People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

Department of English

Enhancing EFL Students' Motivation to Speak through Short Silent Animated Films

The Case of 1ˢᵗ Year EFL Students of English, Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University , Jijel

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Master Degree in Didactics of English

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Academic year: 2018-2019

 "animation films have much to offer in the classroom, if we can free ourselves of the prejudice

that anything so amusing cannot also be educational"

(Wegner, 1977, p. 16)

Dedication

I dedicate this work

To the soul of my grandmother,

To my dear parents who always supported me since the beginning of my studies,

To my adorable sisters and my unique brother,

To my close friends who have never failed me and have been by my side,

To all my teachers, especially the ones who guided me,

Finally, to everyone who believed in me, to everyone I dearly love and call family.

Soumia LABRECHE

To the memory of my father who used to smile, though in pain

To the woman who has toiled and sweated, for me to gain

To my brothers and sisters whose love is never uttered but shown

To whom I call friends and those I call home

To whoever reads this piece of writing

It's for YOU

Souzane BOUFROUA

Acknowledgments

In the name of Allah, the Most Compassionate, the Most Merciful

First of all, we thank *Allah* for giving us the blessing and the strength to do this work.

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to our supervisor, **Dr. BOUNAR Fateh** for his guidance, support and encouragement.

We hold endless thanks to **Mr. NAILI Redouane** for his patience and for devoting his precious time to answer our endless questions concerning methodology in particular.

We would like to thank **Dr. BOUKEZZOULA Mohamed** for his valuable advice and perfect sense of understanding.

We are immensely grateful to both **Mr. KERDOUN** who was always willing to help us and **Dr. BOUZENOUN Abdeldjalil** for providing us with the necessary documents.

We would like to express our heartily thanks to **Mr. KEBIECHE Amine** for his help and constructive comments throughout writing this humble work.

We would like to thank our classmate and friend **Ms. ZERAOULIA Asya** for her cooperation and encouragements.

Our special thanks for first year students of groups one and two for their collaboration.

Last but not least, we would like to thank in advance the board of the jury **Pr. BOUKERIKA** and **Dr. FANIT** for accepting to examine our work.

Abstract

The success of language teaching and learning hinges upon a number of factors related to the learners. Some of which are psychological such as anxiety, self-confidence and motivation in that they may affect the process and why not shape it. Particularly, demotivation is of the serious hindrances to learning resulting more often than not in poor performance. Attempting to create solutions to students' demotivation, exclusively regarding speaking, the present study suggests using short silent animated films (SSAF) in speaking sessions. It is, thus, hypothesized that the short silent animations, if implemented, could enhance first year EFL students' motivation to speak. The research investigates the silent animations' influence on students' motivated behaviours, namely attention, participation, eager volunteering and verbal interaction. To test the hypothesis, the research was conducted on forty randomly selected first year EFL students at Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia University. To maintain a systematic, focused investigation, a quantitative research paradigm was adopted. The researcher used an experiment and a questionnaire. The first research tool was pre-experimental in nature and ran for eight sessions. Collecting data of this tool required the use of a selective combination of MOLT and COLT observation schemes. The complementary nineteen-item student questionnaire was administered with the aim to find out the students' opinions on the short silent animated film technique, and whether it increased their motivation to speak. The findings showed that the students did better in experimental sessions than in non-experimental ones. They were more attentive, more engaged and more volunteering, generating more student talking time. The questionnaire revealed that the majority of the students maintain that short silent animated films increased their motivation to speak, and recommended the implementation of the technique to teach speaking.

Key Words: Motivation, Speaking and Silent Animated Films.

List of Abbreviations

AF: The **A**ffective **F**ilter

CALL: Computer **A**ssisted **L**anguage **L**earning

CLT: Communicative **L**anguage **T**eaching

COLT: Communicative **O**rientation of **L**2 **C**lassrooms observation scheme

DM: The **D**irect **M**ethod

EFL: English as a **F**oreign **L**anguage

ESL: English as a **S**econd **L**anguage

GTM: Grammar **T**ranslation **M**ethod

ICTs: The **I**nformation and **C**ommunication **T**echnologies

L2: Second **L**anguage

MOLT: The **M**otivational **O**rientation of **L**anguage **T**eaching observation scheme

OE: Oral **E**xpression

Q: Question

S: Student

SLA: Second **L**angage **A**cquisition

SLT: Situational **L**anguage **T**eaching

Ss: Student**s**

SSAF: Short **S**ilent **A**nimated **F**ilm

STT: Student **T**alking **T**ime

TSTT: Total **S**tudent **T**alking **T**ime

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1. Introduction

English is the language of science, literature, technology and most importantly the language of the Internet. The popularity it has gained made of studying English a necessity, and as result, speakers of English as a second or a foreign language nowadays outnumber native speakers of the language. Critical to language learning is the speaking skill. When one tries to learn English, his achievement is primarily judged by their ability to speak (Bygate, 1987). Speaking is viewed conductive for learning because it reflects much about the speakers. It is the process of "building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney, 1998, p. 13). In other words, it is the use of spoken and symbolic language to express meaning in different situations.

Teaching speaking, however, is a rather challenging task. Some situational, psychological, instructional factors, to name some, may obstruct the learning process. Krashen's (1986) Affective Filter hypothesis distinguished motivation, anxiety and self-confidence as affective contributors to learning. Broadly defined, motivation is the desire or the motive to reach a certain goal (Pardee, 1990). More specifically, it is "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985, p.10). This view of motivation concerns much the situation and precisely the tasks at hand in a learning setting.

Researchers have constantly endeavoured to discover ways for increasing students' motivation in EFL language classrooms, capitalizing especially on the advantages that technology has to offer. Technology, when used as a learning tool, provides better opportunities for classroom instruction (Raihan & Lock, 2012). Media, multimedia, and authentic materials are viewed as efficient boosters for students' incentives for learning. Different types are brought to

the language classroom such as documentaries, songs, news stories, films and animated films. These innovative ways feed into the psychology of the learner (Mayer, 2005), urge him/her to interact using the target language and create a desirable stress-free atmosphere in the classroom, which results in better learning outcomes.

2. Background of the Study

The use of media has proved useful for teaching in general and languages in particular. Many studies have investigated the effect of using media on developing different aspects of the target language, be them linguistic, communicative or cultural. Using films has become common practice in the language classroom. Using animated films, in particular, has gained popularity of late, prompting a number of researchers to look into their usefulness and their contribution to the learning process.

Khalidiyah's (2015) study entitled *The Use of Animated Video in Improving Students' Reading Skill* looked into the animated video and reading. The study aimed at examining the cause-effect relationship between the two variables (the animated video and reading) as well as students' perception of the technique. A quasi-experimental design was used with a pretest and a post-test. The sample consisted of 30 high school students. The data collected from the pretest and the post-test concluded that a significant improvement occurred after applying the treatment. The questionnaire results also revealed the students' positive attitudes toward the use of animated videos, asserting that they motivated them, stimulated their interest, increased their curiosity, and improved their overall reading comprehension.

In *The Effect of Using Short Silent Animations on EFL Learners' Writing*, Marashi and Adiban (2017) studied the effect of using short silent animations on pre-intermediate learners'

writing. Sixty participants were selected and assigned to two groups, control and experimental. The control group watched five short animations with the sound on, while the experimental group watched five silent animations. By the end of each of the 10 sessions, the students were asked to write about the silent animations. At the end of the experiment, a sample PET writing post-test was administered to both groups. The scores compared revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group. Eventually, the hypothesis was confirmed that there exists a strong impact of silent animated films on students' writing performance.

A similar study conducted by Ayu Rinda in 2017 is entitled The Effect of Silent Short Movie on EFL Writing Achievement of Vocational High School Students. The researcher used a quasi-experimental pretest-post-test design on 61 participants, who took a writing test at the end of the experiment. The study found that the participants who watched the silent clips fared better in a number of writing-related areas such as text organization, sentence formation, grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, and tidiness.

In 2015, a different study under the title: *Using Film to Increase Motivation for Speaking in English Course Classroom* investigated the influence of using films on students' motivation to speak. In the study, the researcher used action research in one cycle (Siskra, 2015). Siskra (2015) implemented the treatment on a class of ten students for a period of ten sessions. Data were collected through observation, field notes and interviews. The research findings showed that the majority of students had positive attitudes towards the integration of films into teaching. They induced high motivation and interest, and that by and large resulted in the students' being more engaged in class discussion.

If the findings of previous research imply anything, they have highlighted the role that animated films may play to enhance the students' language proficiency. The aforementioned

studies, however, focused mainly on the effect of using animated films to develop the students' reading comprehension or their writing skills. Hence, the present study attempts to fill a research gap by investigating the effect of using short silent animated films on enhancing EFL students' motivation to speak.

3. Statement of the Problem

In the EFL language classroom, students confront a number of challenges that slow down the learning process. Perhaps of the central issues they face is the lack of motivation. When students are demotivated and bored, they refrain from speaking in class and when invited to talk, use very few words to express themselves. Consequently, in presence of such a psychological hinderance (affective filter), little improvement in the students' speaking performance is noticed.

4. Research Questions

The present study mainly poses the following two research questions,

☐ **1.** Do short silent animated films enhance students' motivated behaviours, namely participation, attention, eager volunteering and verbal interaction?

☐ **2.** What are first year EFL students' attitudes towards the role of short silent animated films in enhancing their motivation to speak?

5. Hypothesis

Addressing the questions listed above, this research paper puts forward the following hypothesis:

☐ If short silent animated films were integrated into speaking sessions, students' motivation to speak would be enhanced.

6. Research Methodology

The current study is quantitative in nature. The researcher will adopt a pre-experimental research design to approach the research. Two first year EFL classes will be selected for this study and receive a reversal treatment. It means that each class will be taught a session with the treatment (short silent animated films) and the following without. The experiment will run for eight sessions and a classroom observation tool will be used hand in hand with the experiment. As for the behaviours to be observed, the researcher will selectively make use of a combination of COLT and MOLT observation schemes. Audio-recordings are to be employed for measuring one of the behaviours under study (student talking time). By the end of the experiment, a student questionnaire is to be administered for the forty students.

7. Aims of the Study

The present study aims at investigating the role of Short Silent Animated Films in enhancing first year EFL students' motivation to speak at the department of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben-Yahia University, as it also inquires if students believe that the implementation of this technique actually motivates them to perform better in speaking.

8. Structure of the Study

This dissertation is divided into two chapters, the literature review and the practical part. The first chapter is composed of three sections. The first section covers speaking, while the second section deals with the use of authentic materials, particularly short silent animated films. The third section is dedicated mainly to motivation. The second chapter represents the practical part. It displays the adopted research design as well as the description, the analysis and the discussion of the results derived from the experimental study and the questionnaire.

Chapter One: Speaking, Teaching Tools and Motivation

Section Two: Teaching Tools

Chapter one: Speaking, Teaching Tools and Motivation

Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section deals with speaking. It first

defines it from different standpoints, then presents the striking features that distinguish the

skill from the other form of expression (writing). The section, also, examines speaking subskills

and aspects. Furthermore, the very last pages of the section highlight the need to teach speaking,

as they also trace back the various teaching methods and the place of speaking within each.

The succeeding section discusses the integration of technology within language

teaching and learning. It covers media, multimedia, and authentic materials, presents their types,

and looks into their role in teaching. The section, afterwards, explores animated films' utility

a pedagogical tool and examines Visual Literacy and Pedagogy of the Unspoken as key aspects

related to the silent viewing technique.

The last section discusses some of the literature on motivation. It defines the construct

from different angles. Then, it introduces the most recent motivation theories, particularly, the

Social Psychological Period, the Cognitive-Situated Period, and the Process-Oriented Period.

The section also undersees Task Motivation and lists several indicators of motivation. Finally,

the chapter ends with presenting three/ theories supporting the current study, namely the

Affective Filter hypothesis and Multimedia theory.

Section one: Speaking

1.1.1. Speaking

Language learning englobes a number of skills a learner is required to develop, chief amongst them are the four macro skills, namely reading, writing, speaking and listening. Mastery of any language is reflected not by how much one knows about it (the formal system), but rather through skills in using it. The four macro skills are described in terms of their direction. In Nunan's words (2003): "language generated by the learner (in speech or writing) is referred to as productive. Language directed at the learner is called receptive" (p.48). In line with this distinction, speaking can be described as a productive macro skill; through which the speaker is actively involved in the speech event. Being a crucial part in language teaching and learning, speaking, therefore, is defined in different ways. According to Chaney (1998), speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (p. 13). Speaking is also viewed as an interactive process of building and sharing meaning; this process includes producing, receiving and processing information (Brown,1994; Burns and Joyce, 1997).

1.1.1.1. Motor-perceptive Skills

Bygate (1987) mentioned that there are two main approaches adopted when defining speaking, the bottom- up approach and the top-down approach. The two approaches go in parallel with motor- perceptive skills and interaction skills, respectively. As Bygate (1987) put it, motor-perceptive skills involve "perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the correct order sounds and structures . . . it is the context-free kind of skill" (p. 5). Traditionally, the bottom-up

approach constituted the backbone of Audiolingualism, in which speaking was confined to mere repetition of dialogues and drills previously given by the teacher.

1.1.1.2. Interaction Skills

Motor-perceptive skills do not offer an adequate definition for speaking nor are they helpful in a language-using situation. That is, together with the motor-perceptive skills, the learner needs also to develop some other skills labelled as interaction skills, which, in Bygate's (1987) words, involve "making decisions about communication, such as what to say, how to say it, and whether to develop it, in accordance with one's intentions, while maintaining the desired relations with others" (p.6). To put it differently, such skills are those that put to practice knowledge about the language along with the motor-perceptive skills in a given situation. Such interaction necessitates making choices under context and time constraints. This top-down view was mirrored in communicative language teaching when the focus shifted from language form to meaning.

1.1.2. Speaking as Knowledge or Skill

In order to test the students' achievement in speaking, teachers have to get them actually say something (Bygate, 1987). By so doing, they have to draw on some knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Having students do speaking practice and oral exams, one would notice that a difference exists between knowledge about a language (the formal system) and skill in using it (Bygate, 1987). Bygate (1987) found it adequate to use an analogy with a driver of a car to explain this distinction: the car driver needs knowledge about the controls, their names, where they are, what they do and how they are operated. Still, he must have the skill to use the controls and guide the car, avoiding the obstacles that might come in the way, and respecting the driving

rules. Similarly, merely knowing how to put sentences together when speaking is not enough: learners have to produce them in accordance with the given context. This means "making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly; and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in the path" (Bygate, 1987, p. 3).

1.1.3. Difference between Spoken and Written Language

When we speak of any language, we must consider its two forms: spoken and written. The difference between them, though, doesn't only lie in the fact that the first is oral/ auditory and the second is in written symbols. In practice, "Speech is not spoken writing" (Bygate, 1987, p. 10). That is to say, he who speaks in another language the way he has learnt it from textbooks, is aptly described by Nunan (2003) as 'bookish'. In this vein, White (1978) clarified that we tend to be judgmental of those who speak like a book because, to some degree, books are not addressed to common people nor are they written with everyday language (as cited in Bygate, 1987, p. 10). The two forms of language have some distinctly different characteristics, as listed by Van Lier (1995) in the following table: (as cited in Nunan, 2003, p. 48)

Spoken Language	Written Language
Auditory	Visual
Temporary; immediate reception	Permanent; delayed reception
Prosody (Rhythm, stress and intonation)	Punctuation
Immediate feed-back	Delayed or no feedback
Planning and editing limited by channel	Unlimited planning, editing, revision

Table 01. Difference between Spoken Form and Written Form of Language

In short, this clear-cut distinction requires learning and teaching speaking and writing in various ways using different materials and media.

1.1.4. Speaking Sub-Skills

A number of sub-skills fall under speaking, Harmer (2007) mentioned that speaking is a complex skill since it includes other elements such as fluency, pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and appropriateness.

1.1.4.1. Fluency

Fluency is a feature of a foreign language oral performance. Segalowitz (2010) defined the term as "the ability to describe and report actions or situations in precise words" (p.47). According to Harrel(2007), it is "the smoothness or the flow with which the speaker joins sounds, syllables, words and phrases while speaking quickly". Also, Koponen and Riggenbach(2000) asserted that "fluency in language assessment is comparable to continuity, smoothness or evenness of speech without extreme breaks or hesitations". In other words, it is the ability to speak and express ideas freely in different situations regardless of making mistakes or long pauses to select or think of the suitable word. Fluency as a speaking sub-skill is to speak in a normal speed, to convey the message in an easy way using a suitable and simple language according to Thornbery(2000). Richards et al (1992) mentioned that fluency is "the features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions." (P. 204)

1.1.4.2. Pronunciation

Pronunciation is an important part of any language; Florez (1999) defined it as "the production of sounds, stress patters, rhythmic structures and intonation of the language."(p.2).

Correct pronunciation is significant in conveying the message to the listener. Consequently, wrong pronunciation may cause misunderstanding and frustration. Harmer (2001) mentioned pitch, intonation, minimal pairs, spelling, rhythm, and stress, as issues related to pronunciation. Learners need to be familiar with the function of such components as well as their form.

In other words, according to Trouvain and Cut (2007), to comprehend a feature of pronunciation is not sufficient to learn a language. Yet, to transmit meaning learners have to be more attentive. Incorrect pronunciation might be annoying and displeasing for both interlocutors (p. 53).

