in English and keep the flow of the interaction goin'.

So, results of this question suggested that student teachers used TBLT in the microteaching and did not use it in the practicum. Participants by and large adopted defensive attitudes during the interviews when they wanted to justify the fact that they preferred more traditional approaches, which would align with the summative assessment system, and also that they were still influenced by the way their own teachers used to teach them.

Q4. How far do student teachers' tasks-in-process actually conform to the views of participants towards how English should be taught?

Students involved in this study, as mentioned earlier, were each assigned a task in which they were required to design and implement a task-based lesson. The lesson would be taught in the microteaching session and then again in the practicum at school. They were asked to demonstrate the task in three stages: task-as-work plan, task-in-process, and task outcomes. Previous findings in this study revealed that TBLT was

out of favour among the majority of student teachers because only 12% reported use of TBLT in TP as compared to 56% of student teachers preferring PPP and 24% preferring grammar translation. The fourth research question in this study aimed to examine whether or not intensive TBLT practice (task-in-process) among those who reported using such an approach in the practicum would really conform to whatever views those students held towards how a foreign language should be taught. In answering the fourth research question, this section presents a sample of students' lessons prepared for the practicum. Data collected and analysed to answer this question came from the observation of 10 tasks taught during practicum lessons. However, this study will report results on only 3 student teachers. The number of observations discussed here took into consideration the time and space limits allowed in this paper. Observations discussed here were among the small percentage (12%) who reported use of TBLT (see results section on research question 3). Randomization in selecting observations aligned with students' scores in the teaching methods course in the previous year (see table 6). As mentioned earlier, only one student out of 88 obtained a 'Pass' and therefore the student was not considered for observation.

Table 6. Some participants' observed tasks in TP

No. of participants	Scores in previous year	Observed tasks in TP	Total Observations
1	*Distinction	1	3
1	*Very Good	1	
1	Good	1	

Analysis of students' tasks as work-plans showed some structured communicative tasks, although not necessarily authentic. Task design followed the Willis and Willis (1996) framework for all students. Some of the designed tasks showed participants' concern regarding pupils' learning profile (e.g. age, interests and language proficiency levels). Although this was interesting, it was unsurprising as the materials adopted in the lessons were mainly based on Ministry student books developed for a certain age and stage. Hence, textbooks played a dominant role in the design of tasks. Preliminary analysis of the work-plans therefore gave this researcher an impression that there would be a high degree of focus on meaning. In the remaining part of this section results on tasks-in process are presented.

Participant 1

The student teacher of this class was a female whose score was 'Distinction' in the teaching methods course in the previous year. Participant 1 was an interesting case because, as revealed in the interview, a) she had good self-image as a teacher-to-be due to her high scores in most of the subjects she was studying and b) she repeatedly expressed her passion towards teaching English. In her task, this student teacher adapted the elementary task from One Stop English to prime her class about the lesson (see <http://www.onestopenglish.com>). However, a preliminary examination of her work-plan showed an unbalanced time allotment. The 30 minutes were

skewed in one direction. She distributed time so that pre-task and task cycle would engage 9 minutes of the task time while 19 minutes were devoted to the language focus stage. Observation of actual teaching revealed that even priming at the pre-task, as seen by this researcher, was dominated by teacher talk. The following excerpt explains how such priming discouraged interaction and communication.

T: Tourism is considered eh...one of the most important (not audible) in Egypt...because eh it provides eh us with a lot of eh money which eh provide our economy eh our education, our eh transport eh. Let's eh let us eh to go to another point in our lesson...eh...is there any eh problem which face tourism in Egypt? Yes (pointing at one student)...who can answer?

S: Nowadays there are...there is a political condition...

T: No (interrupting) I do not want you to tell us the reasons. I..I ask you to answer...yes or no

S: Yes

T: Thank you.

Analysis of task-in process for this participant showed that negotiation of meaning rarely occurred in class because teaching time was obviously skewed towards form rather than meaning. In fact, the pupils were not given the opportunity to reach the task outcome on their own, but rather all the information was found in some written samples made available by their teacher. However, the reason for this participant planning her pre-task and task cycle to engage only 9

minutes of the lesson was explored in the interview. During the interview with participant 1, she explained some of her views about what EFL pupils in general expect teachers to do and what teachers should do. This participant stated:

Generally pupils follow my instructions in doing activities, but they're always waiting for the rule. The teacher should get their full attention when s/he explains grammar.

She also indicated that pupils by and large feel that forms are more relevant to language learning and that they actually expect it. She also thought that the task was successful as outcome was achieved by her pupils. Another emerging issue in the interview with participant 1 was her level of acceptance of TBLT. Having lived the exam-oriented context herself, this participant felt that pupils feel they need to focus their attention on “formal knowledge of the language in order to achieve highly in the exam”. She revealed that attempts to enforce language use or communication over what is actually involved/expected in final examinations (i.e. mainly form) would weaken pupils' involvement and enthusiasm to participate in tasks.

Participant 2

The student teacher of this class was also a female whose score was ‘Very Good’ at the teaching methods course in the year preceding this study. The microteaching lesson was again based on the same materials adopted from One Stop English. As for her

practicum lesson, although observation initially suggested that the task involved was performed and the task outcome was achieved, it was also noticed with this participant that the class was highly controlled by the teacher or rather by the language structure targeted. Too many linguistic structures and related vocabulary were actually given to students while they were performing the task, which constrained real involvement and creativity on the pupils' side. At the pre-task stage, the student teacher elicited some vocabulary, but provided quite a few herself. She also underlined 2 structures, which suggested that pre-defined language was being presented in a PPP lesson. Participant 2 was keen to be at the center of the teaching/learning process. She also appeared to be fussy about accepting errors. It was noticed that she resorted to repeated error correction from the beginning of the task to the very end and no room was given to pupil recast or peer correction. The following is an excerpt of her lesson:

T: Good morning

Ss: Good morning

T: How're you today?

Ss: Fine

T: Our lesson today is about tourism (writes "tourism" on the white board) [kh: she did not elicit or test Ss prior knowledge]

T: Tourism is considered one of the most important sources in Egypt. It is very important for ...(barely audible). Who can tell me which

the places do tourists generally go to?

The place tourists...

T: (Interrupting) the places...

S1: The places tourists go to are Luxor, Aswan...

T: (Interrupting) Thank you.

T: Places like (writing on the board) pyramids, citadel, Luxor and Aswan. (Facing students) We all know that there is a very big importance for tourism in Egypt. Who can tell me one of these importance? (Repairing) Who can tell me the importance of tourism in Egypt?

S1: It is the main source of national economy in Egypt (with a rising intonation)

National income.

It is the main source of national income in Egypt (with a rising intonation)

T: Thank you. Who else?

S2: It tells us about the civilization of other countries.

T: Thank you. Who else?

S1: The most important aspect for developing countries (with a rising intonation)

T: Sank you.

This class, of course, impinged pupils' opportunities to communicate meaningfully and resulted in a sort of disappointment when they made mistakes. It was observed with this participant that errors were not just linguistic, but it was obvious that a different way of achieving the task was seen off point rather than opportunities for negotiation and creativity.

This resulted in a teacher-centered task and communication breakdown, which eventually made task fulfillment superficial and frustrating. Although a few groups did fulfill the task in their own way, the rest of the class followed instructions and somehow copied off each other. Interviews with this participant revealed that she believes that the power should predominantly rest with the teacher in the classroom. To this researcher, the participant followed a teaching style in which a teacher would have the ownership for decision-making and the students need only to follow instructions. It is worth mentioning that when prompted about the compatibility of such classroom orientation with TBLT, she suggested that she was setting the scene for the task and making sure her students understand the task. This was very possibly influenced by the way she was taught at school as she very often referred to her favorite teachers who managed to help her 'learn', i.e. pass examinations successfully. Nevertheless, this researcher believes that being a novice teacher, she believes such teaching behavior is justifiable and would diminish should she get more experience and once her belief in the benefits of TBLT to her students were substantiated.

Participant 3

Participant 3 was also a female whose score at the teaching methods course was 'Good'. Although there were still some problems in her task design and gradation, aspects of classroom management influenced the success of this lesson. Observation of her task-in-

process revealed that her lesson was another typical teacher-centered classroom in which pupils never had the chance to play a leading role even when fulfilling the task. Observation of the class revealed that she spent most of her class time preparing for the pre-task rather than carrying it out. For example, part of priming was as follows:

T: Good morning

Ss: Good morning

T: How're you all?

Ss: Fine, thank you.

T: Good. (facing board she starts writing the day's date and unit number and title)

(Facing pupils) Today's lesson is about tourism (points at the lesson title on the board)

T: What places do tourists visit in Egypt? (underlining 'tourists visit' and then pointing at this part of the sentence and choosing one of the pupils asking her to answer)

S1: Tourists visit the pyramids.

T: Excellent, thank you. (Copying S1's answer under 'tourists visit' and then point at 'tourists visit' again and chose another pupil.

S2: Tourists visit the Sphinx in Cairo

T: Excellent. She copies more answers about 'citadel in Alexandria, Luxor, Aswan, Sinai...etc.

Similar question/answer procedures continued for about 14 minutes. So, in the task cycle stage the pupils lost interest. A lack of clear instruction and task

fulfillment criteria was often felt among pupils in this class. This student teacher was very much occupied with getting through the stages rather than ensuring negotiation of meaning and interaction. She was clearly interested in the language focus stage and she often drew pupils' attention to related linguistic issues they might encounter in the test. So, it was important in the interview to find out more about this student teacher's opinions/beliefs regarding TBLT. Her idea of a successful language TBLT classroom was connected to the extent to which pupils execute the roles assigned in pair and group work rather than how well they do such roles in the light of a TBLT philosophy.

To sum up, all 3 participants could design communicative work plans, but there were severe problems with task implementation, i.e. task as work-plan was often compatible with the TBLT framework adopted in this study, but task-in-process was compatible with/ conformed to participants own views about how language should be taught, these views originating from their past experiences as EFL pupils. Although such tasks were intended to focus on meaning, there was a preoccupation with the language forms involved on the side of student teachers. To this researcher, the tasks of participants 1, 2 and 3 were less successful because there was a minimum focus on negotiation of meaning. Thus, the ability to design TBLT lessons does not necessarily entail implementation. In addition, teachers tend to skew task-in process towards their own beliefs or towards what contextual constraints might impose.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study was interested in finding out the impact of intensive TBLT training on student teachers' views (acceptability) and practice (usability) and hence, four research questions were formulated. Question one of this study examined student teachers' views of how English is best taught. The answer was sought in terms of participants' past experiences as language learners as opposed to their current experiences as EFL student teachers. Results revealed that participants' previous experience with English language learning mainly focused on forms and that teaching styles emphasized achievements in the final examinations. Nevertheless, various participants in this study believed that their teachers had still targeted communication. Results also indicated that as student teachers, views of how English should be taught were very much consistent with how they were taught English at schools. Such experiences still fostered forms. The second research question looked at whether or not the student teachers' views of how English is best taught would change after TBLT training. The greater part of participants showed positive views and attitudes towards TBLT and that such an approach is beneficial. Many expressed understanding that it is imperative for EFL teachers to have the necessary knowledge and to develop the skills needed to use TBLT efficiently. The third research question investigated the extent to which student teachers actually used TBLT, as compared to other approaches, in their microteaching and the practicum. While findings showed that the majority of student

teachers used TBLT in their micro- teaching, it turned to be particularly out of favour among the majority of student teachers in the practicum. According to participants, specific teaching approaches (such as TBLT) were deemed 'unsafe' as they do not cater for the knowledge and skills involved in final examinations (i.e. forms). Yet, a small number of participants still used TBLT in practicum. Hence, the fourth research question focused on whether or not student teachers' tasks-in-process (for those who used TBLT in the practicum) actually conform to whatever views those participants held with regard to how English should be taught. Observations of participants showed they could design communicative tasks, but they had some problems with task implementation. Although such tasks were intended to focus on meaning, there was an obsession with the language form involved on the side of student teachers.

Reflecting on the need for a dual vision as a concept that emerges from teachers' need to keep long-term sense of direction and to make online decisions, results obtained in this study showed a distorted version of such an idea in the sense that participants in this study had a pre-defined dual vision. Such vision involved offline decisions on the part of student teachers in the practicum. This was reflected in participants' positive views with regard to TBLT, as well as in an awareness of the benefit of such an approach, and yet the choice is between either using TBLT only at the design level (task as work plan) or using a version of TBLT adapted to personal views

about context and how language should be taught. For example, time allotted to different phases of Willis's (1996) framework was manipulated to suit personal views on language teaching, i.e. the language focus stage generally occupied more time than the actual task cycle. Observations of the lessons and interviews emphasized a preoccupation with understanding linguistics features of the language. There was an inherent correlation between pupils' mastery of forms and students teachers' self-image as prospective EFL teachers. Some participants did not put into practice their work-plans mainly resulting in a minimum focus on negotiation of meaning and un/conscious form orientation derivatives of their past experiences as EFL learners. In fact, a socio-cultural impact imposed in the study context influenced those student teachers. They felt that although TBLT would help student use the language, adopting the approach may well put full time teachers (engaged in private tutoring) and pupils at risk. This was because a full time teacher's income is often dependent on private tutoring and this, in turn, is subject to parental satisfaction with students' achievements. In the study context, pupils' achievement in summative assessments puts immense pressure on teachers. For instance, participants in this study had experiences with their own teachers who often aimed to develop a good reputation in preparing the pupils for the school final examination. Hence, participants in this study thought the task of getting his/her pupils to score highly in such summative assessments would meet

intense parental expectations for their children, and would result in a decent income from private tutoring.

On the other hand, previous studies have documented a number of factors that often impeded the use of TBLT such as a) individual teacher factors, b) textbooks' limitations, c) time constraints, d) large numbers, e) language proficiency levels...etc. According to participants in the current study other classroom related issues were found influential on task implementation in practicum. An interesting element was the interaction patterns needed for TBLT. To participants, group work and pair work were more of hurdle to lesson progression. Teacher-centred education is a mere reflection of certain social phenomena, which are beyond the focus of this study.

Based on the results obtained in this study, one may suggest that it is of little use to assign all barriers to adopting/rejecting certain teaching approaches to the external contextual constraints (e.g. large classes, student demotivation...etc.). The current study showed that the teaching practices of student teachers are not necessarily consistent when it came to classroom procedures even though their views reflect consistency. This was particularly true with the student teachers involved here. They had positive views and valued TBLT (they accepted it), but their teaching practices in real classrooms were either manipulated or non-existent (usability). Therefore, it is necessary for decision-makers (be those head teachers or the Ministry of Education) to identify the in/consistencies between views at the theoretical levels and practice. Results of this study also indicated that teachers and

their past experiences with language are of paramount importance as these factors influence the actual implementation of a task-based approach. Thus, while student teachers' ability to design tasks does not necessarily mean the ability to implement/use TBLT seems a reasonable statement, one can insinuate here that accepting TBLT as an approach does not necessarily mean using such an approach. Furthermore, the often-mentioned link between culture and critical reflection in education should be mentioned here. This research suggests that our teacher education programs in Egypt suffer a lack of critical reflection in teaching practice, either in theory or in practice. The practice of critical reflection becomes of paramount importance especially when policy makers take decisions (e.g. to adopt or reject certain ideologies) and when teachers' views of, and attitudes towards, such decisions are just incompatible. This often confines acceptance and implementation and hence, compatibility should be assured before the actual enforcement of such ideologies. Moreover, in order to make sure the benefits of pedagogical innovations can be attained, there is a need for further investigations of how student teachers' views and past experiences can help appraise the pedagogical value of the concept and implementation of the communicative language learning method because such value would be, to a great extent, connected to actual teaching practices in classrooms.

References:

- Breen, M. (1987) . Learner contribution to task design. In C. Candlin and D. Murphy, (eds.), *Language Learning Tasks*. London: Prentice Hall, 23-46.

- Breen, M. (1989). The evaluation cycle for language learning tasks. In R. K. Johnson (ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 187-206). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bygate, M. (2000). Introduction. *Language Teaching Research*, 4 (3), 185-192.
- Bygate, M. & Samuda, V. (2005) . Integrative planning and the use of task repetition. In R. Ellis (ed.), *Planning and Task Performance in a Second Language*. (pp. 37-76). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Burrows, C. (2008). Socio-cultural barriers facing TBL in Japan. *The Language Teacher*, 32(8), 15-19.
- Bruton, A. (2002). From tasking purposes to purposing tasks. *ELT Journal*, 56(3), 280-288.
- Carless, D. (2007) .The suitability of task-based approaches for secondary schools: perspectives from Hong Kong. *Science Direct*, 35 (4), 595-608.
- Carless, D. (2003) . Factors in the implementation of task-based teaching in primary schools. *System*, 31 (4), 485-500.
- Carless, D. (2004) . Issues in teachers' reinterpretation of a task-based innovation in primary schools. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(4), 639-662.
- Coughlan, P. & Duff, P. (1994). Same task, different activities: analysis of SLA from an Activity theory perspective. In J. Lantolf and G. Appel (eds.), *Vygotskian Perspectives on Second Language Research*(pp. 173-193). Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing.
- Ellis, R. (2000). Task-based research and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*. 4 (3), 193-220.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Esfandiari, Mehran; Knight, Paul; Molinari, Julia & Zacharias, Sally (2012). *Task-Based Learning Applied: A Collection of Research Papers*. The Nottingham Jubilee Press. Available online at: www.nottingham.ac.uk/education

- Foster, P. (1999). Key Concepts in ELT: Task-based learning and pedagogy. *ELT Journal*, 53 (1), 69-70.
- Hargreaves, E .(2001). Assessment in Egypt, *Assessment in Education* 8 (2), 247-60.
- Hu, G. (2002). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 15, 93–105.
- Hu, R .(2013). Task-Based Language Teaching: Responses from Chinese Teachers of English, *TESL-EJ*, <http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume16/ej64/ej64a1/>
- Jeon, I. and Hahn, J. (2006). Exploring EFL Teachers: Perceptions of Task-Based Language Teaching: A Case Study of Korean Secondary School Classroom Practice. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8, 123 – 139.
- Johnson, K. (2003). *Designing a language teaching task*. London: Palgrave.
- Kim, S.J. (2004) Coping with Cultural Obstacles to Speaking English in the Korean Secondary Context. *Asian EFL Journal*, http://www.asian-efljournal.com/Sept_04_ksj.pdf
- Klapper, J. (2001). *Teaching Languages in Higher Education*. London: CILT.
- Klapper, J. (2003). Taking communication task to task: a critical review of recent trends in language teaching. *Language Learning Journal*, 27, 33-42.
- Kumaravadelu, B. (1993b). The name of the task and the task of naming: methodological aspects of task-based pedagogy. In G. Crookes & S. Gass (eds.), *Tasks in a pedagogical context* (pp. 69–96). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Lantolf, J. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford University Press.

- Li, D. (1998). It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine: teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 677-703.
- Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 40(3), 243-249.
- Long, M. (1997). Focus on form in Task-Based Language Teaching. The McGraw-Hill Companies. Available online at: <http://www.mhhe.com/socscience/foreignlang/conf/first.htm>
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Prabhu, N. (1987). *Second Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ruso, N. (2007). The Influence of Task Based Learning on EFL Classrooms. http://www.asianefljournal.com/profession_teaching_articles.php
- Sato, R. (2009). Suggestions for creating approaches suitable to the Japanese EFL environment. *The Language Teacher*.33(9), 11-14.
- Seedhouse, P. (1999). Task-based interaction. *ELT Journal*, 53, 149-156.
- Skehan, P. (1996). A Framework for the Implementation of Task-based Instruction. *Applied Linguistics*. 17, 38-62.
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sheen, R. (1994). A critical analysis of the advocacy of the task-based syllabus. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(1), 127-151.
- Swan, M. (2005). *Legislation by Hypothesis: The Case of Task-Based Instruction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Samuda, V. (2001). Guiding relationship between form and meaning during task performance: the role of the teacher. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan and M. Swain, (eds.), *Researching*

- Pedagogic Tasks, Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing* (pp. 119-140). Harlow: Longman.
- Samuda, V. & Bygate, M. (2008). *Tasks in Second Language Learning*. New York: Palgrave, Macmillan.
- Scrivener, J. (2005). *Learning Teaching*. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
- Van den Branden, K. (2006). *Task-based Language Education: From Theory to Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van den Branden, K.; Bygate, M. and Norris, J. (2009) *Task-based language teaching: A reader* . Amsterdam: John Benjamin's.
- Willis ,J.(1996). *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Harlow: Longman .
- Willis, D. and Willis J. (2007) *Doing Task-Based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers.
- Wood, D., Bruner, J., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem-solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Child Psychiatry*, 17, 89-100.
- Xiongyong , C. & Samuel, M. (2011). Perceptions and Implementation of Task-based Language Teaching among Secondary School EFL Teachers in China, *International Journal of Business and Social Science*. 2 (24), 292-302.
- Zhang, Y. (2005). The implementation of the task-based approach in primary school English language teaching in mainland China. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University.

The Effect of Learning Environment on EFL Undergraduates' Computer-Assisted Language Learning Achievement and Attitudes

Dr. Marwa Ahmed Refat Naeem

Faculty of Education, Kafr El-Sheikh University

Abstract

The aim of this piece of research was to explore the effect of three different environments of blended learning compared to traditional learning on EFL university students' achievement and attitudes in a Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Specialized Technology Course. A hundred EFL juniors at the Faculty of Education, Kafr El-Sheikh University participated in this study. They were taught the set course by merging lectures with complementary tasks, assignments and activities on a Web site and further illustrations and discussions on Facebook. Participants were free to choose the environment of learning to adopt during their study. At the end of the academic semester, the results of the formal exam held by the Faculty were analyzed statistically by using One-Way ANOVA to attain inferences about the effect of learning environment on achievement. Participants were given a questionnaire for eliciting their impressions and self-assessment of the blended learning they received. Results indicated the claim that learning environment affects achievement was not true. However, attitudes and preferences of blended learning environments varied.

Keywords: *Blended Learning, CALL, Social Media, Higher Education, Learning Environments.*

Introduction

In the light of the recent increasing advocacies of adopting Quality Assurance and Accreditation

standards in the Egyptian Higher Education, coping with such modern teaching methodologies and technological applications as blended learning becomes indispensable. If there is an attitude to produce a distinguished educational output – i.e. a university graduate – who is able to compete with peers internationally, the input quantity and quality should be revolutionized so that he / she receives a similar preparation to his/her international counter- parts . A prominent aspect of this educational revolution is developing the methods of teaching and the techniques of learning in the light of modern trends. Thus, blended learning was thought of as an option including such features that enhance quality. However, the novelty of the experiment in the Egyptian context required testing its effect on students’ achievement taking their aptitudes and attitudes towards such an environment of learning into consideration.

Blended learning is that process in which learners receive information and develop skills through a technique that mixes both old traditional teaching practices such as lecturing with one or more modern forms of e-learning. The term is defined by Donnelly et al. (2012) as a “joined-up approach of using online resources to support traditional learning” (p. 4). In other words, it is a “course or subject that combines face to face classroom with online learning and reduces classroom contact hours”. (Balcaen, 2011, p. 50).

