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**The Impact of Visual Aids on Interaction during Project Work
Presentations**
**Case Study of Second Year Pupils at Abdi Bouaziz Secondary
School**

**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment for the Requirements of a Master
Degree in English Didactics**

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my dear father,

My brothers and sisters,

My friends and colleagues

And to my dear husband

Hana

This humble work is dedicated to

My parents

My siblings and

My friends

Chafia

Acknowledgement

All praise goes to **Allah**, the Almighty

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Abstract

The present research investigated the impact of visual aids on interaction during project work presentations of secondary school EFL learners, which represent tasks to be done at the end of the unit integrating the language and skills acquired throughout the unit. Specifically, it sought to establish whether the quality visual aids, their number and their use at a given stage of the presentation were related to more interaction. To reach the aim of the study, the researchers used classroom observation with a second year secondary school class at Abdi Bouaziz Technical School, Jijel. The students were assigned randomly to six groups. Three groups relied on visual aids like pictures, charts and PowerPoint in introducing the topic, then continued presenting without using them whereas the other three groups started presenting without visuals, then continued explanation using them. The findings showed that presentations that employed good quality visual aids, which were relevant, clear, explanatory and interesting, produced more interaction than presentations that relied only on verbal delivery. Learners were more engaged through asking questions, responding to questions and giving comments. Moreover, the results revealed that the number of visuals used did not really count. Furthermore, visuals created more interaction when used in the body of the presentation where details and explanation of the topic were provided than when used in the warming up of the presentation. The use of good quality visuals is highly recommended for teachers, specifically when explaining, and they should encourage learners to employ them in their presentations.

Keywords: Visual Aids, Project Work Presentations, Interaction.

List of Abbreviations

CBA: Competency Based Approach

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ICT: Information and Communications Technology

IRF: Initiation- Response- Feedback

List of Figures

Figure 2.1. Example of a Line Chart of People Fire Casualties in Relation to Age.....	28
Figure 2.2. Example of a Pie Chart of the Most used Drugs	29
Figure 2.3. Flowchart for the process of dealing with a non-functioning lamp	30
Figure 4.1. Interaction of Group 1 in Project Work Presentation	62
Figure 4.2. Interaction of Group 2 in Project Work Presentation.....	64
Figure 4.3. Interaction of Group 3 in Project Work Presentation.....	65
Figure 4.4. Interaction of Group 4 in Project Work Presentation.....	67
Figure 4.5. Interaction of Group 5 in Project Work Presentation.....	68
Figure 4.6. Interaction of Group 6 in Project Work Presentation.....	70
Figure 4.7. The Difference in Quantity, Quality and participation among the Six Groups.....	73
Figure 4.8. Interaction at the Introductory Stage and Body of the Presentation Stage.....	75

List of Tables

Table 3.1. Corrective Feedback Types 45

Table 4.1. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 1 61

Table 4.2. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 2 63

Table 4.3. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 3 64

Table 4.4. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 4 66

Table 4.5. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 5 67

Table 4.6. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 6 69

Table 4.7. Interaction in the Visually Aided Parts Vs the Non-visually Aided Parts 71

Table 4.8. Relating Number and Quantity of Visuals to Participations of all the Groups 72

Table 4.9. Rate of Interaction at the Two Stages of the Presentations 74

Table of Contents

Dedication	i
Acknowledgement.....	ii
Abstract	iii
List of Abbreviations.....	iv
List of Figures	v
List of Tables.....	vi
Table of Contents	vii

General Introduction

Introduction	Erreur ! Signet non défini.
1. Review of Previous Research.....	1
2. Statement of the Problem	4
3. Aims of the Study.....	4
4. Research Questions and Hypotheses:.....	4
5. Data Collection Procedures	5
6. Structure of the Study.....	5

Chapter One: Project Work Presentations

Introduction	7
1.1.The Concept of Project Work within the Competency Based Approach	7
1.1.1. Integration of the Competency Based Approach in Algeria.....	7
1.1.2. Importance of project work in the CBA.	8
1.1.3. Definition of project work.	8
1.1.4. Project work procedures.	9
1.2. Project Work Presentations in Algerian Secondary School EFL Classes	10

1.2.1. Definition of oral presentations.....	11
1.2.2. Advantages of oral presentations.....	11
1.2.3. Process of a project work presentation.....	12
1.3. Issues Affecting Oral Presentations in EFL Classes	16
1.3.1. Speech anxiety.....	17
1.3.2. Lack of preparation.....	17
1.4. Techniques to Successful Oral Presentations	17
1.4.1. Visualisation tools.	18
1.4.2. Non-verbal communication.	18
1.4.3. Voice.	19
1.4.4. Simple and familiar language.	20
1.4.5. Self-confidence.....	20
1.5. Assessing Project Presentations	20
1.5.1. Teacher assessment.	21
1.5.2. Peer-assessment.....	22
1.5.3. Self-assessment.	22
Conclusion.....	23

Chapter Two: Visual Aids in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Introduction	24
2.1. Definitions of Visual Aids.....	24
2.2. Characteristics of Visual Aids	25
2.3. Types of Visual Aids	27
2.3.1. Pictures.	27

2.3.2. Charts.....	28
2.3.3. Hand-outs.	30
2.3.4. Posters.	31
2.3.5. Flipcharts.....	31
2.3.6. Presentation software.....	32
2.4. Using Visuals in EFL Classrooms.....	34
2.4.1. Visuals in learning.....	35
2.4.2. Visuals in teaching.	36
2.4.3. Visuals in oral presentations.....	37
Conclusion.....	39
Chapter Three: Classroom Interaction	
Introduction	40
3.1. Definitions of Classroom Interaction	40
3.2. Types of Classroom Interaction.....	41
3.2.1. Learner-teacher interaction.....	41
3.2.2. Learner-learner interaction.	42
3.2.3. Learner-content interaction.	42
3.2.4. Learner-interface interaction.	43
3.3. Patterns of Classroom Interaction	43
3.3.1. Initiation-response-follow-up.	43
3.3.2. Turn-taking	45
3.4. Questions in Classroom Interaction.....	47
3.4.1. Definition of questions.	48

3.4.2. Types of questions.....	48
3.4.3. Relationship between questions and interaction.....	51
3.5. Classroom Interaction and Language Learning.....	53
3.5.1. The Input Hypothesis.	53
3.5.2. The interaction hypothesis.....	54
3.5.3. The output hypothesis.....	54
Conclusion.....	55
Chapter Four: Field Work	
Introduction	56
4.1. Population and Sample of the Study	56
4.2. Data Collection Procedures	56
4.3. Classroom Observation	58
4.3.1. Description of classroom observation.	58
4.3.2. Presentation and analysis of classroom observation.....	60
4.3.3. Interpretation of Results.	75
Conclusion.....	77
General Conclusion	
1. Putting it altogether	78
2. Limitations of the Study	79
2. Pedagogical Recommendations.....	80
4. Suggestions for Further Research	81
References	83
Appendices	96

Résumé	99
ملخص	100

General Introduction

1. Review of Previous Research
2. Statement of the Problem
3. Aims of the Study
4. Research Questions and Hypothesis
5. Data Collection Procedures
6. Structure of the Study

Learning English as a foreign language is such a complex process as it requires being skilful in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. There is no doubt that any weakness in one or more skills would literally hinder a good learning of the language. As language is basically used to communicate, the receptive skills of listening and reading are pertinent to facilitate the production of the language, either in writing or in speaking. In Algerian secondary schools, however, teachers and learners alike give more value to the productive skill of writing over speaking. In fact, the project work presentation is one of the very few situations wherein learners stand and face their teacher and classmates to talk. Accordingly, it is urged to opt for means that motivate both teachers and learners to deal with project work presentation properly. The use of media in English as Foreign Language classrooms might have a significant contribution to better presentation sessions. Visual aids, such as pictures, charts and Information and Communication Technologies (ICT's), have impressive features that may help improving learners' project presentations. In addition to the fact that they evoke motivation and attract the audience's attention, they may contribute in increasing and strengthening the relationship between the speaker and the audience.

1. Review of Previous Research

Visual aids are means used to help the audience understand and take as much information as possible in lessons and other pedagogical presentations. The types of visual aids, which range from pictures and graphs to software presentations, can have an impact depending on the way they are used, their type in relation to the content and their aim. The effect of visuals in English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms has been widely investigated in the field of education (Perry, 1939; Clark and Lyons, 2011; Pulak and Tomaszewska, 2014; Guo, Wright, McTigue, 2018), in language teaching and learning (Gaikwad 2013; Majidi and Aydinlu, 2016; Philominraj, Jeyabalan and Vidal-Silva, 2017), and in oral presentations (Davis and Davis 2012; Heinderyckx, 2015)

Research dealt with the impact of visuals in education. For instance, Perry (1939) investigated the use of visual aids in science education. In her study, Perry discussed and clarified how building up and clarifying abstract concepts at school can be achieved via visuals like graphic materials, pictures, figures and demonstrations. More recently, in their book entitled “Graphics for learning”, Clark and Lyons (2011) presented guidelines for planning, designing and evaluating visuals in training materials. The authors investigated the effectiveness of visual aids and requirements of their use based on a case study with graphic designers who were in charge of designing a visualized seminar of a company to be put on the Internet. Results showed that visual aids helped learners grasp the content that is unfamiliar and overloaded with details. Visuals served as mental organizers that minimize mental load. Pulak and Tomaszewska (2014) investigated the role of images and visual aids in a blended learning environment, a way of learning that combines being taught with the use of different technologies, through surveys and questionnaires. A great number of the students stressed the usefulness of using pictures and multimedia in understanding a topic and in understanding the relationships between individual topics. Guo, Wright and McTigue (2018) conducted a content analysis of visuals in elementary school textbooks in the United States to provide a description of the types and functions of the visual aids used. Their analysis concluded that visual literacy in science and social studies is not that simple in terms of their functions and students’ comprehension; it is rather a complex field that requires more research and precision.