1.1.4.3. Grammar

Grammar is defined by Parsons (2004) as "a system of rules governing the structure and the arrangement of the language" (p. 8). These rules and principles define how speaking and writing of a language function. Tomita (1996) asserted that, the aim of grammar is "to facilitate the mapping between form and meaning between the edges formed over words or phrases and their denotations in the system's world model" (p. 320).

Grammar is classified into two categories, descriptive and prescriptive grammar. According to Huddleston (1984), the goal of descriptive grammar is to present the grammar that underlies the actual usage of the language speakers, and the objective of prescriptive grammar is to tell its learners the grammatical rules they should use. (p. 47). Learning about Grammar is crucial to acquire a foreign language. Without mastering grammar rules, language skills, most notably speaking and writing, will be affected as we cannot write or speak without forming correct sentences.

1.1.4.4. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the basis of language in which Lewis (1993) claimed that it "is the core or heart of language" (p.89). Exposure and practice are important to enhance vocabulary.

Stahel(2005) described, "vocabulary knowledge is the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world" (p.95).That is, one goal of vocabulary development is to help learners to become independent to learn new meanings of the words and their use.

1.1.4.5. Appropriateness

According to Collins Dictionary (1979) appropriateness "is something that is suitable or acceptable for a particular situation."Arndt, Harvey, and Nuttall (2000) argued that fluency and appropriateness are crucial aspects for a correct and better language usage. A speaker is said to communicate properly when he respects grammatical rules and forms correct sentences in suitable situations. Brown and Yule (1983) suggested that much language use aims at interaction, in other words people mostly use language to communicate with others hence to preserve and develop their social relationships. Thus, if the speaker's speech is not appropriate, this goal will not be fulfilled.

1.1.5. Aspects of Speaking

To enable learners of English to communicate effectively, three aspects of speaking need to be considered. These all together provide a better understanding of this skill.

Speaking is face to face; that is, in most conversations people include not only speech but also non- verbal language such as facial expressions, gestures and body movements. This helps participants to get feedback; hence, it ensures that each party understands the message. Widdowson (1998) stated that "Speaking . . . occurs, most of the time, in situations where participants and interlocutors are present. Such factors facilitate communication."

Speaking is considered as interactive. Whether it is a face to face conversation or over telephone, the aspect of interaction can be seen. "In every conversation the wheels of conversation usually turn smoothly, with participants offering contributions at appropriate moments, with no undue gaps or everyone talking over each other" (Cornbleet& Carter, p. 27). Mc Donough and Mackey (2000) stated that turn taking is a feature that marks interaction. It is considered as a spontaneous and unconscious part of our usual conversation. Turn takings are culture-specific. Therefore, they might induce some misunderstandings between people belonging to different cultures. For instance, in some cultures, it is acceptable to interrupt the speaker and comment, but in other cultures it is not, and is sometimes regarded as a sign of disrespect.

Speaking happens in real time. That is, conversations are unplanned and spontaneous; participants immediately provide responses and comments during a face to face conversation or over the telephone. That is why their sentences tend to be short and not complex as they are in writing. Similarly, speakers occasionally forget things they intend to say; or they may even forget what they have already said, and so they repeat themselves. This suggests that speakers might reach a communication breakdown. Foster et al. (2000) claimed that producing speech in a real time situation causes pressure, and it can be stressful for interlocutors, but "it also allows freedoms in terms of compensating for these difficulties. The use of formulaic expressions, hesitation devices, self-correction, paraphrasing and repetition can help speakers become more fluent and cope with real time demands…" (Foster et al., 2000, p. 21).

In fact, the exposure to real time situations or to these spoken discourse features permits a better oral production for foreign language learners. It helps them to sound more fluent and

normal in their use of the foreign language, as it helps them to reduce the amount of errors (Bygate, 1987).

1.2.1. Why Teach Speaking

Speaking, according to Thornbury (2005), is a natural, integral, daily activity, so inquiring about how humans come to speak doesn't receive much attention. In fact, Thornbury (2005) believed that the question usually raises only when learning a foreign language. However, Bygate (1987) claimed that speaking gains attention in both second and first languages as much as the literary skill does. Bygate (1987) further explained that learners are often judged by their speaking ability, for it reflects who they are, their social skills and status and professional development, to name a few. Bygate (1987) added that much language is learnt through speaking; Indeed, this skill is widely agreed upon to be conductive for learning, and therefore, deserves formal teaching.

Designing classroom speaking activities merits much thought in language teaching. Harmer (2007) differentiated three reasons for teaching speaking in what follows.

> Firstly, speaking activities provide rehearsal opportunities-chances to practice real-life speaking in the safety of classroom. Secondly, speaking tasks in which students try to use any or all of the language they know provide feedback for both teacher and students. Everyone can see how well they are doing: both how successful they are, and also what language problems they are experiencing. And finally, the more students have opportunities to activate the various of language they have stored in their brains, the more authentic their use of these elements become. As a result, students gradually become autonomous language users. This

means that they will use words and phrases fluently without very much conscious

thought. (p. 123)

1.2.2. Background of Teaching Speaking

Language teaching and learning has undergone huge shifts in their view of the nature of

language and language learning, what gave birth to a number of methods each with a varying

focus. The preference of one skill over the others was always in line with the prevailing method

at that given time. Hence, speaking has gained thus far a constantly changing importance.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) traced back the role of speaking in the most prominent turning

points in the field of teaching and what follows is a summary of that.

1.2.2.1. Grammar Translation Method

Spanning from the year1840 onwards, the grammar-translation method dominated

language teaching and learning. In a method that favoured accuracy over fluency, Speaking was

sidelined, giving reading and writing a superior position (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

1.2.2.2. The Reform Movement

So influential were the attempts to bring alternative approaches to language teaching. The

scope of linguistics was, thereby, broadened to include the branch of Phonetics "-the scientific

analysis and description of the sound systems of languages- . . . giving new insights into speech

processes." (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 7). The spoken form, then, had been stressed as the

primary form of language. Resulting from such a reform is the foundation of the International

Phonetic Association in 1886 alongside the International Phonetic Alphabet, so that the sounds

of languages can be carefully transcribed (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Vietor, Sweet and other

reformers in the late nineteenth century "shared many beliefs about the principles on which a new approach to teaching foreign languages should be based . . . [As related to speaking, these reformers] believed that: (Richards & Rodgers,1986, p. 8)

1. The spoken language is primary and that this should be reflected in an oral-based methodology;

2. The findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training;

3. Learners should hear the language first before seeing it in written form (p. 8)

Such lines indicate a growing interest in the spoken form of language and that the latter would soon gain practical implications in language learning.

1.2.2.3. The Direct Method

The direct method of teaching or the natural method built its principles upon teaching the foreign language in as much the same way one learns their mother tongue. Richards and Rodgers (1986) stated that such an attempt to apply natural principles to language teaching was favoured by figures like L Savour . Richards and Rodgers (1986) claimed that Savour centered his teaching around oral interaction in the target language, using questions to evoke speaking in the classroom. Advocates of the natural method believed in the direct presentation of the target language without the resort to the first language, as it had been the case with the GTM. F

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986). The DM supported the monolingual approach to teaching, and that language is better learnt when actively used in the classroom. It means that the students are to induce the rules of grammar themselves with no thorough explanation on the part of the teacher. As concerns teaching speaking in the Natural Approach, the process should start with the focus on pronunciation. Such principles of the natural approach were the building blocks of the Direct

Method. Among the principles around which it revolved are the following: (Richards & Rodgers,1986).

1- Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and- answer between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.

2- New teaching points were introduced orally.

3- Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.

4- Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized. (p. 10)

1.2.2.4. The Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching

From the 1920s onwards, there appeared a new approach to language teaching labelled as the Situational language Teaching or the Oral Approach. The British SLT built its theory of language on structuralism (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Within this approach, speech was "regarded as the basis of language, and structure was viewed as being at the heart of speaking ability" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 35). The structures were to be learnt by means of repetition and habit- formation, because this approach was influenced to a great degree by Behaviourism. Consequently, language teachers went on presenting the forms to be learnt, and students had to repeat them to form good habits to be used later in different situations (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

1.2.2.5. Audiolingualism

Across the pond, sharing many of the standpoints with SLT, the Audiolingual Method emerged. It was influenced by Structural Linguistics, and it claims that the spoken form is the primary medium of language since "many languages did not have a written form and we learn to

speak before we learn to read or write. . . Therefore, it was assumed that speech had a priority in language teaching" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 49). The main tenets of Behavioural psychology, habit-formation and reinforcement, clearly show in the design of such a method and they constituted its learning theory(Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Proponents of the Audiolingual method believed that: (Richards and Rodgers, 1986)

> Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit- formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. . .The focus in the early stages is oral drills, with gradual links to the other skills as learningdevelops. Oral proficiency is equated with correct pronunciation and grammar and the ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations. (pp. 51-52)

1.2.2.6. Communicative Language Teaching

For many years, speaking was taught by teaching structures of the language, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, dialogues in hopes that students would later assemble them and speak; yet, meeting that aim is quite ambitious (Nunan, 2003). Nunan (2003) believed that dialogues in textbooks never mirrored real-life conversation and even class-toppers failed to speak out of the classroom. During the late twentieth century, as stated in Nunan's *Practical English Language Teaching*, several studies concluded that "people do not learn the pieces of the language and then put them together to make conversations. Instead, [they] learn the pieces by interacting with other people." (Nunan, 2003, p. 50). This realization necessitated the design of activities to enable students to interact in the classroom. (Nunan, 2003). The former paved the

ground for the rise of Communicative Language Teaching. Nunan (2003) also stated that there emerged two versions of CLT. The weak version talked of teaching the pieces of the language with the inclusion of some communication activities. While the strong version set through that lessons should create opportunities for students to interact in the safety of the classroom. Speaking has ever since assumed a rather interactive role in language teaching and learning.

Section Two: Teaching Tools

2.1.1. Technology and Technology Integration

Technology is the application of science and knowledge in various spheres. It is used in every field and education is not excluded. Graddol (1997) said that "technology lies at the heart of the globalization process; affecting education work and culture" (p. 16).It has also been integrated into learning and teaching processes, and had remarkably affected it and made it easier and innovative. Patal(2013)stated that "technology provides so many options as making teaching interesting and also making teaching more productive in terms of improvement" (p. 116).

In order to facilitate teaching and learning, many techniques were developed; this lead to the implementation of technological tools within the educational system. According to Warschauer and Meskill (2000), "appropriate use of new technologies allows for a more thorough integration of language, content and culture than ever before and provides students with unprecedented opportunities for autonomous learning". That is to say, the implementation of technologies in language classrooms has a positive effect on the learning and teaching process (As cited in Ivy, 2010, p. 210). Due to technological development teaching has changed; it is more based on technological materials. Educators are trying to make teaching English more technology oriented. It was, earlier, based on the old adage "chalk and talk", and on the interaction between teacher and learner. However, with the advancement of technology, many techniques and devices have been introduced and implemented.

2.1.2 Educational Technology

Educational technology refers to the implementation of different devices such as smart phones, tablets and computers in the classroom (Educational Technology, n.d). This helps to

change the rhythm of the process and allows for great interaction, collaboration and more engagement in the classroom. Ely (1972) mentioned that educational technology is a "field involved in the facilitation of human learning" (cited in Robinson et Al., 2008). In other words, educational technology's concern is to improve leaning by implementing proper technologies and resources. Different types of technology exist, but "The selection of appropriate technology in class is essential for ensuring effective learning. When used as learning tools, technology provides tremendous opportunities to enhance classroom instruction" (Raihan & Lock, 2012, p. 25). It fulfills the visual and auditory senses of the learner. Moreover, its use for instructional purposes started during the 20th century. It helps the teacher to assist his teaching and it can lead the students to be more motivated. Thus, technological materials such as computers and audio-visual aids are important and useful for EFL teaching and learning.

2.1.3. Educational Technology Tools

Technological innovations have gone hand in hand with the development of English. It is considered as an essential tool for EFL learning and teaching since it provides various instruments like computer assisted language learning (CALL), information and communication technology (ICT), and language laboratories.

2.1.3.1. Computer Assisted Language Learning

Computer Assisted language learning or CALL is a widely-used term in the studies of technology use in language learning. It refers to the use of computer by teachers and learners in language courses. According to Chapelle (2001), it refers to "the area of technology and second language teaching and learning". Also, it was defined as "the search for and applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" (Levy, 1997, p. 3). CALL is used as an aid to the teacher in the classroom; consequently, teachers have to stay updated on the new inventions of

technology. So they benefit from the opportunities they can offer for language learning. CALL is employed to assist learning as well, for it helps learners to improve and control their learning processes by using diverse instruments like emails, electronic books and dictionaries. Hence, learners can be more independent since they are able to utilize the computer to get information and be satisfied with their learning. (Warschauer& Whittaker, 1997).Therefore, applying CALL provided learners with new techniques and methods to learn English that increased their autonomous and motivated them.

2.1.3.2. Information and Communication Technologies

Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) use information and communications technologies to support and enhance learning. According to UNESCO "ICT is a scientific, technological and engineering discipline and management technique used in handling information, its application and association with social, economic and cultural matters". ICTs are influencing all aspects of life, as well as the educational system. Since it provides both teachers and learners with more opportunities and it may lead to better teaching methods and improve the student's learning. It includes motivational tools that can be used in the teaching learning process as audio-visual aids and digital technologies such as computers and internet. ICT's help EFL students to enhance their level, essentially, it provides them with technological tools that allow them to obtain information, and thus it motivates them and ameliorates their communicative skills. (Grace & Kenny, 2003)

2.1.3.3. Language Laboratories

A language laboratory is an electronic device that is designed to help the learning process to get easier. It plays an essential role in language teaching and learning. Singhal(1997) defined it as a room which is equipped with technological materials for the practice of listening

comprehension and speaking to help the students to master the target language. Different materials such as texts, images, audios and videos can easily be integrated; and teachers can alter this equipment to fit their requirements and fulfill their students' needs. Language laboratories help students to be actively involved in the learning process; as it is equipped with all the necessary tools, it creates a better atmosphere and makes students more confident and excited to learn. Needless to say, learners prefer to use language laboratories because they can practice their language skills. Therefore, they may improve their oral proficiency in the target language. (César & Brenes, 2006). It provides them with technological aids that help them to listen to native conversations or songs, and to record their answers as well.

2.1.4. Multimedia

According to Pandey (n.d.), "Multimedia is a combination of text, audio, still images, animation, video or interactivity content forms. It is usually recorded and played, displayed or accessed by information content processing devices such as computers and electronic media devices but also be part of a live performance (multimedia)". Multimedia is excessively used in EFL classrooms by both teachers and students nowadays. Its use motivates learners, yet it has to be implemented with the different existing teaching techniques. Using multimedia in the classroom facilitates learning and teaching.

2.1.5. Media and Materials

As Briggs (1970) stated, media is the physical means that is used to stimulate students to learn. It is an aid that helps to deliver the presented input, such as text books, Websites and videos (as cited in Reka, 2016). According to Wright (1976), "many media and many styles of visual presentation are useful to the language learner" (Wright, 1976, p.1).While, a material as Tomilson(2011) claimed refers to " anything which is used by teachers or learners to facilitate

the learning process" (Tomilson, 2011, p.2), that is, materials have an important role in tuition since it helps students on their way to autonomy.

2.1.5.1. Authentic Materials

Nowadays most of teacher use authentic materials. Nunan (1989) defined authentic material "as any material which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching" (Nunan,1989, p.54), whereas Jacobson, Degener, and Purcell-Gates (2003)said " we consider as authentic those literacy events that researchers …have documented as mediating people's social and cultural lives outside of a schooling context"(p.5). House (2008) mentioned its role as a means that "links the environment of the classroom with the real world in which we hope our students will eventually be using the language they are learning" (p.53); in other words, these materials have some qualities of natural speech and writing. Richards et al stated in Longman online Dictionary (2010) that authentic materials are

> Materials that were not originally developed for pedagogical purposes, such as the use of magazines, newspapers, advertisements, news reports, or songs… [Which] contain more realistic and natural examples of language use than those found in textbooks and other specially developed teaching materials (p.42).

In other words, these materials were not specifically created to be used in the classroom, but they are excellent learning tools because they help learners to bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world. The resources for these teaching materials are available for everybody. Gebhard(1996) afforded the most common materials used in an EFL classroom such as, authentic audio-visual materials, authentic visual materials and authentic printed materials.

2.1.5.2. Audio-visual Materials

Audio-visual is a combination of two words, of course, the term audio refers to what we can hear, whereas, visual refers to what we can see. Audio-visual aids must be either audible or visual, or both. It is an interesting tool for teaching and learning foreign languages for it makes the process more realistic and concrete. Thus, it motivates and stimulates learners. According to Good's and Carter Dictionary of Education(1945) , audio visual aids are "anything by means of which learning process may be encouraged or carried on through the sense of hearing or sense of sight."(Good and Carter, 1945, p.495) In other words, these educational materials accelerate learning and simplify it. There are a lot of audio visual aids that can be used. The most common ones include pictures, songs, videos, and PowerPoint presentations. Selecting the suitable material depends on the needs and requirements of both the teacher and the learner. As Marshall McLuhan (1967) said "we shape our tools and our tools shape us" (Marshall McLuhan, 1967, p.68), hence, sometimes teachers and learners become aids for their own devices that they use to teach or learn. Videos for instance, are a helpful tool in the educational system as they allow learners to enhance their listening and speaking skills. Cunning (2001) claimed that videos are useful in language learning and teaching because it provides stimuli to the learners that helps them to get a background schemata of the subject.