Tayebinik & Puteh (2012) tackled the rationale of activating blended learning in teaching, arguing that it has appeared as an outlet to overcome such disadvantages of e-learning environments as the lack of

face-to-face communication. Blended learning also makes up for the drawbacks of traditional lecturing. According to those who advocate it, the application of blended instruction is fruitful because instructors believe that varied delivery methods can increase students' satisfaction from the learning experience as well as their learning outcomes. In this concern, they highlight some overt advantages of blended learning. These advantages include increased communication, engagement of face - to - face communication, sense of community, improved academic performance, collaborative tasks, adequate feedback, active participation, providing help, fun and practical manner of teaching and learning.

The characteristics of blended learning are handled by a number of researchers. Rogers (2009) identified three characteristics of blended learning represented in the availability of many possible combinations of time and technology, the existence of multiple options associated with learners' needs and the possibility of employing the blended learning form that fits a particular school or class.

Focusing on the environments of blended learning that take place in higher education environments, Anastasiades (2012) depicted four different levels: activity level, course level, program level and instructional level. On the same track, Tayebinik & Puteh (2012) referred to the fact that blended learning may take one of three forms: a combination of instructional modalities (delivery media), a combination

of instructional methods or a combination of online and face-to-face instruction. The last form is the commonest among scholars.

Macdonald (2012) pinpointed two common components of blended learning: asynchronous forums and face-to-face contact. The first component is usually used for a form of tutor-mediated online support. The second component, however, represents another form of tutor-mediated support delivered in tutorials, seminars, labs or lectures.

In its comprehensive research project report, Hanover University (2011) mentioned a number of worthwhile key findings about blended learning. Among those key findings is the fact that blended learning has the potential to be more economical than traditional face-to-face learning, as it requires fewer teachers to supervise students. In addition, blended learning programs are tailored to meet individual student needs, allow students to self-pace, and are often considered more engaging than traditional courses. Moreover, the implementation of a blended learning program in a school may require a redesign of the space.

There is a plenty of studies that manipulated blended learning in relation to different other variables. So & Bonk (2010) predicted and identified the roles of blended learning approaches in Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) environments by a Delphi method. They discussed findings related to (a) pros and cons of blended learning approaches in CSCL;

(b) blended learning for collaboration in various contexts including the narrative accounts of blended learning approaches in CSCL given by the Delphi panelist; and (c) the future of blended learning in CSCL. Data were obtained through three-phases of online survey questions directed to the Delphi panel consisting of experts in online learning from different geographic regions of the world.

An inspiring study to the current piece of research was that conducted by Melton et al. (2009). The purpose of this study was to evaluate students' achievement and satisfaction with a blended learning course delivery compared to a traditional face-to-face class format. Surveys were distributed to randomly selected classes. The sample for the study included 251 participants. The obtained results indicated that a blended course delivery was preferred over a traditional lecture format, and promising data emerged to challenge teachers' traditional approach to teaching general health courses at the university level.

AL-Hunaiyyan et al. (2008) discussed some cultural issues related to what they call blended e-learning. They used this term to refer to the fact that this environment of learning allowed students from different cultures to select the delivery format of their learning content. The main question they raised was: Can educators design blended e-learning systems to accommodate different cultural groups and various learning strategies? Furthermore, the paper explored issues related to learning design. Results indicated that

a need for a blend of both the new technology and traditional learning was due to achieve a truly successfully e-learning environment. Moreover, designers were recommended to construct meaningful frameworks for making appropriate decisions regarding visual design and user interaction. Blended e-learning was found to provide a complementary balance between new and traditional education environments.

Investigating the most suitable learning environments, Akkoyunlu & Soylu (2008) examined students' learning styles and their views on blended learning. The study participants were thirty-four students at Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey. They utilized a questionnaire designed to identify students' views on blended learning. Besides, they gathered additional data from achievement scores of students. Results indicated that students' views on blended learning process, such as the ease of use of web environment, better evaluation, face to face environment and other aspects, differed. Moreover, it was found that the highest mean score corresponds to face to face aspect of the process when students' evaluation concerning the implementation was taken into consideration. Generally, there was no relationship between students' achievement level and their learning styles.

Being interested in a similar population to that of the study at hand, Burgess (2008) conducted a limited investigation about the learning needs of part-time students at The University of Winchester to see whether a blended approach would have benefited

their studies. The results of this investigation were used as a basis for developing the course to allow a more blended style. Furthermore, the researcher attempted to outline how the course was designed. A preliminary analysis of the use of blended learning for part-time mature students was also made.

In the same year, Hameed et al. (2008) considered how effective and efficient e-learning was when integrated with traditional learning in a blended learning environment. They provided a comparison between purist e-learning and blended learning environment. Furthermore, they also provided directions for the blended learning environment which can be used by the three main stakeholders: student, tutors and institution; to make strategic decision about the learning and teaching initiatives. Their conclusion suggested that blended learning approaches offer the most flexible and scalable route to e-learning.

A year before, Orhan (2007) examined the effect of blended learning environment on learners' self-efficacy for learning performance and self-regulated learning strategies. The conclusions she reached revealed that students' learning within a blended learning environment positively affected their perception, meta-cognitive self-regulation, time and study environment management.

Reaching a different indecisive result, Zimitat & Chen (2004) used a taxonomy to explore the quality of learning outcomes of students enrolled in certain classes offered by an institution in wholly online and

face to face (blended) learning modes. Students enrolled in the face-to-face course made much less use of the e-learning resources than those in the virtual course. They concluded that at the end of the semester, there was no significant difference in post test scores or ranking between the two classes. However, this is not to say that the two classes resulted in the same individual improvement in learning outcomes. The researchers assumed that if their methodology was adapted to include more assessment items and larger cohorts of students, it might be a useful model for evaluating the pedagogical effectiveness of various e-learning courses.

Theoretically, the current study built on Jean Piaget's cognitive theory. Emphasis was laid on learners' first-hand involvement, experience and grappling with the content (Carter, 2011). A similar theoretical platform was the social constructivist theory that stressed the importance of social interaction and scaffolded support in the learning process. The interaction between a learner and a learning environment was always mediated by meanings which originate through social relations (Bartlett & Burton, 2012).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study at hand is twofold (a) to investigate the impact of learning environment on EFL undergraduates, and (b) to probe their opinions towards traditional learning and blended learning.

Need for the Study

The current study is considered to be useful to many parties. In the first place, it provides Egyptian educational policy makers with a scientific basis upon which they may take appropriate decisions in the context of developing the system and assuring its quality. In the second place, faculty staff members may attain acumen on planning and executing their courses, as the results of this study shed light on students' reaction to the different environments of learning. In the third place, Web site designers may benefit from the study results to improve their products and avoid the technical defects students indicated.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were formulated to be tested:

- There is no statistically significant difference basing on the learning environment among EFL juniors' achievement.
- There is no difference in EFL juniors' attitudes towards the various learning environments.

Participants

To carry out the study through which the above mentioned hypotheses were tested, a hundred participants were selected to represent the sample for this study by adopting the cluster sampling technique. They were all the students enrolled in a Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Specialized Technology Course. This course – according to the

Faculty Bylaw – is taught to Third Year students. The researcher intentionally applied her study to this course because of its practical nature that better served the purpose. As for the characteristics of the participants, their ages were about 20 to 21 years old. The majority of participants were females; there was just one male participant. They were classified – according to their free will preferences of the learning environment – into four groups: 34 students who preferred attending lectures only (traditional learning), 20 students who preferred using Facebook beside attending lectures, 21 students who preferred using the Web site page along with attending lectures and 25 students who preferred using both the Web site page and Facebook as well as attending lectures.

Methodology

In the current study, a between-group experimental design was adopted. All participants were taught the academic course of “Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Specialized Technology” by combining traditional lectures with a Facebook page interaction and a complementary Web site tasks and activities. Students were free to choose the learning environment they liked most. No compulsion was practiced to force them use a certain learning environment. Even relying on lectures only was available for them. Thus, participants were classified before the experiment into four groups according to the environment of learning they favoured: lecture only, lecture and Facebook interactions, lecture and Web site

tasks or lecture, Facebook interactions and Website tasks. In respect of the variables under study, on one hand, learning environment with its four paths represented the independent variable. On the other hand, EFL juniors' academic achievement was the dependent variable of this piece of research.

Materials and Instruments

The materials for this study included a Facebook page and a Web site. The Facebook page was devoted to serve such educational purposes as notification and instruction posts related to the course under study. In addition, it was used for exchanging ideas, sharing information and interacting between the study participants and their peers or between the study participants and the researcher. The Web site page was designed by the researcher and uploaded to a free hosting site; namely, www.somee.com. This Web site page included such basic information about the course as the lecture time and location. It was weekly updated so that the topic of each new lecture was added. Furthermore, videos and PDF files were occasionally uploaded on the site as well as the Facebook page so as to extend students' base of information about the course content. Announcements about assignments and their deadlines were also found there. As for the lecture participants, they were taught the same content through the traditional regular lectures.

Concerning the study tools, a formal achievement test – administered at the end of the academic semester by the Faculty of Education – on the Computer-Assisted

Language Learning and another on Specialized Technology were applied in the end of the first academic semester in January, 2014. According to the Faculty Bylaw, the time allotted for the Computer-Assisted Language Learning was two hours. It consisted of three questions: writing a detailed essay, writing notes on some topics and answering questions that entailed quite short answers, for instance, definitions. A similar exam on Specialized Technology section of the course was also applied in two hours. The total scores of both sections were statistically analyzed. Furthermore, a questionnaire was prepared by the researcher so as to elicit students' attitudes towards blended learning. The questionnaire included a list of general instructions that students read before dealing with its four sections. The first section of the questionnaire was concerned with using the Web site. It had six items: two structured and four unstructured. The second section followed containing four unstructured items save the first. It focused on the Facebook page. Consisting of four items as well, section three explored students' attitudes towards the lecture that represented traditional learning. Finally, section four aimed at probing students' assessment of the blended learning experiment as a whole. Like sections two and three, section four included four items the first of which is structured.

Results

To test the first hypothesis, One-Way ANOVA was adopted so that decisions could be made about the

existence of significantly statistical differences among the four experimental groups; each followed a different learning environment. The following data were obtained:

Table (1): One-Way ANOVA of the Achievement Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean of Sum Squares	F
Total Variance	14817973.88	99		1.28
Variance between Groups	567894.87	3	189298.29	
Variance within Groups	14250079.01	96	148438.3231	

Using the formula stated by Gravetter & Wallnau (2008, p. 381), it was found that the calculated value of F equaled (1.28). According to the Table of Critical F Values, the obtained F is less than the critical one at the (0.01) level of significance. The critical F value is (3.98). This context entailed accepting the research null hypothesis which stated that ***there is no statistically significant difference basing on the learning environment among EFL juniors' achievement.***

Seeking further, deep analysis of prospective teachers' attitudes towards learning environment and linking these attitudes to the achievement results, the second hypothesis was tested through a questionnaire. The questionnaire was given to the study participants so as to elicit their impressions about each environment of learning.

Section (A) involved items that investigated the participants' opinions and assessment of the course Web site. The participants who made use of this environment of blended learning were 47% of the sample.

The first structured item in this section required evaluating the layout of the Web site. 18.75% of the participants stated that the site layout was *excellent*. The majority – 47.88% of participants – graded the layout as *very good*. The layout was judged as *good* by 25%. A minor percentage of 6.25% evaluated the layout as *accepted*, whereas fewer participants – 3.13% of participants – found the Web site to have a *poor* layout. Participants' evaluation of the layout was sought so as to attain indications about the appropriateness of such elements as organization, colours links and other graphic components.

The second item in Section (A) was also a structured one. It was concerned with how much benefit participants gained from the Web site content. The majority of participants – 46.88% – declared that they attained *great benefit* from the site content. A near percentage of 43.75% reported that the gain they got was *moderate*. A minor portion of participants – 6.25% – was convinced that the site content was of *maximum benefit* to them. A lesser percentage of 3.13% estimated the benefit attained from the site content as *little*. Nobody selected the last choice: *No benefit at all*.

Unlike the first two items, the third item in Section (A) was unstructured. Prospective teachers were asked

to mention the most beneficial page they found on the Web site. The question page that was constantly updated with each new topic studied was selected by 59.38% of participants. A page that offered multiple kinds of dictionaries was favoured by 18.75% of participants. The majority of participants – 78.13% – chose the downloading page that included various text and video materials. The fewest number of participants – nearly 6.25% – stated that the page of external links that offered references to the course was the most beneficial one on the site.

The merits of using the Web site in learning were the aim of item four in Section (A). Prospective teachers were asked an open-ended question about the advantages they gained from learning with the help of the Web site. The varied content and materials appealed to 37.5% of the participants. In addition, 34.38% of participants pointed out that the related questions posted and updated frequently on the Web site were a great advantage that simplified the course. The ease of using the site which saved learners' time and effort was also mentioned by 25% of the participants. Moreover, the site helped 21.88% of the participants find clarifications for the ambiguous points uncaught in lectures. The possibility to download different relevant materials was also indicated as a merit of the site by 15.63% of the participants. Nearly 12.5% of the participants said that using the Web site made them feel more apt to cope with modern technology. A number of advantages were stated by the

same percentage of 9.38%. These advantages included the varied information related to the course, the free access to the site that was available all the time, getting rid of the boredom of traditional learning and increasing activeness and enriching knowledge. A percentage of 6.25% highlighted the advantage of increasing a learner's self-esteem and independence. At the tail of the list, 3.13% of the participants mentioned such merits as the site availability to all students, keeping informed in the case of absence from lectures and finding sources of some programs.

Seeking a beneficial feedback about the shortcomings of the experiment, the fifth item of Section (A) required prospective teachers to identify the demerits they found in using the Web site. The greatest percentage of the participants – approximately 43.75% – responded that there were no demerits at all. They reported that the Web site was well-organized and easy to use. In addition, those participants mentioned that neither technical nor cognitive problems were encountered during using the site. However, 21.88% of participants stressed computer and Internet connection unavailability; specially, for those staying in the student hostel. The hostel rules allow its lodgers neither accompany their personal computers nor have an Internet connection. The Web site was hard to reach and to browse by nearly 18.75% of the study sample. Perhaps this was due to their lack of the general basics of dealing with the Internet. Two demerits were stated by 6.25% of participants: poor

environmental conditions; namely, electricity frequent power cut; and problems of downloading materials. Other minor demerits stated by 3.13% of participants included the lack of face-to-face interaction, the limited available materials, being distracted by a lot of advertisements and the cost of browsing the site in a cybercafé.

The last item in section (A) manipulated the prospective teachers' recommendations and suggestions to improve the Web site. In this concern, 31.25% of participants believed that the current form and content of the Web site were ideal and thus, no recommendations would be useful. Two propositions were raised by 9.38% of the participants. They included offering the content of the Web site in languages other than English, i.e., Arabic and French; and adding downloadable books for general interests to the download page. A lesser percentage of 6.25% suggested such ideas as uploading various environments of dictionaries, adding recorded lecture videos, improving the site layout and uploading the PowerPoint presentations displayed in lectures. Other suggestions were recommended by approximately 3.13% of the participants. For instance, a summary highlighting the important points of each lecture was proposed to be inserted. Moreover, adding a general section that offers guidelines on how to improve learning was also recommended. Other ideas included improving site organization; adding a section for students' comments, participations and lecturer's response; adding

assignments; lecturing students on how to use the Internet in general and generalizing the Web site experiment to all other courses of study.

Section (B) was devoted to evaluating the Facebook page used as a complementary option with lectures and thus created another environment of blended learning. The percentage of the participants who preferred using this environment of learning was 39.71% of the whole sample.

The section started by item 7 which asked participants to indicate how much benefit they got from the Facebook page. The available answers were structured. A maximum benefit was attained by 33.33% of the participants whereas 37.04% obtained great benefit from the Facebook page. The page was of moderate benefit for 22.22% of the participants, and of little benefit for 7.41%. The last option "*No Benefit at All*" was not chosen by anyone.

Item 8 in Section (B) handled the merits participants found in using Facebook for educational purposes. More than half of the participants – 59.26% – expressed their sense of relief due to the possibility of inquiring any time finding the lecturer's precise answer in a short time. Communication with peers to exchange and share information about the course, and the daily discussion held by the lecturer at a specified hour were highlighted by 48.15% of the participants. Nearly 25.93% of the participants found it helpful to keep being informed of the lecture content by the updated information on the page; specially, in the case they were

absent. A technical merit related to the design and nature of Facebook pages was stated by 11.11% of participants who said that Facebook pages are easy to use and quick to inform. A percentage of 7.41% appreciated the freedom of expression. An equal percentage was satisfied with devoting the page for educational purposes. A number of other advantages was stated by a minor percentage of 3.70%. These included better understanding the course with the help of the clarifications provided on the page, keeping up with the technology of the day and making the course more interesting, using such activities as online chatting.

The demerits of using the Facebook page were indicated by the participants in responding to item 9. A proportion of 66.67% of the respondents believed that using Facebook for learning was bereft of demerits. The unfamiliarity with Facebook and preferring not to use it in discussions were stressed by 11.11%. In addition, 7.41% pointed out that Facebook was a waste of time due to such technical obstacles as Internet humble connections and waiting replies. An equal percentage referred to the lack of Internet connections at some homes. A minor percentage of 3.70% mentioned such disadvantages as the rarity of educational videos and the lack of practical questions to be answered on the page.

In item 10, prospective teachers were asked to give some suggestions to develop the Facebook usage in the future. Almost one third of the participants – 33.33% –

believed the experiment was ideal and had no suggestions at all. A percentage of 7.41% came up with such recommendations as increasing the course related videos on the page; posting the lecture schedule and models of previous exams and adding links to books, songs and speeches to improve language proficiency in general. Besides, 3.70% of the participants suggested forming a course group for discussions, devoting specified time for the lecturer and students online to save time, exceeding the limits of the course by discussing current events and increasing the details related to the lecture content.

Section (C) started with item 11 which was structured for asking the participants to indicate how much benefit they gained from the course lecture. The majority of respondents – 42.65% – stated that they attained great benefit. A less percentage of 33.82% believed that the benefit was moderate. Nearly 20.59% said that lectures were of maximum benefit to them. A minor proportion – 2.94% – believed that lecture benefit was not that much.

Being unstructured, item 12 delved into the merits of lectures in prospective teachers' view points. Face to face interaction between the lecturer and learners was highlighted by 33.82% of the participants. Better understanding of the content was a worthy advantage for 26.47% of prospective teachers. Nearly 25% stated that the content was easily and directly provided in lecture. A lesser percentage of 19.12% believed that a lecture is a good method for clarifying ambiguous and

highly abstract concepts. In addition, 17.65% praised the interaction that took place during lectures in the form of discussion among students. This interaction was said to lead to peer learning. Focusing on details was also highlighted as one of the merits by 11.76%. Almost 10.29% of the participants thought that a lecture is a good method for attracting students' attention. The same percentage proclaimed that lectures correct misunderstanding, misspelling and improve pronunciation. Moreover, 8.82% mentioned two merits: a lecture is a good theoretical base for practical skills and students attending lectures enjoy the traditional style listening and taking notes. A minor percentage of 5.88% asserted such merits as using blackboards, providing a basic source for those who do not have an access to the Internet, compelling students to attend and follow up and shedding light on important points in the content. Lectures are more systematic for 4.41% of the participants as well. Miscellaneous merits also included that lectures take care of students' psychological state; lectures are a source of moral lessons and lectures are condensed so that boredom does not exist, there is a possibility of repeating explanation.

The demerits of lectures were the concern of item 13. Nearly 30.88% of participants found no demerits at all. A lesser percentage of 14.71% highlighted the difficult nature of the content; the short time span devoted to lectures and the boredom factor resulted from the theoretical nature of the lecturing method

itself. Talking in English all the time and the red tape impediments such as amphitheatre poor equipment needed 13.24 % of the participants. The care for checking attendance was also a lecture facet disliked by 8.82% of the sample.

Prospective teachers' recommendations to improve the lecturing method were asked for in item 14. There were no suggestions for 25% of participants. Integrating a lab section as a complementary activity was proposed by 13.24%. Furthermore, about 11.77% advocated decreasing and simplifying the theoretical content. Nearly 8.82% recommended increasing lecturer-student interaction and using such teaching aids as PowerPoint presentations on datashows. Finding solutions to such red tape issues stated in the demerits of lectures was demanded by 7.35%. A percentage of 5.88% suggested increasing the amount of time devoted to the lecture. A minority of 4.41% supported the idea of making formative evaluation during lectures so as to keep minds engaged. The least percentage – about 2.94% – had such ideas as increasing discussion during lectures and making attendance optional.

Section D – the last section of the questionnaire – focused on blended learning. It started with a structured item – item 15 – which aimed at identifying which environment of learning students preferred. Traditional learning (in lecture) was preferred by 25%. On another hand, pure e-learning was favoured by 2.94%. Blended learning gained the highest percentage:

72.06%. Neither learning through the Web site only nor going to the library and looking references up were chosen by any participant.

Being unstructured, item 16 probed into the merits the participants found in blended learning. Increasing understanding was mentioned by 25%. Expanding ideas and enriching information through a variety of sources available by hyperlinks was an advantage stated by 19.12%. Unlike the complete dependence on lectures, blended learning was time saving for 17.65%. Nearly 16.18 viewed that blended learning was useful for increasing communication with the lecturer making it easy and fast to inquire and solve problems. Moreover, 13.24% mentioned such merits as enabling learners to apply lecture theoretical concepts and having the pros of both lecturing and e-learning. On the contrary, almost 11.76% found no merits at all in blended learning. Active participation was highlighted by 10.29%, while 8.82% found in blended learning an interesting way of learning. Almost 7.35% believed that blended learning was a good means to support lectures. Peer interaction and being a beneficial way to make up for missed lectures were stated by 5.88%. Learning according to each student self-pace was a merit for 4.41%.

In respect of item 17, the cons of blended learning were made clear by testees. According to 35.29% of participants, blended learning has no demerits. The lack of computers and Internet access at home and at Students' Hostel was stressed by 32.35%. Almost

10.29% stated that there was a lack of equal opportunities as blended learning was not available to all students due to financial and traditional hindrances. An equal percentage highlighted the difficulty of using the Web site. Unfamiliarity with the Internet troubled 8.82%. Moreover, poor Internet connection, the big content and design and organization problems were mentioned by 4.41%.

The last item in the questionnaire -item 18- elicited participants' suggestions and recommendations to improve the blended learning method used in the current experiment. No suggestions were provided by 33.82%. Furthermore, 10.29% suggested providing computer labs with Internet access to be available to all students. Decreasing the heavy dependence on the Internet was recommended by 7.35%. Moreover, 5.88% inclined to giving students more initial and formative instructions on how to deal with blended learning. A percentage of 4.41% suggested such ideas as increasing discussion, generalizing blended learning in all courses of study, setting a good theoretical base and developing the Web site. A minor percentage of 2.94% proposed increasing the lecture time span and decreasing the content of the course.

Therefore, the second hypothesis, which suggested that there is no difference in EFL juniors' attitudes towards the various learning environments, was rejected. Participants did differ in their attitudes towards learning environments.