Visuals were the focus point of several studies related to learning and teaching EFL. Gaikwad (2013) reviewed the impact of the visual presentation of grammatical concepts of sentence structure on writing, and found out that the performance of students in the experimental group who were taught visually was higher than that of the control group. Majidi and Aydinlu (2016) investigated the effect of using contextualized visual aids on

secondary school EFL students' reading comprehension. The participants in this study went through the procedure of pre-test, treatment, post-test and were organised into three experimental groups and one control group. Data were collected through two tests whose results showed that contextualized visual aids had a significant role in reading comprehension. The study also revealed that visual aids that are used at the beginning of a story had more effect than those used at the climax and the end of the story. Philominraj, Jeyabalan and Vidal-Silva (2017) also studied the role of visuals. They conducted a study using surveys with 504 high school students to investigate how language learning via visual aids occurs. The data obtained showed that visual aids represent an essential part of language learning. It also concluded that visual learning constitutes a vital process of input and interaction where the students get their needs, get involved and produce genuine learning.

There is not much research conducted on the effectiveness of visuals in presentations in EFL classes. Davis and Davis (2012) analysed the importance of using visuals in presentations and stressed the importance of choosing effective visuals that serve the purpose of the presentation. They concluded that it is better to use no visual than to use a bad visual. Heinderyckx (2015) admitted that visuals are so effective in oral presentations that they became a requirement. He also recommended that the use of visuals should be studied in order not to mislead the audience and cause misunderstanding.

Research in Algeria considered the effect of audio-visual aids and dealt with the impact of some types of visuals such as pictures and PowerPoint presentations on some aspects of the language like vocabulary (Touati, 2013; Sadoudi 2016, Kerroum, 2016) oral presentations were also studied in relation to their effect on communicative competence (Zitouni, 2013; AitAthmane, 2016; Alligui, 2016). As far as our review of available literature has reached, the impact of visuals on oral presentations has not been explored in Algeria. Following our

review of literature worldwide also, so far, no study has been conducted on the effectiveness of visual aids on interaction during oral presentations.

2. Statement of the Problem

As teachers , we observed that there is a the lack of speaking activities in the secondary school syllabi of English , which resulted in making learners face serious problems when presenting their project work. Lack of practice creates problems in presentation management, especially that presentations may not be so much focused on involving students in the interaction as they are on content. Considering presentations as essential tasks through which a foreign language is practiced and via which communicative skills are developed, this study attempts to suggest the use of visuals, which might solve the issue of low interaction during project presentations.

3. Aims of the Study

This study aims to highlight the significance of visual aids in making better project presentations. Particularly, it aims at investigating the importance of visuals in increasing interaction during the project presentations. It also aims to highlight the necessary requirements of using visuals in terms of their quality and number as well as the stage or stages in presentations where they might be most productive.

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present piece of research seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Do visuals contribute to increasing interaction during project work presentations?
2. Is the number of visuals used important in interaction?
3. Is the quality of visuals used important in interaction?
4. Does the stage in which the visuals are employed affect the rate of interaction during project presentations?

To answer the above questions, we hypothesize the following:

1. Using visuals is predicted to increase interaction in project work presentations.
2. If more visuals are used, there will be more interaction.
3. The higher the quality of the visuals, the more interaction would result.
4. If visuals are used at the warming up stage of the presentation, interaction will be higher than when they are used at the body of the presentation.

5. Data Collection Procedures

In order to collect data for this study, a descriptive approach based on classroom observation was adopted. Second year secondary school pupils at Abdi Bouaziz Technical School, Jijel, constituted the population of the study. 6 groups, of 06pupils each, belonging to the same class were selected for observation where each group dealt with two parts in the same presentation. One part of the presentation was supported by different kinds of visual aids whereas the other part was not. The aim was to know the difference between delivering a presentation with visuals and without them in terms of the rate of interaction that is generated in each part.

6. Structure of the Study

The present study comprises four chapters. The first chapter provides a review of literature related to project presentations in EFL classrooms. It opens by discussing the concept of oral presentations and procedures in their accomplishment. Moreover, it studies common issues that learners face in presentations and reviews techniques that might help the learners make better presentations. The chapter ends by considering how these presentations are evaluated.

The second chapter sheds light on visual aids in foreign language learning and teaching by first providing a definition of the term visuals and details about the commonly used visuals

with their advantages in an EFL classes. Furthermore, it discusses the characteristics of good visual aids in presentations. It closes by discussing the benefits of using visuals in project presentations, including their potential role in interaction.

The third chapter explores the concept of classroom interaction. It first supplies a definition for the term, describes its types and patterns, and analyses its important parts. It later discusses the role of interaction in language learning theories.

The fourth chapter is devoted to the fieldwork of the study. It includes a description of the population of the study, tools of investigation and procedures. In addition, it presents a detailed analysis, comparison and interpretation of the results obtained through classroom observation during project presentation. Eventually, the limitations of the study are discussed and some pedagogical implications for improving students' project work presentations are suggested.

Chapter One: Project Work Presentations

Introduction

1.1. The Concept of Project Work within the Competency Based Approach

1.1.1. Integration of the Competency Based Approach in Algeria

1.1.2. Importance of project work in the CBA

1.1.3. Definition of project work

1.1.4. Project work procedures

1.2. Project Work Presentations in Algerian Secondary School EFL Classes

1.2.1. Definition of oral presentations

1.2.2. Advantages of oral presentations

1.2.3. Process of a project work presentation

1.3. Issues Affecting Oral Presentations in EFL Classes

1.3.1. Speech anxiety

1.3.2. Lack of preparation

1.4. Techniques to Successful Oral Presentations

1.4.1. Visual Aids

1.4.2. Non-verbal communication

1.4.3. Voice

1.4.4. Simple and familiar language

1.4.5. Self-confidence

1.5. Assessing Project Presentations

1.5.1. Teacher assessment

1.5.2. Peer-assessment

1.5.3. Self-assessment

Conclusion

Chapter One: Project Work Presentations

Introduction

The project work is regarded as the core of the current Algerian educational system. Under the Competency-Based Approach, learners are given the chance to produce work by combining their knowledge and skills. These work are presented to the class in a creative and critical way that stimulates collaboration and autonomous learning. This chapter sheds light first on the concept of project work within the Competency-Based Approach, provides definitions and describes its procedures. It also deals with oral presentations and describes the process in making a project work presentation. This chapter also points at the common problems facing learners in presentations and suggests some techniques to opt for. It ends with an overview of how a project presentation is usually assessed by teachers, peers and the learners presenting.

1.1. The Concept of Project Work within the Competency Based Approach

One of the main characteristics of the Competency-Based Approach (CBA), which clearly shows how distinct it is from the previous approaches that have been implemented in Algerian schools, is the integration of the project work. Project work, in fact, makes the fulfilment of the objectives more evident. This work helps teachers measure to what extent the learners accomplish the competences. Under this section, the concept of project work is addressed by first providing a background to the CBA, definitions and procedures to be followed.

1.1.1. Integration of the Competency Based Approach in Algeria.

To improve the quality of education, there have been considerable educational reforms in the Algerian school. After independence, the educational system was subject to many changes including the syllabi, reorganisation of grades as well as the approach followed.

After the adoption of the Grammar Translation Method in the colonisation era, the Audio-lingual Method was soon opted for. The latter proved to be “unable to form learners who could communicate effectively” in different real-life situations. Thus, the communicative approach, with a teaching-with-objectives method, was the alternative way to better valuing learners’ need to use EFL. However, this was ineffective as Algerian classrooms were not suitable in terms of tools and numbers of learners (Banadla, 2013, p.145).

The beginning of the twenty-first century witnessed trials to substitute the approach that was followed then. To cope with demands of globalization, there have been educational reforms that led to the initiation of the CBA for the academic year 2003-2004 (Bader & Hamada, 2015). This approach is essentially meant to prepare competent graduates who are able to use the knowledge, skills, and behaviours learnt from school in real life situations (Boukhentache, 2016).

1.1.2. Importance of project work in the CBA.

The integration of project work is an important and distinctive characteristic of the CBA. Researchers agreed on the value of project work. In her study about the CBA, Chelli (2010) supported the project work and assumed that it is the only way the CBA can be practised at schools. She added that project work encourages cooperative learning and interaction and contribute to building new knowledge. Through engaging in project work, the teacher can see to what extent the learners’ competences were developed through the pupils’ performance of a real-life task.