2.2. Definition of Video

According to Newby et al. (2000), videos are "the display of recorded pictures on television-type screen. Any media format that employs a cathode-ray screen to present a picture can be referred to as a video." (Newby et al., 2000, p.201). A video is a technological material that represents scenes in motion through capturing, recording and storing a group of images. In other words, a video is media that incorporates a variety of visual and a range of audible

elements in addition to spoken language. Because of the development of technology, learners have the access to different audio visual media as videos and films. These materials help them to improve their skills, since they promote perception, understanding, reinforcement and retention. Furthermore, teachers use videos in the classroom to make the process more comprehensible and enjoyable. Lonergan(1995) stated that " video in the classroom offers exciting possibilities of for language teaching and learning." (Lonergan, 1995, p.1)

2.2.1. Practical Techniques for Video Implication in the Classroom

Videos are amongst the best materials that help learners to practise and contextualize what they have learnt. Yet, watching these videos or films should be different from passive television viewing. So, teachers should encourage learners to watch them actively through using different implementation techniques in the classroom. Harmer (2006) stated that there are different viewing and listening techniques that can be used in video-based lessons.

2.2.1.1. Active Viewing

It is one of the techniques. It helps students to concentrate on the video's main idea, because it allows them to have an active part within video teaching presentations. That is, before viewing the teacher gives his students some key questions that they have to answer while, or after viewing. Also, he can provide them with some viewing guides or sheets that lead them to focus on certain and specific details.

2.2.1.2. Freeze Framing

It means to stop the video for several times. The teacher freezes the picture when he or she wants to teach students certain expressions regarding mood and emotions, since videos clearly show body language, facial expressions, and reactions. By freezing the scene, students

can be asked to predict what is happening next, or the teacher can lead them to concentrate on a particular point.

2.2.1.3. Silent Viewing

This technique allows the teacher to present the video without any voice. It arouses the student's interests, stimulates his thoughts and develops his skills. In which, students can watch the video silently then they can be asked to predict what the characters might be saying or to guess what is happening. At the end, the teacher can play the video with the sound so students can compare their predictions and impressions with what has happened.

2.2.1.4. Partial Viewing

It is another technique that lets the student to watch a part of the video, then the teacher asks them about the information they have to gather, or to predict the main idea of the video. This way stimulate their curiosity and raises their creativity.

2.2.1.5. Fast Forward

The fast forward technique permits the teacher to play the video for few seconds then fast it forward. Later on, students can share the information they have gathered from the video and guess what the characters talked about or what was the video about.

Besides the video techniques Harmer (2006) introduced, Çakir (2006) also added a number of other ways, sharing some similarities with the previously stated ones. These activities are repetition and role play activity, the reproduction activity, dubbing activity and followed up activity. In repetition and role play activity, the video can be repeated several times until students get a clear understanding of the presentation. Afterwards, they are asked to act out the scene. Also, the reproduction activity where students are asked to describe what happened, write or retell it. Another interesting activity that can be implemented is dubbing activity. In this activity

students are asked to fill in the missing dialogues of scenes after watching a sound-off video. The last activity is called followed up activity, that is, the video is considered as the basis of further extended oral practice. Students are encouraged to share and develop their skills as in discussions.

2.3. Film as a Pedagogical Tool

As mentioned before, authentic materials have been widely used in the EFL and ESL classrooms as tools to give learning a language in a non-native setting some flavour of authenticity. Research and media studies (Allan, 1985; Tomalin, 1986; Geddes & Sturtridge, 1988; Rivers, 1994; Baddock, 1996) concluded that authentic media and video materials such as films are integrated into modern language classrooms to meet different needs, and the success of their implementation highly hinges on choosing them appropriately.

The effectiveness of films as a teaching resource is due to their potential to create an optimal language-learning environment (Kasper & Singer, 2001). The criteria for such an environment were listed by Egbert et al. (2007) in what follows:

1- Learners have opportunities to interact and negotiate meaning.

2- Learners interact in the target culture with an authentic audience.

3- Learners are involved in authentic tasks.

4- Learners are exposed to and encouraged to produce varied and creative language.

5- Learners have enough time and feedback.

6- Learners are guided to attend mindfully to the learning process.

7- Learners work in an atmosphere with ideal stress/ anxiety level.

8- Learner autonomy is supported. (as cited in Far & Murray, 2016, p. 33)

Film, as an authentic material is quite fruitful in the learning process for it reduces anxiety. When watching films in class, students are more focused on "the plot and technological effects" and less on language acquisition, a thing that usually causes them stress. Films keep them busy with what is going on in the events; thus, keeping their affective filters to a low level. Lowering the effective filter results automatically in acquiring the language without their being alert (Pally, 2000).

Tomalin (1986) asserted that films "help bring the outside world into the classroom" (as cited in Eken, 2003, p.51), as they "present realistic slices of life" (Allan, 1985, p. 48). These authentic materials are believed to highly motivate the students, urge them to interact more openly with each other as well as get them to learn during the process (Tomalin, 1986).

Kelvin Sealey (2008) in his *Film, Politics, and Education* posited the view that films are classroom tools that can perfectly generate and lead a discussion. Furthermore, concepts that might remain too abstract or vague, when discussed, debated or come across in literature, are better understood when displayed visually through films. Sealey (2008) also added that film tends to connect to the emotions with its entertaining and imaginative nature or as a tool for exploring new ways of thinking and lifestyles. Therefore, films enable "teachers connect with their students along the important but often ignored dimension of joy" (as cited in Bite, 2016, pp. 341-342). In this vein, Takekawa and Kikkawa (2011) also added that students generally enjoy watching popular films in the classroom for they viewed that they give them more realistic ideas about topics than a teacher and/or instructional readings can abstractly or uninterestingly explain in words.

Brown (1983) also praised the use of films in language teaching and went on saying that "movie is the most widely applicable and powerful among the resources for teaching and

learning since it has unique capacity to communicate, to influence, and to inform" (as cited in Rosdalina, Rahayu & Eripuddin, 2015, p.4).

In short, films are believed to be of great value as an authentic material in the language classroom. They are useful in that they help decrease the students' anxiety, and as a result, boost the learning outcomes. They also open better topics for discussion and present students with rich ideas and much to say about them. With the feature of joy and pleasure-seeking, films create a pleasant environment for grasping knowledge.

2.4. Animated Film

Wells (1998) in his work *UNDERSTANDING ANIMATION* stated that the roots of words like to animate, animated and animator all originated from the Latin verb, animare. Animare means 'to give life to', and as related to the cinematic scope of the animated film, this by and large refers to the human-generated 'illusion' of movement in lifeless lines and forms (Wells, 1998). That is, the essence of animated films lies in giving the drawings life and providing them with human-like features.

Wells'(1998) definition of the animated film stressed frames and how they get to move, while McClaren had a quite dissimilar view. McClaren argued that "Animation is not the art of drawings that move, but rather the art of movements that are drawn. What happens between each frame is more important than what happens on each frame" (as cited in Wells, 1998, p. 10).

However, Animators of the Zagreb School were interested more in the philosophical and artistic aspects of animation, and therefore, claimed that to animate is "to give life and soul to a design not through the copying but through the transformation of reality" (Holloway, 1972 as cited in Wells, 1998, p. 10). Put Simply, animators try to depict reality in their films, not through

drawing real-life world as it is, but rather through symbolizing and personification (Giving animals and inanimate objects human characteristics such as the speaking ability).

British -based animators, John Halas and Joy Batchelor provided a definition to the animated film that centered around the concept of meaning (as cited in Wells, 1998) . They thought that "if it is the live-action film's job to present physical reality, animated film is concerned with metaphysical reality- not how things look, but what they mean" (Hoffer, 1981 as cited in Wells, 1998, p. 11). As a result, animated films are mostly theme-based and they usually instill morals. They might express, hope, family, love, resistance, success and friendship, to name a few.

2.5. Animated Film as a Teaching Resource

Animated films have created a place where creatures apply to no law or power, where gravity works only when you look down and where an umbrella may feel cold. Realistic? Not quite, yet they offer a funny, amusing and a rich teaching resource. In his review of Mulan (1998), the film critic Roger Ebert (1998) pointed out that animated films tend to fire the viewers' imagination adding that "it's pure story, character, movement, and form, without the distractions of reality or the biographical baggage of the actors" (as cited in Champaux, 2001, p.81). Champoux (2001) asserted that these features of the animated films constitute sufficient proof for their being effective for teaching. He based his claim upon the following;

- The visualization of animation can create strong, lasting images of concepts.

- Animation offers alternatives to live-action scenes that can increase the variety
  that one brings to the classroom.

- Strong caricature in animated film can powerfully show concepts.

- Exaggeration in animated film helps link abstract concepts to visual symbols.

- Borrowing from Roger Ebert's observations, animation can help us link concepts directly to the minds of our students. (p.81)

Though champaux (2001) used those films to show organizational behaviour and management concepts, many have applied them to language teaching.

Animated films were found helpful in teaching listening. In a study investigating the *Use of Animation Clips to Improve the Listening Skills of the Eighth Graders.* The findings of the research concluded that: (Stiviani &Hayati, n.d)

animation clips can be used to improve the students' listening skills . . . animation clips could increase the students' motivation in doing the listening activities. . . Students pointed out that they enjoyed and [were]interested in doing the listening activities using the animation clips. They were more interested in animation clips since the animation clips have interesting moving pictures and clear pronunciation. (P.7)

Animated films were deemed to be helpful in teaching writing. First, they are believed to be motivational. Lavery (2008) drew on the belief that integrating film and video in the classroom motivates the students and help them comprehend language-related matters. In line with this, he concluded that teaching writing with animated films raises students' interest and leads to better writing performance. Second, animated films teach narrative better than teachers do. Wright (1976) highlighted a number of elements that are present in the animated film, namely characters, dialogues, plots, and climax. He stressed that these sheer narrative elements would make of the animated film the perfect way for explaining the structure of narrative texts in a simple, visual way. Interestingly, Vukoja (2005) suggested that introducing the animated film

as a pre-writing activity would get learners to explore the the structural devices of the story (plotlines, character, development, setting, and theme). That is, being exposed to the animated film first enables students to brainstorm as many related ideas, relate the events chronologically, and better recall the setting and characters. In practice, writing is all about getting started on the task; thus, with the assistance of the animated film before beginning to write, students would find the writing process much easier.

Besides their effect on writing, animated films are also a rich resource in reading. Harste et al. (1988) asserted that "using animation films encourages learners to grow as readers and broadens the types of reading they choose to read" (as cited in Torabian, 2017, p. 56). Beach (1993) emphasized the way animated films address "the affective and cognitive aspects" of language learning. He praised their ability to generate a lively and energetic atmosphere in the classroom. Animation films "introduce reading comprehension texts provided with motion, sounds, and colours that attract the students to live with the characters and share their roles. This is a strong type of motivation which facilitates learning" (Schmitd, 1997 as cited in Torabian, 2017, p. 56).

As previously stated, animated films support the affective and cognitive factors that fuel learning. They increase students' motivation, entertainment and energy as they make them active-thinkers. Animations, according to Schnotz and Lowe (2003), have a positive psychological effect on learners' understanding through the cognitive and perceptual process, as they can provide a great amount of visual and aural stimulation for learners (as cited in Lum, 2009). Also, when carefully selected, films and animations can be a great source of social, cultural, and civilization information (Lum, 2009, p.71). An animated film usually revolves

around a certain theme, a particular social value and is sometimes loaded with some historical information; and that would be a rich topic for discussion in class.

Wegner's lines put it all in a nutshell (1977); "animation films have much to offer in the classroom, if we free ourselves of the prejudice that anything so amusing cannot also be educational" (p. 16)

2.5.1. Short Silent Animated Film in Teaching

Short animated films are about 2-4 minutes long, and sometimes more. They are highly engaging, and appropriate for learners of all levels. Such films can be used as a warm up, a breaker or as homework. The value of stories based on wordless videos in the classroom lies in the fact that students can relate that given story differently according to their personal understanding, and their level of language proficiency. The students' retelling of the stories may take the form of "a dialogue, narration, comic speech/thought bubbles, as a story told by a particular character, in writing, etc. In a way, you will hardly ever feel trapped in a time loop, going through the same story with the same expressions again and again" (Kandybovich, 2017, p.1).

2.5.2. Pedagogy of the Unspoken

While film has gained much popularity in teaching the short silent film, though not given equal attention, is a similar cinematic resource that can be used in the language classroom. The usefulness of the silent film may be doubted by many since it conveys meaning only visually. Nevertheless, studies in a number of disciplines considered visual image as a valuable "textual mode" to improve the oral skill. In the field of psychology, for instance, Piaget and Inhelder

(1971) concluded that "visual processing is at the foundation of our language development", while Paivio(1979) claimed that linguistic schemata are coded into the mind and treated pictorially (as cited in Kasper and Singer, 2011, p.17).

A psycholinguistic body of research conducted by Kasper (1993) pointed out that maintaining visual associations with new lexical items or language patterns facilitates their learning, and that "the more vivid and interactive the images are, the more effective" (as cited in Kasper & Singer,2011, p. 17).

Finally, developmental education is also in favour of using visual imagery for constructing knowledge and for learning the lexical and structural forms to represent that knowledge (Weiner, 1995).

Kasper and Singer (2001) stated that "silent film relies on the power of vivid, interactive visual imagery to depict personal struggles, interpersonal interactions, and societal problems. The images these films present are filled with meaningful content to activate students' imagination and engage their interest" (p. 17). Furthermore, the meaningful use of the sound effects throughout the film induces various emotional responses by the viewers; what strengthens the "sensory experience; while short titles, interspersed throughout the visual narrative, describe the upcoming action. By providing [. . .] students with raw material for the creative use of language, as well as for the analysis and interpretation of interdisciplinary issues, silent film can be a useful tool for promoting the development of verbal language skills" (Kasper & Singer, 2001, p.16).

2.5.3. Visual Literacy

Artists tend to say much about their paintings while all what others can see is merely some lines and colours. Still, images, pictures and the sort actually communicate meaning let alone when they are in combination as in an animated film. The ability to comprehend those messages is labelled as Visual Literacy or visual communication. Visual Literacy is broadly defined by Dr. Bamford (2003) as the process of "sending and receiving messages using images"; or it is the "ability to construct meaning from visual images" (Giorgis, Johnson, Bonomo, Colbert, et al, 1999, p. 146).

Bamford (2003) put forward the claim that visual literacy involves "developing the set of skills needed to be able to interpret the content of visual images, examine social impact of those images and discuss purpose, audience and ownership" (p.1). Bamford (2003) also added that students "need to be aware of the manipulative uses and ideological implications of images. Visual literacy also involves making judgements of the accuracy, validity and worth of images" (p.1). That is, a visually literate person is one who is able to distinguish between images, understanding what they genuinely convey as well visualize concepts internally. Bamford (2003) believed that "to be an effective communicator in today's world, a person needs to be able to interpret, create and select images to convey a range of meanings" (p.01).

Section Three: Motivation

3.1.1. Definition of Motivation

Many linguists focused on the concept of motivation on their theories, thus being a complex psychological term, different definitions initiated. According to Brown (2000), "motivation is probably the most often used catch-all term for explaining the success or failure of virtually and complex task." Success in a task is due to the fact that someone is motivated; it depends on to how extent they want to attain their goal. As the term itself indicates, motivation is "a motive force", that is, something that stimulates action. Pardee (1990) said that a motive is what encourages people to act in a particular way or to evolve a tendency to for a certain attitude. The Short Oxford English University defines it as "what moves or induces a person to act in a certain way; a desire, fear, reason, etc which influences a person's volition." This is illustrated in the definition given by Williams & Burden (1997) who saw motivation as "a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, a state which leads to a conscious decision to act and gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort" (William & Burden, 1997, p. 120). In other words, motivation is a combination of efforts and desires to accomplish a certain aim and a favourable behavior towards the goal. (Gardner, 1985) or as Narayanan (2006) stated that motivation is the cause or causes behind the one's actions or attitudes. One of the most prominent researchers Dornyei (2001) defined it as "the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it and the effort expended on it" (p. 4).

Even though many researchers dealt with the concept of motivation, an exact definition has not been introduced yet. Dornyei (1998) mentioned that "although 'motivation' is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how little agreement, one can find in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of the concept" (Dornyei, 1998, p.

117). That is, researchers could not conform to an accurate definition of motivation. However, some characteristics of the motivated individual can be listed. Also motivation is considered as a key factor that determines to what an extent an EFL learner is learning a language. Gardner (1985) defines motivation as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985, p. 10) .Actually, learners have certain abilities and motivation leads and helps them to prove and show these capacities and accomplish their goals. It helps them to learn and work effectively, and it has an important role in students' interests in learning and enjoyment of school and studying.

3.1.2 Types of Motivation

From the one hand, according to Brown (2000) and Gardner (1985), there are two essential types of motivation, *Integrative* and *instrumental* motivation. Integrative motivation is associated with a positive attitude toward a second language group. Such as, desiring interaction with speakers of the target language and admiring their culture. In other words, it reflects the learners' interests about people and culture of a different language. While instrumental motivation occurs for certain reasons as getting a job or good results, etc. That is, when the sole reason for leaning a foreign language is to get something outside the activity itself as to get a high score, the motivation is said to be instrumental. On the other hand, Richard and Edward (2000) have introduced a detailed description of two other types of motivation, *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation. Intrinsic motivation is concerned with the learner's desire for learning. It is about satisfying the one's curiosity towards leaning. Deci and Ryan (1985) explained that "intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students' natural curiosity and interest energies their learning. When the educational environment provides optimal challenges, rich sources of

stimulation, and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring in learning is likely to flourish" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 245). Yet, extrinsic motivation is the opposite, since it is more related to a goal or an achievement. "The most basic distinction is between Intrinsic Motivation which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (Richard & Edward, 2000, p. 55) . Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation influences the learner for learning a second or foreign language. Also, due to these types of motivation, it is clear that there are internal and external factors that motivate the learner.