Discussion

The statistical testing of the study first hypothesis led to accepting the premise that learning environment does not affect college EFL students' achievement. Blended learning – with its three options offered to students in this study – had no concrete advantage over traditional learning. Comparing this deduction with the results of related literature, there was a good deal of agreement as well as disagreement.

In their responses to some questionnaire items, the participants of the current study attracted attention to a number of institutional shortcomings that negatively affected their experience with blended learning. This very point was the concern of a recent study by Graham et al. (2013) as they focused on institutional policy and adoption issues of blended learning. They believed that more institutional-level blended learning research was needed to guide institutions of higher education in strategically adopting and implementing blended learning on campus. Practically, they investigated six cases of institutional adoption of blended learning to examine the key issues that could guide university administrators interested in this endeavor. Cases were selected to represent institutions at various stages of blended learning adoption including (1) awareness / exploration, (2) adoption / early implementation, and (3) mature implementation / growth. Worthwhile recommendations were identified to elaborate on core issues related to institutional strategy, structure and support.

Being interested in how university professors employ blended learning, King & Arnold (2012) came up with such worthwhile implications as the contribution of motivation, communication, and course design to the overall success of blended learning courses and students' satisfaction with blended learning courses. Moreover, they also found that course preparation emerged through the participant interviews as a contributing factor. However, they wondered if faculties took these factors into account when preparing to teach a blended learning course. They concluded that there were a number of operational institutional procedures that a faculty should have considered before offering blended courses. These procedures were stated by the current study participants as points of weaknesses in the blended learning experience they underwent.

In a similar study, Napier et al. (2011) found that students' performances in the traditional and blended learning were comparable. Students taking blended learning courses reported some challenges with the instructional format. However, overall, students reported high levels of interaction with their instructor, and students' satisfaction with the course increased by the end of the semester. Some material could be delivered better online. Faculty expressed concerns about how to effectively convert a face-to-face course to a blended format. The researcher benefited from these conclusions on designing the online tasks and

assignments focusing on interaction either between the lecturer and students or among students themselves.

Contrary to most literature, Australia, Yam & Rossini (2011) revealed that students who were exposed to online learning performed better than students in blended learning mode. This suggested that online students might be more self-motivated as most of them were part-time students. In terms of the effectiveness of individual online items, those students who attempted the quizzes after studying the material diligently did well in course.

The result obtained in the current study coincided partially with the conclusion reached by Chen and Jones (2007). These two researchers noted some interesting differences between blended learning and traditional one. They stated that students in the traditional setting were more satisfied with the clarity of instruction. As for blended learning students, their analytical skills were said to be improved as a result of the course. However, the final results of their study suggested that the two delivery methods were similar in terms of final learning outcomes, but that both may be improved by incorporating aspects of the other.

Similar results were declared by Ginns & Ellis (2007). According to their study, students did not show positive attitudes towards blended learning. They opposed the idea that the teaching in an e-Learning context was supportive. Moreover, they did not tend to find other students' on-line submissions overly helpful in clarifying and extending their own ideas. Students,

however, were generally positive about the degree to which the course Web site made goals and standards clear for the unit in general and assignments in particular. But, they were less clear about the usage of on-line discussions. In addition, students were most positive about the degree to which on-line materials appeared interesting. Nevertheless, students were most negative about the explanatory value of the on-line teaching materials. The worthwhile implications deduced from Ginns & Ellis (2007) were that student-focused methods of teaching evaluation are possible in the relatively new teaching context of blended learning, and that several key aspects of that context – the quality of on-line teaching, resources, workload, and student interaction – are associated with the quality of students' approaches to study and learning outcomes. In addition, teachers in blended learning contexts need to focus not only on the technical capacities and functions of on-line materials and activities, but must also seek to understand their students' perceptions of this part of the learning environment, and how successfully that part is in supporting student learning across a whole course. The results from this study showed that positive student perceptions of the quality of teaching on-line and the level of interaction were strongly related with a comparatively higher grade.

In the same year, Weibelzahl & Dowling (2007) concluded that blended learning was not as significant as anticipated. However, they theorized that the inclusion of face-to-face sessions in a blended learning

course had a positive impact on the completion rates of the course. These results partially coincided with those attained in the current study.

Conclusion

The current piece of research attempted to determine which environment of learning (traditional, Web site blended or Facebook blended) was advantageous for EFL prospective teachers. The traditional environment was confined to the lecture method complemented by assignments that were delivered in paper form. Blended learning environments were enriched by Web tasks and online feedbacks. Findings indicated that the environment of learning did not affect academic achievement. However, important implications about the pros and cons of each environment of learning in addition to suggested ideas for improvement were provided. Further research was recommended on how to pave the administrative and physical environments for blended learning in higher education. Besides, future studies are suggested to investigate students' needs and aptitude to learn in a blended environment. Researchers may study the effect of learning environments on other educational stages – i.e. the kindergarten, primary, preparatory and secondary stages.

References

Akkoyunlu, B., & Soylu, M. (2008). A study of student's perceptions in a blended learning environment based on different learning styles. *Educational Technology & Society*, (11) 1, 183 – 193.

- Al-Hunaiyyan, A., Al-Huwail, N. & Al-Sharhan, S. (2008). Blended e-learning design: discussion of cultural issues. *International Journal of Cyber Society and Education*, (1) 1, 17 – 32.
- Anastasiades, P. S. (2012). *Blended learning environments for adults*. Pennsylvania: IGI Global Snippet.
- Balcaen, P. (2011). The Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on E-Learning: Icel 2011. London: Academic Conferences Limited.
- Bartlett, S., & Burton, D. (2012). *Introduction to education studies*. London: SAGE.
- Burgess, J. (2008). Is a blended learning approach suitable for mature, part-time finance students? *Electronic Journal e-Learning*, (6) 2, 131 – 138.
- Carter, I. (2011). *Human behavior in the social environment: a social systems approach*. Chicago: Aldine Transaction.
- Chen, C. C., & Jones, K. T. (2007). Blended learning vs. traditional classroom settings: assessing effectiveness and student perceptions in an MBA accounting course. *The Journal of Educators Online*, (4) 1, 1 – 15.
- Donnelly, P., Benson, J. & Kirk, P. (2012). *How to succeed at e-learning*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Ginns, P., & Ellis, R. (2007). Quality in blended learning: exploring the relationships between on-line and face-to-face teaching and learning. *Internet and Higher Education*, 10, 53 – 64.
- Graham, C. R., Woodfield, W. & Harrison, J. B. (2013). A framework for institutional adoption and implementation of blended learning in higher education. *Internet and Higher Education*, (18), 4 – 14.
- Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2008). *Essentials of Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences*. Kentucky: Cengage Learning.
- Hameed, S., Badii, A., & Cullen, A. (2008). Effective e-learning integration with traditional learning in a blended learning environment. European and Mediterranean Conference on Information Systems, May 25-26 2008, Al Bustan Rotana Hotel, Dubai.

- Hanover University (2011). Blended Learning Programs. A Research Project Report. Washington, DC: Hanover University.
- King, S. E., & Arnold, K. C. (2012). Blended learning environments in higher education: a case study of how professors make it happen. *Mid-Western Educational Researcher*, (25) 1-2, 44 – 59.
- Macdonald, J. (2012). Blended Learning and Online Tutoring: Planning Learner Support and Activity Design. Hampshire: Gower Publishing, Ltd.
- Melton, B., Graf, H., & Foss, J. (2009). Achievement and satisfaction in blended learning versus traditional general health course designs. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, (3) 1, 1 – 13.
- Napier, N. P., Dekhane, S., & Smith, S. (2011). Transitioning to Blended Learning: Understanding Student and Faculty Perceptions. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, (15) 1, 20 – 32.
- Orhan, F. (2007). Applying self-regulated learning strategies in a blended learning instruction. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, (2) 4, 390 – 398.
- Rogers, P. (2009). *Encyclopedia of Distance Learning*. Second Edition. Pennsylvania: Idea Group Inc.
- So, H. J., & Bonk, C. J. (2010). Examining the roles of blended learning approaches in computer-supported collaborative learning (cscl) environments: a delphi study. *Educational Technology & Society*, (13) 3, 189 – 200.
- Tayebinik, M., & Puteh, M. (2012). Blended learning or e-learning? *IMACST*, (3) 1, 103 – 110.
- Weibelzahl, S., & Dowling, N. A. (2007). Comparison of on-line and blended learning for training in UML. In C. Bunse and L. Thomas. *Workshop Series on Software Engineering Education in Academia and Industry*. 23 – 28.
- Yam, S., & Rossini, P. (2011). Online learning and blended learning: which is more effective? 17th Pacific Rim Real

Estate Society Conference 16 – 19 January, 2011, Gold Coast, Australia. 1 – 16.

Zimitat, C., & Chen, N. (2004). Differences in the quality of learning outcomes in a f2f blended versus wholly online course. *Beyond the comfort zone: Proceedings of the 21st ASCILITE Conference*, 5 – 8 December, 2004. 175 – 179.

Making It 'Authentic': Egyptian EFL Student Teachers' Awareness and Use of Online Authentic Language Materials and Their Learning Motivation

Dr. Hanan A. Abdelhafez

Associate Professor of Curriculum & TESOL/TEFL Methodology ,College of Education, Assiut University

Dr. Mahmoud M. S. Abdallah

Lecturer of Curriculum & TESOL/TEFL Methodology
College of Education, Assiut University

Abstract

This paper reports a research study that sought investigating Assiut University College of Education (AUCOE) EFL student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic materials on the basis of their actual language leaning needs, and how this relates to their language learning motivation. To accomplish this, a mixed-method research methodology was employed for data collection and analysis to provide both contextual understanding and quantitative evidence. In particular, the following tools were used: (1) a semi-structured interview (a qualitative method) for identifying the particular language-learning needs of EFL student teachers at AUCOE and compiling a list of those needs; (2) a qualitative analysis of some online language materials based on the compiled list of needs to identify the authentic materials that can be used to meet EFL student teachers' language learning needs; (3) a questionnaire administered to EFL student teachers to investigate their awareness and use of online authentic language materials; and (4) a questionnaire administered to EFL student teachers to identify their

language learning motivation level. Results reached a list of EFL student teachers' language learning needs, and a subsequent list of those authentic language materials available online which would meet those needs. Also, analysis of learners' responses to the Online Authentic Language Learning Questionnaire revealed that learners were aware of online authentic materials and use them frequently in their language study. Moreover, Pearson's Product Moment indicated a positive relationship between EFL student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic materials and their language learning motivation.

Keywords: *Authentic language learning; online authentic materials; awareness and use of authentic materials; EFL student teachers; language learning motivation.*

1. Background & Research Problem

1.1 Research Questions

The study attempts to answer the following questions: (a) What are the actual language-learning needs of EFL student teachers at AUCOE?; (b) Which online authentic language materials are to be used for involving EFL student teachers in realistic and meaningful use of the English language based on their actual needs?; (c) How far do EFL student teachers acknowledge and use online authentic materials?; and (d) How do EFL student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic language materials relate to their language learning motivation?

The present study is limited to the Egyptian context, with specific reference to Assiut University College of Education (AUCOE) and second-year EFL student teachers as the main target and research group. It is also limited to investigating their English language

learning needs and the materials they have been using during the 2nd semester in 2014-2015.

1.2 Theoretical Background & Literature Review

Gilmore (2007) defines authenticity as 'the language produced by a real speaker/writer for a real audience, conveying a real message'. For Richards and Schmidt (2002), it indicates the degree to which materials have the natural speech or writing qualities; thus it is 'synonymous with genuineness, realness, truthfulness, validity, reliability , undisputed credibility, and legitimacy of materials or practices' (Tatsuki, 2006: p1). The word 'authentic' refers to anything that was originally produced for a non-classroom audience (Tennant, 2011).

More specifically, Nunan (1999) defines authentic materials as spoken or written language data produced in the course of genuine communication, and not specifically written for purposes of language teaching. They are 'samples that reflect a naturalness of form and an appropriateness of cultural and situational context that would be found in the language as used by native speakers' (Rogers & Medley, 1988: p468).

Accordingly, authentic materials (e.g. magazines, newspapers and songs) were not originally developed for pedagogical purposes; they contain more realistic and natural examples of language use than those found in textbooks, and hence, enable learners to interact with real language and content rather than form. Therefore, learners feel that they are learning the target language as it is used outside the classroom (Kilickaya, 2004).

According to McGrath (2002), eight criteria should be followed when selecting authentic texts: (a) relevance to syllabus & learners' needs; (b) intrinsic interest of topic; (c) cultural appropriateness; (d) linguistic demands; (e) cognitive demands; (f) logistical considerations; (g) quality; and (h) exploitability.

There are many classifications and examples of authentic materials in English language learning (ELL). Gebhard (1996), for example, identifies 4 main categories: (a) Authentic Listening/Viewing Materials (e.g. TV commercials, quiz shows, cartoons and news clips); (b) Authentic Visual Materials (e.g. slides, photographs, paintings and stamps); (c) Authentic Printed Materials (e.g. newspaper articles, movie ads, astrology columns); (d) Realia or real objects (e.g. coins, folded paper and puppets) (see also Oura, 2001)

Modern ELL approaches tend to attach more value to authentic materials than those deliberately created for classroom use. They tend to make ELL a functional enterprise rather than a purely linguistic endeavour (Richards, 2006; Savignon, 2006; Kramsch, 2008; Nicanor, 2013). Hence, it sounds reasonable to assume that the use of authentic materials in classrooms can fit into a constructivist approach called, Contextualized Teaching and Learning (CTL), a 'conception of teaching and learning that helps teachers relate subject matter content to real world situations' (Berns & Erickson, 2001: p2). Thus, CTL might help students to make connections between learned content and real-life contexts.

Some research was conducted on authentic language learning pedagogy that helps with effective second language learning (e.g. Petersen, 2008;

Pinsonneault, 2008; Power, 2010; Oura, 2011; Andrew, 2012). For example, Oura (2011) argues for a task-based ELL approach to be used for introducing authentic materials so as to link the classroom with the wider world. Also, Pinsonneault (2008) employed an authentic material method to examine whether authentic input would lead to acquisition of lexicon in Spanish; participants learned lexical chunks after being introduced to L2 via some authentic materials.

Petersen, Divitini & Chabert (2008) considered a socio-constructivist authentic language learning approach to mobile language learning. Their interactive learning design revealed mobile blogs as effective tools that facilitated interaction and created authentic opportunities for students to interact with native speakers. Also, Power (2010) employed 'social engagement' as well as 'service learning' as an authentic learning pedagogy vehicle in teacher education that combines both learning objectives and real-world practices. Andrew (2012) employed a similar approach (i.e. community placement) for mediating linguistic practice.

Many researchers highlighted benefits of using authentic materials, especially in language learning contexts (e.g. Brinton, 1991; Gebhard, 1996; Nunan, 1999; Berns & Erickson, 2001; Berardo, 2006; Gilmore, 2007), which range from simple modelling of the target language to increasing learners' motivation and establishing appropriate contexts for meaningful language learning and practice.

In particular, such materials can: (a) provide a natural model that encourages students to be better readers/ listeners (Nunan, 1999; Berns & Erickson,

2001), and create a comfortable, stress-free ELL environment (Gilmore, 2007); (b) reinforce direct relationship between classroom language and the outside world (Brinton, 1991); (c) affectively work as a means to overcome the cultural barrier to ELL (Bacon & Finnegan, 1990), and increase learners' motivation if they are interesting (Gilmore, 2007); (d) facilitate active learning, and lead to increased student engagement (Pierluigi, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs & Liu, 2011); (e) allow for dealing with different tasks; (f) work as a means to contextualise ELL (Gebhard, 1996; Berns & Erickson, 2001); (g) lead to the 'true production' that teachers usually aim at, especially when meaningful, authentic activities are repeated (Kapur, 2011); and (h) support a more creative approach to teaching and inform students about real world (Berardo, 2006).

Many studies investigated the process of creating an authentic ELL environment in the classroom (e.g. Hegelheimer & Tower, 2004; Jones, Squires & Hicks, 2008; Kraemer, Ahn, Hillman & Fei, 2009; Al-Shehri, 2011; Nikitina, 2011; Bahrani & Sim, 2012). For example, Bahrani & Sim (2012) aimed at discovering the effectiveness of exposure to news, cartoons, and films as types of authentic audiovisual programmes (which proved to be a great source of language input) on improving some low-level language learners' proficiency.

Jones, Squires & Hicks (2008) employed an interactive online learning environment for improving spoken language skills, combining natural language processing with 3D environments to create distributed authentic-situated spoken language learning. Purcell-

Gates, Degener, Jacobson, & Soler (2002) found out that using real-life materials and authentic activities in adult literacy classes impacts learners' literacy practices. Similarly, Chuo & Kung (2002) reported positive results using a variety of EFL/ESL websites as supplementary material with college students in Taiwan; Campbell (2004) described how web-logs and Flickr can enhance learning potential in EFL classes; and Lin (2004) compared the effects of using authentic materials, web-based authentic and non-authentic materials, on motivation and reading achievement.

There is increasing evidence that learning environments incorporating the Internet (i.e. any digital media) can facilitate 2nd and foreign-language acquisition (Blake, 2011; Pierluigi, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs & Liu, 2011). Moreover, using authentic materials allows students to experience foreign language-learning rewards; they might have an interest in it and become more willing to master its forms. Benefits of using authentic materials are also extended to teachers: they are likely to make students more motivated and goal-oriented. Further, using authentic materials can make curriculum stimulating for both teachers and students. Besides, English language teachers are continually searching for better ways of accessing authentic materials to improve their students' learning. Technology in general contributes to authenticity of learning by enabling the approximation of 'real life' situations and exposure to authentic cultural artefacts (Warschauer, 1996). An Internet search, for example, provides almost unlimited resources for profession-based or specific topics (e.g.

websites searching on a specific topic, making questions, and posting to students online).

As Web technologies have transformed communication around the world, it is natural to play a major role in authentic ELL (Hafiz, 2013). Internet tools have provided easy access to authentic materials from anywhere (Leloup & Ponteiro, 2000; Berardo, 2006), and thus could offer students with authentic learning experiences (Lombardi, 2007). The Web enables various forms of input (e.g. texts, images, and videos), and therefore, seems distinctively adapted to helping students to gain access to authentic language (Blake, 2001). Besides, it can successfully replace authentic printed materials, and thus makes the ESL classroom significantly livelier (Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė, 2010). Moreover, employing Web-based activities permits teachers to address ELL interactivity and engagement problems. Websites are purposely interactive and user-friendly, and are consequently more engaging. Thus, the Web constitutes a very useful tool for teaching vocabulary and cultural content (Pierluigi, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs & Liu, 2011).

Therefore, as one of most useful and updated resources for authentic materials, the Web has become an excellent means for ELL. It thus can be used in the classroom (e.g. online newspapers and magazines, etc.). YouTube, for example, has become an online store of language learning videos. Compared with costly printed materials, the Web is more interactive and visually stimulating. Practically, it is a modern-day reality used by most students and teachers, where there is easier access to endless amounts of many different types of materials (Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė, 2010).

Although many researchers (e.g. Berardo, 2006; Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė, 2010; Blake, 2011; Pierluigi, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs & Liu, 2011; Yücel, 2011) argue that anything can be used as authentic material, the Web alone, from a practical-economical standpoint, is currently regarded as the most useful resource; it provides large amounts of different text types, language styles, and interview videos not found in textbooks, and which would normally become very up-to-date. Further, this variety of online resources indicates the feasibility of finding something interesting and motivating to learners.

As an international language, English has become a prerequisite that everyone needs to master and learn. Learners who have motivation in language learning outperform other less-motivated learners (Brown, 2000; Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008). In this regard, learners' motivation for ELL and their attitudes towards it are the most important predictors of success in ELL (Wang, 2007; Melendy, 2008).

Language learning motivation refers to the attempt and desire to learn the language, and the positive attitudes towards learning it. It is thus a process that starts with a need, and leads to a behaviour that directs learners to achieve a goal (Gardner, 2006; Melendy, 2008). In social psychology, motivation has been viewed differently: while the behaviouristic approach viewed motivation simply as the anticipation of reward, the cognitive approach viewed it as more related to learners' decisions concerning the selection of the goals they tend to achieve or avoid, and subsequent efforts. However, the constructivist school focused more on social contexts and individuals' decisions. The three

schools of thought agree on the central idea that needs fulfilment is a rewarding process that demands choices, and must be interpreted within a social context (Brown, 2000). This means that in order to make learners motivated, they need some kind of reward or need fulfilment while interacting with other peers in the classroom . Further, using authentic materials would expose EFL student teachers to real language; this is very important in the pre-service teacher education programm- es. The social and functional role of language becomes more evident when such materials are employed appropriately as a means of both proper language learning and teacher training.

Incorporating authentic materials in teaching a foreign language provides - along with the linguistic advantages - the motivating power to learn and increase students' motivation. Some studies (e.g. Thanajaro, 2000; Otte, 2006) have confirmed that students' motivation and self-satisfaction increased after exposure to authentic aural texts.

Many studies dealt with authentic materials and how they relate to language learning motivation (e.g. Peacock, 1997; Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė 2010; Chen & Brown, 2012). Chen and Brown (2012) examined the impact that targeting an authentic audience within a task-based, computer-mediated environ- ment may have on L2 learner motivation toward ELL writing. In the same vein, Peacock (1997) investigated whether authentic materials would increase the classroom motivation of learners; and Vaičiūnienė and Užpalienė (2010) explored ESP students' attitude towards different authentic materials on their motivation to

identify advantages and disadvantages of using these authentic resources for learning purposes.

Further, some studies (e.g. Morton, 1999; Dumitrescu, 2000; Porcaro, 2001; Baghban, 2011; Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė, 2010) dealt with integrating and using authentic materials within the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). These included: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (e.g. Morton, 1999); English for Science and Technology (EST) (e.g. Porcaro, 2001); and English for Pharmacy Instruction (EPI) (e.g. Filice & Sturino, 2002).

Many studies employed Internet tools for authentic ELL purposes (e.g. LeLoup & Ponterio, 2000; Mishan & Strunz, 2003; Pierluigi, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs & Liu, 2011; Yücel, 2011). For example, Pierluigi, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs and Liu (2011) investigated how using online technologies offers opportunities to access authentic material that is engaging, appropriate, and affordable. In Yücel's (2011) study, interviewed pre-service teachers emphasised the crucial role the Internet plays in education and authentic ELL viewing it as a useful resource that provides many opportunities (e.g. authentic study samples reflecting the target culture); thus, it fosters contemporary approaches, such as individualised self-directed language learning.

Lack of motivation can cause students to lose attention in lectures, and hence fail to live up to the targeted university standards. Authentic materials might increase learners' motivation because they are inherently more interesting and stimulating than artificial ones (Hyland, 2003; Wang, 2004; Usun & Komur, 2009), bringing learners closer to the target language and culture (Chapple & Curtis, 2000).