1.1.3. Definition of project work.

A project is “a piece of research work undertaken by a school or college student” (“Project”, 2019). This implies that it is a study based on research made by students at school.

A project in the Algerian educational syllabus is a well-planned long-term undertaking in which learners apply what they have learnt by working in groups and cooperating (Chelli, 2010). This allows them to use the knowledge and skills they acquired to demonstrate reaching the objectives already set.

A project is a set of tasks engaging the learner with his/her classmates under the guidance of their teacher (*Programme d'Anglais Deuxième Langue Etrangère*, 2006). Project work encourages for the collaboration with other classmates throughout the steps leading to the realisation of the project work. The teacher in this task is a guide who directs learners and supervises the progression.

1.1.4. Project work procedures.

As previously pointed to, the achievement of the learning objectives can be seen through realizing and presenting project work. This task cannot be easily accomplished, but rather it requires a set of activities, which are explained to the learners at the beginning of the unit. As stated below, there are four phases of a project work realization: starting the project, building the project, presenting the project, and giving feedback. (*Documents d'Accompagnement du Programme d'Anglais*, 2011).

1.1.4.1. Starting the project. At the beginning of each unit, the teacher is supposed to introduce the topic of the project work to the learners taking into consideration their views. At this level, it is important to consider certain elements including the theme, time allocated, grouping and evaluation procedures.

Either the teacher or the learners can choose the theme, but in both cases, it is necessary to work on topics that are interesting and reachable. Time available for accomplishing the project should also be discussed in relation to the duration of the unit in addition to grouping. The teacher decides on the number of pupils in each group as well as the criteria in grouping them such as their proficiency level.

1.1.4.2. Building the project. At this phase, the teacher guides the learners, facilitates their work, and readjusts the actions to be carried out. Deadlines are also to be taken into consideration to organise the process and get ready to the next stage. At this phase, the learners work together to construct knowledge and use their skills to produce the work.

1.1.4.3. Project work presentation. This stage refers to the step wherein the learners show their work. Learners are encouraged to present their project to a large audience either in a form of an exposé in the classroom or even in a form of a presentation to be uploaded on the Internet. Learners are also encouraged to incorporate pictures and use media that can make it more interesting.

1.1.4.4. Feedback stage. Presenting the project is not the final step. After exposing the product, learners may have the chance to do a self-assessment as well as peer-assessment. They review the project in relation to the audience reactions to help each other be aware of the common imperfections. The teacher's feedback is also important as he/she appreciates the work, gives comments and constructive criticism to encourage learners to make better performances in the future. Some criteria of evaluation might already be prepared and used by both the teacher and the learners. These criteria help organise the evaluation process, taking into account different aspects of the project work.

1.2. Project Work Presentations in Algerian Secondary School EFL Classes

It is common in EFL classes that learners avoid speaking, or at least, hesitate before saying anything. Learners need to take part in activities that encourage them to express their thoughts and communicate in their class effectively. If they have the chance to exchange information and negotiate meaning, this will probably be effective in making them aware of how important the language is in communication (Dorelly, 2005). The presentation of the project work is one of these activities where learners use English to convey meaning orally. It is an oral presentation characterised by a set of features, a progression and some techniques to

make it successful. In this section, definitions and advantages of oral presentations are provided and the process of a project presentation is explained.

1.2.1. Definition of oral presentations.

An oral presentation is defined as “delivering an address to a public audience” (“Oral Presentation, 2018). To Hyland (1991), an oral presentation is a form of communication that is both spoken and visual made for different purposes including informing. Malette and Berger (2001) described an oral presentation as the common method of presenting information usually via a computer and a projector. This is usually done using equipment that facilitate the display of the content of the presentation .According to Hyland (1991):

The oral presentation is typically a partly spoken, partly visual form of communication which is designed to inform or persuade and occurs organisational settings. Time is normally limited and so the successful presentation must be prepared. The speaker must be sure of her facts and objectives, have a carefully structured outline, support her talk with visual aids, deliver the presentation clearly and confidently and then handle questions from the floor. (para.5)

An oral presentation is an exercise that demands a speech and visual aids in order to give information or convince a given audience. This task requires a certain structure and some techniques to be well delivered.

1.2.2. Advantages of oral presentations.

Oral presentations are an essential task in EFL classes as they lead to good results at all levels. Researchers agree that despite some common obstacles, oral presentations help in developing the linguistic competence, train the speaking skill and facilitate acquiring knowledge. Some of the benefits discussed by Al-Issa and Al-Qubtan (2010) are stated.

- Practising speaking. Learners get the chance to work on their speaking and make it better.

- Integrating language skills. Learners do not only speak but also listen, read and write in different ways.
- Acquiring knowledge using English. Learners use the language meaningfully to search for information.
- Learning how to use technology. Through making presentations, learners practise the use of technological devices like computers and projectors, in both their research and their presentation.
- Encouraging learner centeredness: learners take responsibility for their learning by doing research and other tasks independently (Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan, 2010, p. 228-231).

1.2.3. Process of a project work presentation.

After realizing their project throughout the unit in about two months, learners have to present their work in the classroom. An oral presentation is not just a matter of reading previously written reports, but a task that requires learners to pass through several stages. Many researchers agree that before standing on their feet to present their work, learners have to plan and prepare what is to be delivered through various steps. Ribé and Vidal (1993) and Reynolds (2012) studied the steps that the students should normally take when making oral presentations. These phases are planning, preparing and delivering the presentation.

1.2.3.1. Planning an oral presentation.

According to Reynolds (2012), planning an oral presentation is too crucial as it organises information and makes it clearer and easier for both the speaker and the audience. To plan a presentation, a sufficient amount of time is needed so that learners can accomplish the main tasks that pave the way to the next steps. Moreover, planning tasks may include deciding on the research techniques, searching for sources of information and selecting the appropriate content (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2008). In this phase, many tasks can help the learner to plan

his/her work including defining the objectives, deciding about sources of content, knowing the audience, and considering the allotted time.

a) Defining the objectives. Before doing anything, one should well know its purpose. In presenting their projects, learners need to define the aims of their presentation. These aims can vary from informing, convincing, inspiring and entertaining (Britton, 2007).

b) Deciding about sources of content. The content of the presentation should have sources to rely on. Yet, what can be difficult in planning a presentation is finding a balance between including enough detail to make the presentation understandable and not including much detail due to time constraints (Berndtsson, Hansson, Olsson & Lundell, 2007).

c) Knowing the audience. The quality and content of the presentation also depends on knowing to whom it is going to be delivered. In delivering a project work presentation, the audience can be mainly the peers of the speaker as well as his/her teacher. In case of the presence of any guests like the headmaster or inspectors, the learner has to take their interests and preferences into consideration. Guffey and Almonte (2009) believe that it is important to analyse the audience to make it easy to anticipate their reactions and thus to make suitable adaptations.

d) Considering the allotted time. It is valuable to consider the time allocated for the next steps, preparation and delivery. Many often underestimate this element though it is estimated that professional speakers devote more than ten hours of preparation for one-hour actual presentation (Butterfield, 2009). Learners, thus, have to include the time requirements among their planning sheet to achieve better presentations.

1.2.3.2. Preparing an oral presentation.

At this level, learners start working on the content of their presentation. They are supposed to select the information that is suitable for their topic and which they can discuss

accurately. To prepare their presentation, learners need to prepare the content and practise through rehearsal.

a) Preparing the content. Considering time allotted to the presentations, learners have to decide on what to include in and what to exclude from the script of their presentation (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2008). Learners have to write the speech to check the content and the language and make its revision easier. It is noteworthy that the language is also very important and the audience is likely to be more attentive in some parts of the presentation than in other parts. According to Wallwork (2014), the presenter had better make his English as good as possible in the introduction, when explaining the agenda, in making transitions, when asking questions and in conclusions. As only few speakers can present without some form of notes, learners need also to prepare the notes to use while delivering. They might design the notes in a simple and attractive way including numbers and important information to make things easier.

b) Practising via rehearsal. If learners just read the written form, this will not work because this takes only a little time. Rehearsing helps making a successful time management as well as a good audience understanding (Chivers & Shoolbred, 2007). Before delivering the presentation, the learner might rehearse the script for at least three times to guarantee a successful delivery; alternatively, rehearsing the main ideas and the opening can be sufficient because the audience is expecting a clear treatment to the most important points (Morgan, 2005). Here is a summary of some tips that the presenter has to respect when rehearsing as explained by Butterfield (2009).