3.1.3.Motivation Theories

Motivation research was marked by different theories, especially within second language field. It was characterized by three main stages and periods: the social psychological, the cognitive-situated and the process-oriented period. Each period was portrayed by the work of certain researchers and focused on specific aspects. The following order is adopted from Dornyei's book *The Psychological of the Language Learner* (2005).

3.1.3.1.The Social Psychological Period

It was mostly marked by the work of Gardner and his associates (1959-1990). The social psychological approach was based on the principle that "students' attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language" (Gardner, 1985, p. 5). In other words, learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects because it is affected by a range of socio-cultural factors (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). This mainly brought two concepts of motivational orientation in language learning, an integrative orientation "reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and

culture represented by the other group"; and instrumental orientation "reflecting the practical value and advantages of learning a new language" (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 132). Two main theories were established during this period, *Gardner's motivation theory* and *Clément's theory of linguistic self-confidence*. Gardner's theory included three main aspects, integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation. Also, he established a test battery that allows a scientific measurement of different motivational elements. The second theory was introduced by Clément and his colleagues, particularly, they have mentioned self-confidence factor, which refers to "the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals, or perform tasks competently" (Dornyei, 2005, p. 73).

3.1.3.2.The Cognitive-Situated Period

It was labelled by the cognitive theories that were imported from educational psychology. Specifically, the associated concepts with this period (1990's) were intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and attributions. Intrinsic motivation which refers to the enjoyment of language learning or the behavior that is performed for its own sake, while extrinsic motivation is associated with external factors such as social expectations, academic requirements or rewards and punishments. Researchers within this period linked motivation to contextual factors, according to Kimura (2003) "classroom L2 learning motivation is not a static construct as often measured in a quantitative manner, but a compound and a relative phenomenon situated in various resources and tools in a dynamic classroom context" (p. 78). Accordingly, *Self-determination theory* (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002) focused on different types of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, for instance, it discussed in detail the factor of autonomy or self determination engagement with tasks. Noels et al. (2000) developed a measuring instrument to assess the different elements of self-determination theory in L2 learning (Dornyei, 2005).

Attribution theory as well "is also unique because it successfully links people's past experiences with their future achievement efforts by introducing causal attributions as the mediating link" (Dornyei, 2005, p. 79). Finally, the third theory classified by Dornyei within the cognitive-situated period is *task motivation theory.* Dorneyi (2005) mentioned that "engaging in a certain task activates a number of different levels of related motivational mindsets or contingencies associated with the various actional contexts, resulting in complex interferences" (p, 81). He also added that "the complex of motivational mindsets and contingencies activated during task performance feed into a dynamic task processing system that consists of three interrelated mechanisms: task execution, appraisal, and action control" (p, 81).

3.1.3.3.The Process-Oriented Period

When examining motivation in relation with students' behaviour in the classroom, a process oriented approach or paradigm should be adopted because it considers motivation changes over time (Dornyei, 2000). Dornyei (2005) stated that "language-learning motivation shows a certain amount of changeability, and in the context of learning a language for several months or years, or over a lifetime, motivation is expected to go through rather diverse phases" (p, 83). Furthermore, he developed with his colleague Otto (1998) a model of L2 motivation which explains the motivation process. This model is divided into three stages, preactional, actional and postactional stage; these stages are explained in the following figure (Dornyei, 2005, p. 85).

Preactional Stage	**Actional Stage**	**Postactional Stage**
CHOICE MOTIVATION	**EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION**	**MOTIVATIONAL RETROSPECTION**
Motivational functions:	*Motivational functions:*	*Motivational functions:*
• Setting goals • Forming intentions • Launching action	• Generating and carrying out subtasks • Ongoing appraisal (of one's achievement) • Action control (self-regulation)	• Forming causal attributions • Elaborating standards and strategies • Dismissing the intention and further planning
Main motivational influences:	*Main motivational influences:*	*Main motivational influences:*
• Various goal properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity) • Values associated with the learning process itself, as well as with its outcomes and consequences • Attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers • Expectancy of success and perceived coping potential • Learner beliefs and strategies • Environmental support or hindrance	• Quality of the learning experience (pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image) • Sense of autonomy • Teachers' and parents' influence • Classroom reward- and goal structure (e.g. competitive or cooperative) • Influence of the learner group • Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning, and self-motivating strategies)	• Attributional factors (e.g., attributional styles and biases) • Self-concept beliefs (e.g., self-confidence and self-worth) • Received feedback, praise, grades

Figure1. A Process Model of L2 Motivation.

3.1.4. Task Motivation

In the past, focus was laid on trait and state motivation as the two dominant approaches in studies on motivation. As described by Trembly, Goldberg, and Gardner (1995), trait motivation is one that is relatively stable and enduring; while, state motivation concerns more situational terms and is transitory and temporary (as cited in Dörnyei & Tseng, 2009, p.118). In light of the trait/state dichotomy, Dörnyei (2003) highlighted a more narrowed situation-specific approach to motivation; the latter enabled the breaking down of the broad construct of motivation into smaller segments. The new approach was labelled as task motivation. Dörnyei (2003) pointed out that

. . . instead of looking, for instance, at how learners' various motivational

attributes correlate with language proficiency measures in an L2 course (which

would be a typical traditional design), researchers need to look at how

motivational features affect learners' various learning behaviours during a course,

such as [. . .] their engagement in learning tasks [. . .] (p. 23)

In other words, research on motivation should not only deal with the generalized terms of

the construct of motivation and how they influence the learning process as a whole, but rather

examine the relation between motivational factors and the different situational learning

behaviours. The basic tenet of task motivation is that different tasks induce various motivational

influences (Julkunen, 2001). In an attempt to approach motivation in a rather specific way,

researchers designed models to describe the various motivational processes.

First, Dörnyei's process-oriented conceptualization of motivation, that is discussed earlier

in the study, distinguished the preactional stage, the actional stage and the postactional stage

(Dörnyei 2011, presented originally in Dörnyei and Ottó 1998). The three stages can be

projected on learning tasks and be called, pre-task motivation, while-task motivation and post-

task motivation, respectively. In other words, students' motivation is reflected in how satisfied

and engaged students are in a given learning task; be it before, during or after.

The motivational task processing model, also designed by Dörnyei, comprises three

components: task execution, appraisal and action control (Dörnyei 2011). Dörnyei (2003)

cleared that task execution refers to the students' engagement in the task. Appraisal considers

students' responses to what goes on in the classroom, and continuously assessing their own

progress and the environment (teachers, peers, grades, etc.). While action control processes are

those of "scaffolding and performance-enhancing actions that the student uses to self-regulate and prevent slowing or stopping the action" (pp. 14-16).

Gagné (1985) also contributed to this area of inquiry. Gagné segmented the overall classroom motivation into task motivation, incentive and achievement motivation (1985). In fact, Julkunen (2001) developed the concept of task motivation and referred to it as consisting of general motivation and situation related motives. Julkunen cleared that when doing a certain task, learners will be motivated through their overall interest in the subject matter (task-independent factors) as well as the challenging nature of the task or the influence of the interlocutors (as cited in Dörnyei & Tseng, 2009, p. 118). Julkunen (2011) held that high task motivation is attained when "the student is engaged throughout the task, the task is perceived as important, it is seen to further the student's individual goals, it feels doable (not too difficult), but not too easy either and it offers satisfying learning outcomes (as cited in Kamula, 2016, p. 9).

All in all, task motivation is temporary and is a type of state motivation, yet it is prone to the influence of trait motivation. It is situation- specific for it considers the motivated behaviours within a given situation. Task motivation is highly task independent; it considers the overall attitudes about the tasks, the task's importance and to what extent it is engaging, doable and challenging. A task motivated student is satisfied with the task at hand, puts much efforts to it and does it willingly. Teachers, then, are required to embrace engaging tasks with the assistance of interesting materials.

3.1.5. Indicators of Motivation

Different definitions of the concept *motivation* emerged, yet a list of many characteristics of the motivated individual can be introduced. (Gardner, 2007)" For example, the motivated

individual is goal directed, expends effort, is persistent, is attentive, has desires (wants), exhibits

positive affect, is aroused, has expectancies, demonstrates self-confidence (self-efficacy), and

has reasons (motives)" (Gardner, 2007, p. 10). As Gardner (2007) mentioned, "these

characteristics are cognitive in nature, some are affective, and some are behavioural" (p. 10).

That is to say, there are characteristics or indicators of motivation which can be cognitive,

affective and behavioural. Since motivation is a psychological construct that is difficult to

measure observe, hence researchers measure it using the already mentioned characteristics.

However, "an important aspect of determining how to measure motivation is understanding what

type of motivation one is attempting to capture" (Touré-Tillery & Fishbach, 2014, p. 328).

Therefore, different existing dimensions of motivations should be taken into account.

Cognitive and Affective measures of motivation contain " the activation, evaluation, and

perception of [the] goal-related constructs and the subjective experience they evoke" (Touré-

Tillery & Fishbach, 2014, p. 328). Goal activation is related to memory, accessibility, and

inhibition of goal-related constructs. That is to say, the constructs of a goal can activate the

pursuit of that goal. "Once a goal is active, the motivational system prepares the individual for

action by activating goal-relevant information"(Bargh et al., 1996). In other words, this process

allows individuals to direct their cognitive resources to other tasks at hand without being

distracted (Touré-Tillery & Fishbach, 2014). Consequently, the concept of motivation can be

measured by "the degree to which goal-related concepts are accessible in memory. Specifically,

the greater the motivation to pursue/achieve a goal, the more likely individuals are to remember,

notice, or recognize concepts, objects, or persons related to that goal" (Touré-Tillery & Fishbach,

2014,p. 330). Also, "motivation can be measured by the degree to which a goal-relevant object is

evaluated positively, using explicit measures . . . or implicit measures . . . (Fazio et al., 1986) and

the implicit association test (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998)" (as cited in Touré-Tillery & Fishbach, 2014,p. 330). Some of the cognitive and affective examples of motivation indicators that researchers measured are "study habits, overall academic achievement, anxiety, and perceived self-worth" (Anthony J. Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

Behavioural measures can capture the strength of motivation "by the extent to which one's actions are consistent with a focal goal" (Touré-Tillery & Fishbach, 2014, p. 331-332). For instance, speed is an aspect that can show the strength of motivation. This duration measures can include how fast the individual completes a task. Performance as well can be a measure of motivation. It includes accuracy, amount, highest level of achievement and persistence. Amongst the various behavioural motivation indicators, researchers measured cooperativeness, engagement and competitiveness (Touré-Tillery & Fishbach, 2014).

3.2. Short Silent Animated Films and Motivation

While an array of claims have supported the film pedagogy, little research has been done on the animated film integration in teaching. Some bodies of work researched the usefulness of short silent animated films in improving students' writing, oral narratives, vocabulary, yet no practical one to one relationship between this material and students' motivation to speak has been investigated. Notwithstanding, many of the features when projected on the short silent animated film indicate an existence of such a relationship.

3.3. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

SLA research distinguished a number of affective variables that determine the success of the acquisition process. Those variables observed go under these categories (Krashen, 1982)

(1) Motivation. Performers with high motivation generally do better in second language acquisition (usually, but not always, "integrative"

(2) Self-confidence. Performers with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to do better in second language acquisition.

(3) Anxiety. Low anxiety appears to be conducive to second language acquisition, whether measured as personal or classroom anxiety. (p.31)

The affective filter was first proposed by Dulay and Burt(1977) then further developed by Stephen Krashen. The Affective Filter Hypothesis suggests that there exists a relation between the affective factors and acquisition (Schoepp, 2001). The Affective Filter is described as a "psychological obstacle" that hinders the acquisition of the comprehensible input. Krashen (1982) stated that "acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their Affective Filter" (p.31). A higher AF results in less input acquired by learners/ acquirers, meanwhile, demonstrating a low AF leads to higher understanding and acquisition. Hence, negative affective factors such as demotivation, high anxiety and less self-confidence "prevent efficient processing of the language input"; nonetheless, highly motivated and self-confident students with less anxiety tend to acquire more input (Hui Ni, 2012, p. 1508). Briefly speaking, "optimal learning" takes place when the affective filter is low (Krashen, 1982). The instructor, then, has to create an environment with low affective filters so that it can be conductive for language learning. One way to do this can be through varying the instructional materials and integrating authentic ones into the classroom. As concerns motivation, the teacher has to lower the affective filters and one way to do so is through the inclusion of short silent animated films in the language classroom.

3.4. **Multimedia and Motivation**

Research in language teaching proved the fruitful contribution of multimedia to the language classroom. Mutimedia theory (Mayer, 2003) principled around the belief that "people learn more deeply from words and pictures than from words alone" (p. 47). Indeed, the use of multimedia in the EFL classroom is highly recommended by a great deal of teachers, and they do not doubt its vital role in rendering the students more active (Yang and Fang, 2008). A number of studies concluded that students are more satisfied and motivated in courses where multimedia materials are implemented (Asleitner & Wiesner, 2004; Yarbrough, 2001).

Conclusion

Since language learners judge their language proficiency by their ability to speak, they always aim at bettering their speaking performance. Oral expression sessions and the language laboratories designed to host them are expected to enable students to improve their oral/aural use of the language. Unfortunately, all language settings/classrooms usually present students with a range of affective filters that may hinder their learning process. Among those affective factors, motivation is critically important to learning. Thus, there should be ways to enhance students' motivation in class. The present study suggests the integration of short silent animated films into OE sessions as one way to motivate students to speak, and this cause-effect relationship is practically investigated throughout the following chapter.

Chapter Two: Research Methodology, Data Analysis and Data Discussion

Appendices

References

Résumé

ملخص

Chapter Two: Research Methodology, Data Analysis and Data Discussion

Introduction

While the first chapter was exclusively devoted to review the literature of the research section provides a comprehensive description of the research methodology by presenting, the research paradigm, research design and the tools. However, the second section mainly presents the analysis of the collected data from both the classroom observation and the questionnaire, followed by the discussion of the results. Lastly, the limitations encountered while conducting the research, along with some suggestions for further research.

Section One: Research Methodology

1. Research Paradigm

To target the role of the short silent animated films in boosting EFL learners' motivation to talk, the quantitative approach to data collection and analysis is sought. This paradigm proves to be the best way to treat the present study. As defined by MacDonald & Headlam (2008)

> Quantitative - as the name suggests, is concerned with trying to quantify things; it asks questions such as 'how long', 'how many' or 'the degree to which'. Quantitative methods look to quantify data and generalise results from a sample of the population of interest. They may look to measure the incidence of various views and opinions in a chosen sample for example or aggregate results. (p.8)

Hence, the numeric data resulting from such a research allows for a rather systematic way of analysis and when followed offers clear and thorough procedures. The quantitative inquiry is

quite "focused and tightly controlled, involving precise measurements" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 34), what makes it the most suitable for this study.

The quantitative data in this research is obtained from both classroom observation and the questionnaire. First, the observation checklist is devised hand in hand with an experiment. The devised checklist allows for measuring the difference in the motivated behaviours of the students in the control and the experimental group. Simultaneously, the student questionnaire answers are collected and organized in numeric data. The frequency of students' choices is measured using statistical procedures.

2. Population and Sampling

The study at hand addressed 1st year EFL learners of English at the Department of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahya Jijel-University. Forty (40) first year students have been selected, 9 of which are males and 31 are females. It was preferable to conduct the research within the first year EFL context for they are freshmen, faced more with affective obstacles in the oral expression classrooms and due to their being unfamiliar with the university language classroom and secondly because they need to gain interest and motivation to speak. the sampling procedure followed is convenient sampling because of its usefulness and less demanding nature in the teaching/learning settings.

3. Research Instruments

In order to test the hypothesis under scrutiny, three data methods have been utilized namely, an experiment, classroom observation as well as a questionnaire.

3.1.1. Description of the Experiment

The study at hand favoured conducting an experiment to better examine the effect of the treatment (SSAF) on students' motivation to speak. Also, it is worth mentioning that the level at which the experiment is run does not use the SSAF as teaching material, thus, the material should be introduced to the context. Two first year classes of twenty students were selected for this purpose. There has been an adoption of an ABAB reversal design; In this design the researcher alternates between the traditional method in session A (without the treatment) and the new technique (Session B: with the treatment) in the following session B (Price, Jhangiani & Chiang 2015). The group then serves as the control group in the traditional-method sessions and as an experimental group in the short silent animated film sessions. The purpose behind choosing two groups and not concerning one as a control group and the other as an experimental group is threefold. First, two groups allow having a larger number of participants for the later-administered questionnaire, and eventually, both groups should be introduced to the new method. Second, the multiple treatment interference does not cause a threat to the reliability of the study, because the type of motivation targeted in this study is rather task motivation which is temporary and task-dependent i.e. It is motivation that fades away hours later and doesn't affect students' motivation in the forthcoming traditional sessions. Third, each group has some already-fluent speakers and this would affect measuring the Student Talking Time, as a solution for confounding variables, it is better to see the difference the treatment makes on the same group.