Several studies on ELL motivation have distinguished between two main types of motivation, namely integrative and instrumental (e.g. Gardner, 2001; Salvin, 2003; Liu, 2007; Wang, 2007; Feng & Chen, 2009; Babae, 2012). A learner is integratively motivated if s/he learns a language to know more about the culture and values of the target language group, to communicate with native speakers, or to live in the target language country. According to Finegan (1999), integrative motivation underlies a successful acquisition of the target foreign language and a native-like pronunciation. In contrast, instrumental motivation is related to direct benefit; more specifically, it is distinguished with the desire to obtain a practical/concrete reward from studying the target foreign language (Dornyei, 2001; Salvin, 2003; Wang, 2008). Studying motivation is necessary for ELL researchers; without ample motivation, foreign language learners cannot achieve long-term goals. Good teaching and courses alone might not guarantee success as learners still need a degree of motivation to learn a language and communicate successfully (Lamb, 2007; Ebata, 2008; Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008).

1.3 Research Problem & Objectives

Since they do not always provide a realistic format of how language is used, traditional textbooks alone are no longer sufficient as ELL resources. Thus, learners should be directed to real authentic language as spoken today (Kramsch, 2008; Nicanor, 2013). When English is taught as a foreign language, teachers always modify it to sound more comprehensible to learners; they employ non-authentic texts which are artificial, unvaried, and too focused on certain aspects to teach.

This artificial nature of the language and structures used in classrooms make language different from reality, especially in terms of how it is really used by native speakers (Berardo, 2006).

From a modern ELL approach, language becomes realistic when attached to current real-life events, problems, and issues, which makes it easy to acquire. According to Brown (2002: p28), using authentic language requires from teachers designing the tasks based on students' abilities, interests and experiences. The less authentic the materials used in class are, the less prepared the learners will be for the real world (McGrath, 2002). Thus, deeper authentic learning occurs in social, active, contextual and engaging contexts (Carmean & Haefner, 2002). Such learning maximises students' internalisation of knowledge and skills, and results in a meaningful understanding of material and content.

Content analysis of the English courses (e.g. Conversation & Speaking, Discourse Analysis, Reading and Writing) studied by EFL student teachers at AUCOE, triangulated with open interviews conducted with some of those student teachers, revealed that they study a de-contextualised language that does not reflect authentic English as used by native speakers. Many of the forms, structures, and uses they encounter are too old-fashioned. Moreover, these courses tend to be more theoretical (i.e. focusing on knowledge about language) and less practical (i.e. not focusing on pragmatic language use). Thus, textbooks include merely texts to be fully memorised by learners, and hardly include any authentic materials that expose learners to the actual target language.

In Egypt, as a non-English speaking community, opportunities to practise English outside the classroom are rare. This has influenced ELL at public schools, and even language teacher education at academic institutions. In their pre-service education programmes, prospective English language teachers (i.e. EFL student teachers) at AUCOE need to state clearly their particular language learning needs based on which online authentic language materials can be identified. This way, their English courses would connect with real English, which might in turn increase language learning motivation. It is assumed that the new literacy practices and language skills that EFL student teachers develop within their pre-service education programme can be easily transferred to future classroom situations and language practices at schools (Abdallah, 2011). Therefore, it is essential to identify the current language learning needs of EFL student teachers and how they might employ online authentic language materials to meet these particular needs, to subsequently improve both their language learning and future teaching practices.

Moreover, these materials should be created from learners' views since students are the ones who will eventually benefit most from them. Unfortunately, as Pietila (2004) notes, previous studies did not take learners' views into account, and thus ignored the most fundamental component (i.e. personal opinions) required when dealing with supporting learning tools/materials.

Moreover, reviewed literature (see above) includes a few related studies carried out among Arab students to investigate using online authentic materials,

especially within language-learning situations. Further, no studies were particularly employed for investigating any correlation that might exist between student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic materials on one hand, and their ELL motivation level on the other. Thus, this rarity of previous studies tackling this important topic, especially as far as the Egyptian context is concerned, acts as a strong motive to conduct the current research study.

In a nutshell, there is a persistent need to identify realistic language learning needs required for EFL student teachers based on which online authentic language materials (e.g. appropriate search engines and websites) can be suggested. Accordingly, it is important to explore EFL student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic language materials based on their particular language learning needs, and how this relates to their language learning motivation as a fundamental factor that significantly influence and direct the language-learning process.

Therefore, this research study aims at accomplishing the following objectives: (a) Identifying the particular language learning needs of EFL student teachers at AUCOE; (b) Determining the online authentic language materials useful for EFL student teachers in the light of those needs; (c) investigating EFL student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic materials; and (d) exploring the relationship between EFL student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic language materials and their language learning motivation.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Design of the Study

To accomplish research objectives, a mixed-method research design (involving both quantitative and qualitative methods) was employed for data collection and analysis to provide both quantitative results and contextual understanding of the investigated phenomenon. According to this mixed-method approach, the research problem and objectives act as the starting point, which determine the choice between various quantitative and qualitative methods to accomplish specific research goals (Creswell, 2003; Tashakorri & Teddlie, 2003).

3.2 Data Collection

Some quantitative and qualitative research tools were designed and administered: These are (a) a semi-structured interview (see Appendix A) for identifying the particular language learning needs of EFL student teachers (a quantitative tool); (b) a list of EFL student teachers' language learning needs (see Table 1) that was obtained through qualitative analysis of some website content (a qualitative tool); and two quantitative tools: (c) Authentic Language Materials Questionnaire (see Appendix C); and (d) Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire (see Appendix D).

3.3 Research Group

To evaluate reliability of tools of the study, a group of 20 second-year EFL student teachers at AUCE were randomly selected to participate in the pilot study. Then, a group of 50 second-year EFL student teachers at AUCE were randomly assigned to participate in the main study.

3.4 Research Procedures

To answer the research questions, some procedures were followed. They are logically stated below under each corresponding research question.

To answer the first research question, '*What are the actual language-learning needs of EFL student teachers at AUCOE?*', semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 EFL student teachers; before implementation, the designed interview protocol (Appendix A) was submitted to some jury members specialised in TESOL (n=10) to check validity and consistency with research purposes. Based on jury's suggestions, some amendments were made. Then, the interviews were piloted on 25 EFL student teachers. Based on a test-retest procedure, the resulting reliability value was 0.6. After that, a sample of 2nd-year EFL student teachers (n=20) was randomly selected for the interview. Then, data was recorded and analysed with the assistance of qualitative Word-processing. Based on this analysis, a list of EFL student teachers' language learning needs was compiled (see Table 1 below).

As for the second question, '*Which online authentic language materials are to be used for involving EFL student teachers in realistic and meaningful use of the English language based on their actual needs?*', the needs list was consulted for guidance during the process of identifying the appropriate online authentic materials. This was followed by a review and screening of some Web-based resources to identify those relevant websites, which included any authentic materials that

should meet EFL student teachers' language-learning needs. Again, during this stage, reference was made to the already-compiled needs list as the main guideline. Then, a list including some online resources was compiled, combined with a detailed explanation of why they might be useful and relevant, and for which purposes they might be used, and why. The composed list was divided into 3 main sections: (a) main categories of relevant websites; (b) specific details of websites; (c) the rationale underlying importance and usefulness of those websites under each category (see Appendix B).

Concerning the third question, *'How far do EFL student teachers acknowledge and use online authentic materials?'*, literature review on 'online authentic language materials' was made (e.g. Petersen, Divitini & Chabert, 2008; Pinsonneault, 2008; Power, 2010; Oura, 2011; Andrew, 2012) to build up the questionnaire. This was followed by designing the Online Authentic Materials Awareness and Use Questionnaire to be conducted with 50 EFL student teachers (see Appendix C). The draft questionnaire was submitted to some jury members specialised in TESOL (n=10) to check validity and convenience with the research purposes; any necessary modifications were made based on jury's suggestions. Then, the questionnaire was piloted with 20 EFL student teachers to check and assess its reliability. Based on a test-retest procedure, the resulting reliability value was 0.6. To administer the final questionnaire to target participants, a representative sample of 2nd-year EFL student teachers (n=50) was randomly selected. Following

administration, a code book to guide SPSS statistical analysis was created; the code for negative statements was reversed while inserting codes and values on SPSS (i.e. 1= Strongly Agree to 5= Strongly Disagree) to obtain accurate and valid data. Then, data was recorded, and analysed with the assistance of SPSS.

Regarding the fourth question, 'How far do EFL student teachers' awareness and use of online authentic language materials relate to their language learning motivation?', first, a review of literature was made on foreign language-learning motivation (e.g. Gardner, 1985; Tamimi & Shuib, 2009; Chalak & Kassaian, 2010) in order to construct the questionnaire. Then, a Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire was designed, and then administered to EFL student teachers (see Appendix D). While constructing the questionnaire, literature was reviewed for some relevant questionnaires (e.g. Gardner, 1985; Hyland, 2003; Wang, 2004; Lamb, 2007; Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008; Tamimi & Shuib, 2009; Usun & Komur, 2009; Chalak & Kassaian, 2010). A Five-Point Likert Scale ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree' was used to indicate student teachers' preferences. The questionnaire was submitted to jury members to judge the validity of statements and their appropriateness to research purposes. Accordingly, suggested modifications were made, and the final version of the questionnaire included 35 statements.

After piloting it to a random group of second-year EFL student teachers (n=20) at AUCOE, the final questionnaire (see Appendix D) was submitted to 15

TESOL jury members to check validity and convenience with the research purposes. Based on a test-retest procedure, the resulting reliability value was 0.7. To test the coherence and internal reliability of all items in both questionnaires, the Cronbach Alpha was used. For the AUTH (Authentic materials) variables, the Cronbach Alpha was 0.91, which counts as excellent, showing that the rating scale used was quite coherent. For the MOT (Motivation) variables, the Cronbach Alpha was 0.85, which was regarded as an excellent score, again showing a strong scale.

Then, a sample of 2nd-year EFL student teachers (n=50) was selected for questionnaire administration. Data was recorded, and then quantitatively analysed with SPSS. After that, the students' scores on the Online Authentic Materials Awareness and Use Questionnaire were compared with their scores in the Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire to explore the relationship between student teachers' awareness and use of authentic materials and their foreign language learning motivation level. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was employed to identify correlation between AUTH and MOT variables.

4. Results

The answer of the 1st research question, a list of needs was compiled (see Table 1 below). It was obtained based on analysis of the semi-structured interview data obtained from 20 participants. The obtained list consists of 43 skills organised under 5 main categories (i.e. themes).

Table 1: List of EFL Student Teachers' Realistic Language Learning Needs

Dimensions	Particular Needs
1. Linguistic Communication Needs	1.1 Communicating effectively in English with others around;
	1.2 Having more chances to express themselves in English in relaxing situations;
	1.3 Getting more opportunities to interact with native speakers online;
	1.4 Employing effective teacher-student and student-teacher communication strategies;
	1.5 Exchanging linguistic content (e.g. knowledge and information) online to improve language learning;
	1.6 Recognising linguistic demands of various situations.
2. Phonological Needs	2.1 Speaking English fluently and appropriately;
	2.2 Pronouncing English correctly and accurately;
	2.3 Using various language patterns, utterances and structures easily, smoothly and correctly;
	2.4 Having more space for listening and language practice;
	2.5 Doing more training in listening to identify correct pronunciation of phonemes, syllables, morphemes and to understand connected speech;
	2.6 Integrating the main 4 language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing).
3. Academic Study & Learning Needs	3.1 Filling in the existing gap between academic study at university and realistic teaching/learning situations at schools;
	3.2 Studying more direct pragmatic-practical courses (e.g. Conversation, Translation, Phonetics, and Grammar) than literature (e.g. Novel and Drama).
	3.3 Creating a more effective and positive link between theory and practice;
	3.4 Reviewing a wide range of tests guidelines (e.g. model questions and answers) to be trained on final exams in some courses;
	3.5 Getting following-up and immediate feedback to help them with improving their writing;
	3.6 Practising individualised instruction and personal support so as to resolve individual differences and meet personal language learning needs;
	3.7 Doing more drilling and elaboration on specific components, types and genres of writing (e.g. comparing and contrasting, cause and effect, argumentative and expository writing);
	3.8 Hearing only one accent/dialect (either British or American English) to be used by tutors/lecturers;
	3.9 Being exposed to an orientation before joining the English section;
	3.10 Developing critical thinking strategies, especially because they do not have chance to discuss topics with each other;
	3.11 Experiencing more focus by tutors on practical skills than on academic-theoretical knowledge;
	3.12 Having flexible teachers/tutors who selectively focus on quality rather than quantity; they should not teach every single word in the textbook;
	3.13 Getting more realistic examples/samples, especially while learning old literature;
	3.14 Having clear standards to guide course delivery; in particular, tutors

Dimensions	Particular Needs
	<p>should abide more by course specifications;</p> <p>3.15 Being exposed to new teaching methods/techniques for delivering some difficult literary courses, which are usually hard and dry by nature;</p> <p>3.16 Integrating all courses together through creating a thematic connection that should link them with each other;</p> <p>3.17 Receiving continuous revision and new content that build on prior linguistic knowledge;</p> <p>3.18 Enjoying the language learning process and having more fun.</p>
4. Contemporary Career and Recruitment Needs	<p>4.1 Acting as good and successful models to their prospective students;</p> <p>4.2 Meeting current job market requirements;</p> <p>4.3 Mastering the required professional teaching skills;</p> <p>4.4 Developing a strong knowledge base that involves academic, educational, cultural and professional components;</p> <p>4.5 Developing current and contemporary functional skills (e.g. time management, effective presentation, research, eclectic reading, and planning skills).</p>
5. ICT Literacies & Authentic Language Learning Needs	<p>5.1 Learning English effectively to cope with new advancements in technology which have recently imposed great burdens on language teachers and learners;</p> <p>5.2 Employing different online facilities (e.g. YouTube, Google, and Wikis) as spaces for language learning and practice;</p> <p>5.3 Getting useful authentic materials online (e.g. online conversations, TV programmes, and online tutorials or lectures) that should meet some of their particular realistic needs;</p> <p>5.4 Using and employing authentic materials that can compensate for any shortage in practice and allow for more opportunities for real interaction outside the classroom, and thus increase language learning motivation;</p> <p>5.5 Having updated materials that should be conveniently displayed and presented instead of the old-fashioned - and sometimes obsolete - materials usually delivered every year;</p> <p>5.6 Dealing with effective teaching/learning equipments and tools;</p> <p>5.7 Overcoming the hindrances that obstruct authentic materials use (e.g. cultural factors and individual differences);</p> <p>5.8 Understanding the reciprocal relationship between languages and societies.</p>

Thus, the 5 main categories represented in the list stand for the major underlying aspects of the actual language learning needs that EFL student teachers require. Also, the list acted as the main guideline or resource that was referred to while compiling the subsequent list of the 'Online Authentic Language Materials' needed by EFL student teachers.

As for the 2nd question, a review of a big number of online resources (approximately 90 documents) guided

by the previous list of needs, resulted in an online authentic language materials list (see Appendix B below). What was particular about this list was that included - along with the online resources - a rationale that explained why each category and resource was important for the target learners as far as authentic language learning was concerned.

As for the 3rd research question, descriptive statistics on SPSS were employed (see Appendix C). Except for 8 items only, the highest two responses on the positively-stated items (i.e. Strongly Agree and Agree), and subsequently the highest ones on the negatively-stated items (i.e. Strongly Disagree and Disagree), occupied more than 50% of total responses on all the 44 items (35 positive + 9 negative items). Moreover, these responses occupied more than 60% on 33 items (75% of the whole questionnaire). Also, they occupied 72% on 23 items (around 52%) of the whole questionnaire.

For some items (n=11), the highest response alone (Strongly Agree for positive items, and Strongly Disagree for negative ones) occupied between 42% and 50% of total responses. What was common among these items is that they highlighted the main idea that EFL student teachers' use of online authentic materials would make a difference in their language learning. For example, it would make them more active, motivated, and involved.

On the other hand, the percent of the lowest two responses on the positively-stated items (i.e. Strongly

Disagree and Disagree), and subsequently the lowest ones on the negatively-stated items (i.e. Strongly Agree and Agree), never exceeded 20% on most items (n = 29, which is 65% of total responses). The only item that was noticeably exceptional in this regard is item number 5 (I can't usually decide precisely on which online authentic materials are beneficial, and which are not), and which exceeded 62% of total responses. This indicates that the target student teachers needed some guidance and direction into choosing/selecting which online authentic materials that could be used while language learning.

The percentages and frequencies above indicated a high degree of awareness and use of online authentic materials by EFL student teachers. In particular, EFL student teachers seemed to be aware of the importance of these materials in their language learning contexts, and how they would make a difference compared with traditional paper-based materials adapted for classroom uses. It was evident that they were using the Internet regularly for authentic language learning purposes because they believed that it would expose them to updated resources (e.g. useful websites) that could facilitate for them authentic language learning.

Therefore, the demand for using more authentic materials in foreign language learning is getting stronger as language learners should be given opportunities to learn the language the way it is

actually used in the real world. Authenticity is considered to be significant since it offers learners a sense of real world (see also McGrath, 2002).

Data also reflects participants' main reasons for using online authentic materials, which can be represented in: (a) easy access to the Internet; (b) intrinsic language-learning motivation; (c) accessing diverse online services;(d) developing their communication, thinking, and self-expression skills; (e)accessing modern and updated English language; and (f) getting some useful materials/objects (e.g. pictures and images from Google) that can be employed for many language learning purposes.

As for the 4th research question on the relationship between 'awareness and use of online authentic materials' and 'language learning motivation', the researchers employed Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (see Table 2 below)

Table 2: Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

Correlations			
		AuthTotal	MOT-Total
AuthTotal	Pearson Correlation	1	.479**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	50	50
MOT-Total	Pearson Correlation	.479**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	50	50
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Thus, the statistical processing of data indicates a positive, and statistically significant correlation ($r=$

0.479, $p < 0.01$) between the two variables. This means that the more EFL student teachers are aware of (and use) online authentic materials in their academic study, the more likely that their language learning motivation increases. Conversely, the less EFL student teachers are aware of (and use) online authentic materials, the less is the level or degree of their language learning motivation. Further, approximately 23% of the variation in the variable 'Language Learning Motivation' among individuals is explained by the variable 'Online Authentic Materials Awareness and Use': 'r' is a symmetric measure, and thus one of the two variables can be an independent (i.e. explanatory) factor, while the other becomes the dependent (i.e. to-be-explained) factor.

This finding is contradictory to other researchers' findings; for example, Kelsen (2009) reported that students rated the use of YouTube as slightly less favourable with regard to being motivating within and outside the classroom. Similarly, some scholars did not see the value of using authentic materials, such as Millar (2005) and Kilickay (2004) who stated that learners - especially lower-level students - may experience frustration and become de-motivated when confronted with an authentic text. However, Guariento and Morley (2001) declared that such difficulties can be overcome. However, others suggested that using authentic materials is one way to effectively increase students' motivation to learn English in general. According to Hyland (2003), authenticity in a foreign

language classroom will increase learner motivation and thus improve the learning results as learners who work with authentic materials have an interest in the language based on what they know it can do for them in the future.

Dumitrescu (2000), Nonaka (2001) and Martines (2002) also confirmed that authentic materials not only provide learners with a wide range of useful information, but also can play part in enhancing learners' motivation, adding more stimulation to language learning. Seeking an effective way to teach mixed-level language classes, Shirai (2013) reached similar results concerning the significant and positive effect of authentic materials on raising learners' motivation. In line with this, Zengin (2007) and Mayora (2006) stressed that using technology, especially Internet, authentic materials and videos, can be one of the good and effective solutions to overcome students' motivational problems in the classroom. Otte (2006) and Thanajaro (2000) have confirmed that students' motivation and self satisfaction increased after exposure to authentic aural text.

5. Discussion

The obtained list of language learning needs (see Table 1) seems comprehensive and realistic. It is a contextualised list that would definitely help with composing a subsequent list of those specific online authentic language materials. The list presents the main categories of those needs, of which the 'ICT and authentic language needs' within student teachers'

language learning context might be the most important ones. More specifically, they highlight the bad need for accessing authentic language materials from specific websites, and how this can be employed usefully and efficiently.

Reviewing literature, a stress was noticed on the importance of including learners' language learning needs since those learners are the ones whose views should be extremely important when planning for language learning methods and materials (e.g. Pietila, 2009). However, earlier studies did not consider individual learners' opinions, and hence lacked the most essential component that should drastically influence the decision-making process on the specific learning materials to use. Moreover, ESL students are not taught based on their own needs, but based on what ESL instructors are able to teach (Su, 2008). This highlights the importance of the needs list reached by the study for foreign language teachers who are willing to offer the materials for their students.

To identify which online authentic materials to use, the study reached a list of useful resources/materials which can be easily accessible online. The variety of categories composing the list, along with the big number of websites reached (see Appendix B), indicate the great potential of the Web as a mine of resources for authentic language learning. For example, there were many online encyclopaedia and dictionary websites,

which would help EFL student teachers with meaningful learning. Similarly, YouTube – as the number-one video-sharing website all over the world – opens many horizons for authentic language learning and practice. Results imply that EFL instructors should recognize their learners' interests in using a variety of authentic materials relevant to their needs so as to make learning more interesting, effective and productive. Moreover, students should have the right to participate in planning and selecting the materials that work to make the learning process easier provided that they know the best way to learn (Miller, 2003; Pietila, 2009).

For the 3rd question on how far EFL student teachers acknowledge and use online authentic materials in the course of their academic language study, participants' responses mostly indicate that using online authentic materials has become an indispensable part of their everyday language-related practices (e.g. watching authentic language videos on YouTube and listening to live streaming on some news websites/channels). This high level of acknowledging and using online authentic materials marks as a rationale for integrating them into the pre-service language teacher education programme in Egypt. Further, it is consistent with arguments made in the literature review section on the necessity of including modern electronic devices through which learners can independently access relevant and useful learning resources.

For the 4th question, there was a positive relationship between 'awareness and use of online authentic materials' and 'language learning motivation. This finding was consistent with other researchers' study results (e.g. Peacock, 1997; Thanajaro, 2000; Hyland, 2003; Otte, 2006; Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė 2010; Chen & Brown, 2012) who reported that using authentic materials is one way to effectively increase students' motivation in learning English, and thus improve the learning results. On the other hand, this result contradicts those of other researchers (e.g. McNeil, 1994; Kilickaya, 2004; and Miller, 2005) who reported that language in the authentic texts might be too difficult for learners and could decrease their motivation for language learning.

6. Conclusion

Based on reached results, some conclusions in the form of 'aspects of benefit' were reached. First of all, there is a bad need to encourage and promote a Contextualized Teaching and Learning (CTL) pedagogy/approach that utilises online authentic language materials for effective teaching and learning. This also necessitates adapting instruction to meet learners' needs and motivation in order to become successful and fluent speakers since students' motivation to language learning has been found to be a leading predictor of success in ELL.

Second, it is very important to adduce the opinions and thoughts of EFL student teachers about their knowledge and use of online authentic materials since

they are the ones who are learning. Besides, it is necessary to provide foreign language teachers with important information about learners' needs so that they can design and deliver their instruction accordingly.