- Standing up on feet
- Practicing out loud
- Using moves and gestures
- Moving around and checking the audience's area

- Make an audio and video recording to facilitate revising
- Asking colleagues to evaluate your performance

1.2.3.3. Delivering the project work.

The last stage for learners in making their project work presentation is its delivery. This allows the learner to transfer the information he/she gathered to the audience in the classroom or in the school's amphitheatre. One of the most important things to consider when delivering a presentation is that the speaker should be present in both body and mind; i.e., he/she should be "completely present" (Reynolds, 2012, p.215). Moreover, it is worthy to point at the importance of having some notes in hands. However, using notes does not imply that the presenter is going to read from the paper as it might lead to a boring presentation with no eye contact with the audience. To most researchers, there are three main steps to making the delivery of a presentation. They are the introduction, the body of the presentation and the conclusion.

a) Introduction. Researchers have proved that the audience is likely to be more attentive at the beginning of speeches and presentations. According to Sanders (2003), audience members are alert, more attentive and receptive at the introduction of any oral presentation, and this is what motivates to make it short, direct and interesting. This implies that to attract the attention of the listeners, the speaker needs to spend more time thinking about an attractive introduction. In doing so, a quotation, a provocative statement, a joke or an anecdotal story can be included. More importantly, the opening must introduce the theme and tell the audience about the essence of what they are going to hear next (Britton, 2007).

b) Body of the presentation. The core of the presentation is the content to be delivered. Learner have to present the information gathered, the interpretations and analysis of the subject they dealt with. This part is the longest part in terms of content and time devoted. The

speaker should present his/her ideas in an easy and simple way to help the audience in grasping the message conveyed. Because organisation is important in understanding, the central element to consider is designing the structure of the body that best achieves the aim of the presentation. This organisation depends on the purpose of the presentation. If it were a research report, the best structure would be “question, method, results, discussion, and conclusion” (Sanders, 2003, p.21). This structure allows for enough time and talk about a problematic situation, the means used in research and the results and data obtained. It also allows for a discussion of the findings and draws conclusions at the end of the presentation.

c) Conclusion. Although it might look short, the conclusion should be given its worth. It is the final stage wherein the student ends up his delivery. In the closing stage, it is essential to give a brief summary that emphasises the contributions and results. It is also advisable to use a word or phrase that signals the end of the delivery. Sanders (2003) explained how helpful it is to tell the audience that the presentation is about to end up by saying “and so, in conclusion, etc.” She also pointed out that no additional idea has a place in the conclusion, but within the body of the presentation (p.23).

1.3. Issues Affecting Oral Presentations in EFL Classes

Most EFL learners tend to dislike and avoid presenting orally for many reasons. One can question himself. Is it because they give less value to presentation skills? Is it because they hate using the target language? It is more likely that this is a common trait with many learners. Presentations are fearful. In their “Book of Lists”, Wallechinsky, Wallace, Basen and Farrow ranked making a speech before a group as the first among the ten worst human fears (as cited in Garner, 2015). In addition to stage fright that is commonly faced, an EFL learner might confront many problems that affect his/her performance. While some problems are related to the learner’s inner state, some problems are observable. There has been considerable research, related to presentations and their obstacles, which investigated the

problems facing EFL learners in their oral presentations. In this section, the most frequent problems are discussed.

1.3.1. Speech anxiety.

Most EFL learners would rather prefer to give a written format that includes a report than present it or even read it. Teachers notice that many of them look nervous and stressed. Such attitudes are in fact due to anxiety. To Scovel (1978), anxiety is a complex feeling associated with uneasiness, disappointment, self-doubt or worry. To King (2002), anxiety is so harmful that it causes the failure of the oral performance and affects the self-esteem of the learner especially if he/ she is a beginner.

For anxious and nervous presenters, some simple actions like breathing can be of a great help. According to Morgan (2005), abdominal breathing, which is respiration using abdominal muscles, can lower anxiety and generate a good feeling. Likewise, previous practice before the real performance can also help lessen the level of anxiety.

1.3.2. Lack of preparation.

Preparation is the foundation of success. A well-prepared presentation motivates the speaker to show his abilities on stage confidently. However, many presentations fail to achieve their goals due to unpreparedness. Preparation is important because it allows facing restraints and overcoming them (Reynolds, 2012). Some learners, however, can succeed in delivering an acceptable presentation even without preparation. High achievers and fluent learners can improvise and manage their presentations easily.

1.4. Techniques to Successful Oral Presentations

Some presentations are characterised by some qualities that perfectly attract the audience's attention, and thus, help the audience to be well concentrated. This is why speakers have to look for these keys and apply them during presentations. Anholt (2006), Garner

(2015) and other researchers studied the elements that make oral presentations effective. In this section, some advisable techniques that can be used in project work presentations are listed and explained.

1.4.1. Visualisation tools.

Visual aids are visual supports used by the speaker while presenting. A visual support like a picture, a graph, or a table can make the delivery of the speech and the understanding better. Psychologists and educators claim that learners are more ready to learn and understand if they are helped with visualisation tools (Butterfield, 2009).

During the project presentation, the audience is more likely to be engaged if the presenter uses a variety of visuals as they help in understanding because they illustrate the main points and “show the actual data” (Anholt, 2006, p.73). In presentations, nowadays, students are more likely to use overhead projectors to make their presentation more motivating and easier to be understood. It is important for the presenters, however, to practise the use of the projectors if they really need them so that the presentation will be smooth and well managed (Seliman & Dubois, 2002).

1.4.2. Non-verbal communication.

The verbal delivery of the presentation is supplemented by non-verbal communication. The latter comprises facial expressions, smiles, and even the distance between the presenter and the audience. The facial expressions and body language that presenters make are valuable. They help them to reinforce what they say and allow them to make themselves more visible and active in the presentation setting (Butterfield, 2002). Guffey and Almonte (2009) also argued that these non-verbal techniques help building rapport and motivate the audience to be well informed and entertained.

Smiling is a form of non-verbal communication that can help in drawing the attention of the audience while presenting. According to Reynolds (2012), people can be attracted only to genuine smiles that reveal how happy to be there the speaker is. These natural smiles raise the audience spirits and motivate them to stay engaged. Garner (2015) also insisted that the speaker's smile should tell the audience, "I am happy to be here; I am happy that you are here." (p.32).

Reynolds (2012) gave a different technique, which results in a good rapport with the audience. He recommended that it is important to shorten the physical distance between the speaker and the audience and bring individual audience members close to each other. In addition, some other techniques might help generating a better connection. They include making use of effective imagery with analogies, similes, metaphors and personal anecdotes as well as gestures.

1.4.3. Voice.

To Sanders (2003), voice is very important in making good presentations. There is no reason for the speaker to rush while presenting. Rather, the speaker has to speak neither too fast nor too slow to facilitate understanding. Besides, the volume of the voice can capture the attention and the interest of the audience. It has to be loud enough to be heard by all the attendances and clear to be understood. A conversational voice is also attractive and more likely to be understood because talks and speeches with no emotions or conversations are difficult to stay concentrated with (Reynolds, 2012). In short, to mumble or to shout are unacceptable in presentations because neither is sustainable by the audience. Actually human beings are responsible for the quality of their voice as they are produce different sorts of voicing thanks to the larynx (Roach, 1983). This allows them to make their voice as clear as possible during any presentation.

1.4.4. Simple and familiar language.

A simple language in presentations is also recommended to facilitate understanding. To Garner (2015), the presenter had better use words with a meaning that is understandable. Britton (2007) argued that the simplicity of spoken language is more urged for than the written one because while listening there is little chance to get back to the idea already said while in reading one can easily re-read in order to understand. There are several differences between writing and speaking (Anholt, 2006, Cheng, Horwitz and Schallert, 1999). To Sanders (2003), unlike in formal academic writing, the presenter can:

- Use the active and avoid the passive voice
- Use contractions
- Avoid long sentences and using short and simple ones
- Use familiar words. (p.30)

1.4.5. Self-confidence.

Successful speakers can make good speeches thanks to their self-confidence. Self-confidence is defined by Bandura as the belief in our capacities to perform (as cited in Greenacre, Tung, Chapman, 2014). Garner (2015) argued that confident speakers avoid doubts, self-criticism and do not worry about others' judgements or impressions since they are well prepared and able to handle the topic. He adds that speakers can switch on confidence by practising poise, the ability to feel home wherever they are.

1.5. Assessing Project Presentations

Apart from being a language task engaging the learners in practicing the language, developing their skills and exploiting their competences, project presentations are also activities to assess learners' performance. Al-Issa and Al-Qubtan (2010) classified presentation assessment into two categories, "subjective and objective" (p.238). In contrast to objective assessment, which is complex and dependent on given criteria, subjective is simpler

as it depends on the teacher's impression, and thus, it is suitable in case the class is crowded.

The same authors also classified assessment into summative, when learners are assessed to get marks for their performance, and formative, when the process is assessed to improve learners attainments (p.238). It is worth mentioning that regardless of the assessment type, the criteria of assessment should take into consideration many aspects in students' performances.

Assessing project presentations is often categorised into the three different categories: teacher assessment, peer assessment and self-assessment.