The idea of concerning the experimental group as its experimental group is already used in a quasi-experimental research design, precisely, the time series design. Nunan and Baily (2009) cleared that

In the time series design, the group under investigation serves as its own control. That is, before the treatment, the students are functioning as a control group, but after the treatment, they are analogous to an experimental group. This situation is far from ideal, but it can be informative. We need to be careful, though, about interpreting the results. (95)

The numeric data were obtained through a classroom observation scheme, the latter substituted the pretest posttest, for they are unsuitable for collecting behaviours.

The current study adopted an experimental approach to investigation, yet there have been some adjustments to fit with the topic and the circumstances. The type of the study then is rather pre-experimental "in that [it lacks] some of the defining characteristics of the true experimental designs" (Nunan & Baily, 2009, p. 92).

3.1.2. Classroom Observation

Classroom observation was conducted in order to obtain authentic data concerning the effectiveness of implementing SSAF in oral expression sessions on EFL students' motivation to speak. Dornyei(2007) stated that "from a research perspective, observation is fundamentally different from questioning because it provides direct information rather than self-report accounts, and thus it is one of the three basic data sources for empirical research" (p. 178). In other words, it gives the researcher in-depth information about what is happening in the classroom. A "structured, quantitative observation that utilizes observation schemes" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 179) was adopted. That is to say, classroom observation in this study was based on readily available schemes. This study used a checklist form to get information about students' motivated behaviours, yet the checklist was modified to achieve the research's main focus. Following

Huang (2011), the researcher designed the checklist to conduct the study. This checklist namely included students' motivated bahaviours. It contained elements from the MOLT scheme (Dornyei and Guilloteaux, 2008) (see appendixD); precisely, participation, volunteering and attention. Another aspect that was considered is verbal interaction, which is concerned with students' talking time. That element was provided from the COLT scheme (Heidari-Shahreza, Dabaghi & Kassaian, 2012).

3.2.2. Operationalizing the Construct of Motivation

The construct of motivation has been operationalized as the observable learners' performance in speaking. The learners' motivated behaviour in this study comprised the four situational factors adopted by Huang (2011), namely attention, engagement, eager volunteering, and verbal interaction (as cited in Heidari-Shahreza, 2014, p. 15). Huang (2011) comprised the first three elements listed in the Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme Part A along with "verbal interaction" suggested by the Communicative Orientation of L2 Classrooms observation scheme Part B (as cited in Heidari-Shahreza, 2014, p. 15).

According to Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008),"Students appear to be paying attention [whenever] they are not displaying any inattentive or disruptive behaviour; they are looking at the teacher and following his/her movements, looking at visual stimuli, turning to watch another student who is contributing to the task, following the text being read, or making appropriate nonverbal responses"(p. 62). In this study, we measured attention through noting the number of students who were distracted; (using their phones, sleeping, chatting during teacher or peer talk). Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008), attention is marked when two thirds (2/3) of the class are paying attention.

Besides, participation, otherwise called engagement, takes place when "students are actively taking part in classroom interaction or working on assigned activity" (Guilloteaux &Dornyei, 2008, p. 62). While calculating the number of times students participated, the study considered different dimensions. Those dimensions include contribution to the discussion, answering teachers' questions about course content, and communication skill which is indicated by following teachers' instructions (Atmowardodyo, Patak, & Iskandar, 2018). The study also takes into account Guilloteaux and Dornyei's (2008) criteria for measuring participation which is the incidence when two thirds (2/3) of the students participate.

The third indicator of motivation is volunteering. As believed by Guilloteaux and Dornyei's (2008), eager volunteering occurs when at least one third of the students volunteer "without the teacher having to coax them in any way" (p. 62). In other words, volunteers are those that do not need the teacher's encouragement to take part, to be pointed at, or nominated (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008).

Verbal interaction, furthermore, is key indicator of student motivation to speak. It is referred to the student-teacher and student-student interaction in the classroom; and to the language produced by these learners during the process (Heidari-Shahreza, 2014). It may be with the aim to "initiate discourse, to react to the meaning of what is being said, to elaborate on one another's utterances, and to exchange unknown or relatively unpredictable information" (Spada, Frohlich, & Allen, 1985, p. 30). The amount of verbal interaction or the speech size is measured in this study by the Student Talking Time (STT).

3.3.1. Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire is an effective research instrument that allows gathering a larger amount of data and collecting the opinions of a larger sample. Dornyei (2007) mentioned that "the essence of scientific research is trying to find answers to questions in a systematic and disciplined manner and it is therefore no wonder that the questionnaire has become one of the most popular research instruments applied in the social sciences) (p.101).

3.3.2. Aims of the Questionnaire

The current questionnaire (see AppendixE) was primarily designed to meet the objective of the study and its main aim is to investigate and to collect the needed data. Therefore, it included questions that are concerned with students' opinions and suggestions about the use of SSAF technique and its effects toward their motivation to talk in speaking classes. The questionnaire as a data collecting tool was chosen because the process of answering a questionnaire does not take much time and hence students will not be bored while doing so. Moreover, addressing or interviewing the whole population was not possible thus administering a questionnaire to a sample was a must.

3.3.3. Development of the Questionnaire

It is composed of nineteen questions, which were designed based on the literature review. The questions are either closed, where the students are to select 'yes' or 'no' or they can tick the appropriate boxes and provide justifications whenever they are required to. While in open-ended questions, students are requested to provide their explanations. This questionnaire is divided into three sections, section one is devoted for learners' personal information (Q1 to Q5); this section was designed to obtain an accurate description of the respondents. Section two (Q6

to Q10) deals with the speaking skill, the questions seek information about student's attitudes toward the speaking skill and the commonly used materials in oral expression sessions. The last section (Q11 to Q19) is dedicated to their impressions and opinions about the use of short silent animated films technique and its impact on enhancing their motivation to speak.

3.3.1. Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered to first year EFL students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben-Yahia University- Jijel at the department of English, more precisely for groups one and two. The questionnaire was handed to the sample (forty students), on the 28th of May, the participants were asked to complete it on the spot and hand it back.

Section Two: Data Analysis and Discussion

1. Experiment Data Analysis and Discussion

1.1. Experiment Data Analysis

1.1.1. Attention

Table 02. *Learners' Motivated Behaviour : Attention*

	Control		Experimental	
	Proportion	Percentage	Proportion	Percentage
Sessions 1+2	0.7	70	0.6	60
Sessions 3+4	0.58	58.82	0.82	82.35
Sessions 5+6	0.68	68.75	0.75	75
Sessions 7+8	0.57	57.14	0.86	86.66
Total	0.63	63.67	0.75	76

Sessions 1+2►1

Sessions 3+4►2

Sessions 5+6►3
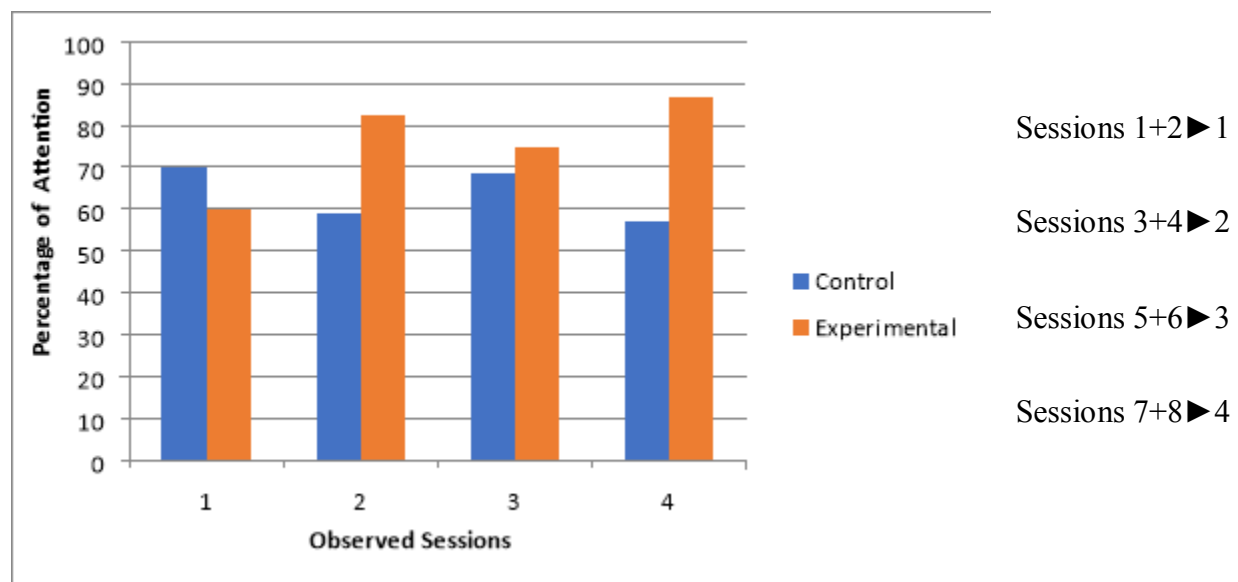
Sessions 7+8►4

Figure 02. *Learners' Motivated Behaviours: Attention*

The figure above displays the level of attention in the two groups. In the first sessions, more students (7/10) were attentive in the control group. However, in the following sessions, the level of attention was higher (14/17, 3/4, 13/15) in the experimental group than in the control group (10/17, 11/16, 4/6). Based on the criteria set in the MOLT, attention is marked when two thirds 66.66% of the class pay attention. Accordingly, in the 1st session of the experimental group, the level of attention was low with a percentage of 60% i.e. less than the threshold 66.66%. Nevertheless, the percentage of attention increased and exceeded the threshold in the three remaining sessions. Meanwhile, the level of attention in the control group was higher than 66.66% in sessions one (70%) and five (68.75%), and less than the threshold in sessions three (58.82%) and seven (57.17%). Putting all together, the total percentage of attention in the experimental group (76%) is above the threshold; whereas, that of the control group (63.67%) is below it. From these results, it can be inferred that the treatment 'short silent animated films' caused an increase in the level of attention of students, and applying the MOLT, this situational factor of motivation (attention) is maintained.

1.1.2. Participation

Table 03. *Learners' Motivated Behaviour: Participation*

Sessions	The Mean	
	Control Group	Experimental Group
Sessions 1+2	8.5	6
Sessions 3+4	2.41	6.47
Sessions 5+6	4.06	4.37
Sessions 7+8	5.28	9.07
Total	5.06	6.47
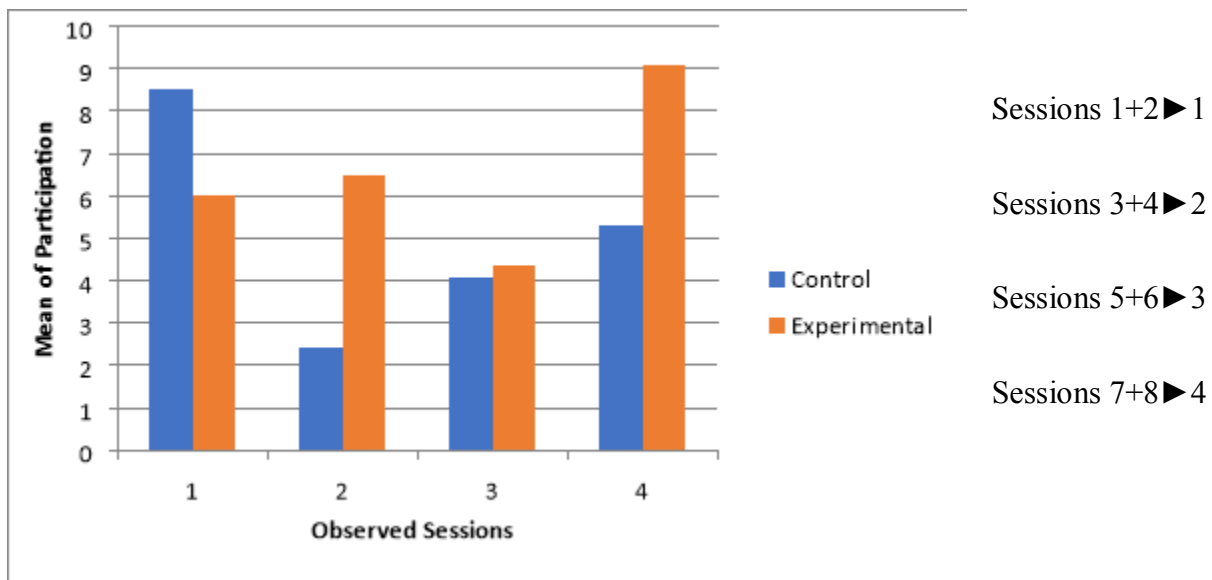
Figure 03. *Learners' Motivated Behaviour: Participation*

Figure 03 shows the mean of students turns taken per session in both groups (the control and the experimental). In sessions 1+2, the amount of participation in the control group was larger than that of the experimental group. In the following sessions, though, the mean of participation in the control group dropped to 2.41, while that of the experimental group rose to 6.47. That is, participation is greater in the experimental session. Similarly, in sessions 5+6 participation in experimental group (4.37) was higher compared to the control group with a remote difference (4.06). However, in sessions 7+8 that difference largely grew. The mean of participation turns of the experimental group equals 9.07, while that of the control group was merely 5.28. All in all, the mean of participation of all the sessions in the experimental group (6.47) surpassed that of the control group (5.06) with a range of 1.41. To recap, short silent animated films have a direct effect on participation as a critical component of motivated behaviours of speaking.

1.1.3. Eager Volunteering

Table 04. *Learners' Motivated Behaviour: Eager Volunteering*

Sessions	Control		Experimental	
	Proportion	Percentage	Proportion	Percentage
Sessions 1+2	0.3	30	0.35	35
Sessions 3+4	0.29	29.41	0.58	58.82
Sessions 5+6	0.31	31.25	0.68	68.75
Sessions 7+8	0.42	42.85	0.4	40
Total	0.33	33.37	0.5	50.64

Sessions 1+2► 1

Sessions 3+4► 2

Sessions 5+6► 3
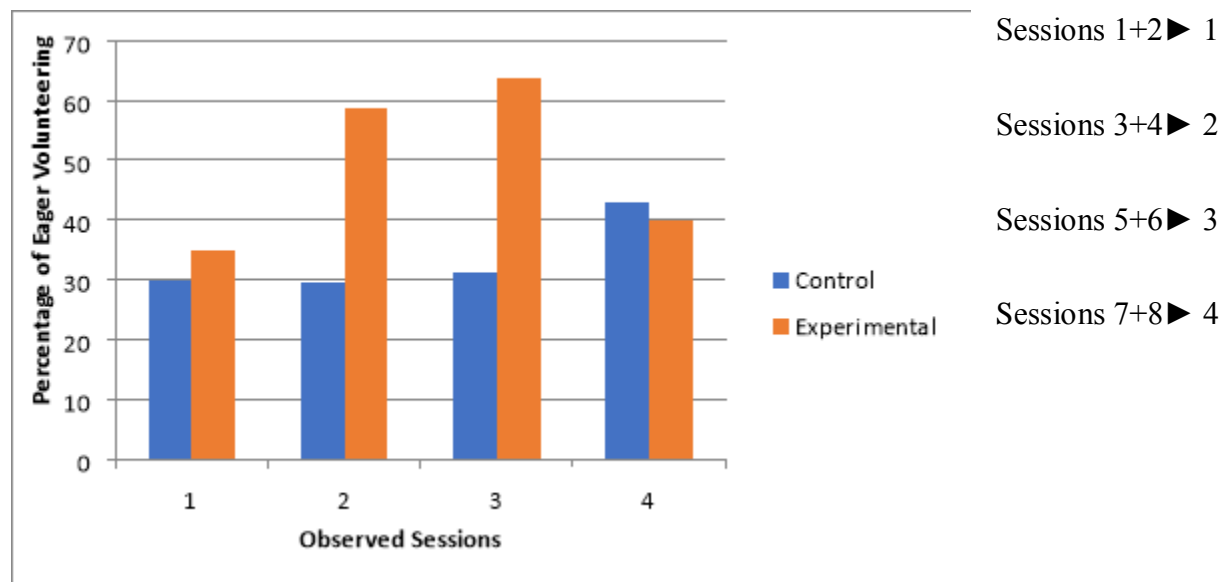
Sessions 7+8► 4

Figure 04. *Learners' Motivated Behaviour: Eager Volunteering*

Figure 04 exhibits the percentage of eager volunteering in the groups under study. In the first

three instances, sessions 1+2, 3+4, 5+6, the experimental group outperformed their counterparts.

In the fourth case, however, eager volunteers in the group receiving no treatment (42.85%) slightly outstepped those in the experimental group (40%). By assembling the overall performance in all the sessions, the experimental group (50.64%) critically goes beyond the control group (33.37%) with a 17.27% difference. the criteria set by Dornyei and Guilloteaux (2008) in the MOLT, suggest that eager volunteering is fulfilled when at least one third (33.33%) of the students voluntarily take part in the classroom. Correspondingly, the experimental group exceeded the threshold (33.33%) in all the sessions, whereas the amount of volunteering in the control group was below the threshold except for the last session (42.85%). All things considered, both groups attained eager volunteering while the one that received the treatment (50.64%) significantly surpassed the control group (33.37%). Hence, short silent animated films positively impacted students' volunteering.