Fourth, it is necessary to direct the attention of curriculum developers, intervention specialists, and teachers to the impact of online authentic materials on learners' motivation in foreign language learning. Similarly, it is vital to direct teachers' and learners' attention to the importance of using online authentic materials as they support learners' language learning needs by providing them with up-to-date knowledge, and exposing them to the world of authentic target language; this would bring the real world into the classroom, which will eventually enliven the class (Dumitrescu, 2000; Martinez, 2002; Leloup & Ponterio, 2000).

Finally, it has become necessary and urgent to provide EFL learners with a list of online authentic materials that would promote effective language learning and motivate them by offering more stimulation in ELL.

Also, further research is needed to experiment with the reached list of online authentic language learning materials, and how they can improve students' language skills and practices at different educational stages. Besides, more research is needed on increasing learners' motivation by contextualising the language learning process to make it sound real and relevant, and

how to train EFL student teachers and language learners on obtaining authentic materials and using them for independent language study.

References

- Abdallah, M. M. S. (2011). Web-based new literacies and EFL curriculum design in teacher education: A design study for expanding EFL student teachers' language-related literacy practices in an Egyptian pre-service teacher education programme. PhD Thesis. Graduate School of Education, College of Social Sciences and International Studies, University of Exeter, UK.
- Al-Shehri, S. (2011). Context in our pockets: Mobile phones and social networking as tools of contextualising language learning. A paper presented at the 10th World Conference on Mobile and Contextual Learning, Beijing, China
- Andrew, M. (2012). Authentic cultural and linguistic learning through practicum in a nursing home. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language* 16(1).
- Bacon, S.M. & Finnemann, M.D. (1990). A study of the attitudes, motives, and strategies of university foreign language students and their disposition to authentic oral and written input. *The Modern Language Journal* 74, 459-73.
- Baghban, Z. (2011). A review of the effectiveness of using authentic materials in ESP course. *English for Specific Purposes World* 10(31).
- Babae, N (2012). Motivation in learning English as a second language. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education* 4(1).
- Bahrani, T & Sim, TS (2012). Audiovisual news, cartoons, and films as sources of authentic language input and language proficiency enhancement. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology (TOJET)* 2(4), 56-64.
- Berardo, SA (2006). The use of authentic materials in the teaching of reading. *The Reading Matrix* 6(2), 60-69.

- Berns, R & Erickson, P (2001). Contextual teaching and learning: Preparing students for the new economy. The Highlight Zone: Research@Work. Ohio State University, National Dissemination Centre for Career and Technical Education (Issue no. 5), Columbus, Ohio
- Blake, R (2001). What language professionals need to know about technology. *ADFL Bulletin* 32(3), 93-99.
- Blake, R. (2011). Current trends in online language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 31, 19-35.
- Brinton, DM (1991). The use of media in language teaching. In: M. Celce-Murcia (ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign Language*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Brown, HD (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall
- Brown, D (2002). *Language assessment, principles and classroom practices*. New York: Pearson Education.
- Capple, L. & Curtis, A. (2000). Content-based instruction in Hong Kong, Student responses to film. *System*, 28, 419-433.
- Campbell, A.P. (2004). Using the journal for authentic communication in EFL classes. *The internet TESL Journal*, 10(9). (Retrieved: June 18, 2007), from: <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Campbell-Livejournal/>
- Carmean, C. & Haefner, J. (2002). Mind over matter: Transforming course management systems into effective learning environments. *EDUCAUSE Review* 37(6), 27-37.
- Chalak, Z. & Kassaian, Z (2010). Motivation and attitudes of Iranian undergraduates EFL students towards learning English. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 10(2), 37-56.
- Chen, H. (2011). Developing and evaluating SynctoLearn, a fully automatic video and transcript synchronization tool for EFL learners. *Computer Assisted Language Learning* 24(2), 117-30
- Chen, J.C. & Brown, K.L. (2012). The effects of authentic audience on English as a second language (ESL) writers: A task-

- based, computer-mediated approach. *Computer Assisted Language Learning* 25(5), 435-54.
- Chuo, S & Kung, T (2002). Students' perceptions of English learning through ESL/EFL Websites. *TESL-EL*, 6(1).
- Creswell, J (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Sage, Thousand Oaks.
- Dörnyei, Z (2001). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow, UK: Longman
- Dumitrescu, V (2000). Authentic materials: Selection and implementation in exercise language training. *Forum* 38(2).
- Ebata, M (2008). Motivation factors in language learning. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 14(4). (Retrieved 15 October, 2009), from: <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Ebata-MotivationFactors.html>
- Feng, R. & Chen, H. (2009). An analysis on the importance of motivation and strategy in postgraduates English acquisition. *English Language Teaching*, 2(3), 93-97.
- Filice, S.L. & Sturino, D. (2002). Integrating authentic materials and language skills in English for pharmacy instruction. *Pharmacy Education* 2(2), 59-62.
- Finegan, E. (1999). *Language: its structure and use* (3rd ed). Harcourt Brace.
- Gardner, RC (1985). *Social Psychology and Language Learning: The Role of Attitude and Motivation*. London: Edward Arnold
- Gardner, RC (2006). The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: A research paradigm. *EUROSLA Year book* 6, 237-60.
- Gebhard, J.G. (1996). *Teaching English as a foreign language: A teacher self-development and methodology guide*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press
- Guilloteaux, M.J. & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(1), 55-77.

- Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language Teaching* 40, 97-118.
- Gilmore, A. (2011). "I Prefer Not Text": Developing Japanese learners' communicative competence with authentic materials. *Language Learning* 61(3), 786-819
- Guariento, W. & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal*, 55 (4), 347-53
- Hart, P. (2006). How should colleges prepare students to succeed in today's global economy? [Online]. (Retrieved: 10 Nov, 2013), from: <http://www.aacu.org/leap/documents/Re8097abcombined.pdf>
- Hafiz, K. (2013). An investigation into CALL in English language teaching through language laboratory. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)* 6(6), 8-14.
- Hegelheimer, V. & Tower, D. (2004). Using CALL in the classroom: Analyzing student interactions in an authentic classroom. *System* 32(2), 185-205
- Hillyard, L., Reppen, R. & Vasquez, C. (2007). Bringing the outside world into an intensive English programme. *ELT Journal* 61(2), 126-34
- Huang, J., Tindall, E. & Nisbet, D. (2011). Authentic activities and materials for adult ESL learners. *Journal of Adult Education* 40(1), 1-10
- Hwang, C.C. (2005). Effective EFL education through popular authentic materials. *Asian EFL Journal*, 7(1), 1-10.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jones, J., Squires, T. & Hicks, J. (2008). Combining speech recognition/natural language processing with 3D online learning environments to create distributed authentic and situated spoken language learning. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems* 36(4), 375-92
- Kapur, K. (2011). ELT in primary school. In: *IATEFL Voices: The Bi-monthly Newsletter of the International Association of*

- Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL). March-April 2011, Issue 219.
- Kelsen, B. (2009). Teaching EFL to the i Generation: A survey of using YouTube as supplementary material with college EFL students in Taiwan. *CALL-EJ Online* 10(2), February, 2009.
- Kilickaya, F. (2004). Authentic materials and cultural content in EFL classrooms. *The Internet ELT Journal*, 10(7).
- Kraemer, A., Ahn, S., Hillman, S. & Fei, F. (2009). Innovative learning modules for language in context: MIMEA. *CALICO Journal* 27(1), 187-204
- Kramsch, C. (2008). Applied linguistic theory and second/foreign language education. In: V. Deussen-Scholl, & N. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 3-16). New York: Springer.
- Lamb, M (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(4), 757-80.
- Leloup, J.W. & Ponteiro, R. (2000). Enhancing authentic language learning experiences through Internet technology. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED442277
- Lin, Y.F. (2004). The effects of authentic materials on motivation and reading achievement of EFL learners in Taiwan. Digital Dissertation Consortium. The University of Hong Kong Libraries.
- Liu, M. (2007). Chinese students' motivation to learn English at the tertiary level. *Asian EFL Journal*, 9(1), 126-146.
- Lombardi, M. (2007). Authentic learning for the 21st century: An overview. ELI Report No. 1. Boulder, CO: EDUCAUSE Learning Initiative.
- Martinez, A.G. (2002). Authentic materials: An overview. Free resources for teachers and students of English. *Karen's Linguistics Issues*, 1-7.
- Mayora, C. (2006). Integrating multimedia technology in a high school EFL programs. *Lish Teaching Forum*, April.
- McGrath, I. (2002). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

- McNeill, A. (1994). What Makes Authentic Materials Different? The Case of English Language Materials for Educational Television. Papers presented at the Annual International Language in Education Conference, Hong Kong.
- Melendy, G.A. (2008). Motivating writers: The power of choice. *Asian EFL Journal* 10(3), 187-98.
- Miller, L. (2003). Developing listening skills with authentic materials. *ESL Magazine*, 6 (2), 16-18.
- Miller, M. (2005). Improving aural comprehension skills in EFL, using authentic materials: An experiment with university students in Nigata, Japan. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Surrey, Australia.
- Mishan, F. & Strunz, B. (2003). An application of XML to the creation of an interactive resource for authentic language learning tasks. *ReCALL* 15(2), 237-50.
- Morton, R. (1999). Abstracts as authentic material for EAP classes. *ELT Journal* 53(3): 177-82.
- Nicanor, G. (2013). Ideological constructions in column titles by two age groups in the Philippines: Implications in language teaching and learning. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning* 2(5), 105-16
- Nikitina, L. (2011). Creating an authentic learning environment in the foreign language classroom. *International Journal of Instruction* 4(1), 33-46
- Nonaka, T. (2001). The importance of authentic language of SLA. Retrieved, 20 May, 2009. From: http://members.aol.com/mr_nonaka/index.htm
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle
- Otte, J. (2006). Real language to real people: A descriptive and exploratory case study of the outcomes of aural authentic texts on the listening comprehension of adult ESL students enrolled in an advanced ESL listening course. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 2188. (UMI No, 3212080).

- Oura, G.K. (2001). Authentic task-based materials: Bringing the real world into the classroom. *Sophia Junior College Faculty Bulletin* 21, 65-84.
- Peacock, M. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. *ELT Journal* 51(2), 144-56.
- Petersen, S.A., Divitini, M. & Chabert, G. (2008). Identity, sense of community and connectedness in a community of mobile language learners. *ReCALL* 20, 361-379.
- Pierluigi, E, Gopalakrishnan, S, Hobbs, S & Liu, H (2011). Enhancing student engagement through online authentic materials. *International Association for Language Learning Technology (IALLT)* 42(2). (Retrieved: 2 Nov., 2013). From: <http://www.iallt.org/>
- Pietila, K. (2009). Bringing real life English into foreign language classrooms: Language learners' views on the use of authentic and artificial materials in the English language learning classrooms. MA Thesis, University of Jyvaskyla.
- Pinsonneault, B. (2008). Authentic input in early second language learning. MA Thesis. Graduate School of the University of Massachusetts Amherst.
- Porcaro, J.W. (2001). Integrating authentic material and language skills in English for science and technology instruction. *Science and Technology Section of the Economist* 39(2), 30-33.
- Power, A. (2010). Community engagement as authentic learning with reflection. *Issues in Educational Research* 20(1), 57-63.
- Purcell-Gates, V., Degener, S.C., Jacobson, E. & Soler, M. (2002). Impact of authentic adult literacy instruction on adult literacy practices. *Reading Research Quarterly* 37, 70-92.
- Richards, J. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today*. New York: Cambridge University Press
- Richards, J.C. & Schmidt, R (2002). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics* (3rd ed.), London: Longman

- Rogers, C. & Medley, F. (1988). Language with a purpose: Using authentic materials in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* 21, 467-78.
- Salvin, R. (2003). *Educational psychology: Theory and practice* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Savignon, S. (2006). Communicative language teaching for the twenty-first century. In: M. Cerce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 13-28). Singapore: Heinle & Heinle.
- Shirai, A. (2013). Authentic or artificial materials: The effects of material types on L2 motivation. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics* 36(4).
- Su, S. (2008). Attitudes of students and instructors toward authentic materials in selected adult TESL programs. *DAI-A* 69|02, Aug, no, 3297159
- Tamimi, A. & Shuib, M. (2009). Motivation and attitudes towards learning English: A study of petroleum engineering undergraduates at Hadhramout University of Sciences and Technology. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 9(2), 29-55.
- Tashakkori, A, & Teddlie, C (eds.) (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in the social and behavioural sciences*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Tatsuki, D. (2006). What is authenticity? *The language teacher* 16(5), 17-21.
- Tennant, A. (2011). Viewpoints. In: *IATEFL Voices: The Bi-monthly Newsletter of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL)*. March-April 2011, Issue 219.
- Thanajaro, M. (2000). Using authentic materials to develop listening comprehension in the English as a foreign language classroom. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Blacksburg, Virginia: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

- Usun, S. & Kömür, S. (2009). Marketing of distance learning in ELT programs: The challenges for marketing distance education in online environment. Anadolu University.
- Vaičiūnienė, V. & Užpalienė, D. (2010). Authentic resources in technology-based ESP learning. *Studies about Languages* 17.
- Wang, F.X. (2008). Motivation and English achievement: An exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of a new measure for Chinese students of English learning. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 10(3), 633-46.
- Wang, X. (2007). Three ways to motivate Chinese students in EFL listening classes. *Asian EFL Journal* 37. (Retrieved: 12 April, 2010). From: http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/pta_Jan_07_xw.pdf
- Wang, Y. (2004). Supporting synchronous distance language learning with desktop videoconferencing. *Language Learning and Technology*, 8(3), 90-121
- Warschauer, M. (1996). Computer Assisted Language Learning: An introduction. In: S. Fotos (ed.), *Multimedia Language Teaching* (pp. 3-20) Tokyo: Logos International.
- Wong, L.H. & Looi, CK (2010). Vocabulary learning by mobile-assisted authentic content creation and social meaning-making: Two case studies. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning* 26(5), 421-33
- Zengin, R. (2007). A research about the English language teacher's use of instructional technologies in Turkey. *Journal of the Hasan Ali Yucel Faculty of Education*, October

Effet de l'emploi de Stratégies Métacognitives d'apprentissage Sur le développement de la performance écrite créative

Esraa Ahmed El-saeed Sharaf

Université de Kafr El-Cheikh

RÉSUMÉ

Cet article traite de l'effet de l'emploi de stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage sur le développement de la performance écrite créative en français comme langue étrangère chez les futurs enseignants de 4^{ème} année à l'Université de Kafr El-Cheikh qui ont participé au projet de recherche. Les instrumentations de la recherche sont: Liste des compétences de la performance écrite créative, test de la performance écrite créative et critère de notation de la performance écrite créative. L'échantillon de l'étude se composait de 32 étudiants et ils ont été répartis en deux groupes: (expérimental et témoin). Chacun comprenait 16 étudiants. Le programme d'entraînement de l'emploi de Stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage a été enseigné au groupe expérimental pendant sept semaines alors que le groupe témoin a reçu l'enseignement traditionnel. Le pré-post test de la performance écrite créative est appliqué aux étudiants de deux groupes: témoin et expérimental. Les résultats ont été analysés par l'emploi de l'équation de Mann-Whitney et de Wilcoxon. L'analyse des résultats montre qu'il y a des différences significatives entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental et du groupe témoin au post- test en faveur des étudiants du groupe expérimental. La chercheuse conclut que les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage ont un effet significatif sur le développement des compétences de la performance écrite créative.

Mots clés: *Stratégies Métacognitives d'apprentissage, la planification, l'auto- surveillance, l'auto-évaluation, performance, écriture créative .*

INTRODUCTION

Les stratégies d'apprentissage occupent toujours une place considérable dans la communauté éducative. Elles contribuent à l'acquisition des compétences langagières et à rendre l'étudiant apte à communiquer efficacement. Parmi les stratégies d'apprentissage, on trouve les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage qui favorisent la prise de conscience de l'individu de ce qu'il faisait à partir des compétences et des processus dans le cadre de la réflexion en vue d'améliorer la mémoire et de surveiller les processus d'apprentissage.

Les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage ont un remarquablement intéressant au cours des dernières années car elles sont une nouvelle façon de développer la pensée. O'malley et Chamot (1990) montrent que les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage impliquent une réflexion sur l'opération d'apprentissage, une préparation en vue de l'apprentissage, un contrôle ou une surveillance des activités d'apprentissage. Selon Cyr (1998), les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage consistent essentiellement à réfléchir sur son processus d'apprentissage, à comprendre les conditions qui le favorisent, à organiser ou à planifier ses activités en vue de faire des apprentissages, à s'auto-évaluer et à s'auto-corriger.

En effet, Il est nécessaire d'employer des stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage (la stratégie de planification - la stratégie d'auto-surveillance - la stratégie d'auto-évaluation) pour réussir à bien

enseigner la langue car les étudiants éprouvent certaines difficultés en apprenant de nouvelles informations, de nouveaux vocabulaires et de différentes manières d'écriture. Alors, il faut signaler que l'emploi anticipé des stratégies métacognitives aide les étudiants à bien affronter ces difficultés.

Dans ce cadre , la langue est un excellent moyen de communication, permettant à l'être humain de transmettre ses idées et d'établir des relations avec autrui. Cette communication nécessite alors la connaissance des formes linguistiques et la maîtrise des capacités et des compétences langagières:1- Ecouter 2- Parler 3- lire 4- Ecrire.

Ces compétences langagières se divisent en deux groupes : deux compétences de production (parler – écrire) et deux compétences de compréhension (écouter–lire). Parmi ces quatre compétences fondamentales, on peut trouver la performance écrite qui est sans doute un moyen de communication entre les hommes et les autres. La quatrième compétence suscite l'intérêt le plus important car elle reflète l'influence des trois autres compétences. La performance écrite est une des activités mentales les plus compliquées, elle exige un effort mental complexe.

En général, selon Gallisson et Coste, la performance écrite se définit comme une opération qui consiste à produire un message écrit en utilisant les signes graphiques d'une langue (ABD EL GHANI, 2003,41). Vu son importance, la performance écrite a été classifiée de plusieurs façons, mais la classification

la plus connue porte sur deux sortes d'écriture (fonctionnelle et créative). Quant à l'écriture fonctionnelle, elle vise à réaliser la communication entre les gens dans le but d'organiser leur vie et de satisfaire leurs besoins, elle peut apparaître dans (la lettre – le rapport – le résumé – etc.).

D'autre part, l'écriture créative vise à exprimer les émotions, les sentiments et les expériences d'un style littéraire comme exemples des domaines de l'écriture créative : les récits – les poésies – les chansons – les romans – etc.). (EL-SAYED, 2005: 161). La performance écrite créative est un contexte dans lequel l'auteur exprime ses sentiments, ses idées, ses expériences et ses personnelles émotions et les traduit en termes sélectionnés.

Pour cela, notre étude a pour but de vérifier l'effet de l'emploi de Stratégies Métacognitives d'apprentissage sur le développement de la performance écrite créative en français comme langue étrangère chez les étudiants de 4^{ème} année , section de français, de la Faculté de pédagogie. A la lumière de ce qui précède, nous avons élaboré un programme d'entraînement qui dépend de l'emploi de Stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage.

Nous présentons tout d'abord un aperçu de notre problématique sur laquelle sont fondées nos hypothèses de recherche, puis on cite une brève recension des écrits dans le domaine de l'évaluation de la performance écrite créative en français comme langue seconde (L2). Par la suite, nous exposerons les

grandes lignes de notre méthodologie de recherche (contexte, sujet, instruments et critères d'évaluation, et traitement des données en donnant les résultats obtenus que nous interprétons en nous référant successivement à chacune de nos hypothèses de recherche. Nous terminons notre article par un résumé de nos conclusions et par la formulation de quelques recommandations qui découlent de notre recherche.

PROBLÉMATIQUE DE LA RECHERCHE

Malgré l'importance de la performance écrite créative et son rôle dans l'apprentissage, la chercheuse a observé, dans le cadre de son travail, en tant que guide, que les étudiants de section de français de la faculté de pédagogie de Kafr El cheikh ne possèdent pas parfaitement les compétences de l'écriture créative et ne peuvent pas les utiliser d'une manière correcte et pratique. Je pense que le problème général de notre travail est le manque d'innovation dans la formation universitaire. Cette faiblesse remarquable des compétences de la performance écrite créative en français comme langue étrangère chez les étudiants et de la pratique de ses arts se traduit par une incapacité à mettre en évidence à employer l'introduction pour mis en train de sujet, et à mettre en évidence les idées essentielles et les relier les uns aux autres dans un ordre logique pour arriver à une vision intégrée du texte écrit. Ce qui les rend apte à écrire des sujets tronqués que ne montre pas un message, ou à atteindre l'objectif.

De plus, La plupart des études antérieures révèlent des lacunes concernant les compétences de la performance écrite créative en français chez les apprenants dans tous les cycles éducatifs. Ces élèves ne peuvent pas " par exemple " employer des signes de ponctuation ou des mots et des adjectifs convenables. Parmi ces études, on trouve l'étude de Lakshmee, 2012; l'étude de Harfouche, 2008 ; l'étude de Lombard ,2012; l'étude de Canazzi, 2012; l'étude d'Adib, 2013...etc.Ces études ont recommandé de développer les compétences de la performance écrite créative en adoptant les nouvelles méthodes de l'enseignement de l'écriture.

Notre problème de cette étude réside dans la faiblesse de niveau des étudiants de 4^{ème} année, section de français, à la faculté de pédagogie en ce qui concerne la performance écrite créative. Les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage jouent un rôle essentiel dans la réussite de l'apprentissage de l'étudiant universitaire. Pour cela, Les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage représentent le thème central des activités de programme proposé afin de développer la performance écrite créative.

Je peux ainsi résumer la problématique de la recherche dans la question principale suivante:

" Quel est l'effet de l'emploi de stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage au développement de la performance écrite créative chez les étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la Faculté de pédagogie de Kafr El-cheikh? "

Cette principale question peut être divisée en quelques questions secondaires comme suit :-

1. Quelles sont les compétences de la performance écrite créative que doivent maîtriser les étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la Faculté de pédagogie, section de français ?
2. Jusqu' à quel point les étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la Faculté de pédagogie, section de français, possèdent-ils ces compétences ?
3. Quel programme peut-on proposer pour développer certaines compétences de la performance écrite créative chez les étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la Faculté de pédagogie, section de français ?
4. Quel est l'effet de ce programme ?

HYPOTHESES DE LA RECHERCHE

Ainsi, compte tenu de ces dimensions de la problématique, Nos deux hypothèses de recherche sont les suivantes :

Hypothèse 1 : Il y a des différences statistiques significatives, au niveau de 0.001, entre les moyennes des notes du groupe expérimental et celles du groupe témoin, de l'étude au post test (de la performance écrite créative) en faveur du groupe expérimental.

Hypothèse 2 : Il y a des différences statistiques significatives, au niveau de 0.001, entre les moyennes des notes du groupe expérimental de l'étude au pré test et, celles constatables au post test (de la performance écrite créative) en faveur du post test.