1.5.1. Teacher assessment.

Being a guide, monitor and facilitator, the teacher has to provide feedback to the presenters to judge their performance. The question that is raised here is, on which bases is the teacher going to assess? According to Al-Issa and Al-Qubtan (2010), teachers have to make a balance between the process and the product of the presentation to come to a fair assessment. King (2002) suggested a checklist that serves for both teachers and peers as assessors. The checklist consists of several criteria that require a remark leading to a given mark. These criteria represent a set of essential elements in the presentation and that can help the teacher to decide on its effectiveness. They include:

- Preparation. Observing if the pupil is prepared by checking his punctuality and the readiness of materials and equipment.
- Organisation. Studying the steps of the presentation to see if there is a well-formed outline.
- Content. Checking diversity of resources, relevance and quality of information.
- Delivery. Assessing many elements including voice, eye contact, gestures, natural delivery, note cards, speech rate as well as the efficiency of visual aids.
- Oral skills. Noting if the language is well used and helpful in explaining the presentation. Moreover, observing interaction with peers is required.

1.5.2. Peer-assessment.

It is beneficial to incorporate learners in the assessment. Falchikov (2013) defended involving students as assessors by pointing at the benefits that they can gain. He argued that providing an assessment at the end of the presentation makes the student more concentrated and engaged. However, peers are not always welcomed to take part in assessments. In most EFL classes where English is one subject in the curriculum, teachers often take charge of the marking operation alone due to the crowded classes, the limited time for English in the curriculum and lack of technological advancement in education (Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan, 2018). The checklist used by the teacher, pointed to above, can also serve peers in their assessment.

1.5.3. Self-assessment.

While delivering their presentation, learners undergo a series of experiences and feelings that make them judge their own work. After presenting, they can have the chance to assess their work and see how close it is to what was expected. A checklist might serve this self-assessment though it is different from the teachers and peers assessment sheet. Here are some criteria that the student can take into consideration as suggested by Al-Issa and AL-Qubtan (2010). The checklist contains a set of ten questions that learners have to answer by yes or no.

- Introduction, the clarity of the main ideas and the conclusion.
- Effectiveness of visual aids.
- Natural delivery and notes.
- Interaction with peers.
- Eye contact and gestures.
- Voice.
- Time requirement. (p.246).

According to “*Documents d’Accompagnement du Programme d’Anglais*” (2011), assessing the project presentation is made by both the teacher and learners. They can criticize

and comment on the work to ameliorate it. No checklist is provided, yet the teacher can make her own checklist of assessment taking into account various criteria.

Conclusion

Project work is an essential task to be made in an EFL class. It helps learners engage in an autonomous learning process in which they construct knowledge and make an output based on what they learnt. In presenting a project, learners use English to speak to the class as well as other aids like technological media and visual aids to achieve more engagement of their audience. Project work is a task that encourages learners to speak more, to do research and to work in collaboration. Despite some common issues that might affect the presentation, learners can use some techniques that ameliorate their presentation. They may use visuals, body language, and build rapport to make successful presentations. Thus, evaluating the project presentation has to include various aspects to come to a fair judgement.

Chapter Two: Visual Aids in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Introduction

2.1. Definitions of Visual Aids

2.2. Characteristics of Visual Aids

2.3. Types of Visual Aids

2.3.1. Pictures

2.3.2. Charts

2.3.3. Hand-outs

2.3.4. Posters

2.3.5. Flipcharts

2.3.6. Presentation software

2.4. Using Visuals in EFL Classrooms

2.4.1. Visuals in learning

2.4.2. Visual in teaching

2.4.3. Visuals in oral presentations

Conclusion

Chapter Two: Visual Aids in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Introduction

Pupils have different learning styles and preferences about how teaching should be carried out; hence, the teacher should diversify the teaching materials to make teaching effective and interesting. One of the techniques used in language classes is visual aids. Visual aids are discussed in this chapter by first defining what they are and describing their types. There will also be a discussion about the use of visuals in EFL classrooms tackling their role in learning, their use in teaching English and their impact in making oral presentations.

2.1. Definitions of Visual Aids

Visual aids are considered important in accomplishing teaching objectives. Different definitions can be associated with the term “visual aid”. Apart from the apparent denotative meaning of the phrase, visuals are defined differently in the context of English language learning and teaching.

‘Visual aid’ is a combination of two words defined as “an item of illustrative matter, such as film, slide, model, designed to supplement written or spoken information so that it can be understood easily” (“Visual Aid”, 2019). The term ‘visual aids’ is often used interchangeably with the term ‘visuals’. The word ‘visual’ is defined as “a picture, piece of film, or display used to illustrate or accompany something (“Visual”, 2019). The dictionary definitions of visuals denote that they are illustrative means aiming at adding extra information.

Clark and Lyons (2011) used the term “visuals” and “graphics” interchangeably, and defined them as “iconic expressions of content” made and used to improve instructional activities (p.5). Similarly, visual aids are believed to be tools used in the classroom to improve, facilitate, and make the learning atmosphere more interesting (Shabiralyani, Hasan, Hamad & Iqbal, 2015).

Corder (2015) suggested a different definition for visual aids. To him, the definition claiming that visuals are extra tools like charts and slides the teacher might use as aids is narrow in the context of language teaching. He argued that unlike teachers of other subjects, a language teacher cannot teach without visuals. He then redefined the term visual aid as “anything that can be seen when the language is being spoken” (p.85). Based on this definition, visual aids can be objects, materials, people, gestures, movements and actions made while speaking. This is why; Corder disregarded defining visual aids as “extra” tools that help the teacher in teaching the language. He believed that they are rather “central and integral with the learning process”.

Other researchers pointed to the meaning of visuals by tackling their use to reinforce, clarify and help in achieving the purposes. According to Jerry, visuals are very essential in ‘introducing, summarizing ideas, saving time and helping the audience to be more involved’ (as cited in Huff, 2008, p.105). Clark and Lyons (2011) added that visuals have different effects on the learners and thus their selection and design should be appropriate. It may happen that people visualize what should be said and say what should be rather visualized, and this what makes Huff (2008) pointing at the importance of making good decisions before implementing any visual. He admitted that one must not make use of any visual except if it is relevant and helping.

2.2. Characteristics of Visual Aids

Not any visual can be a real aid. Visuals that help making the spoken language better have a set of criteria, which must be taken into account when selecting them. Lidstone (2003) argued that in addition to the importance of facing the audience when using visuals, the latter must be simple, clear and readable, concise, relevant, and displaying correct colours (p.55-56).

- **Simple.** The simpler visuals are, the more they are comprehended to the audience. Davis, Davis, and Dunagan (2012) also insisted on the importance of using visuals that result in better understanding; otherwise, they are just distractions. A visual with complex content would not help but results on confusion.
- **Clear and readable.** The readability of visuals must be checked from a distant angle like the back of the classroom. The pictures or letters should be large enough to be clear.
- **Concise.** Wordiness has to be avoided and stressing key words is imperative. As George Eliot said, “Blessed is the man who, having nothing to say, abstains from giving us wordy evidence of the fact”, saying nothing is better than telling too much. Visuals are used to send direct and short meaningful messages rather wordy messages. Moreover, visuals have to illustrate and display the key words not random words. (Lewis, 2008)
- **Relevant.** Effective visuals complement the spoken words and serve as their support. According to Davis , Davis & Dunagan (2012) , it is necessary to select and use visuals that are linked to the speech so that the audience is well focused with the message . In case the visual holds a message different from the one of the presenter, the audience is likely to be lost.
- **Correct colours.** Though colours are likely to be attractive, they can divert attention when used inappropriately. Lewis (2008) asserted that colours should be kept consistent, used in moderation, and contrasting enough to be easily read. It is worthy to point at the hidden functions of colours. Some colours can look bigger though having same size and some can convey certain meanings. (Davis et al.,2012)

Because the brain is built ‘to do imagery quickly and efficiently’, good use of visual aids is required to make them effective (Feinstein, 2006). Besides making abstract ideas concrete and more understandable, visuals give interesting and enjoyable atmosphere through their variety.

There is no recipe to choose or design a visual aid that lead to better learning. To Clark and Lyons (2011), the worth of a visual depends on the properties of the visual itself, the objective of the instruction, and differences in the learners’ previous knowledge.

- *Properties of the visual itself*: these properties include the surface features, which have an impact on the psychological effectiveness of the visual, its communication functions of illustrating relationships, and its psychological functions of how visuals interact with the learning processes (p.07).
- *Objective of the instruction*: telling the worth of a visual also depends on instructional goals and lesson content (p.10)
- *Learners’ differences*: though some learners are more visual than others are, evidence disregards the learning styles notion. Previous knowledge to the content is the main individual difference (p.10).

2.3. Types of Visual Aids

There are different types of visual aids; the most commonly used are pictures, charts, hand-outs, posters, flipcharts, and presentation software.

2.3.1. Pictures.

Pictures are so powerful that they are often used in different settings. In schools, the majority of teachers use pictures in presenting their lessons because they find them helping and time saving. Pictures contain a mix of components, such as texts, colours or animations, which help together or alone in reshaping the intended message (Moore, 1994). Levin and Mayer explained why pictures make learning and understanding easy. They argued that

pictures make any text “concentrated, concise, coherent, comprehensible, correspondent and codable” (as cited in Patesan, Balagiu, & Alibec, 2018, p.04). According to Joyce and Weil, pictures can play the role of a stimulus to link the learners’ life experiences with language learning. Pictures can serve as good tools to teach vocabulary, reading and other language forms (as cited in Pushpanathan, 2017).