1.1.4. Verbal Interaction

Table 05. *Learners' Motivated Behaviour : Verbal Interaction*

Sessions	Control			Experimental		
	Attendance	Total STT	STT	Attendance	Total STT	STT
Sessions 1+2	10	14mn32sec	1mn 27sec	20	30mn 5sec	1mn 30sec
Sessions 3+4	17	6mn 30sec	23sec	17	17mn 16sec	1mn
Sessions 5+6	16	10mn 16sec	38sec	16	17mn 18sec	1mn 4sec
Sessions7+8	7	09mn50	1mn 24sec	15	16mn23sec	1mn 5sec
Total	-	10mn 23sec	58sec	-	20mn15sec	1mn 9sec
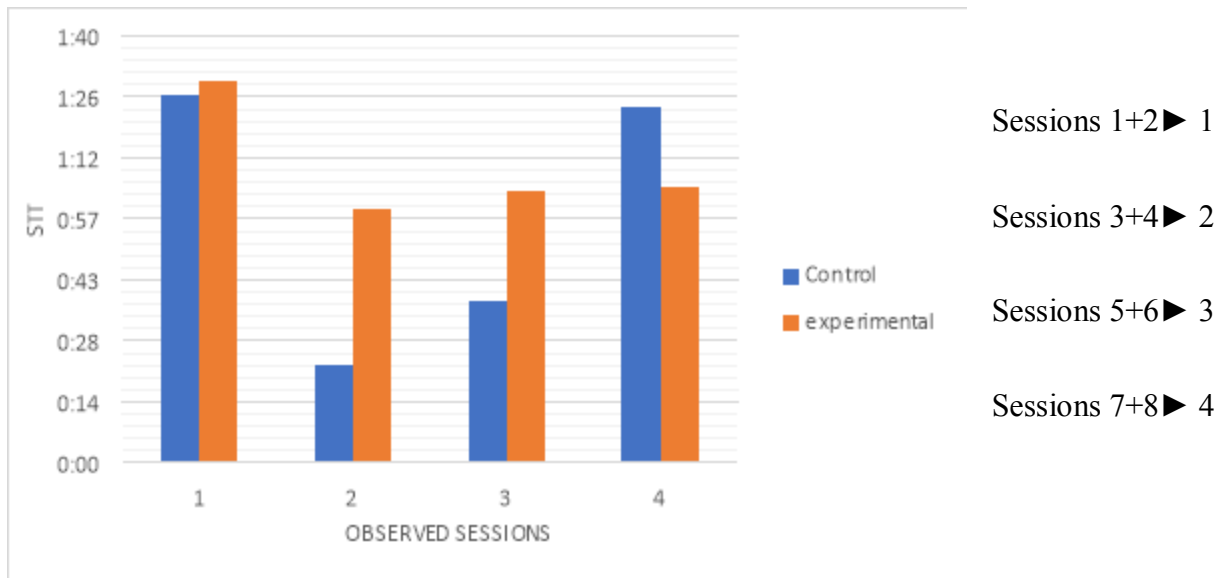
Figure 05. *Learners' Motivated Behaviour : Verbal Interaction*

The figure above shows the student talking time per session in both groups. In the first three

cases (sessions 1+2, sessions 3+4, sessions 5+6), students' speech size in the experimental group

lasted longer than that of the control group. Unexpectedly, in the last sessions students of the

control group talked more. The total student talking time equaled 1mn 9sec in the experimental

group and 58 sec in the control group. The difference, though slight, proves the influence of

short silent animated films on verbal interaction (STT).

1.2. Data Discussion of the Experiment

The experiment conducted aims at measuring the observable impact of SSAF on

students' motivated situational factors. The results obtained from the comparison between the

two groups receiving different teaching techniques show that the treatment affected the oral

motivated performance of students. The experimental group outperformed the control in

attention, participation, eager volunteering and verbal interaction.

Short silent animated films have a direct impact on attention, as a critical factor of motivated behaviours. The criteria set by the MOLT for measuring attention indicate a higher level of attentive behaviours in the experimental sessions (76%), and when compared to the control group, the results showed that more students were attentive; it is evident, then, that SSAF induced such an increase in attention. The interesting and often enjoyable nature of those films keep students busy with the evolving events and more concentrated on the challenging activities accompanied with them.

Besides attention, participation is also augmented with the implementation of short silent animated films in oral expression sessions. Comparing the means of turns taken by the students in the groups under study, the experimental group took more turns (6.47) than the control group (5.06). That is to say, the level of participation grew by virtue of the treatment. The themes of SSAF are so rich, and as a result, engage more students to talk. Also, the silent viewing technique gets students to create dialogues themselves and have fun playing the role of the characters. The pre-viewing, while-viewing and post-viewing activities create an inviting environment for students to share and express themselves freely. To put in a nutshell, the short silent animated films are so fruitful in boosting students' motivated behaviours as far as participation is concerned.

Along with attention and participation, eager volunteering is also influenced when SSAF are incorporated within the language setting. Based on the MOLT standard by which volunteering may be judged, a high amount of volunteering is attained when one third (33.33%) of students voluntarily engage in the task without having been nominated by the instructor. Agreeably, the percentage of volunteering in both groups exceeded the threshold (33.33%), with

the experimental group showing a far better volunteering amount (50.64%) than that of the control one (33.37%).

Short silent animated films affect the aforementioned behavioural measures of motivation, and verbal interaction is no exception. To explore if there exist observable differences between the two groups regarding verbal interaction, Student Talking Time was measured. Results showed that classroom interaction endured longer in the experimental group (1mn9sec for each student), whereas lasted only for 58sec in the control group. Though causing but a slight difference, the implemented treatment SSAF allowed for better interaction, and thus, more speech size. By having students talk more, the Teacher Talking Time is reduced and the instruction is rather learner-centered. All in all, SSAF proved to be quite efficient to expand students' verbal interaction, that is, students are more motivated to talk in the classroom due to the integration of such a technique.

2. Analysis and Discussion of the Questionnaire

2.1. Analysis of the Questionnaire

The results obtained from the student questionnaire are presented below.

Q01. Gender

Table06. Student's Gender

Option	Number	Percentage
Female	31	77.5
Male	9	22.5

As can be seen in the table above, the rate of students by gender shows that (77.5%) were females; whereas (22.5%) of them were males.

Q02. Was it your choice to study English?

We have asked this question to perceive the students' willingness to study English.

Table07. *Students' Willingness to Study English*

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	36	90
No	04	10

The results shown above indicate that the majority of learners (90%) have chosen to study English.While; a minority of (10%) mentioned that studying English was not their choice.

Q03. How good are you at English?

Table 08. Students' Levels

Option	Number	Percentage
Excellent	02	5
Good	18	45
Average	19	47.5
Poor	01	2.5

Based on the results above, approximately half the number of students (45%, 47.5%) estimated their levels at English as good or average. Meanwhile, (5%) of students assessed themselves as excellent at the language, yet (2.5%) considered their levelsas poor. All in all,

most of the students are satisfied with themselves as concerns the English language with some

highly confident members as well as those who rank themselves in between.

Q 04. What skill is the most important to you?

The present question perceives the students' opinions on the most important language skill.

Table 09. Most Important Language Skill to EFL Learners.

Option	Number	Percentage
Listening	4	10
Speaking	20	50
Reading	8	20
Writing	8	20

It is noteworthy that half the number of participants (50%) consider speaking as of

paramount importance. Reading and writing come second with a percentage of (20%) for each.

While, only 10% of them opted for listening.

The aforementioned description indicates that students give a greater importance to speaking in

comparison to the other skills (reading, writing and listening). This might be due to the fact that

learners are more exposed to the oral-aural form of language (films, videos, songs, etc.) in their

day to day life, and that they consider language mastery mostly reflected through speaking

proficiency.

Q 05. What is more difficult to you?

The fifth question is intended to show which of the two skills; speaking or writing, the students

are mostly intimidated by.

Table 10. *Most Difficult Productive Skill to Students.*

Option	Number	Percentage
Speaking	22	55
Writing	18	45

The results obtained illustrate that (55%) of students found speaking more difficult, while (45%) of students faced major difficulties in writing. It means that students encounter problems in both skills.

Section 02

Q 06. What problems do you face when speaking in English?

a- Lack of motivation

b- Lack of vocabulary

c- Sentence construction

d- Stress

This question addressesthe frequent problems students encounter while speaking in English.

Table 11. *EFL Learners' Speaking Problems*

Option	Number
A	18
B	10
C	09
D	28

.   Students' answers to Q6 illustrate that out of the four options, stress was chosen by 28 students. Lack of vocabulary and lack of motivation were selected 17 and 10 times, respectively. Yet, only 9 students face the problem of sentence construction while speaking. Surprisingly enough, stress is viewed by many as a problem frequently encountered while speaking. Also, students believed that lack of motivation hindered learning as well.

Q 07. Do oral expression sessions help students overcome their speaking problems?

Table 12. Students' Views about the Role of OE Sessions in Overcoming Speaking Problems.

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	38	95
No	02	5

Students' responses to Q 07 exhibit that the students who deem the oral expression sessions helpful in overcoming speaking problems outnumber those who disagree with the statement; a percentage of 95% represents those who opted for YES and 5% for those who picked NO. That is to say, the students consider oral expression sessions critically important to improve students' proficiency. During those sessions, students practise speaking more in the confines of the classroom.

In order to get further insights into students' responses as concerns this, participants were asked to justify in what way they are helpful.

Table 13. Students' Justifications for the Role of OE Sessions in Improving their Oral Proficiency.

Themes	Number

A) **Approving**	
Practising the language	18
Enriching vocabulary	11
Improving grammar and pronunciation	6
Exchanging ideas	10
Motivating to speak	6
Raising confidence	7
Reducing stress	11
B) **Disapproving**	
Stressful	1
Boring	1

Students drew on their experience in oral expression sessions and claimed that the latter help them practise the language by applying the items they have learnt in other modules. They also get them to learn new vocabulary, as well as improve their grammar and pronunciation. Furthermore, those sessions offer a friendly environment where stress is reduced while motivation and confidence are raised. However, two students stated that oral expression classes are rather stressful and boring.

Q08. What type of materials do you think should be used more in oral expression classes?

a- Articles

b- Bar charts

c- Pictures

d- Posters

e- Videos

Table 14. *Types of Materials Students Encourage Using in OE Sessions.*

Options	Number	Percentage
A	2	5
B	1	2.5
C	3	7.5
D	2	5
E	32	80

In response to this question, almost the whole population (80%) mentioned that they prefer using videos during oral expression sessions. While the exact number of students (5%) opted for eitherthe use of articles or posters. Another group of participants (7.5%) stated that it is better to use pictures. Only one student (2.5%) believed that wall charts should be used more. Based on these answers, most students favour the utility of videosin OE sessions overany other form of materials.

Q09. How often do your oral expression teachers use videos in class?

Table 15. *The Frequency of Video-implementation in OE Sessions.*

Option	Number	Percentage
Always	18	45
Usually	16	40
Sometimes	06	15

Never	00	-

The majority (85%) opted for "always" and "usually" to describe the frequency of video-use in the classroom. Six students asserted that they sometimes use them with no one saying that their teachers never introduce them. As a result, teachers of oral expression mustbe aware of the usefulness of implementing technology in their classes that is why they excessively apply them.

Q10. If they do, what type of videos do they use?

Table 16. Types of Videos Frequently Used in OE Sessions.

Option	Number
Documentaries	15
Films	15
News stories	15
Animated films	25
Tutorials	00

Animated films are the often-used video material in the classroom with 25 students' ticks. Documentaries, films, and news stories received the same number (=15) of responses from the students' part. Tutorials, however, are never used in class. In short, OE teachers try to bring diversity to the classroom by varying their instructional materials and using a range of video types.

Q11. Do your teachers use animated films in class?

Table 17. Teachers' Use of Animated Films in Class.

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	36	90
No	4	10

Responses to this question firmly support their answers to the previous question (Q10) in which most students (90%) claimed that their teachers use animated films.

Q 12. If yes, how often do they do so?

Table 18. *The Frequency of the Teacher's Use of SSAF in OE Sessions*

Option	Number	Percentage
Always	1	2.5
Usually	5	12.5
Sometimes	27	67.5
Rarely	7	17.5

Out of the four provided options, "sometimes" was significantly chosen with a percentage of 67.5%. While, 17.5% and 12.5% of students picked rarely and usually, respectively. Only one student (2.5%) mentioned that they are always used. It can be inferred, then, that teachers frequently incorporate short silent animated films during their oral expression sessions.

Q13. How long are these animated films?

Table 19. The Approximate Length of the Animated Films.

Option	Number	Percentage

8 minutes or less	28	70
8-15 minutes	11	27.5
Around half an hour	01	2.5
One whole hour	-	-

In this question, we wanted to know the approximate length of animated films students are exposed to, so that we can relate this aspect to the effectiveness of the film. On the one hand, the majority of students (70%) agreed that the animated films they watch in class last for 8 minutes or less. On the other hand, a minority of 27.5 % went for 8-15 minutes length of the animated films included in instruction.

Q14. What do you usually do when you watch short silent animated films?

a- Try to imagine what the characters are saying.

b- Understand the story well.

c- Do not understand the film because the characters do not engage in dialogue.

Table 20. Students' Impressions while Watching SSAF.

Option	Number
A	26
B	30
C	00

This question was asked to know whether the students are active or passive when they watch short silent animated films. As illustrated in the table above, students watching these films

tend to understand the story well and try to imagine what the characters are saying. None of these students had a problem with the absence of the dialogue. Hence, although those films are silent, students are active and visually literate.

Q15. What do you think of short silent animated films?

a. They are fun and enjoyable.
b. They have interesting stories.
c. They instill morals.
d. They are boring and made for kids.

Table 21. *Students' Opinions of SSAF.*

Option	Number
A	22
B	25
C	11
D	05

The students' overall opinions of the short silent animated films are looked into in this question. Positive attitudes were predominant in students' answers with 25 students claiming that they have interesting stories, 22 judging them as fun and enjoyable and 11 thinking that they instill morals. Scarcely five students deemed them as boring and rather directed for kids.

Q16. To what extent do short silent animated films engage the students?

a. They help them understand the topic.
b. They give them more ideas to say about the topic.
c. They help them retell the story more precisely.

d. They encourage them to talk more.

e. They make them feel less stressful.

f. None of the above

Table 22. *Students' Attitudes towards the Effectiveness of SSAF on Engagement*

Option	Number
A	18
B	18
C	07
D	18
E	05
F	02

Results obtained demonstrate the benefits of short silent animated films. Students stated that these films mostly stimulate their understanding (18), inspire them with much to say about the topic (18) and urge them to express themselves (18). Retelling the stories of the films is one of the benefits that received (7) students' interest along with their potential to reduce stress with 5 ticks. Whereas, two students had a quite dissimilar opinion by denying the film any of the benefits mentioned in the options.

Students were also asked to mention other impacts if there are any and few have provided the following answers:

- "They teach us to read between lines".

- "They get us to interact with one another, and give us the opportunity to discuss and debate the topic".

- "They enable us to develop the dialogues of the silent animated films ourselves".

- "They help us improve our vocabulary because our teacher usually provides us with words related to the topic of the film and then we have to practise them in talking about the films."

It is safely established that the short silent animated films are greatly advantageous in the EFL classroom by improving students' understanding, enhancing their speaking skills and building their autonomy.

Q17. After watching the SSAF, what follow-up activities do you like most?

Table 23. Follow-up Activities Students Prefer with SSAF.

Option	Number
Debates	07
Presentations	11
Discussions	28
Voice-acting	11

Short silent animated films do not stand alone as an activity. They are rather presented along with other activities be them warm ups or follow up activities. Particularly, this question aims at distinguishing which of the follow up activities students enjoy most. Unexpectedly, the majority of participants (28) enjoyed discussions more, while an equal number of eleven students opted each for presentations and voice-acting. Another party of 7 students liked debates.

In conclusion, not only do students enjoy the short silent animations, but they also cherish the follow-up activities accompanied.

Q18. Do SSAF motivate you to talk in class?

Table 24. Students' Opinions about the Role of SSAF in Enhancing Motivation to Speak

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	35	87.5
No	05	12.5

The present question elicits students' points of view towards the role of short silent animations in enhancing students' motivation to talk in class. Almost the whole sample (87.5%) regarded them as highly motivational. Conversely, five students out of forty (12.5%) considered them as lacking such an influence.

To get further insight into how these animated films may motivate the students to speak in class, students were asked to strengthen their choices with justifications.

Twenty-seven students provided justifications in favour of the short silent animated film. They sustained that short silent animations are motivational in the sense that "they lead students to discover the topic themselves". Some participants also maintained that they "push them to interact with each other and get to express themselves freely". While, a number of participants acknowledged the effectiveness of this type of film in creating room for using their own words and expressions through the voice-acting technique, summarizing and retelling of the stories; in contrast to watching. a video with a dialogue in which students always repeat the already-heard words and sentence constructions. Moreover, a student claimed that along with the films, their teachers ask them to visualise and predict at different intervals of the video;a thing they found as they accurately wrote "fun and challenging". They also viewed that " it lessens their stress and

thus , feel more encouraged to speak". Furthermore, a student mentioned that silent animations "have a deep meaning and tackle different points, what allows to develop [their] understanding".

On the contrary, very few students, who already thought that those films do not induce such in impact, supported their claim by saying,

- "I am so shy. I can't talk in the classroom. I rarely do."

- "I feel very stressful to talk in English".

Perhaps, these students' shyness may be a personality trait which requires them some personal efforts to come out of their shells.

Q19. Do you think SSAF should be used more in oral expression sessions?

Table 25. Students' Opinions about the Implementation of SSAF in OE Sessions.