RECENSION DES ECRITS

À la lumière des études antérieures portant sur les études concernant les stratégies métacognitives. On peut déduire que les stratégies métacognitives est très efficaces dans l'apprentissage de la langue. En outre, Il y a une relation positive entre les stratégies métacognitives et les processus de pensée, soit la pensée critique, soit la pensée créatrice comme l'étude de (Mohammed, 2014). Les recommandations de certaines conférences comme la conférence du centre de développement de l'instruction des sciences (2000) à l'université d' Ain Chams en Égypte sous le titre de (la métacognition) qui recommande l'emploi des stratégies métacognitives dans l'enseignement pour réaliser les buts de la pédagogie.

La plupart des études antérieures présentent certaines stratégies métacognitives parmi lesquelles la chercheuse peut choisir pour utiliser dans la recherche actuelle "stratégies de planification, d'autorégulation, d'auto-évaluation" (Aish, 2008 ; Wagener, 2011 ; Abd El-Kader, 2003; ...).

Les stratégies métacognitives peuvent être utilisées avec des étudiants dans tous les cycles d'enseignement : quelques études les ont utilisées avec les étudiants universitaires comme l'étude d'Eid (2006) et celle d'El Sayed (2011) ou de Beaumier (2007), d'autres études les ont utilisées avec des étudiants de primaire, d'élémentaire supérieur ou de secondaire (Cloutier, 2012 ; Aish, 2008 ;). Certaines études présentent des tests, des instruments et des

programmes dont la chercheuse peut profiter dans le domaine des stratégies métacognitives.

En somme, la chercheuse a profité de toutes les études antérieures dans l'élaboration un programme d'entraîne- ment qui dépend de l'emploi de Stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage chez les étudiants de 4^{ème} année, section de français, faculté de pédagogie. Certaines études ont abordé les stratégies de la planification, de l'auto-surveillance et de l'auto-évaluation dans les différents domaines. Mais, d'après nous, il n'y a pas beaucoup de travaux sur le développement de la performance écrite créative en français comme langue étrangère à la lueur de l'emploi destratégies Métacognitives d'apprentissage "la planification, l'auto-surveillance, l'auto-évalua- tion " chez les étudiants de section de français à la faculté de pédagogie.

Quand on examine les recherches antérieures portant sur la performance écrite créative, on peut remarquer que les apprenants trouvent beaucoup de difficultés à écrire couramment en français comme langue étrangère et beaucoup de recherches ont affirmé cette réalité dans les différents cycles d'apprentissage. On peut trouver les recommanda- tions de certaines études comme l'étude de (Kasper, 1997) qui a recommandé d'enseigner la performance écrite en langue anglaise comme langue étrangère par l'emploi des activités d'instruction reliées à la métacognition et de développer la performance écrite chez les étudiants de la section de langue anglaise par l'entraînement des

étudiants à comprendre les opérations de leur pensée pendant l'écriture .

Plusieurs recherches ont élaboré des programmes pour développer certaines compétences de l'écriture créative et les résultats de ces recherches ont affirmé l'effet positif de ces programmes (Zekri ,2003 ; El Maraghy ,2012). De plus, certaines études ont élaboré des listes de compétences concernant la performance écrite créative pour déterminer ces compétences comme la flexibilité, la fluidité, l'originalité des idées, l'utilisation de techniques d'écriture, la maîtrise de l'expression, le choix des motsetc. (Bachar, 2014; El Kassas, 2014; Chendi, 2010).

La plupart des études antérieures nous ont précisé l'efficacité de quelques stratégies (la stratégie coopératif, la stratégie d'auto-apprentissage, la stratégie de brainstorming,...) et de quelques approches (l'approche des textes littéraires, l'approche communicative, l'approche Intégrée, l'approche du processus d'écriture) dans le développement de compétences de l'expression écrite créative. Aussi, Beaucoup de ces études ont offert certaines activités et méthodes pour développer les compétences d'écriture créative (Le portfolio, la lecture créative, l'auto-évaluation, la résolution de problèmes ...).

Certaines études ont abordé les domaines de la performance écrite créative citons par exemples (la dissertation, les contes, les pièces de théâtre, les articles, la poésie, ...). On a choisi l'article parce que ce domaine est le plus couramment utilisé dans l'étude

universitaire. En outre, la possibilité de développement des compétences de l'article pour tous les étudiants à tous les niveaux, que ce soit talentueux ou ordinaires.

En général, La chercheuse a profité des études portant sur la performance écrite créative dans la déduction de la liste de compétences de la performance écrite créative nécessaires aux étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la Faculté de pédagogie, section de français et dans l'élaboration des outils de cette étude: (test des compétences d'écriture créative, critère de notation de la performance écrite créative).

En définitive, presque toutes les études de cet axe ont affirmé l'importance du développement des compétences de la performance écrite créative dans les différentes disciplines éducatives chez les étudiants dans les différents cycles d'apprentissage. Mais, On a observé que toutes ces études n'utilisent pas des stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage appropriées pour développer la performance écrite créative chez les étudiants de la faculté de pédagogie , ce qui encourage la chercheuse dans cette étude à vérifier l'effet de l'emploi de stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage sur le développement de la performance écrite créative en français comme langue étrangère chez les étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la Faculté de pédagogie, section de français.

MÉTHODOLOGIE DE LA RECHERCHE

CONTEXTE

Nous avons choisi des étudiants de 4^{ème} année (de licence) de la faculté de pédagogie de Kafr El-Cheikh,

section de français en Egypte, de l'année universitaire 2014-2015 comme échantillon de la recherche. L'âge des étudiants de l'échantillon est de 21 à 22 ans. Ils ont étudié le français comme deuxième langue étrangère au cycle secondaire et ils sont issus des écoles gouvernementales. Ces étudiants de 4^{ème} année sont des futurs enseignants. Ils sont choisis en vue de les aider à optimiser les compétences langagières et plus particulièrement les compétences de la performance écrite créative. L'échantillon doit être représentatif de l'univers dont il est issu. Cet échantillon se compose de 32 étudiants. On a réparti l'échantillon en deux groupes: le premier est un groupe expérimental de 16 étudiants et le deuxième est un groupe témoin de 16 étudiants.

La chercheuse a appliqué l'expérimentation à la faculté de pédagogie de Kafr El-Cheikh où la chercheuse travaille comme assistante et cela a facilité l'application de l'expérimentation de la recherche. Le programme de l'étude actuelle est présenté aux futurs enseignants du groupe expérimental afin de les entraîner à quelques stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage, et ce en vue de mettre ces stratégies en pratique et de développer la performance écrite créative des apprenants.

LE SCHÉMA DE L'ÉTUDE

Cette étude a pour but de vérifier l'effet de l'emploi de stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage pour développer la performance écrite créative, sur un groupe d'apprenants expérimental et un autre témoin. Cette étude suit ainsi le schéma suivant :

- (pré-test → expérience → post-test) pour le groupe expérimental;
- (pré-test → pas d'application → post-test) pour le groupe témoin.

D'après ce schéma, pour atteindre l'objectif de ma recherche, les étapes suivantes ont été mises en place:

- Application du pré-test mesurant le degré de maîtrise des compétences de la performance écrite créative chez les futurs enseignants du FLE en Égypte sur les deux groupes d'apprenants: témoin et expérimental ;
- Entraînement du groupe expérimental au programme (expérience);
- Application du post-test mesurant le degré de maîtrise des compétences de la performance écrite créative chez les futurs enseignants du FLE en Égypte sur les deux groupes d'apprenants: témoin et expérimental.

PROCÉDURES DE LA RECHERCHE

1.Élaboration de la liste des compétences de la performance écrite créative:

Pour déterminer les compétences exigées pour les étudiants de la faculté de pédagogie, la chercheuse a préparé une liste des compétences de la performance écrite créative en précisant les sources de la liste et l'a présentée au jury en leur demandant de mettre le signe (√) devant chaque compétence si cette compétence est nécessaire pour les étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la faculté

de pédagogie, et en leur demandant aussi d'ajouter d'autres compétences si nécessaire.

La liste se compose de (6) items principaux. Chaque item comprend les compétences secondaires de la performance écrite créative nécessaires aux futurs enseignants du FLE en Égypte. Devant chaque compétence, On met une échelle de degré d'importance (très importante – importante – peu importante). La plupart du jury a affirmé que tous les items inclus dans le questionnaire sont importants pour les étudiants de la faculté de pédagogie, c'est pour cela que sous sa forme finale, le questionnaire se compose des mêmes (6) items principaux suivants:

1-L'organisation de sujet 2- L'originalité des idées

3-Les techniques d'écriture 4- La fluidité de l'expression

5-La flexibilité du style 6- le choix des mots

2. Élaboration du test de la performance écrite créative

L'évaluation est le procédé indispensable pour mesurer chaque étape du travail effectué. Le but de mon test est l'évaluation du degré de progrès des compétences de la performance écrite créative nécessaires aux futurs enseignants du FLE en Égypte. J'ai poursuivi les étapes suivantes pour préparer mon test. J'ai précisé les objectifs et les sources du test, puis J'ai estimé la validité et la fidélité du test, enfin J'ai déterminé la durée du test et les consignes du test. En outre, pour assurer l'objectivité de la correction, la

chercheuse a demandé trois correcteurs de même degré scientifique et d'expérience à corriger le pré test selon le critère déjà mentionné et a pris la moyenne des notes des trois correcteurs, les correcteurs travaillent comme maître assistant. La chercheuse présente le test au jury pour déterminer s'il est convenable pour la recherche comme pré et post- test en profitant des remarques du jury.

Le test de la performance écrite créative est le test au cours duquel l'apprenant est seul et où il doit exprimer ses idées librement, sans aucune influence et par ses propres moyens. La chercheuse donne la chance à chaque étudiant afin de choisir le sujet qu'il préfère pour écrire un article de son choix en vue d'encourager les étudiants à écrire clairement et exprimer leurs sentiments et leurs idées.

3. Élaboration du programme d'entraînement métacognitif

Ce programme vise à développer les compétences de la performance écrite créative chez les futurs enseignants de la faculté de pédagogie du FLE en Égypte par l'emploi des stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage suivantes: (La stratégie de la planification - La stratégie de l'auto- surveillance - La stratégie de l'auto-évaluation)

Pour élaborer le programme didactique proposé à la lueur de quelques stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage convenables au développement de la performance écrite créative. On a suivi les étapes suivantes:

1. Déterminer les objectifs généraux et spécifiques du programme.
2. Préciser les sources du programme.
3. Déterminer les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage utilisées.
4. Préparer et organiser le contenu du programme en quelques séances.
5. Préciser la durée du programme.
6. Préciser les techniques d'évaluation du programme.
7. présenter le programme proposé aux membres du jury pour l'examiner et arriver à sa forme finale.

En Bref, Le programme se compose de Liste des sujets de l'expérimentation qui se compose de 10 sujets. De plus, On présente 6 types du plan concernant la stratégie de la planification que la chercheuse, en tant que modèle, présente en planifiant pour écrire. Il y a aussi 20 questions que la chercheuse pose à lui-même en pensant à haute voix pour présenter la stratégie de l'auto - régulation. Elle a fait ça en écrivant au tableau sur les sujets déjà planifiés.

En fin, IL y a une Liste de processus d'écriture d'El Koumy (2004) que la chercheuse a employé pour présenter la stratégie de l'autoévaluation. après avoir écrit sur les six sujets déjà planifiés, la chercheuse a employé la liste pour s'autoévaluer, elle lit chaque phrase dans la liste et met ($\sqrt{\quad}$) devant les phrases selon ce qu'elle a fait avant, pendant et après l'écriture La liste d'El Koumy (2004) se compose de : (11 items

avant l'écriture, 14 items pendant l'écriture, 16 items après l'écriture).

4. Critère de notation de performance écrite créative

D'après l'objectif du critère, ce critère a été développé pour corriger les écrits des étudiants de l'échantillon au test de la performance écrite créative. La construction du critère a été adaptée du critère d'EL-Koumy (1991) dont l'objectif est de développer une grille d'évaluation pour corriger l'expression écrite. Le critère d' El Koumy (1991) distribue 10 points parmi 5 composantes de l'expression écrite comme suit:" contenu (3 points), organisation (1point), choix du vocabulaire (1point), structure grammaticale (2 points), mécanique (3 points). La chercheuse a employé la même distribution mais en divisant les composantes de la performance écrite créative en 7 composantes comme suit:

Le contenu (2) L'organisation de sujet (2)

L'originalité des idées (1) La fluidité de l'expression(1)

La flexibilité du style(1) L'aspect lexical (1)

L'aspect morphologique et syntaxique (2)

Pour vérifier la validité du critère, la chercheuse présente le critère au jury pour déterminer s'il est acceptable pour la recherche actuelle, en leur demandant de suggérer une distribution alternative de 10 points parmi les 4 composants si la distribution n'est pas acceptable.

La plupart des membres du jury ont montré que ce serait mieux de mettre 4 notes pour le contenu parce que le contenu est plus important pour les étudiants de l'université, c'est pour cela que la chercheuse a changé la distribution des notes parmi les quatre composants de l'expression écrite comme suit:

Le contenu (4)

L'aspect morphologique et syntaxique (1)

L'aspect lexical (1) L'organisation (1)

L'originalité des idées (1)

La fluidité de l'expression(1)

La flexibilité du style(1)

Pour mesurer la fidélité du critère, la chercheuse a employé la méthode de corriger selon l'impression (the impressionistic Marking Method). (Nakamura, 2002). Trois correcteurs ont été sollicités pour corriger les écrits des étudiants en fonction de leurs impressions. Après deux semaines, les mêmes correcteurs ont été sollicités pour corriger les mêmes écrits des étudiants avec l'emploi du critère utilisé dans la recherche. En employant l'analyse de la variance, on trouve qu'il y a des différences significatives entre les notes des trois correcteurs quand ils corrigent selon leurs impressions, tandis qu'il n'y a pas de différences significatives entre leurs notes en employant le critère utilisé à la recherche actuelle.

Dans la partie précédente, nous avons préparé les instrumentations de la recherche dans leur forme finale en mesurant leur validité et fidélité.

Dans cette partie, nous allons mesurer, par l'expérimentation l'efficacité du programme proposé dans la recherche actuelle sur le développement de la performance écrite créative en français comme langue étrangère chez les étudiants de 4^{ème} année de la Faculté de pédagogie, section de français.

Avant de commencer l'expérimentation de la recherche, nous avons appliqué le test de la performance écrite créative sur les deux groupes de la recherche (groupe témoin et groupe expérimental) comme pré-test. Le pré-test a été appliqué le 15/12/2014 et il a duré 45 minutes. Nous avons corrigé le test selon le critère de notation déjà mentionné, on a eu une note sur 10 points, la chercheuse a employé l'équation de Man-Whitney pour mesurer les différences entre les moyennes des notes du groupe témoin et ceux du groupe expérimental au pré test de la performance écrite créative, et les résultats de cette application ont montré la faiblesse du niveau des étudiants dans les compétences de la performance écrite créative et ont aussi montré l'homogénéité des deux groupes. Regardez le tableau 1 ci-dessous qui montre les différences entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants des deux groupes au pré- test.

Tableau 1 Valeur de (z) et sa signification statistique de la différence entre les moyennes des notes de deux groupes (témoin et expérimentale) pour le pré -test

G	N	M	Z	S
Expérimentale	16	4.0612	-1.77	N.S
Témoin	16	3.5525		

G= groupe N= nombre d'étudiants M = moyenne arithmétique Z= valeur de Z S= la signification

Le tableau ci-dessus montre qu'il n'y a pas de différences significatives entre les moyennes des notes de deux groupes (expérimental et témoin) dans les compétences de la performance écrite créative au pré - test, la valeur de (z) est -1.77 et cette valeur n'est pas signifiante au niveau de 0.05 dont la valeur de (z) pour $N > 20$ est -1.96.

Après l'application du pré-test, nous avons commencé l'enseignement du programme proposé au groupe expérimental le 14/1/2015 et il a terminé le 19/3/2015. Donc l'expérience a duré à peu près deux mois, deux cours par semaine (lundi et mercredi) chaque cours a duré une heure et demie c'est-à-dire 19 cours. Dans les deux premiers cours, la chercheuse a présenté aux étudiants une partie théorique comprenant les compétences de l'expression écrite, les cinq cours suivants, elle modèle les stratégies métacognitives en présentant aux étudiants six sujets différents, elle présente la stratégie de la planification par l'emploi des différents types du plan en planifiant pour les six sujets.

La stratégie de l'auto-surveillance a été présentée par l'emploi de la stratégie de pensée à haute voix ; la chercheuse écrit sur les six sujets et s'auto- questionne de temps en temps à haute voix en utilisant les questions proposées à l'étape de l'auto- surveillance. Pour la stratégie de l'auto-évaluation, après avoir écrit chaque sujet la chercheuse s'auto- évalue en lisant

chaque phrase à la liste de processus d'écriture et en mettant (√) devant les phrases selon ce qu'elle a fait avant, pendant et après l'écriture. La chercheuse a modelé les trois stratégies à chaque cours (un sujet par cours). Après avoir fini les sept premiers cours, la chercheuse a distribué un exemplaire à chaque étudiant dans le groupe expérimental contenant:

- les types de plan employés à la stratégie de la planification.
- la liste de processus d'écriture.

A chaque cours la chercheuse demande aux étudiants du groupe expérimental d'écrire sur un des 12 sujets de l'expérimentation en utilisant les stratégies métacognitives à l'aide de l'exemplaire distribué, les étudiants pratiquent les stratégies individuellement.

Le groupe témoin (les 16 étudiants) ont appris les compétences de de la performance écrite créative par la méthode traditionnelle.

Après avoir fini l'enseignement du programme proposé, la chercheuse a appliqué le post-test le 22/3/2007 sur les deux groupes de la recherche en suivant la même technique du pré- test. Nous avons corrigé le post- test selon le même critère déjà cité et par les mêmes correcteurs du pré-test pour assurer l'objectivité de la correction. La chercheuse fait l'analyse statistique des résultats de l'étude expérimentale après l'application du pré et du post test pour vérifier les hypothèses de cette étude.

RESULTATS DE LA RECHERCHE

Dans cette partie nous allons montrer les résultats de la recherche par rapport aux hypothèses de la recherche.

Pour vérifier notre première hypothèse

Après l'enseignement du programme proposé aux étudiants du groupe expérimental, la chercheuse a appliqué le test de la performance écrite créative aux étudiants des deux groupes comme post-test et par l'emploi de l'équation de Mann Whitney.

Tableau 2 Valeur de (z) et sa signification statistique de la différence entre les moyennes des notes de deux groupes (témoin et expérimental) pour le post-test

G	N	M	Z *	S *
Expérimental	16	5.612	-2.3	S
Témoin	16	4.521		

* Z= la valeur de Z * S= la signification

Le tableau ci-dessus montre qu'il y a des différences statistiques significatives, au niveau de 0.001, entre les moyennes des notes du groupe expérimental et celles du groupe témoin, de l'étude au post test (de la performance écrite créative) en faveur du groupe expérimental, et ceci montre que notre hypothèse est vérifiée.

Pour cela, On peut justifier ce résultat comme suit: les stratégies métacognitives poussent les étudiants à

faire une réflexion sur leurs manières de pensée, et à ne pas s'intéresser seulement à la production écrite finale. Autre justification c'est que les stratégies métacognitives aident les étudiants à savoir par eux-mêmes les points de leurs faiblesses. La troisième justification était que lorsque l'étudiant sait que c'est lui qui va évaluer son travail cela améliore l'autonomie de l'étudiant vers l'apprentissage.

D'autre part, on peut dire que la stratégie de la planification aide les étudiants à réaliser leurs tâches selon un plan clair et déjà organisé et cela aide ces étudiants à réaliser leurs buts successivement, au contraire quand ils commencent leurs tâches directement sans planifier, leurs performances tendent à être moins acceptables.

Et ce résultat s'adapte avec les résultats de certaines études comme l'étude de Kim -Weol - Soon (1991), l'étude de Mecabe - Marjorie (1986), et l'étude de Victori - Mia (1995).

Pour vérifier notre deuxième hypothèse

Après l'enseignement du programme proposé aux étudiants du groupe expérimental, la chercheuse a appliqué le test de la performance écrite créative comme post test aux étudiants du groupe expérimental et par l'emploi de l'équation de Wilcoxon, on a comparé les notes des étudiants au pré et au post test.

Tableau 3 Valeur de (z) et sa signification statistique de la différence entre le pré -test et le post-test pour le groupe témoin

N	pre	post	différences	Différences sans signaux	Ordre des différences	Ordre des Différences avec signaux
1	3.2	4.8	-1.6	1.6	11	-11
2	3.9	3.5	0.4	0.4	2.5	2.5
3	2.3	3.6	-1.3	1.3	9.5	-9.5
4	4.04	5.3	-1.26	1.26	9.5	-9.5
5	2.3	5.3	-3	3	15	-15
6	5	3.8	1.2	1.2	7.5	7.5
7	3.3	3.7	-0.4	0.4	2.5	-2.5
8	3.4	3.7	-0.3	0.3	1	-1
9	2.5	4.3	-1.8	1.8	13	-13
10	4	5	-1	1	6	-6
11	4	5.7	-1.7	1.7	12	-12
12	2.8	3.5	-0.7	0.7	4.5	-4.5
13	4.3	5.04	-0.74	0.74	4.5	-4.5
14	4.2	6.3	-2.1	2.1	14	-14
15	4.3	4.3	Zéro	Zéro	-----	-----
16	3.3	4.5	-1.2	1.2	7.5	-7.5

Le tableau ci-dessus montre la différence entre le pré -test et le post test pour le groupe témoin et nous remarquons que:

- le total des signaux positifs est 10
- le total des signaux négatifs est 110

Donc $z = -2.8$

N = nombres d'étudiants

Remarque N ici=15 car nous avons supprimé (un étudiant) dont ses différences égalent (zéro)

Donc $z = -2.8$

Et cette valeur est signifiante au niveau de 0.05 cela signifie qu'il y a des différences significatives entre le pré -test et le post- test pour le groupe témoin, c'est parce que le groupe témoin a aussi été placé sous une méthode d'instruction.

Tableau 4 Valeur de (z) et sa signification statistique de la différence entre le pré -test et le post-test pour le groupe expérimental

N	Pré	post	différences	Différences sans signaux	Ordre des différences	Ordre des Différences avec signaux
1	3.5	5	-1.5	1.5	8	-8
2	4.2	6.2	-2	2	10	-10
3	5	6.2	-1.2	1.2	5	-5
4	4.2	4.2	Zéro	Zéro	-----	Zero
5	4.5	7.8	-3.3	3.3	14	-14
6	5	5.2	-0.2	0.2	1.5	-1.5
7	3	6.4	-3.4	3.4	15	-15
8	5.3	7.9	-2.6	2.6	13	-13
9	4.7	6.8	-2.1	2.1	11	-11
10	4.4	4.2	0.2	0.2	1.5	1.5
11	2.5	4.3	-1.8	1.8	9	-9
12	4.08	6.5	-2.46	2.46	12	-12
13	3.8	4.7	-0.9	0.9	3	-3
14	4	5	-1	1	4	-4
15	2.8	4.1	-1.3	1.3	6.5	-6.5
16	4	5.3	-1.3	1.3	6.5	-6.5

Le tableau ci-dessus montre les notes des étudiants du groupe expérimental au pré et au post test et nous remarquons que:

- Le total des signaux positifs est 1.5
- Le total des signaux négatifs est 118.5

Donc $z = -3.2$

Remarque N ici=15 car nous avons supprimé (un étudiant) dont ses différences

Égalent (zéro).