2.3.2. Charts.

Charts are graphic forms to display and illustrate data. They can be used when the content is complex or the learner is novice to reach a better acquisition (Clark & Lyons, 2011). Carter (2012) distinguished between various forms of charts, which are line graphs, bar graphs, pie charts, and flow charts.

- **Line graphs.** A line graph is a chart in which a line connects points representing values of a variable with given values of another variable (“Line Graph”, 2019).

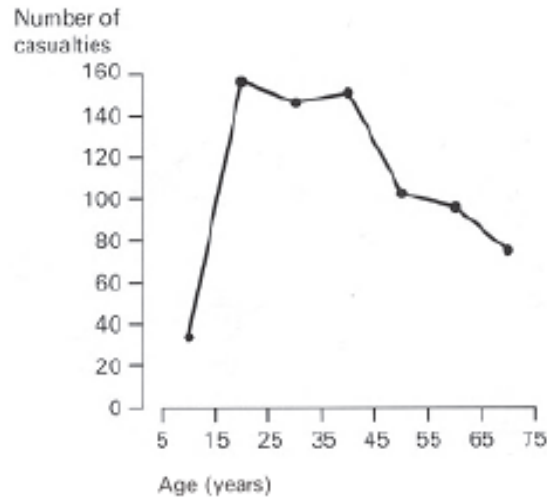


Figure 2.1. Example of a line chart of fatal fire casualties in relation to age (Simmonds et al., 1980, p.43)

- **Bar graphs.** Bar graphs are graphic means used to compare quantities in forms of parallel bars of different lengths (“Bar Graph”, 2019). Simmonds, Bragg, Lee, King

and Trednick (1980) also defined bar charts as graphics used to make a comparison between various items at the same time.

- **Pie charts.** Pie charts are types of charts represented by a circle. The circle is divided into sections representing parts of a whole.

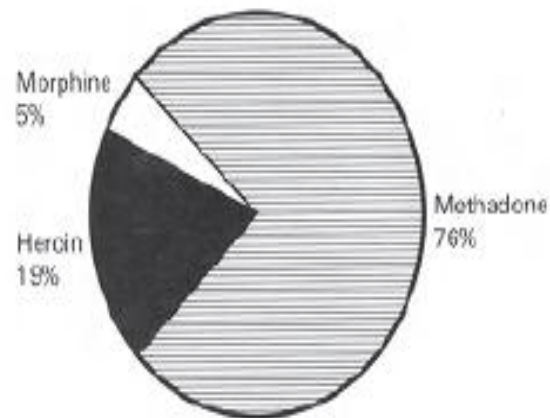


Figure 2.2. Example of a pie chart of the most used drugs (Simmonds et al., 1980, p.49)

To Hollands and Spence, this type of visuals is used to show quantitative relationship between parts in a single graph (as cited in Clark & Lyons, 2011, p.122).

- **Flow charts.** Flow charts are visual representations wherein the first item starts with a problem and the solution reached through the various steps. Various colours and shapes make the flow chart more organised. To Simmonds et al. (1980), flow charts usually use “simple typographic elements such as lines and type” (p.54).

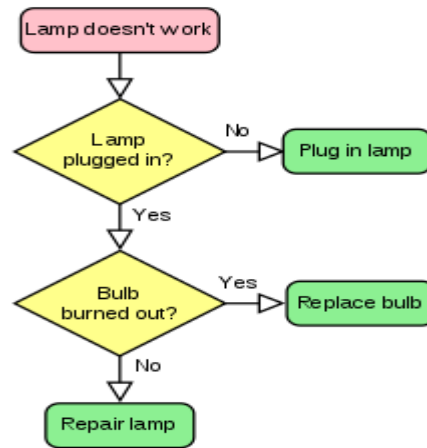


Figure 2.3. Example of a flowchart for the process of dealing with a non-functioning lamp (Wikipedia, 2019)

Flow charts as shown in the figure above demonstrate large quantities of information in visual forms to better attract the audience attention and to convey the information quickly and clearly. They simplify the complex procedures and serve as good visuals when presenting procedural content. According to Gosling (2012), flow charts must be simple, well organised and designed to better represent the data illustrated.

2.3.3. Hand-outs.

In lectures and presentations, teachers and students are accustomed to a type of visual aids known as hand-outs. Hand-outs are documents with printed information given to the audience to help facilitate both the presentation and understanding when well designed. Making hand-outs is easy, economical and useful for any kind of audiences (Brusino, 2008). Researchers agreed upon the usefulness of relying on hand-outs. According to Reimold and Reimold (2003), the hand-out is a tool to persuade as a ‘permanent reminder and may help you get the action you want’ (p.103). To guarantee the benefits of these visuals, however, it is required to respect some standards related to their design and use. Rosania (2003) insisted on the necessity to make consistent and professional hand-outs and provided some guidelines on when to give hand-outs as shown below:

- Hand-outs are often given after the presentation because when having them beforehand, the audience are more likely to shift their attention from the presenter to reading them.
- When deciding to deliver hand-outs before the presentation, the documents must be already laid out on the chairs or tables.

2.3.4. Posters.

Posters are large printed pictures presenting different information in various forms. What is common to posters is that they contain data and graphs that are available for the viewer whenever he wants to. According to Fingerhut and Lacaine (2002), posters are perfect means of communication that have many advantages. These visuals often present concise content to allow for a better focus of the audience. In addition, when presenting research findings, for example, a poster might serve as a good visual aid with graphic elements (Perrin, 2008). In order to avoid any failure when using posters, Hall and Robinson (2011) suggested some guidelines to be taken into account when designing them for a presentation as follows:

- Posters are designed with a clear relation between its sections.
- Posters display concise and simple language.
- Posters contain bullet points to provide simpler information.
- Posters balance the use of other visuals like figures and graphics with the text.

2.3.5. Flipcharts.

In presentations, we usually notice white objects with large papers on which the presenter jots down ideas when explaining. This means is called a flipchart, which is an item with a pad of white papers used for teaching and presentations. They can be effective when having much information but they can be less effective when having a large audience (Eline, 2007).

2.3.6. Presentation software.

The development in computing and the internet allow the learners to explore this technology in their work. In presentations, technological devices can help the learners in the preparation as well as the presentation of their work. Some commonly used software presentations by both teachers and learners are PowerPoint and Prezi.

PowerPoint is a presentation program developed by the Microsoft Company in 1987. This tool is characterised by the fact that it easily incorporates a set of slides containing moving information and visuals that are projected onto a wall or a screen (Huff, 2008). PowerPoint allows the user to write the presentation, and apply slide layouts from its gallery. It can also create diagrams with the drawing toolbar and allows the speaker to add notes to use during the presentation (Negrino, 2004).

PowerPoint can make presentations effective and more appealing. It helps to reinforce and improve teaching and learning via the different techniques available like inserting pictures, games and quizzes. The pictures used in the PowerPoint presentation capture viewers' attention and foster their interest (Finkelstein & Samsonov, 2007). PowerPoint also has a clear benefit over the other software in the sense that they allow for a smooth flow of the presentation and for easy shift from one slide to another, in addition to the fact that they are easy to be prepared in the last minute before a presentation (Anholt, 2006)

Prezi is another presentation software developed in 2009, which allows the user to zoom in and out of their presentation. Prezi is a free online presenter that can be downloaded on computers for offline use. What makes Prezi special is the wide selection of templates and themes that make more visual effects on the audience (Doman & Bidal, 2016). Prezi has an important role in classroom because it helps in creating learning materials, such as lesson content, by giving the audience both an overview and the details. Using Prezi, the presenter

can easily switch and move between topics. In this way, a hierarchy of information can easily be explained (Groenendaal, 2014).

2.2.6.1. Advantages of presentations software.

PowerPoint, Prezi and other software provide useful options to the user. First, using presentation software makes presentations more successful and enjoyable through incorporating as many visuals as possible, including pictures, graphs, and even videos. Still, many teachers are not aware about ‘how exciting and visually appealing PowerPoint projects are’ (Finkelstein & Samsonov, 2007).

Besides, presentation slides are clear, large and can be seen by a large audience. Just a simple click on the mouse or any button on the computer keyboard displays the next slide. Moreover, a remote control can save time and energy as it allows the speaker to stay away from the computer and have a better stand (Price & Wix, 2003)

Moreover, presentation software is free and available for installation. It is easy to use these programs for any field at any time because it does not require Internet connection. Once it is installed on the computer, one can directly start designing the presentation. Still, the PowerPoint presentation can be put online if the user uploads it. Prezi on the other hand is free for a trial period only (Attwell, 2009).

In addition, Bessant (2001) praised the fact that we can add notes to the presentation slides to remind us of the most important information. Interestingly, only the speaker can see these notes.

2.2.6.2. Disadvantages of presentations software.

Despite their considerable benefits, some users can over use visuals and spend too much time with the look of the presentation rather than its content. This over use of visuals can be ‘distracting and overwhelming’ (Bessant, 2001). It is recommended to study first if there is

really a need to opt for visual aids and then to select the types that suit the content of the presentation.