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	32	80
No	08	20

Thirty-two students provided justifications in favour of the integration of SSAF into OE sessions. Whereas, eight students justified their disapproving opinions. These justifications were analyzed and ordered by theme in the table below.

Table 26. Students' Justifications for Encouraging the Implementation of SSAF in OE Sessions.

Justification	Frequency
A) Approving	
- **They urge students to speak**	19

- **They are motivational and fun**	9
- **They help practise the language**	10
- **They encourage creativity**	8
- **They enrich vocabulary**	7
- **They reduce stress**	4
B) Disapproving	
- **We need more listening**	2
- **They do not enrich vocabulary.**	2
- **They are boring**	2

Almost all the informants (80%) favoured the integration of short silent animated film in OE sessions. They justified their choice by stating that these films motivate to speak and put the language they learnt to practice- vocabulary and grammar- as they also trigger a stress-free atmosphere in the classroom. Short silent animated films, furthermore, stimulate the students to be creative, imaginative and express themselves freely with respect to the morals those films instill. On the flip-side, eight students (20%) discouraged the inclusion of silent animations in OE classes for they saw that they are somewhat boring and that students, instead, expect more vocabulary and listening activities.

2.2. Discussion of Questionnaire Results

After a careful look into questionnaire results, satisfying conclusions could be derived. The nineteen questions elicited students' attitudes towards the role of short silent animated films

in motivating them to speak in oral expression settings. Indeed, students' responses were highly positive and were in line with the foreset expectations of the present study.

To begin with, the study intended to see what freshmen think of the importance of speaking, so Question 04 was demonstrated with that aim. The findings showed that the majority (50%) of students considered the aural/oral skill as of major importance. In Q5, most of the students admitted that they face difficulties when speaking (55%). For further details, students were asked to identify those problems in Q6. Stress was believed as the most common phenomenon students usually encounter. Among the other problems, lack of motivation also hindered their speaking performance. Answers to Q7 illustrated that a large number of students (95%) adhered to the essential role oral expression sessions play in helping them to overcome those frequent problems. To discuss it further, students were asked to provide justifications. The majority claimed that it allowed them to practise the language with its different aspects. Also, it motivated them to speak, raised their confidence and reduced their stress. To attain these aims, different materials are implemented in teaching. The eighth question suggested a number of materials, and a high percentage of students (80%) favoured the use of videos in oral expression sessions. The findings of the subsequent question(Q10) entailed that the video type encouraged mostly in speaking classes is surprisingly the animated film.

To have an in-depth look into the effectiveness of SSAF in oral expression sessions, the third section was designed (questions 10-19). Particularly, question 14 inquired about literacy of the film i.e. whether students are active or passive. The results showed that the silent viewing technique does not negatively affect their understanding as premised. Instead, students when exposed to the films, busy themselves with visualizing the story (30Ss) and the dialogues (26Ss) and understanding the plot. The succeeding question, Q15, elicited students' opinions on the

short silent animated films; the findings showed that 25 students believed that they displayed interesting plots, 22 of them found them entertaining and 11 participants stressed that they instill morals. Five students, however, thought that they are rather boring and childish. Regarding the SSAF role in speaking, students (18Ss) saw that the animations contribute to a full understanding of the topic discussed, fire their imagination, get them to brainstorm as many related ideas and encourage them to share their thoughts more openly. Students also admitted that such films boost their skills in speaking narratives (7Ss) and create a stress-free environment in the confines of the classroom (5Ss). A student added that the SSAF "teach [them]to read between the lines". The SSAF as pedagogical tools do not stand alone, they should instead be followed by some activities, consequently, Q17 looked into students' preferences as to what follow-activity/activities they enjoy most. The results deduced that participants liked discussions (28Ss), voice acting (11Ss), presentations (11Ss), and debates (07Ss). That is, besides the positive impact SSAF have on students, the follow-up activities induce a similar influence. To get a thorough response to whether the SSAF motivate student to talk, Question 18 was asked. A great deal of students (87.5%) acknowledged the SSAF role in enhancing their motivation to talk. For further insight, students provided justifications in support of the previous question. They found that animations are motivational in the sense that they generate interaction within the classroom. The SSAF lead students to discover the topics to be discussed, brainstorm as many related ideas and predict the events at different intervals. The silent viewing nature of the films and the voice-acting technique also build students' autonomy and create a learner-centered classroom. Such a technique allowed students to visualize and create dialogues themselves as well as retell and summarise the stories in an authentic and creative way. Respondents also believed that SSAF contribute to their motivation to talk by creating a stress-free inviting atmosphere thanks to the

fun and enjoyable quality of those animations. The very last question examined whether students encourage the implementation of short silent animated films into oral expression classes. The results show that a vast majority of students (80%) supported the aforementioned suggestion while a minority of 20% of students disapproved of the effectiveness of this tool in oral expression settings. Approving opinions put through that that the SSAF urge learners to speak (19 Ss), help practise the language (10Ss), enrich vocabulary (7Ss), encourage creativity (8Ss) and reduce stress (4Ss). More specifically, students deemed the SSAF as motivational and amusing (9Ss), which is our main interest in this research paper. Contrarily, few students disapproving of the inclusion of silent animations supported their viewpoints by claiming that they expect more listening (2Ss) and vocabulary (2Ss) with two of them thinking that they are boring.

To recap, the questionnaire discussed fully the major concern of the study. As apparent in the findings, first year students admitted the short silent animated films' contribution to speaking and interaction, besides their role in creating an optimal environment for improving their speaking skills. Most importantly, they highly regard short silent animated films as motivational and inviting for participation (Q18, 87.5%). In line with this, nearly all the students (Q19, 80%) encourage the integration of these types of videos in oral expression settings. These results definitely support our hypothesis and indicate that short silent animated films are thought of as highly effective in motivating students to speak.

3. Limitations of the Study

Like any other research, the present study faced a number of obstacles and restrictions in various forms.

✓ Time is one of the most important imperfections that impeded the consistency of the practical part. True experiments should last for a longer period of time. Unfortunately, our experiment was rather a two-week study (8 sessions).

✓ The unavailability of references for certain elements in the theoretical part especially those of the animated films as a teaching resource.

✓ Students made a lot of absences because of the previous strike and the forthcoming exams.

✓ Since the researchers had to teach and observe, it was quite hard for the observer to take notes of all the behaviours that took place in the classroom and, eventually, might have missed something.

✓ The elements of behavioural measures of motivation used in observation were somehow interrelated and taking decisions upon them was rather challenging.

4. Suggestions for Further Research

The findings obtained from this study pave the way for some other related matters in language teaching, and suggest the following topics for further research.

✓ Investigating the use of short silent animated films to teach literary elements (plot, setting, characters, climax, etc.)

✓ Investigating the use of short silent animated films to teach narrative paragraphs or essays in written expression sessions.

✓ Investigating the use of short silent animated films to teach narrative speaking for younger students.

Conclusion

The chapter devoted to the fieldwork comprised two sections. The first started with a plain description of the followed methodology, the paradigm, the design and the research instruments. The succeeding section analysed and discussed the numeric data obtained from classroom observation. Similarly, students' responses to the questionnaire were displayed, analysed and then discussed. Finally, the practical part ended up with a number of limitations encountered throughout the study as well us a couple of suggestions for research in the years to come.

General Conclusion

EFL learners encounter a number of challenges in oral expression classes that hinder their learning process. Though various authentic materials and techniques are generally implemented in speaking classes, students still face difficulties concerning their oral performance. Amongst the obstacles they face is *lack of motivation.* Therefore, the researcher hypothesized that if short silent animated films are integrated into oral expression sessions, students, will be motivated to speak. Practically, the current study investigated the influence of this technique on students' motivated behaviours in OE sessions, and explored EFL students' opinions about the role of the exposed treatment in enhancing their motivation to speak. The study sought a quantitative approach. Accordingly, the researchers mainly utilized three data instruments, namely an experiment, classroom observation and a questionnaire.

The findings show that the implementation of short silent animated films in oral expression sessions enhances EFL learners' motivation to speak. Regarding that the researcher used classroom observation to observe the effectiveness of the technique under study on certain students' motivated behaviours that were included in the adopted checklist. These elements were participation, eager volunteering, attention and verbal interaction. The researcher used some statistical measures such as: mean, proportion and the frequency as well as measuring students' talking time, to compare the collected results from the experimental and control group. Thus, the obtained findings after the comparison indicated a difference concerning the previous mentioned elements. Moreover; the gathered data from the administered questionnaire aiming to investigate students' attitudes towards the role of the treatment in enhancing their motivation to speak, indicated that students believe that it has a positive impact and highly recommend its integration within OE sessions.

Most importantly, the results yield that the implemented treatment enhances EFL learners' motivation to speak. As the topic is authentic, the findings obtained from it pave the way for some other related matters in language teaching, and encourage further research.

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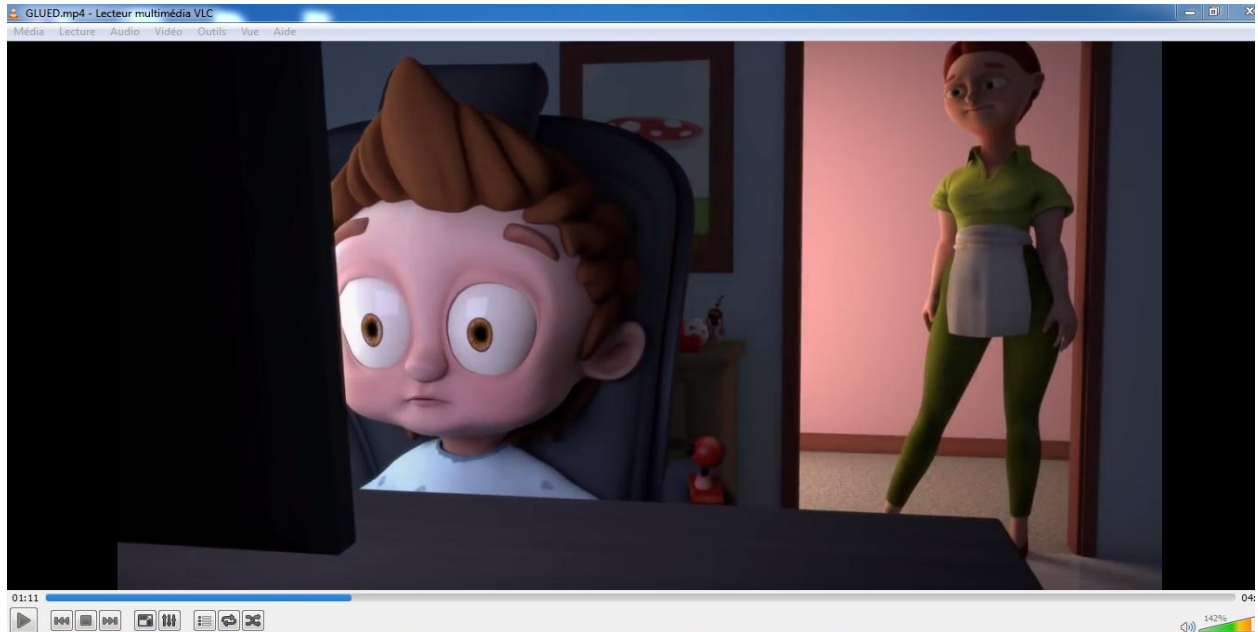
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APPENDICES
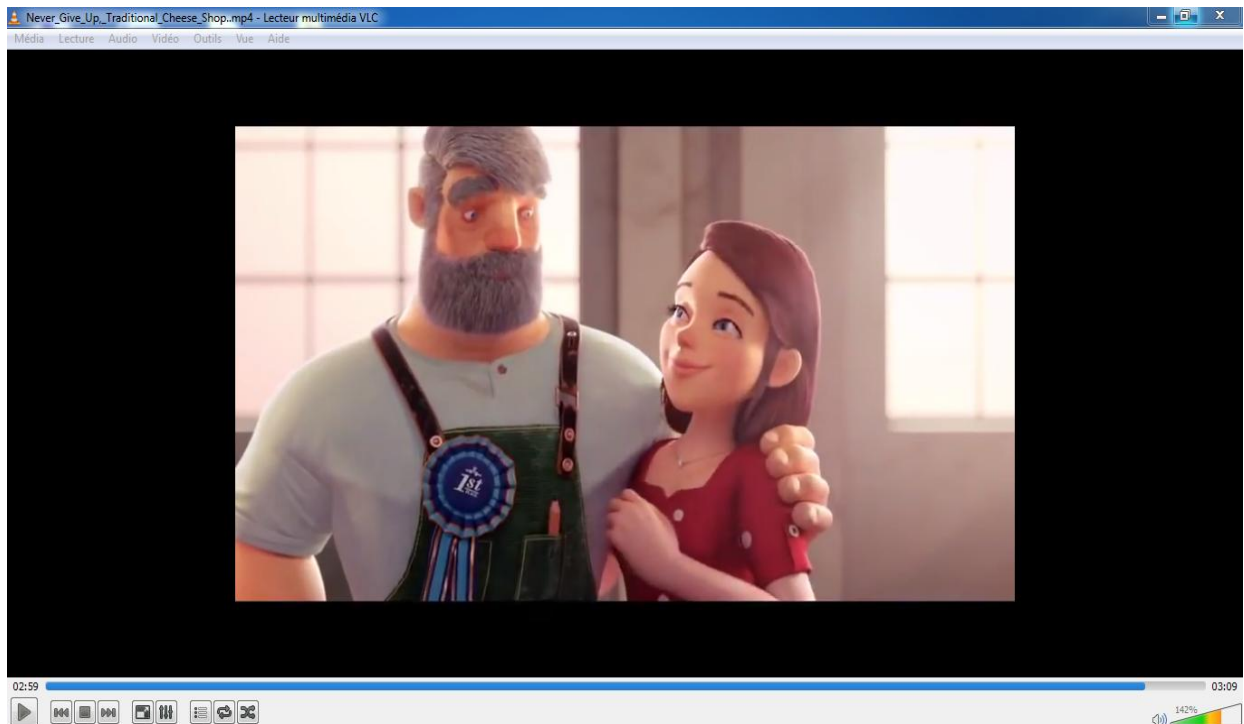
Appendix A

SSAF 1: Glued

SSAF: Never Give up

SSAF: Last Shot
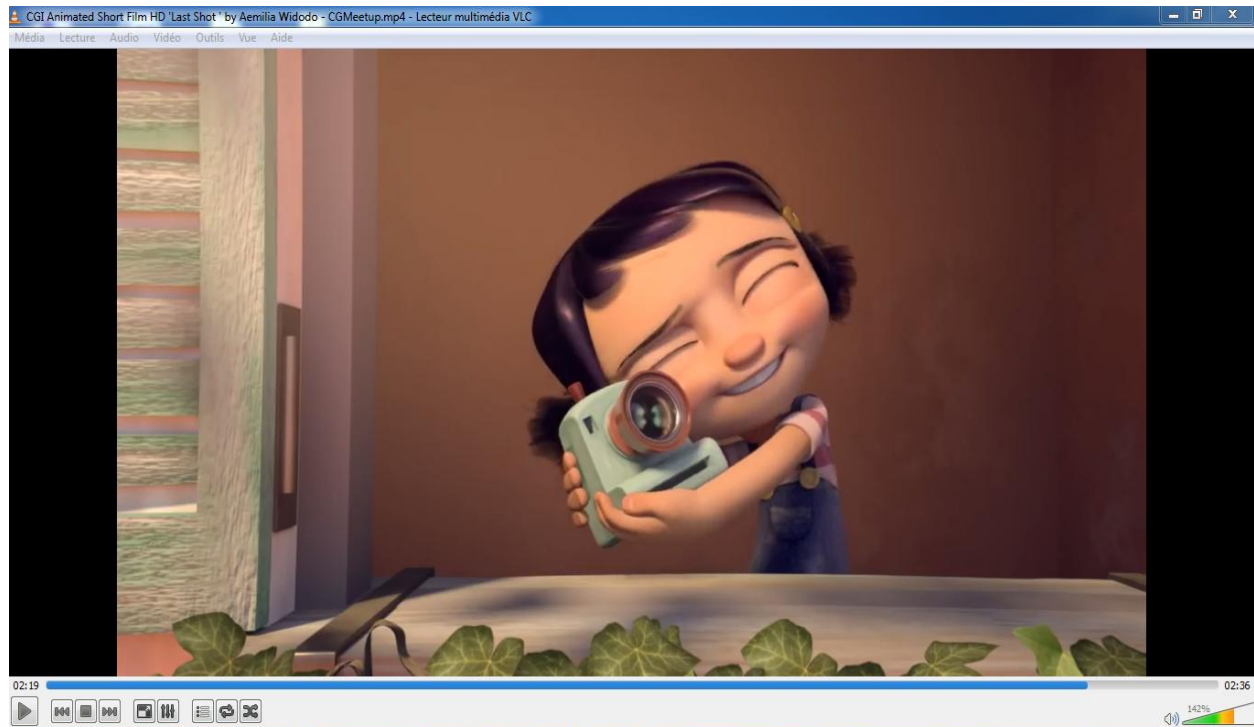
SSAF:Soar
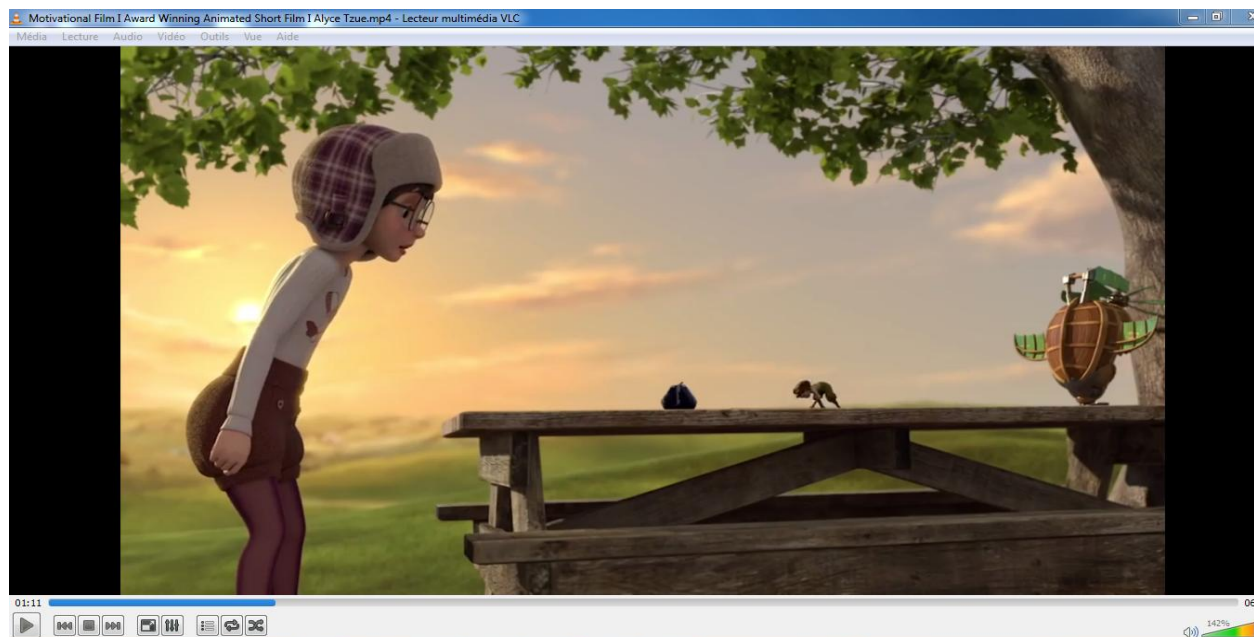
Appendix B