Donc $z = -3.2$

Et cela démontre qu'il y a une différence significative entre le pré- test et le post- test pour le groupe expérimental au niveau du 0.05 en faveur du post test car la valeur de (z)= -3.2 et cette valeur est significative, donc notre deuxième hypothèse est vérifiée, et c'est grâce à l'emploi de notre programme proposé.

Quant au *niveau de l'effet*, On trouve que le niveau de l'effet de l'emploi de notre programme proposé pour le groupe expérimental est 0.03 et en se référant au (Cohen, 1988) nous trouvons que notre programme a un effet moindre. Tandis que le niveau de l'effet de l'emploi de la méthode traditionnelle pour le groupe témoin est 0.01 et en se référant au (Cohen, 1988) nous trouvons aussi que cette valeur est d'un effet moindre, et en comparant le niveau de l'effet de notre programme au niveau de l'effet de la méthode traditionnelle, nous trouvons que notre programme a un effet assez plus élevé que la méthode traditionnelle.

Donc, les résultats de la recherche ont montré qu'il y a des différences statistiques significatives, au niveau de 0.001, entre les moyennes des notes du groupe expérimental de l'étude au pré test et, celles constatables au post test (de la performance écrite créative) en faveur du post test. Cela vérifie notre

deuxième hypothèse et ces différences se réfèrent à l'emploi de notre programme proposé.

CONCLUSION

L'analyse des résultats montre que les moyennes des notes des membres de l'échantillon au post-test dépassent celles du pré-test. D'après ce résultat, la chercheuse peut déduire que les stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage ont un effet positif sur la performance écrite créative chez les membres de l'échantillon. Pour cela, On conclut que les futurs enseignants ont un grand besoin d'être entraînés aux stratégies métacognitives d'apprentissage pour améliorer leurs compétences de la performance écrite créative.

RECOMMANDATIONS

A la lueur des résultats de la recherche, nous pourrions recommander de:

1. Enseigner la performance écrite créative écrite comme processus mental mais pas comme une production écrite finale.
2. Développer les compétences de l'écriture créative aux différentes
3. disciplines éducatives.
4. Déterminer les difficultés et les problèmes qui affrontent les apprenants pendant l'apprentissage de l'écriture créative et préciser les nouvelles méthodes pour y remédier.
5. Entraîner les étudiants à s'auto évaluer.

6. Aider les étudiants à découvrir par eux-mêmes les faiblesses dans leurs processus mentaux.
7. Encourager les étudiants à parler de leur manière de penser.
8. Organiser des ateliers d'écriture créative afin de découvrir et développer les apprenants.
9. Donner plus d'intérêt à la stratégie de la planification car la bonne planification aide à bien réaliser la tâche.

RÉFÉRENCES

- Abdel-Ghani, Ghada Hamid. (2004). Efficacité d'utilisation les activités langagières communicatives pour le développement de certaines compétences de l'expression écrite en français chez les élèves du cycle préparatoire d'Al Azhar. Thèse de magistère non publiée, faculté de pédagogie, Université de Mansourah.
- Abd El-Kader, Mahmoud Ezz El-Arab El Sayed. (2003). Utilisation Des Stratégies Métacognitives Pour Le Développement Des Compétences De La Lecture Critique En Français Chez Les Etudiants Des Facultés De Pédagogie. Thèse de magistère non publiée, faculté de pédagogie, Université de Mansourah.
- Adib, Yasmine. (2013). Évaluation des acquis d'apprenants du Français Langue Étrangère en module de Technique d'Expression Écrite et Orale en 1^{ère} année Universitaire. Thèse de Doctorat, Faculté des Lettres, langues et arts, Université d'Oran.
- Aish, Ayman Farouk Saad. (2008). Efficacité De L'utilisation Des Stratégies Métacognitives Pour Développer Des Compétences De La Compréhension Lecturale En Français Chez Les Étudiants Du Cycle Secondaire. Thèse de magistère non publiée, Département de curricula et des

- méthodologies, la Faculté de pédagogie, Université de Minoufiya.
- Bachar, Ali Mohamed Ali. (2014). Efficacité de l'emploi de la stratégie du Brainstorming sur le développement des compétences de l'expression écrite créative en français chez les étudiants du cycle secondaire. Thèse de magistère, Département de curricula et des méthodologies, la Faculté de pédagogie, Université de Mansourah.
- Beaumier, France. (2008). évolution du sentiment d'efficacité personnelle des futurs enseignants dans leur utilisation des stratégies cognitives, des stratégies métacognitives et du jugement métacognitif, dans leurs apprentissages et dans leur enseignement auprès d'un élève en difficulté, au cours d'un programme d'apprentissage expérientiel . Thèse de doctorat, département de psychopédagogie, Faculté des sciences de l'éducation, Université Laval, Québec
- Canazzi, Michel. (2012). L'évaluation des productions écrites et la Créativité. Thèse de magistère, Département d'enseignement au primaire et de psychopédagogie IUFM Centre Val de Loire, Université d'Orléans.
- Cloutier, Émilie. (2012). Stratégies métacognitives de lecteurs à risque du troisième cycle du primaire. Thèse de doctorat, Université du Québec à Montréal.
- Chendi, Wael Choeb Saber. (2010). L'étude de l'activité théâtrale sur le développement des compétences de l'écriture créative chez les apprenants du français langue seconde. Thèse De Doctorat, Département d'enseignement au primaire et de psycho- pédagogie, Faculté des sciences de l'éducation, Université de Moncton, Canada.
- Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences (2 nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
- Cyr,p. (1998). Les Stratégies d'Apprentissage. Paris: CIE International.
- Eid, Tage Al-Dine Mohammed. (2006). L'effet de l'utilisation d'un programme basé sur les modes des Histoires sur le

Développement de L'expression Ecrite en Français Chez Les Étudiants de La première Année à La Facultés de Pédagogie de L'université de Minia. Thèse de magistère non publiée, Département de curricula et des méthodologies, la Faculté de pédagogie, Université de Minia.

El Maraghy, Nadine Nabil Abdou. (2012). Programme de Multimédia basé sur les Jeux Linguistiques pour développer les compétences de l'écriture en langue française pour les élèves du cycle primaire. Thèse de magistère non publiée, Département de curricula et des méthodologies, la Faculté de pédagogie, Université du canal de suez.

El Kassas, Chaimaa Abd El Kader. (2014):Efficacité des Activités Langagières pour Le Développement du Vocabulaire et Les Compétences de L'Expression Ecrite en Français Chez Les Elèves du Cycle Préparatoire .Thèse de magistère non publiée, Département de curricula et des méthodologies, la Faculté de pédagogie, Université de Université de Minoufiya.

El-Koumy, A. (1991). Comparing the Effectiveness of Three Strategies of Teaching Composition: Guided, Free, and Guided-Free. Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis, Faculty of Education, Menoufia University.

El-Koumy, A. (2004). Effect of Self-Assessment of Writing Processes Versus Products on EFL Student's Writing. ERIC Document No. ED490559.

El-Sayed, Nadia Ali. (2011). programme proposé pour développer l'expression orale du français, par l'utilisation de quelques stratégies cognitives et métacognitives, chez les étudiants de 4ème année de la faculté de pédagogie de kafr El cheikh en Egypte. Thèse de doctorat publiée en France, Université de CAEN/BASSE-NORMANDIE

El-Sayed, Nadia. (2005). programme proposé pour développer la compréhension orale du français, par l'utilisation de quelques stratégies cognitives, chez les étudiants de la 2^{ème} année, département de français, de la faculté de pédagogie

- de kafr El-sheikh. Thèse de magistère non publiée, Université de Tanta.
- Harfouche, Fouad. (2008). L'évaluation en question : La compétence de production écrite en classe du français langue étrangère (FLE). Thèse de magistère, Département de Français, Faculté des Lettres et des Sciences Humaines, Université El Hadj Lakhdar – Batna.
- Kasper, L. F. (1997). Assessing the metacognitive growth of ESL student writers. *TESL-Ej*, 3(1), November.
- Lakshmee, Devi Ramoo. (2012). Documenter les façons de faire d'enseignants de la 6^e année du primaire dans toutes les étapes de la démarche d'évaluation. Thèse de Doctorat en Mesure et Évaluation en éducation, Département d'Administration et de fondements de l'éducation, Faculté des sciences de l'éducation, Université de Montréal.
- Lombard, Vincent. (2012). L'évolution de l'évaluation de la composante linguistique de la compétence à écrire par le ministère de l'éducation : Une étude longitudinale sur les épreuves uniques d'écriture de 5^e secondaire. Thèse de Doctorat en Sciences de l'éducation Option didactique, Faculté des études supérieures, Université de Montréal.
- Mohammed, Naglaa Fathy. (2014). L'Efficacité d'un programme proposé dans l'enseignement des textes basé sur les stratégies métacognitives pour développer les habilités de la compétence communicative et la pensée critique chez les futurs-enseignants à la faculté de pédagogie. Thèse de Doctorat non publiée, Département de curricula et des méthodologies, la Faculté de pédagogie, Université de Minia.
- Nakamura, Y. (2002). A Comparison of Holistic and Analytic Scoring Methods in the Assessment of Writing. (Online) available at:
<http://www.jalt.org/pansig/2004/HTML/Nakamura.htm>.
- O'Malley, J. & Chamot, A. (1990). *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge. Cambridge University.

Wagener, Bastien. (2011). Développement et transmission de la métacognition. Thèse de Doctorat, Spécialité : Psychologie, Faculté des lettres, langues et sciences humaines, la MSH de l'Université d'Angers.

Zekri, Iman Anwar. (2003). Efficacité d'un programme proposé en Employant l'Approches Coopérative en vue de développer quelques compétences écrites de la dissertation, chez les étudiants de la faculté de pédagogie de Fayoum, section de Français. Thèse de Doctorat non publiée, Département de curricula et des méthodologies, la Faculté de pédagogie de Fayoum, Université de Caire.

The Effectiveness of Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) In Developing EFL Students' Oral -Micro Communicative Skills

Dr. Tariq M. El-Ghonaimy

TEFL Lecturer Dept. of Curriculum & Instruction

Faculty of Education Kafr Elsheikh University, Egypt

Abstract

The present study is an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of cooperative language learning (CLL) in developing the main micro-speaking skills (accuracy, fluency and pronunciation) of a 28 randomly chosen sample of ESP first year university students of Faculty of Engineering, Alexandria, Egypt. In order to achieve the purposes of this study, two instruments were used: a) a student questionnaire for identifying ESP students' perceptions of CLL ,2) a teacher questionnaire for identifying ESP instructors' perceptions of their students' CLL, and c) an oral test to evaluate the level of students' oral skills. A speaking teaching program (Rossita Stone Application, Basics+1-5) was used as an experimental intervention. The sample was assigned to two groups (control and experimental); the latter was exposed to (CLL) whereas the former to conventional teaching.. Findings of the study revealed that accuracy and fluency as speaking sub-skills improved remarkably both structurally and semantically which may be due to the learners' ability to recognize their ideas more adequately. Pronunciation, on the other hand, was the least developed sub-skill and this could be related to their unwillingness to run the risk of imitating the native accent.

Keywords: *cooperative language learning, oral micro communicative skills*

Introduction

The teaching of a foreign language by its nature is an interactive process, which involves active participation of both the teacher and the learners in ELT methodologies. What actually concerns us as ELT specialists has been on the meaning. There are a host of rules and principles underlying each ELT method both semantically and structurally, but more recently, the shift is significantly directed toward the study of language as communication. For this reason, a great opportunity of L2 classroom interaction is being truly demanded as cooperative language learning (CLL).

The fact remains that in ELT, speaking instruction has been a remarkable landmark in English learning. It would be more beneficial if both teachers and learners share a joint process in a mutual cooperative positive way to produce effective outcomes capable of communicating well not only inside English classrooms, but also in real life situations authentically.

It is no paradox that communication is a mutual relationship between the speaker and the hearer. This is why the speaker should respond orally understandably in such a way that his/her hearer keeps on responding well and vice-versa.

On the other hand, cooperative learning (CL) is considered as one of the means of active learning strategies which might serve as an appropriate and promising method helping to increase learning effectiveness and providing students with the skills of collaborating, cooperating, sharing and socializing ideas

in an educational context. Actually, CL is defined as the instructional use of group of activities which makes students work together and develop their own and others' learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1981). When structured well, CL involves students working as a team, interacting with others and sharing goals, ideas and feedback (Murdox & Wilson, 2004).

Obviously, after the introduction of communicative language teaching which emphasizes the importance of group work in the language classroom, applying cooperative learning approach in language teaching became popular (Feigenbaum, 2007).

Additionally, the increasing demand for global competence and international communication and collaboration make attaining proficiency in a second or foreign language more prominent and this proficiency should cover not merely vocabulary and grammar, but good pronunciation as well (Lord, 2008).

To maximize the benefit from CL, groups of participants must be working together, not only "next to" one another and in case the teacher of English does not have a careful planning and monitoring, group learners' works hinder learning and decrease social interaction than promote it in classes (Woolfolk, Winne & Perry, 2003).

Furthermore, CL group work and pair work generate interactive language, present learner responsibility and autonomy, promote the affective climate in the classroom, increase motivation and individualize instruction (Arnold, 1990). Also, CL can

promote students' critical thinking to create classrooms in which cooperation rather than competition will be enhanced.

Contrary to the support of CL, there have been a bitter criticism directed against it. These disadvantages constitute various aspects among which the English teacher is no longer in centre of the class, learners will use their L1, students errors will be reinforced in some groups, teachers can not control all class groups at the same time and also some learners prefer to work alone. Although group work lead to cooperation, group activities, and active learners, it is not good for all learners with different levels of proficiency (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The advantages of CL gain were confirmed by Aziz & Hussain (2010) that aimed at investigating the differences between the effects of both CL and conventional teaching on the learners' mathematics achievement. The study revealed significant differences between the experimental and control groups; the former group which used learning together processes outperformed the latter group in mathematical achievement.

Similarly, Arut (2009) conducted a study using an approach to both experimental and control groups of children learning the same mathematical concepts applying to the former group. Surprisingly, although the teacher had had a negative attitude towards such a context before the beginning of the course, (as: children get distracted easily, do not listen to the instructions

properly, continue to work individually), she noticed that - at the end of the course]- children in group work were more interested and developed their cooperation positively and gained more cognitive and more skills than their peers working individually.

Recently, Suwantarathip and Wichadee (2010) carried out a study to investigate the impact of CL on language proficiency and its effectiveness in reducing language anxiety. 'Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale' and a questionnaire were used as tools of the experiment to 40 sophomore students. The study showed that CL as an educational environment method could provide an open gate to support, encourage, and praise among learners to feel relaxed and secured.

Challenges for effective oral communication could be overcome by applying seven pieces of advice as Guest Post (2012) put them in the form of orders:

1. Do not avoid speaking or writing in English.
2. Do not hangout with people who speak your native language too often.
3. Do not beat yourself up.
4. Do not use poor materials.
5. Do not forget why you are learning the language.
6. Do not set outrageous goals.
7. Do not stop having fun.

Likewise, 9 reasons why people fail to get fluent in English may be attributed to some excuses and attitudes (to avoid) were mentioned by Justin,(2012) as follows:

1. I am not good with languages.
2. I'm embarrassed to speak.
3. Adults do not learn English very well.
4. I don't have the time.
5. Lack of purpose.
6. Lack of responsibility.
7. Lack of good plan/method.
8. Lack of imagination.

In a study conducted by Fantozzo (1990) to investigate the difference between urban and rural students in Malaysia in their speaking skill, he found that the urban students seemed to be much more study-wise and autonomous in their learning speaking skill.

A speaking literature survey of sociolinguistics reveals various approaches for investigating speaking in general. Results of some tackled the speech analysis through dividing it into different styles or registers such as casual, careful, passage reading and word list styles (e.g. Jassem, 1994, Dorian, 2010). As speaking implies mutual meaningful oral communication in which messages are conveyed clearly, both message sender (speaker) and receiver (listener) have to aim at enabling each other reach a satisfaction level of understanding the intended message. Additionally all speakers native or non-native, show different levels of competence and fluency in their interactions and styles. But speaking carefully or expressing the ideas of an academic nature is the most important goal of teachers and lecturers whose interests should be the development and improvement of an understandable

discourse. Textbooks and speaking material preparation have been generated and developed to match the scientific procedures for teaching speaking (e.g. Bygate, 1987, 2001; Dugas et al., 2010; Ferguson, 2007; Hatfield, 1999; Ferguson, 2007; Kneen, 2008; Lazaraton, 2001; Seely, 2005) Reasons for being reluctant to participate in ESL/ EFL classroom learning discourse processes have been examined by field-work and method-based studies (e.g. Lee, 2009; Liu and Jackson, 2009; Reda, 2009; Xia, 2009).

Clearly, research has helped in displaying crucial data on factors that can influence the education processes of pronunciation skills such as age, amount and type of prior pronunciation instruction, aptitude, learner attitude and motivation, native language (Abd El-Maksoud, 2013). Similarly, obstacle reasons challenging ESL/EFL learners' improvement in learning English speaking in an Arabic context were tackled as:

1. English is taught as a compulsory foreign language.
2. Teacher's contact with the language itself or the native is non-existent.
3. New communicative textbook are being introduced and this in turn requires a good teacher with a good command of the communication skills of the foreign language S/he is to teach.
4. English curriculum emphasizes the use of English as opposed to the mother tongue in the English classroom and this is reinforced by the school

supervisors to the extent that FL teachers are partially assessed on the ground of their FL use in their classes. (El-Araby, 2005: 1).

Again, the effect of cooperative learning (CL) could result in poor oral proficiency as Chen (2009) in his study revealed that the oral proficiency of ESL students in both the experimental and the control groups could not improve and his recommendations were made for future qualitative research on implementation of phonetic/phonological instruction in cooperative learning setting. Similarly, Pawlak (2011) and Engwall (2012) carried out a study in investigate the effect of CL on the speaking ability of EFL learners, and concluded that pronunciation errors may be caused during discourse by several different deviations from the target, such as voicing, intonation, insertions or deletions of segments, or that the articulators are placed in correctly.

It is worth mentioning that positive interactive personal relationship via speaking could be developed through integrating CL into communicative skill between handicapped and non-handicapped students. Yager, Johnson and Johnson (1981) and Sinder (1985) stated that the continued use of CL promote interpersonal relationship between handicapped and non-handicapped learners. Developing academic achievement via CL could occur as crystallized by Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2010; Aziz & Hossain, 2010.

Implementing cooperative learning CL in EFL teaching, Tsailing Liang (2002) attempted to explore the effect of CL on the junior high school learners. They showed that the experimental group significantly outscored the control group. The study resulted that CL could improve junior high school learners' oral communicative competence and their motivation toward learning English. They concluded that CL method is recommended as a pedagogical teaching method.

The place of cooperative learning (CL) in EFL/ESL settings

There are several methods which could be adopted from cooperative learning to be applied to in the ESL/EFL classroom to encourage learners to work together to learn, listen, speak or/and write, share ideas and help each other acquiring the language. Each CL method has its own characteristics and applicability to different curriculum domain.

Worthy to note that there are different factors among others' determining the success or the otherwise of EFL group learning (CL) as:

1. Group size
2. Group formation
3. Teachers' roles.
4. Students' roles.
5. Individual and group assessment

The speaking sub-skills

Different from other language sub-skills, speaking - as stated by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) - has specific ones where EFL learners have to:

- a. think of ideas they wish to express, either initiating a conversation or responding to a previous speakers;
- b. change the tongue, lips and jaw position in order to articulate the appropriate sounds;
- c. be aware of the appropriate functional expression, as well as grammatical, lexical, and cultural features to express the ideas;
- d. be sensitive to any change in the 'register' or style necessitated by the person(s) to whom they are speaking and situation in which the conversation is taking place;
- e. change the direction of their thoughts on the basis of the other person's response.

Knowing what, how, why to whom and when to produce speaking are sub-skills that the speaker has to acquire. Here appears to role of the teacher in (CLL) he has to monitor students' speech production to determine what skills and knowledge they already have and what areas need development. He actually has to devise activities that can address different skills by providing authentic practice that they have to encounter in future communicative real life contexts.

The fact remains that a language skill does not work in a vacuum. Speaking, for example, can be taught separately with other ELT skills i.e. listening, reading

and/or writing. The diagram below the relationship between the four language skills:

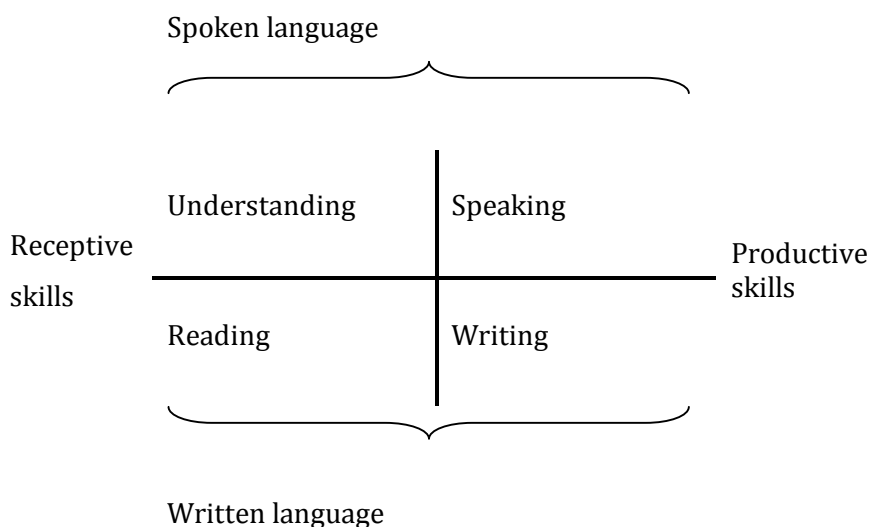


Diagram 1: Inter-relationship of four language skills (Donn Byrne, 1976).

What concerns this study more is the speaking skill-skills development. There are various techniques that the EL teacher can adopt such as group work, role-play, problem solving and discussion which can encourage English learners to take communicative initiatives .

As for group work, it is considered as an instructional dynamics of language classroom where learners work within smaller units or groups. Through interacting with each other in groups, students can be

given the opportunity to oral exchange. For example, the teacher might want his learners to predict the content of reading a text of five paragraphs. Then, they are divided into five groups. Each group selects a paragraph of the text just reads and prepares to answer the questions put by the other groups. Each group has to scan a paragraph of the text for detailed comprehension and formulate questions to test the comprehension of the other groups. The aim is to get the students involved in oral interaction: asking and answering questions, agreeing and disagreeing with certain points of paragraph and proposing modifications. These kinds of tasks improve both linguistic and communicative competence (Bright and McGregor, 1970).