While the software presentation is used to highlight the important points, the audience might feel bored if the slides contain too much information. The slides are often full with much data, colours, shadings and frames. Many teachers and learners tend to overload the slides with information that is read loudly to the audience. This is, however, the most boring thing to occur a classroom (Davis, 2009).

In brief, presentation software are supporting tools that make a good atmosphere and improves the presentation via other means like visuals, audio-visuals or both. In making presentations, therefore, the focus should not be all paid to the software presentation itself but rather to its content.

2.4. Using Visuals in EFL Classrooms

As any other material, visual aids like pictures, hand-outs, and charts are used by teachers in different language activities. They use them to facilitate their teaching and making the classroom a fun learning environment. Furthermore, visuals like pictures and diagrams play an important role in the teaching process since they help teachers communicate and transmit ideas and concepts more effectively. Besides, in the same classroom there are many learners with different learning styles. There are auditory, kinaesthetic as well as visual learners. Thus, visuals may assist one kind of these learners and enrich their understanding (Woollard, 2007). In fact, visuals have been considered as an important part of the language classes over the years. Their use for learning, teaching and presenting has been around since the 1920s -1930s including filmstrips, slides and pictures.

2.4.1. Visuals in learning.

Both teachers and learners prefer certain ways of teaching and learning. These preferences and variations are referred to as “learning styles”. Keefe defined Learning styles are defined as cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment”(as cited in Reid, 1987, p.87). These preferences are among the factors that make differences in the ways of learning. Learners have four learning styles: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and tactile learning. As traditional classrooms focused mainly on the auditory styles where the teacher talks to learners and discusses verbally, it is suggested to match teachers and learners’ styles.

Visual learning is the type learning that gives preferences to reading and studying forms and graphics. To achieve a more effective learning, Clark and Lyons (2011), argued that if a visual aid is explained by speaking, there will be better learning than if the visual is explained by written words. Clark and Lyons (2011) also described how visual learning happens. To them, effective visuals support processes mainly

- *Directing attention.* .Visuals that are attractive captures the attention and easily get in the working memory.
- *Awakening prior knowledge.* New information is stored in the working memory to be integrated with previous knowledge in the long-term memory. This prior knowledge must be activated by bringing it to the working memory by means such as using a visual.
- *Managing mental load.* Good instructional materials like visuals have to preserve the limited capacity of the working memory. Effective visuals are a method all influence mental load thanks to their selection and design.

- *Building mental models.* Mental models are schemas of knowledge and skills stored in the long-term memory. To integrate new knowledge, effective visuals are helpful.

2.4.2. Visuals in teaching.

In teaching EFL, varying in the techniques would lead to better results than sticking to few ones. This variation includes experimenting different modes of presentation like ‘lectures, reading assignments, audio-visual materials, and hands-on activities’ (Davis, 2009). Accordingly, teachers have the choice to use as many suitable visuals as possible so that they facilitate their work. Visuals can be used to help the teacher in different aspects of the language, grammar, vocabulary and the four language skills

Vocabulary. It is usually effective to teach new and technical vocabulary by visual presentation. In a study about the most common beliefs about vocabulary teaching and learning, more than half the informants considered that visual aids are useful means (Ma, 2009). As opposed to memorising lists of words, Blackburn (2015) suggested using visual as a strategy that helps learners to understand new concepts and ‘connect their learning’. One effective activity a teacher can think of is creating posters by asking learners to stick pictures belonging to the same category (Li, 2015).

Grammar. Visual aids can be used to teach grammar too. A study by Cruz (2017) concluded that visual aids such as realia(real objects), pictures and flashcards, are helpful for the teacher in explain the grammar lesson and for learners in understanding easily. Pictures, for example, can allow for a useful practice of grammar. Argued that pictures are good tools to make grammar exercises more interactive (Hasanah, 2015).

Language skills. For Corder , the purpose of using pictures and flashcards is to contribute to the learning of the four skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing, accurately (as cited

in Mammadova, 2019). Visuals can be helpful when teaching listening and speaking to supplement the spoken words because ‘seeing an object can clarify the meaning to the audience’ (IDEA, 2004, p.74). Reading is also aided by visuals. When using pictures and graphs, it is likely that the pupils show an interest reading the text and demonstrate a better understanding. In fact, the majority of students prefer spoken literature like drama than reading. That is why pictures are considered as an important means to teach reading as it helps in improving students’ creation to deliver their ideas (Nurhayati, 2014).

2.4.3. Visuals in oral presentations.

The problem that is common in EFL classrooms is that most learners find difficulties when delivering an oral presentation. The presenter may fail in conveying his message adequately or may forget some important items in his presentation as he may fail in attracting his listener’s attention. The same obstacles face EFL learners when presenting the project work. Lack of attention, lack of interaction, boredom, poor time management, and many other constraints face those learners when delivering their presentations.

According to Jewitt , visuals have an important function in how language and knowledge are presented and they support dialogue and interaction between learners. Linz pointed out that visuals are important in English language because their value is judged according to their ability in helping both teachers and learners (as cited in Ilomo, 2017). In presentations, visuals are not a substitute for verbal content but they may help the presenter in clarifying his information to the audience to make his presentation more successful (Seliman and Dubois, 2002). Using Visual aids is considered as one effective way to solve the previous problems in EFL classrooms. Visuals can influence understanding, motivation and attention, and interaction

2.4.3.1. Better understanding.

Delivering an oral presentation without illustrations may lead to a listener's neglect of the topic as it can lead to a misunderstanding of the whole presentation. Accordingly, visual aids help in making associations of images and words for clear understanding as they make the second language input understood better (Nation & Newton, 2009). In addition, well-organized visuals help in making the presentation more professional and interesting as they make the presentation clearer to the audience (Eline 1997). Research has found that a presentation that delivered information only verbally achieved a 7 percent comprehension rate whereas after adding visuals to the presentation, the comprehension went up to 87 percent. Moreover, according to Ramjit (2015), the success of an oral presentation is achieved when the presenter is accompanied with illustrations for the topic and supporting materials. Not only that, but the use of the different forms of communication in the classroom like illustrations, diagrams and charts enables the students to better understand and learn (Patesan, Balaglu & Alibec, 2018). Hence, it can be said that visuals are crucial in clarifying and simplifying the presentation better to the listener.

2.4.3.2. Motivation and attention.

Visual aids do not only ensure the listener's understanding but also help in raising the audience motivation and attention. In this respect, Markandeya claimed that visual aids help the presenter to attract the attention of the audience as well as motivate them. Visual aids motivate the learners to learn and thus participate in the flow of the lesson. In addition to this, these visuals make the learning process more interesting, motivational and attractive. As a result, the presentation becomes easy and interesting because these aids help in attracting the attention of the listener (Pathak, 2012). Furthermore, Alam (1998) claimed that visual aids bring about motivation and thus make the teaching process more successful. They help the audience to understand concepts quickly and simply. Eline (1997) also spoke about the

importance of visuals in the sense that they help the presenter to control the audience' attention by focusing it on the most important points of the presentation.

2.4.3.3. Interaction with the audience.

The presenter may prepare himself well to deliver his work by following all the tips that an oral presentation requires. However, lack of audience attention and interaction may lead to the failure of the task. Therefore, classroom interaction between both sides is an important component of the success of an oral presentation. Many researchers have tackled this issue pointing out to the importance of visual aids in classroom interaction. Mukalel (2004) stated that the teaching aids are considered as the primary tool for classroom interaction. He added in the same sense, "the teacher who aims at creative classroom interaction cannot afford to neglect the use of instructional aids as a means creating interaction". Wilson and Brooks (2014) also argued that poster presentations paved the way for interaction between the audience and the presenter since they help to cater the different learning styles of the audience.

Conclusion

In order to have a motivating learning and teaching atmosphere, both teachers and learners may use illustrative means such as pictures, charts, hand-outs, posters, flipcharts as well as presentation software like PowerPoint and Prezi. These visual aids can help teaching several aspects of English to improve the quality of understanding the materials in hand. They can also be used in presentations to make a more engaging and interactive atmosphere. To reach their benefits, visual aids must be used adequately in order not to mislead the audience.

Chapter Three: Classroom Interaction

Introduction

3.1. Definitions of Classroom Interaction

3.2. Types of Classroom Interaction

3.2.1. Learner-teacher interaction

3.2.2. Learner-learner interaction

3.2.3. Learner-content interaction

3.2.4. Learner-interface interaction

3.3. Patterns of Classroom Interaction

3.3.1. Initiation-response-follow-up

3.3.2. Turn-taking

3.4. Questions in Classroom Interaction

3.4.1. Definition of questions

3.4.2. Types of questions

3.4.3. Relationship between questions and interaction

3.5. Classroom Interaction and Language Learning

3.5.1. The Input Hypothesis

3.5.2. The interaction hypothesis

3.5.3. The output hypothesis

Conclusion

Chapter Three: Classroom Interaction

Introduction

An oral presentation is not simply a one-way communication of thoughts and ideas from the speaker to his listeners. Effective and successful speaking is that of someone who can interact with the audience and engage them in his presentation. That is why interaction is necessary and useful as an educational strategy to enhance language learning. According to research by Hall and Verplaetse in the area of language learning and classroom interaction, language classrooms can be seen as sociolinguistic environments in which language learning could be built through repeated and regular participation of the learners in different classroom activities (as cited in Consolo, 2006).