Lesson Plan Procedures

The Researcher followed the academic steps as teachers do to present their lessons. The lessons started with a warm up to stimulate students' interests in the topic. Followed by different activities whether before, while or after viewing the film. These activities varied from either discussions about the selected theme or visualizing or predicting the events of the SSAF. Ultimately, the researcher implemented followed up activities where students had to be active participants, which allowed the researcher to measure the effectiveness of the treatment. Purposefully, the same theme and activities were kept for both experimental and control group. The lessons lasted for approximately 60 minutes and were presented as the following:

Lesson1.

SSAF: Glued   **Theme: Video Games**

Warm Up

The teacher writes some letters on the board and asks students to construct them to find the topic. He asks students if they play video games or have friends and relatives who do so. Why are they popular nowadays?

Pre Viewing

The teacher tells students that they are going to watch a SSAF and asks them to guess its theme and plot.

While Viewing (using partial viewing technique)

The teacher lets student watch a part of the video and asks them to predict its main idea. He urges the students to try to link the title *Glued* with the theme and the video.

Post Viewing

The teacher asks students to discuss the plot of the SSAF together. He guides a discussion about the pros and cons of video games with the students. Then, he divides the group into two parties and asks them to hold a debate in title of the positive and negative sides of playing video games. After he gives them sufficient time to elaborate and share their ideas.

Lesson2

SSAF: Last Shot   **Theme: Some Things can be Fixed**

Warm Up

The teacher brings a broken item to the classroom and asks students questions about it. What is it, what would they do if it belonged to them.etc. Then, the students guess the theme of the session.

Pre Viewing

As the film is displayed on the screens, the teacher asks the students to describe the picture they see on it, and to guess the plot of the film.

While Viewing

While watching the film, the teacher freezes some of the scenes, and asks students to predict what is happening next and to guess the end of the film.

Post Viewing

After watching the SSAF the teacher asks the students about the plot, what were the characters saying, etc. Later on, students hold a discussion about the moral of the film. The teacher helps them to share their ideas, express and elaborate them.

Lesson3

SSAF: Traditional Cheese Shop   **Theme: Never Give UP**

Warm Up

The teacher asks students about problems and difficulties they face with their studies and lives. He asks them how and what do they do whenever they encounter obstacles. He lets the students discover the theme of the lesson.

Pre Viewing

 The teacher introduces some depressing stories of some famous people and reads them aloud for students. He asks them what would they do if they faced a similar situation. He allows the students to discuss these stories and tells students that they are going to watch a SSAF and asks them to predict its topic.

While Viewing (using fast forward technique)

The teacher plays the film for few seconds then fasts it forward. He asks the students to share the information they have gathered from it as the plot and guess what the characters talked about or what the film was about.

Post Viewing

After watching the film, he asks students to discuss its story together. The teacher asks them questions about the moral it instills. Then, students are asked to share similar stories. The teacher reminds his students of the previous mentioned success stories and asks them to prepare a motivational speech for these characters so they do not give up. Later on, he introduces the real characters behind the previous mentioned stories.

Lesson 4

SSAF: Soar   **Theme: Success and Failure**

Warm up

The teacher asks the students to provide words that are related to *fly*. Elicit or explain different parts of a plane such as propeller, cockpit, wings, and fuselage.

Pre Viewing

He gives students definitions of the words mentioned above and asks them to match them. He reads for them a description of a young girl called Mara who builds model planes and tries to fly them. As the students listen they should visualize the situation in as much detail as possible.

While Viewing (using freeze framing technique)

The teacher asks students if the film was similar to their visualizations, what is in the blue case and what is going to happen next. The teacher gets feedback from the whole class on what they think is in the case and what is going to happen next.

Students watch the next part of the film. As they watch they should compare what they see with their predictions. The teacher asks students what the mini-pilot wants to do, to predict what is happening next and what was in the small blue case.

Post Viewing

The teacher asks students to discuss the following questions: Did you enjoy the film, how did the film make you feel, does the film have a message. And discuss the presented theme. He divides students to groups in order to do voice acting (to provide voices for the characters of the animated films).

Appendix C

Classroom Observation Data

Participation

Sessions 1+2

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	10	20
Turns	85	120
Mean	8.5	6

Sessions 3+4

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	17	17
Turns	41	110
Mean	2.41	6.47

Sessions 5+6

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	16	16
Turns	65	70
Mean	4.06	4.37

Sessions 7+8

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	7	15
Turns	37	136
Mean	5.28	9.07

Eager Volunteering

Session 1+2

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	10	20
V Frequency	3	7
	30%	35%

Session 3+4

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	17	17

V Frequency	5	10
	29.41%	58.82%

17*1/3= 5.66 (33.33%)

Sessions 5+6

16*1/3= 5.33 (33.33%)

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	16	16
V Frequency	5	11
Percentage	31.25%	68.75%

Sessions 7+8

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	7	15
V Frequency	3	6
Percentage	42.85%	40%

(session 7) 7*1/3= 2.33 (33.33%)

Session 7) 15*1/3= 5 (33.33%)

Attention

Session 1+2

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	10	20
Attention	7	12
Percentage	70	60

Session 3+4

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	17	17
Attention	10	14
Percentage	58.82	82.35

Sessions 5+6

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	16	16
Attention	11	12
Percentage	68.75	75

Sessions 7+8

Group	Control	Experimental

Attendance	7	15
Attention	4	13
Percentage	57.14	86.66

Verbal Interaction: STT

Sessions 1+2

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	10	20
TSTT	14 min32sec	30mn5sec
STT	1mn27sec	1mn30sec/90sec

Sessions 3+4

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	17	17
TSTT	6min30sec	17 min16sec
STT	22.94sec	1min

Sessions 5+6

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	16	16
TSTT	10mn16sec	17mn18sec
STT	38sec	1mn 4sec (64.87)

Sessions 7+8

Group	Control	Experimental
Attendance	7	15
TSTT	9mn50sec	16mn23sec
STT	1mn 24sec	1mn 5sec

Appendix D

Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) Observation Scheme: Part A

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School …………………… Teacher ……….……… Learner group ……………………… Visit No

………… Date …………… Time …………… Subject ………… Observer ………………

LEARNERS' BEHAVIOR	**Volunteering**	Eager volunteering (⟩1/3 of the class)	
		S/Ss need encouragement to volunteer	
		T nominates S/Ss	
	Participation	HIGH (⟩2/3 of the class)	
		LOW (1/3 – 1/2 of the class)	
		VERY LOW (few Ss)	
	Alertness	HIGH (⟩2/3 of the class)	
		LOW (1/3 – 1/2 of the class)	
		VERY LOW (few Ss)	
TEACHER'S MOTIVATI	**Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-Evaluation**	Class applause	
		Effective praise	
		Elicitation of self/peer correction session	
		Process feedback session	
		Neutral feedback session	
	Generating, Maintaining, and Protectin	**Activity Design**	+ team competition
			+ individual competition
			+ tangible task product
			+ intellectual challenge
			+ creative/ interesting/ fantasy/
			+ personalization
			+ tangible reward
		PO	GROUP work (simultaneous) / Group ☒ C
			PAIR work (simultaneous) / PAIR ☒ C
		Teacher Disc	Referential questions
			Promoting autonomy
			Promoting cooperation
			Scaffolding

			Arousing curiosity or attention
			Promoting instrumental values
			Promoting integrative values
			Establishing relevance
			Stating communicative purpose /utility of activity
			Signposting
			Social chat
OTHER FEATURES OF TEACHER'S PRACTICE	**(PO) Participant Organization**	**TD**	Display questions
			INDIVIDUAL seat work
			Choral work
			S ☒ C
			SS listen passively to T/audio/ S/SS
ACTIVITIES			
TIME			

Appendix E

The Questionnaire

Dear 1ˢᵗ year EFL students,

I sincerely appreciate your contribution to this survey as it would provide us with the data needed to investigate the effect of short silent animated films on EFL students' motivation in oral expression classes. Please tick ☑ the box that best states your opinion. You can **ONLY** choose one box EXCEPT in questions 6, 10, 14-17.

Data collected will be treated anonymously.

Section One: Personal Information

1. Gender

   a. Male ☐   b. female ☐

2. Was is it your choice to study English?

   a. Yes ☐   b. No ☐

3. How good are you at English?

   a. Excellent ☐   b. Good ☐   c. Average ☐ d. Poor ☐

4. What is the most important skill to you?

   a. Writing ☐   c. Speaking ☐

   b. Reading ☐   d. Listening ☐

5. What is more difficult to you?

   a. Speaking ☐ b. Writing ☐

Section Two: Speaking

6. What problems do you face when speaking in English?

   a. Lack of motivation to speak ☐   c. Sentence construction ☐

   b. Lack of vocabulary ☐   d. Stress ☐

7. Do oral expression sessions help students overcome their speaking problems?

a. Yes ☐   b. No ☐

How? ……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

8. What type of materials do you think should be used more in oral expression?

a. Articles ☐   c. Pictures ☐   e. Videos ☐

b. Wall charts ☐   d. Posters ☐

9. How often do your oral expression teachers use videos in class?

a. Always ☐   c. Sometimes ☐

b. Usually ☐   d. Never ☐

10. If they do, what type of videos do they use?

a. Documentaries ☐ c. News Stories ☐   e. Tutorials ☐

b. Films ☐   d. Animated films ☐

Section Three: Short Silent Animated Films

11. Do your teachers use animated films in class?

a. Yes ☐   b. No ☐

12. If yes, how often do they do so?

a. Always ☐   c. Sometimes ☐

b. Usually ☐   d. Rarely ☐

13. How long are these animated films?

a. 8 minutes or less ☐ c. Around half an hour ☐

b. 8-15 minutes ☐ d. One whole hour ☐

14. What do you usually do when you watch silent animated films?

a. Try to imagine what the characters are saying ☐

b. Understand the story well ☐

c. Do not understand the film because the characters do not engage in dialogue. ☐

15. What do you think of short silent animated films?

e. They are fun and enjoyable. ☐

f. They have interesting stories. ☐

g. They instil morals. ☐

h. They are boring and made for kids. ☐

16. To what extent do silent animated films engage the students?

g. They help them understand the topic. ☐

h. They give them more ideas to say about the topic. ☐

i. They help them retell the story more precisely. ☐

j. They encourage them to talk more. ☐

k. They make them feel less stressful. ☐

l. None of the above ☐

If they have other effects, please mention them.

………

17. After watching the animated films, what follow up activities do you like most?

a. Debates ☐   c. Discussions ☐

b. Presentations ☐   d. Voice acting ☐

18. Do short silent animated films motivate you to talk in class?

a. Yes   ☐   b. No ☐

Please, justify.

………

19. Do you think short silent animated films should be used more in Oral Expression classes?

a. Yes ☐   b. No ☐

Why do you think so?

………

………

Résumé

Le succès de processus de l'enseignement et d'apprentissage des langues étrangères dépend d'un certain nombre de facteurs. L'anxiété, la confiance en soi et la motivation sont les principaux facteurs psychologiques qui influent ce processus. La démotivation est considérée comme l'un des facteurs qui influencent et peuvent diminuer la performance des apprenants. La recherche en cours vise à trouver des solutions à la démotivation des étudiants, et surtout concernant la compétence orale. Dont elle propose l'intégration des courts métrages d'animation muets dans les séances d'expression orale. La recherche est basée sur l'hypothèse que l'implémentation de ces animations renforce la motivation des étudiants de première année parcours langue anglaise pour parler. Elle base sur leur effet sur les comportements motivés des étudiants, particulièrement, l'attention, la participation, le bénévolat enthousiaste et l'interaction verbale. La recherche suppose que les étudiants développeront des attitudes positives envers le traitement, et donc, encourager leur intégration dans l'enseignement d'expression orale. Pour tester l'hypothèse, la recherche a été menée au niveau de l'Université Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, et 40 étudiants de première année ont été sélectionnés. Pour une enquête systématique, la recherche a adopté un quantitatif paradigme. Le chercheur a utilisé un questionnaire et a fait une expérimente. Le premier outil de recherche était de nature préexpérimentale et a duré huit séances. La collection des données a nécessité une combinaison sélective de deux schémas d'observation en classe le MOLT et COLT. Le questionnaire complémentaire composer de dix-neuf questions a été administré pour examiner les opinions des étudiants sur la technique et si elle contribue à leur motivation à parler. Comme prévu, les résultats ont montré que les classes expérimentales surpassaient les classes témoins. Les étudiants étaient plus attentifs, engageants,

et bénévoles et leurs discours étaient plus élevés. De plus, la majorité des étudiants a encouragé

et adhéré le rôle de ce traitement sur la production orale.

ملخص

يتعلق نجاح عمليتي تعليم و تعلم اللغة إلى حد كبير بمجموعة من العوامل المرتبطة بالمتعلم. منها

السيكولوجية كالقلق، الثقة بالنفس و التحفز و التي قد تؤثر على أو تحدد سيرورة هاتين العمليتين . إن

الحوافز أو الدوافع لمن أهم العناصر الفعالة في هذا الإطار و الإفتقار إليها يعرقل تقدمه و ينتج عن ذلك في

غالب الأحيان مردود ضعيف. بغرض مواجهة المشاكل المتعلقة بالإفتقار إلى أو نقص الدوافع النفسية للتعلم

عامة و مهارات التحدث على وجه الخصوص، يقترح بحثنا هذا إدراج أفلام الرسوم المتحركة القصيرة

الصامتة ضمن حصص التعبير الشفوي لأقسام الأنجليزية. يفترض البحث أن هذه الأخيرة كفيلة بتحفيز طلبة

السنة الأولى جامعي على التحدث بالإنجليزية مستهدفا بالتحديد السلوكات التي تعكس ذلك كالإنتباه، المشاركة،

التطوع، و التفاعل اللفظي/الكلامي . لإختبار صحة الفرضية تم إجراء الدراسة على مستوى قسم اللغة

الإنجليزية بجامعة محمد الصديق بن يحي هذا و قد أختيرت عينة إحصائية مكونة من أربعين طالبا للسنة

الأولى. بغرض إجراء دراسة محكمة و مبنية على أسس منظمة، تم إتباع منهج إحصائي كمي من خلال

إستعمال أداتي البحث من تجربة و إستبيان. وسيلة البحث الأولى كانت ذات منهج شبه تجريبي و دامت

لثمانية حصص. كما استوجب مراقبة الأقسام قيد الدراسة و أخد ملاحظات لتكرارات السلوكات المدروسة

باتباع مخططي الكولت و المولت لمراقبة الفصول الدراسية. أما الإستبيان المكمل للتجربة فقد ضم تسعا و

عشرين سؤالا بهدف معرفة آراء الطلبة حول التقنية المقترحة و مدى فاعليتها في تحفيز المتعلم على التحدث.

أظهرت النتائج المتحصل عليها أن الطلبة ضمن الحصص التجريبية قدموا آداءا أحسن منه في الحصص

الغير تجريبية حيث كانوا أشد إنتباها ، مشاركة، تطوعا منتجين معدل كلام أكبر. بينت نتائج الإستبيان من

جهة أخرى إجماع أغلبية الطلبة على أن أفلام الرسوم المتحركة القصيرة الصامتة كفيلة بتحفيز متعلمي اللغة

على التحدث كما و نصحوا باستعمالها في تعليم التحدث.