Role-play on the other hand, can benefit its adopters greatly. It can serve as an instructional authentic technique for ELT in general and for ESP in particularly. It involves language use in real interactive conversational contexts (Forrest, 1992). Role play involves an element of “lets’ pretend”; it offers to main choices:

1. They can play themselves in an imaginary situation.
2. Or they can be asked to play imaginary people in an imaginary situation (Burne, 1976).

Additionally, role-play promotes spontaneous oral exchanges between participants instead of reciting already memorized stretches. In it, learners say what

they want to say not what someone has told them to say (Dickson, 1981).

Likewise, problem solving group is a group of people who work together to solve a problem by collecting information about the problem, reviewing that information, and making a decision based on their findings (Barker & Gaut, 2002).

The label has been used to group together a range of activities which require the learners to find solutions to problems of different kinds.

Problem solving can be of two types: short-term task and long-term task or project. The former can be done in course of on class session while the latter is more time consuming that may take many sessions and longer. The former is a topic centers and results in the production of a piece of written oral report or both. For example, the teacher often asks students to develop a presentation on a particular historic period and to generate written products appropriate to the period. Students might conduct diagram or regalia to support the project. These activities might get learners together out of the classroom, particularly those that involves the collection of data through information search, information exchange and information synthesis. Additionally, learners may develop greater oral skill via managing the interaction.

According to discussion technique during (CLL), exchanging ideas and opinions can take place either on class basis with the teacher's role as a mediator and to some extent as a participator, or within the context of a

group, with the students talking among themselves. Discussion actually may last for just a few minutes, or it may continue for a whole lesson (in case of advanced learners who have a good command of foreign language). Clearly, discussion may be a target to an end to mainly develop oral competence. It can be used as a technique of a student-directed and teacher-guided discussion. For example, all learners may be asked to read a single simplified story or a certain topic in order to be discussed in one session upon completion of the reading. Discussion groups (also called literature circles and book clubs) can last from one or two or three sessions depending on the length of the read material (Hill & Ruptic, 1949 in Byrne, 1976).

For successful purposeful discussion outputs, the language teacher should:

- Set a goal of discussion as e.g. a letter to the editor.
- Provide his learners with a variety of sources of input (both topical information and language forms), newspapers, video-recording.
- Offer alternative interesting motivating choices to his learners to talk freely and comfortably.
- Use smaller groups instead of large ones.
- Expect oral class participation not from all class attendances.
- Give linguistic feedback on grammar or pronunciation and meaning.

In short, a language teacher has to bear in mind that his success in developing the speaking skill depends heavily on his active role inside the L2 class, not mainly as tester but rather as a guide and a facilitator to his students (Haley & Austin, 2004, Thornbury, 2005, Lindsay & Knight, 2006).

For effective oral communicative micro-skills: (fluency, accuracy and pronunciation), one expects the speaker to acquire these speaking sub-skills in an appropriate form as the listener will get the spoken message understandably and hence cooperatively. To achieve fluency, a speaker has to possess a few features in his/her speech like, typically pausing, speech rate, capacity to use synonymy in order to affirm the speech proficiency. Additionally, Koponen (1995) includes his definition of fluency the following characteristics: flow or smoothness, rate of speech, absence of excessive pausing, absence of disturbing hesitation markers, length of expression and interconnection between them. Besides, Hasselgren (1998) defines it as an aptitude to contribute to clearly understanding of listener showing the proficiency of the language that is known as coherent speech, without undue strain and taking into account that a speech act should be carried out at a comfortable pace and not disturbed by excessive hesitation.

What matters the listener is that the speech act should help him get the intended speaker message via reasonable simplicity of clear cut pronunciation, meaningful vocabulary and communicative grammar,

adequate pronunciation. Additionally, the speech has to bear pragmatic competence of the whole coherent discourse semantically meaningful and syntactically correction in order to achieve a coherent message.

On the other hand, to speak accurately means that speech has to exclude errors and mistakes of grammars and vocabulary. This requires the (EL) teacher should bear in mind that EL learners should pay special attention to phonology, grammar and discourse speech production. In fact, all these speech sub-skills (fluency, accuracy, pronunciation are complementary to each other as) Shehan, (1998) suggests that speakers' fluency, accuracy, and complexity of speech demand capacity, and that there is likely to be a trade-off between these aspects of skills.

The importance of pronunciation and intonation for EFL/ESP students is undeniable: Theoretical sound study and its application in the form of daily practice with or without natives is crucial. Much sound imitation and repetition and correction help constitute habit formation. The author is of the opinion that we would like to make English speaking as easy as driving cars safely. Pronunciation refers to the production of sounds which are used to make meaning. It includes segmental and suprasegmental The first refers to particular sounds while the latter means the aspects of speech beyond the level of individual sound such as intonation, phrasing, stress, timing and rhythm, although segmental and suprasegmental aspects are treated separately, they are, in reality, complementary and

interwoven in actual speaking. They are therefore, usually best learned as an integral part of spoken language (Gilakjani, 2012).

Speech intonation is crucial semantically as it shows the speaker's attitude whether rising, falling or sustained. Other specific pronunciation features are essential in English phonetics such as: voicing, aspiration, mouth position, intonation, linking, vowel length, syllables and specific sounds (Colorado State University, 2012).

On the other hand, there are different factors influencing pronunciation mastery such as: age, amount and type of prior pronunciation instruction, aptitude, learner attitude and motivation and native language Engwall (2012), Cucchiarini (2006).

Problem of the study

There is an existing research gap in the Egyptian context about the effectiveness of cooperative language learning (CLL) in developing ESP students' micro speaking skills.

Research questions:

The study attempted to answer the following question :

What is the effectiveness of using cooperative language learning (CLL) on developing ESP students' main micro speaking skills.

Sub-questions could be formulated as thus:

1. How effective is CLL on *accuracy* as a speaking mico skill of ESP students?

2. How effective is CLL on *fluency* as a speaking micro skill of ESP students?
3. How effective is CLL on *pronunciation* as a speaking micro skill of ESP students?

Methodology

Setting

The research study was carried out on first year students at the Faculty of Engineering - Alexandria University , Egypt - who studied English as an ESP course. The study lasted for 8 weeks from April 30th, 2014 to June 30th, 2014. The method of data collection has been used with some adaptation of some previous studies of questionnaires and speaking communication skills and relevant oral pre & post tests.

Participants

A randomly chosen sample of 28 EFL students participated in this study and was assigned to two groups: control and experimental, of 14 students each . The probability sampling adopted in this study was aided by the view of McMillan (2007).

Instruments

1. a student questionnaire for identifying ESP students' perceptions of CLL,
2. a teacher questionnaire for identifying ESP instructors' perceptions of their students' CLL, and
3. an oral test to evaluate the level of students' oral skills.

Procedure

The general procedures employed in this study can be divided into two main phases: developing the study instruments and the teaching material, and conducting the main phase of the study.

During the first phase, the study instruments were developed by the researcher and validated by a group of experts in TEFL field. The researcher had to administer the study instruments in order to make sure that both groups (the control and the experimental) are homogeneous before the intervention. Having the intervention (A speaking teaching ESP-based program (Rossita Stone Application, Basics+1-5) carried out, the researcher had to administer the study instruments in order to find out whether the proposed program was effective in developing speaking sub-skills of ESP students.

It is worthy to note that the study participants were exposed to – among other things – cooperative activities related to ESP in addition to some daily communicative ones. The main focus was on the interaction, which is the pith of speaking skill, between and among groups seeking for developing accuracy, fluency and pronunciation as sub skills of speaking. Though the girls who were involved in the study had more active participations than their male counterparts, all the participants expressed their satisfaction and positive attitude towards the material given.

Results and discussion

Having finished pretesting, the experimental intervention and posttesting, data were collected and treated statistically using the SPSS package. The following results were obtained. No statistical differences between pre tests post tests on speaking sub-skills of the control group and the experimental one. Table 1 shows the overall means and standard deviations of the three speaking micro-skills of pre-post tests of both groups (control & experimental).

Table 1: Means and std. deviations of pre-test on speaking sub- skills of both groups

Source of variance	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig.
Pre-test	Control	14	8.51	3.04	1.30	0.221
	Experimental	14	9.21	3.30		

Findings revealed that the two groups were equal in their speaking ability on their pre-test. Differences between the two groups in the pre-test and post test speaking sub-skills are shown in the following table.

Table 2: Differences between the two groups in the pre-test and post test on speaking sub-skills

Group	No.	Source of variance	Mean	SD
Control	14	Pre-test	8.51	3.91
		Post-test	12.13	2.83
Experimental	14	Pre-test	9.21	3.31
		Post-test	19.16	4.22

The two phases (pre-post testing) indicate considerable differences between the two groups. Table 2 shows that the experimental group's speaking skills developed owing to following CLL method. For more illustrations of the study results, the following four tables (3, 4, 5 and 6) reveal the three speaking sub-or

micro skills abilities (fluency, accuracy and pronunciation) which the ESP students received including CLL to the experimental group.

Table 2: Differences between the two groups in the pre-test and post- test speaking sub-skills

Group	No.	Source of variance	Mean	SD
Control	14	Pre-test	8.51	3.91
		Post-test	12.13	2.83
Experimental	14	Pre-test	9.21	3.31
		Post-test	19.16	4.22

Table 3: Overall means and std. deviations of speaking sub-skills post-test of both groups

Group	No.	Mean	SD
Control	14	16.14	2.12
Experimental	14	21.71	3.19

Table 4: Means and std. deviations of accuracy post-test for both groups

Source of variance	Group	No.	Mean	SD
Accuracy	Control	14	5.13	3.64
	Experimental	14	6.02	2.12

Table5: Means and std. deviations of fluency post-test for both groups

Source of variance	Group	No.	Mean	SD
Fluency	Control	14	4.40	3.77
	Experimental	14	6.57	2.11

Table6: Mean and std. deviations of pronunciation post-test for both groups

Source of variance	Group	No.	Mean	SD
Pronunciation	Control	14	3.89	2.94
	Experimental	14	4.12	3.27

The CLL student questionnaire was mainly designed to diagnose the students' evaluation of their speaking sub-skills and the awareness of cooperation in teams/groups. That three-part questionnaire of nine questions - having been administered - revealed the results below:

1. Do you find speaking in English:

Options	%
Very good	7.14
Easy	71.42
Difficult	2.96
Very difficult	19.75

2. Pick the most important speaking micro-skill that needs development:

Options	%
Accuracy	10.77
Fluency	22.39
Pronunciation	67.14

3. Do you feel afraid to talk?

Options	%
Yes	61.64
No	38.36

4. Which of the following techniques did you enjoy best?

Options	%
Group work	40.01
Role play	15.65
Problem solving	13.12
Discussion	31.22

5. Were you given the opportunity to evaluate your oral production?

Options	%
Yes	33.12
No	66.88

6. Generally, do you find it difficult to work with your pairs/groups?

Options	%
Yes	28.98
No	71.02

7. Have you ever heard of cooperative language learning (CLL)?

Options	%
Yes	30.11
No	69.89

8. Does your teacher try to solve the problems encountered?

Options	%
Yes	74.32
No	25.68

9. Does you teacher raise your awareness towards the skills of CCL?

Options	%
Yes	79.82
No	20.18

10. Do you think that CLL (group work) helps you improve your speaking sub-skills (accuracy, fluency, pronunciation)?

Options	%
Yes	68.12
No	31.86

The high percentages shown above expressing ESPstudents' perceptions on CLL in general and some aspects related to it might be attributed to the safe environment in which they were in during the experimentation phase. Besides, They might have found someone listening to them airing their views freely and safely.

As mentioned before, the CLL teacher was mainly designed for identifying the ESP instructors' perceptions about their students' oral proficiency.

The total number of ESP instructors involved in teaching ESP were 5. Three of them got B.A., one, MA and one Ph.D.

1. Teachers' academic degree:

Degree	No.	%
BA	3	60
MA	1	20
Ph.D.	1	20
Total	5	100

2. How long have you been teaching English?

Experience years	No.	%
Over 30 years	1	20
20-30 years	3	60
Less than 20 years	1	20
Total	5	100

3. Are the oral-aural skills your major teaching concern?

Options	%
Yes	80
No	20

4. Which of the following describes your students' level of oral proficiency?

Options	%
High	0
Above average	0
Average	40
Below average	60
Low	0
Total	100

5. Do you believe that your ESP students are motivated in oral communication?

Options	%
Yes	40
No	60

6. What is the speaking micro-skill that you find most difficult in teaching?

Options	%
Pronunciation	60
Fluency & Accuracy	30
Grammar	10

7. Which of the following techniques do you use most?

Options	%
Group work	70
Discussion	10
Role play	10
Problem solving	10

8. Do you evaluate your students' oral production?

Options	%
Yes	100
No	0

9. If your answer is "yes", which style do you prefer?

Options	%
Self evaluation	20
Peer-evaluation	20
Teacher evaluation	60

10. Please indicate how far you agree with each of the following principles of CLL:

a. Learning is facilitated via peer instruction in the target language:

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
3	2	0	0	5

b. Although students work together, each one is individually accountable:

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
2	2	1	0	5

- c. Positive interdependence of ESP students in CCL is the motive power of their peer interaction:

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
2	2	1	0	5

- d. Since social skills involves teaching not only the language related to them, but cooperation as well:

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
2	3	0	0	5

11. Do you raise your students' awareness towards the value of CCL?

Options	%
Yes	40
No	60

12. Do your students encounter problems in (CLL)?

Options	%
Yes	40
No	60

13. You you believe that CLL enhances students' speaking sub-skills(fluency,accuracy, pronunciation)?

Options	%
Yes	80
No	20

Analyzing the study results of the CLL teacher questionnaire indicates that the application of CLL is vital. The various topics used to achieve the purposes of the present study could help improve the speaking micro-skills as the ESP instructors were aware of getting their students involved in group learning with

the intention of developing these micro-skills of speaking. Each activity or task required was intended as a means to an end.

Having completed the speaking course via CLL techniques which lasted 10 weeks, the experimental group could be capable of outscoring their counterparts (control group) in developing fluency and accuracy on English post test. Remarkably, pronunciation was less developed via CLL

Generally, the students could improve fluency and accuracy as speaking micro-skills, as they tried to correct their mistakes avoiding interference in the comprehension of the listener, although there were topics that they should continue working such as the pronunciation of the past tense. Additionally, they could organize their ideas more adequately. That may be due to the fact that students have got previous background knowledge (schema) about grammatical structure. On the contrary, the micro-skill less developed, as mentioned earlier, was pronunciation since students did not take the risk to pronounce the words imitating the native accent.

Likewise, the different CLL strategies used during the study could match the aims of the study, as students could enhance their social ties helping each other, learn from each member of the group contrary to the learning conventional as students' contribution was valuable for the consolidation of the themes proposed principally by the class teacher. Self-confidence in facing the public in learning could be enhanced for ESP specialists.

Furthermore, the study results could reveal the following:

1. The oral/aural skills were considered the major concern in developing oral proficiency.
2. Group work was considered effective by ESP instructors and students in CLL.
3. students were aware of the skills adopted for effective learning.
4. group work as a technique to enhance students' oral proficiency revealed their recognition of the effectiveness of such a technique.

Conclusion

The positive results revealed in this study concerning the influence of cooperative group work (CLL) on improving students' oral production have confirmed the assumption that there is a positive relationship between cooperative language learning (CLL) and oral proficiency. Actually, what concerns mainly the ELT curriculum, English methodology and instruction and EL teachers is the implementation not only of current teaching methods and strategies but the constant search of innovative ones that could result in perfect outcomes not only in speaking micro-skills but in other language micro skills as listening, reading and writing. Additionally, EL teachers at pre/post university stage must be aware of the effectiveness of the techniques they often adopt in their ELT and assess them to ensure that proper modeling take place.

References

- Abd El-Maksoud, M. (2013). The Effect of Using Communicative Approach on Developing Pronunciation sub-skills, *Educational Research*, 4(3), 294-308, March 2013.
- Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in language learning*. New York. Cambridge University Press.
- Artut, P. (2009). Experimental Evaluation of the Effect of Cooperative Learning in Kindergarten Children's Mathematics Ability. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 48, 370-380.
- Aziz, Z. & Hosain, M. (2010). A Comparison of Cooperative Learning and Conventional Teaching on Students' Achievement in Secondary Mathematics. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 9, 53-62.
- Barger, M. (2009). In Goyak (2009). The effects of cooperative learning techniques on perceived environmental and critical thinking skills of preservice teachers. Dissertation, Liberty University. Retrieved August 12, 2012, from <http://www.digitalcommons.liberty.edu>
- Barker, L. & Gauto, D. (2002). *Communication* (8th edition). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bright & McGroger (1970). *Teaching English as a second language*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Bygate, M. (2001). Speaking .In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.) *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (14-24). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Byrne, D. (1976). *Teaching Oral English*. London: Longman.
- Cellce-Murcia, M. (1983). "Teaching pronunciation communicatively," in *MEXTESOL Journal*, 7(1), 10-25.
- Colorado State University (2012: 1-2). "Teaching Pronunciation" Retrieved from [http:// writing_colostate.edu/guides/teaching/esl/pronunciation.cfm](http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/teaching/esl/pronunciation.cfm), on 10/4/2012.
- Cucchiarini, (2006). Pronunciation Quality of Individual Words. In Yang, Liu, The Effectiveness of Integrating Commercial

- Pronunciation Software into An ESL Pronunciation Class Learners, (Lim1), USA.
<http://books.google.com.eg/books?isbn=0549997350>.
- Damon, W. (1984). Peer Education: The Untapped Potential. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 5, 331-343.
- Dickson, L. (1981). Have you got Mr. Bum the Bake: Problem and Solutions in the Use of Game. Role Play Instruction *ELT Journal* XXX Italy, p. 382.
- Dorian, N. (2010). Investigating Variation: The Effects of Social Organization and Setting. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dugas, D. et al. (2010). Speaking by speaking skills for social competence. Compass Publishing.
- El-Ebyary, K. (2005). Developing the Pronunciation Skills for non-specialist EFL Teachers in Egypt. *Review of Education, Communication and Language Sciences*, 2.
- Engwall, O. (2012). "Analysis of and Feedback of Phonetic Features in Pronunciation Training with a Virtual Teacher" (EJ954159) *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 25(1), 37-64.
- Fantozzo, J. et al. (1990). An Evaluation of Reciprocal Peer Tutoring Across Elementary School Settings. *Journal of School, Psychology*, 28, 309-323.
- Feigenbaum, E. (2007). The Role of Language Anxiety in Teacher-Fronted Versus Small-group interaction in Spanish as a foreign language: How is Pronunciation Accuracy Affected? *Unpublished MA Thesis*, University of Pittsburgh.
- Ferguson, S. (2007). *Public Speaking: Building Competence in Stages*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Finocchiaro & Bromfit, C. (1983). *The functional national approach. From Theory to Practice*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Gilakjani, (2012). The Significancy of Pronunciation in English Language Teaching, *ELT Journal*, 5(4), 96
- Graham, J. (1990). Changing Fossilized speech: what does it take? Retrieved from: Eric No. (ED319265).

- Guest P. (2012). 7 Reasons that English Learners Fail (and how You can avoid these traps). [http:// www.ontargetenglish.com/post/reasons-english-learners-fail-avoid-traps](http://www.ontargetenglish.com/post/reasons-english-learners-fail-avoid-traps). (June 2012)
- Haley, M. & Aust, T. (2004). Content Based Second Language Teaching and Learning: An Interactive Approachs. New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hasselgren (1998). Small Words and Valid Testing. *Ph.D. Thesis*. Department of English, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway.
- Hill & Ruptic (1949). In Byrne (1976). Teaching oral English. London: Longman.
<http://reallifeglobal.com/g-reasons-why-people-fail-t> (Nov. 24, 2012)
- Hymes, D. (1967). On communicative competence University of Pennsylvania, In Pricle, J.B. and Holms, J. (eds.). *Sociolinguistics* (Unpublished Manuscript), Marmondsworth: Penguin.
- Jassem, Z. (1994). *Lectures in English and Arabic Sociolinguistics*. Kuala Lumpur: Pustaka Antara.
- Jassem, Z. (1997). Towards better speaking in the English class: A Sociolinguistic Approach. *The English Teacher*. 24, 41-59.
- Johnson, D. & Johnson, R. (1981). The integration of the handicapped into the regular classroom: Effects of cooperative and individualistic instruction. *Contemporary Education Psychology*, 6, 344-353.
- Kneen, J. (2008). Essential skills: Essential speaking and listening skills. Oxford: Oxford Univesity Press.
- Kopenen, M. & Riggeribanch, H. (2000). *Perspectives on fluency*. University of Michigan Press, USA.
- Lazaraton, A. (2001). Teaching Oral Skills. In M. Celce Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (103-116). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Lee, G. (2009). Speaking up: Six Korean Students' Oral Participation in Class Discussions in US Graduate Seminars. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 142-156.

- Lindsay, C. & Knight, L. (2006). *Learning and Teaching English: A Course for Teachers*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Liu, M. & Jackson, J. (2009). Reticence in Chinese EFL Students at Varied Proficiency Levels. *TESL Canada Journal*, 26(2), 56-81.
- Mohamadian, T. (2012). The Effect of Shininess on Iranian EFL learners/language learning motivation and willingness to communicate, *Unpublished Master Disseration*, Islamic Azad University, Iran.
- Murdoch, K. & Wilson, J. (2004). *How to succeed with cooperative learning*. Australia: Curriculum Corporation.
- Neri, et al. (2006). "Selection Segmental Errors in Non-Native Dutch for Optimal Pronunciation Training". *Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching (IRAL)*, 44 (4), pp. 357-404.
- Pawlak, M. et al. (2011). Speaking and Instructed Foreign Language Acquisition. Second Language Acquisition, Eric No. (ED531210).
- Reda, M. (2009). *Between Speaking and Silence: A Study of Quite Students*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Richards, J. & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sato, t. (2012). "The Contribution of Test-Takers' Speech Content to Scores on an English Oral Proficiency Test" (EJ971383) *Language Testing*, 29(2), 223-241.
- Seely, J. (2005). *Oxford Guide to Effective Writing and Speaking*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Shehan, P. (1998). *A Cognition Approach to Language Learning*. Oxford :Oxford University Press
- Slavin, R. (1995). *Cooperative learning, theory, research and practice*. Massachusetts: Simons & Schuster Inc.
- Suwantarathip, O. & Wookfolk, S. (2010). The Impact of Cooperative Learning on Anxiety and Proficiency in an EFL

- class. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*, 7(11), 51-58.
- Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to teach Speaking*. Harmer, J. (Ed.). London: Longman.
- Tsailing, L. (2002). *Implementing cooperative learning in EFL teaching: Process and Effects: Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation*, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan.
- Woolfolk, A. et al. (2003). *Educational psychology*. Canada: Pearson Education.
- Xia, S. (2009). Are they Ready to Participate? East Asian Students' Acquisition of Verbal Participation in American Classroom. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 17(2), 137-157.
- Yager, S. et al. (1985). The Effect of Cooperative and Individualistic Learning Experiences on Positive and Negative Cross-Handicap Relationships. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 10, 127-138.