In this chapter, some aspects related to classroom interaction are covered. Definitions to classroom interaction and its types are provided. Then, light is shed on patterns of classroom interaction and describe how questions are important in raising interaction. Eventually, the role of interaction in language learning and teaching theories is talked over.

3.1. Definitions of Classroom Interaction

The concept of interaction is widely defined by many researchers and experts. Lucha and Berhanu defined classroom interaction as a cooperative process of exchanging ideas and emotions inside the classroom between its participants. Wagner defined interactions as mutual events that need at least two objects and two actions. He also added that interaction occurs when these events or objects equally affect or influence one another (as cited in Fosse, Gonzales, Hoover & Oh, 2002). Simpson and Galbo pointed out to different characteristics of interaction and defined it as relations that consist of an endless variety in reciprocal actions (as cited in Toprak & Kumtepe, 2017). In addition, Ellis (1991) described classroom interaction as any communication that concerns teacher-students talks and formal practices within the classroom.

On the other hand, Robinson (1994) thought of classroom interaction as a face-to-face operation that can occur verbally, through written and the spoken speech, or non-verbally via eye contact and facial expressions. In the same sense, Martha and Indiana defined interaction in their research as a state of communication through speaking, debates, and discussions about desired topics that have common views among a group of students (as cited in Naimat, 2011). Thurmond (2003) defined classroom interaction as:

The learners' engagement with the course content, other learners, the instructor and the technological medium used in the course. True interactions with other learners, the instructor and technology result in a reciprocal exchange of information. (p. 04)

According to Thurmond's definition, interaction happens when the learner engages with the information of the lesson, with the teacher, peers and even with the technological media when used during the lesson. This interaction results in a better knowledge development as the information is easily exchanged among the participants.

3.2. Types of Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction is regarded as an essential element in second language learning as it encompasses different participants depending on the communicative situation. According to many studies, there are four types of classroom interaction based on its participants: learner-teacher interaction, learner-learner interaction, learner-content interaction, and finally learner-interface interaction.

3.2.1. Learner-teacher interaction.

In the classroom, the teacher often asks questions to learners and learners answer the questions and vice versa. These forms are called teacher-learner interaction. According to Moore, this type of interaction is considered as essential by both the teacher and the students alike in which the teacher plays the role of motivating, supporting, and encouraging each learner through organizing their learning application (as cited in Sharp & Huett, 2005).

A typical exchange of the classroom between the teacher and the learner consists of an initiation from the teacher, followed by a response from the learner, then a feedback from the teacher to the learner (Coulthard, 1992)

3.2.2. Learner-learner interaction.

Moore defined learner-learner interaction as the exchange that happens between one learner and other learners; this exchange can be either alone or in group settings, with or without the real-time presence of a teacher or trainer. Thus, this type of interaction occurs among learners in the classroom either in pair or in a form of group discussions, with or without the presence of the teacher. Interaction among learners occurs when learners share information with their peers and receive feedback. Learner-learner interaction provides a means for ideas to be expressed, challenged, changed, adopted, and discarded (as cited in Fosse et al., 2002).

3.2.3. Learner-content interaction.

Moore (1989) claimed that learner-content interaction is that type of interaction that occurs between the learner and the subject matter being studied. It results in changes in the learners' perspectives and their cognitive structures in their minds. However, considering the preceding definition of classroom interaction, this type fails to create any type of mutual event where the learner acts upon the content and the content acts back. Hence, some researchers claimed it is not considered as one type of interaction. For instance, Sutton argued that the content is inanimate and cannot literally interact with human learners (as cited in Fosse et al., 2002). However, this type of interaction has been identified by Tuovinen as the most important form of interaction because it is in this type that learning occurs (as cited in Zimmerman, 2012). In addition, learner-content interaction is claimed to be very important because it can contribute to successful learning outcomes and course completion.

3.2.4. Learner-interface interaction.

Another type of interaction, which is proposed by some researchers and labelled “learner-interface interaction”, is defined as the process of using tools to do a specific task (Hillman et al., 1994). The tools used contain online learning environments, satellite, video conferencing tools, net conferencing tools and other tools of technology. This type of interaction facilitates communication with the content, the instructor, and other learners (as cited in Fosse et al., 2002). According to Wagner (1994), this type of interaction lacks the mutual influence that occurs between the participants of communication since the learner interacts with something inanimate.

3.3. Patterns of Classroom Interaction

Interaction between participants in an EFL class is a crucial part in the teaching and learning processes. Much of the language learning takes place in the classroom with involvement of students with their teacher and peers. The functions of the language spoken in the classroom are produced within some discourse patterns of classroom communication (Cazden, 1988). Research on discourse analysis and classroom interaction show that the spoken language creates patterns that are useful in managing classroom interaction. These patterns represent how the teacher and the students usually interact with one another in the classroom and help in predicting interaction (Burton, 1981). They are initiation-response-follow up and turn taking

3.3.1. Initiation-response-follow-up.

The initiation-response follow-up/feedback pattern, also known as the IRF exchange, is the best-known pattern in the setting of interaction. Research on interaction patterns show that it is the predominant pattern in classrooms. There are three moves in this pattern: initiation, response and follow-up.

- Initiation. The teacher initiates the spoken sequence by tackling a given material and asking questions to see the pupils' responses.
- Response. The pupil gives his answer in a form of a word or an utterance.
- Follow-up. The teacher gives an evaluation to the answer by various means. The teacher, after giving the feedback, is supposed to move to another sequence of an IRF with the same student or with another. (Myhill & Hopper, 2005)

In the IRF pattern of classroom interaction, the teacher is the one who starts the interaction by asking questions, the student answers the teacher's question, and then the teacher provides a feedback to the student.

The IRF interactional exchanges are seen to be valuable as they contribute to a better teaching and learning environment. Lee (2007) found that in this pattern, students' misunderstandings can easily be seen and then tackled. Alexander summarized some characteristics of this pattern as follows:

- Interaction is brief and controlled.
- Learners are more focused with identifying correct answers.
- Questions that are closed are dominating.
- There is only little thinking aloud. (as cited in Myhill & Hopper, 2005)

The follow up move is very important. Nystrand, Wu, Gamoran, Zeiser, and Long (2003) believed that though the follow-up move might hinder an open talk, a follow up question in this pattern makes sharing understanding easier. Hence, the teacher's feedback can take many forms. In their study about the techniques used to give learners corrective feedback, Lyster and Ranta (1997) suggested a detailed description of a corrective teacher feedback. The table below displays these techniques.

Table 3.1.

Corrective Feedback Types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

Types of feedback	Definition
Explicit correction	Giving the correct form in a direct way
Recast	The reformulation of part of or the complete utterance, minus the error.
Metalinguistic feedback	Comments and explanation of the error
Elicitation	Asking question to elicit the utterance
Repetition	Saying the utterance again
Clarification request	Showing the learners that a clarification is needed because of misunderstanding or wrong form of the utterance

3.3.2. Turn-taking

As mentioned before, when the whole class is engaged, classroom discourse takes the form of three-part exchange wherein the teacher asks a question, a student answers, and then his response is evaluated by the teacher (Wells & Arauz 2006). This indicates that the essential place for language use is in verbal interaction including an exchange of turns and roles at talking between the teacher and his students as well as between students themselves (Levinson, 2015).

Because it is difficult to speak and to listen at the same time, turn taking implies that no one dominates the floor but all the participants take their turns to speak. Turn taking means the distribution or allocation and the acquisition of roles in a conversation. It involves making decisions about how and when to speak during a talk, and how long to go on for (Bygate, 1987). For turn taking to be efficient, Bygate suggested five abilities as follows:

- Knowing how to sign that a participant has the tendency to speak by using the right phrases or sounds.

- Recognizing the right moment to get a turn or interrupt the conversation.
- Knowing how to use appropriate turn structure in order to use one's turn accurately and maintaining it before finishing what one has to say.
- Knowing other people's signals of their desire to speak.
- Knowing how to let someone else have a turn in a conversation(as cited in Heinel, 2017).

Among turn-taking models used in the existing literature, the one suggested by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974) is considered the most adequate and complete model for conversational turn taking. After doing a research about turn taking in conversations using recordings of naturally occurring conversations, they illustrated the organization of turn taking for conversation in a very simple way. Sacks et al. (1974) claimed that in normal conversations, each participant has an equal opportunity to determine the course of the talk or the conversation after each turn of talk. When a speaker reaches the end of his/her turn, he or she can either continue talking, select the next speaker, or give another speaker the chance to select him/herself to continue speaking.

This is considered the most familiar turn-taking pattern in social interaction. Likewise, Koole and Berenst pointed out that in classroom interaction, turn-taking is generally initiated by the teacher through asking questions or giving instructions, while learners acquire or receive turns by responding to the teachers' questions or instructions by raising hands or answering questions (as cited in Nomlomo, 2010). Ellis (1992) claimed that the most common turn exchange in most classrooms follows the Initiate-Respond-Feedback (IRF) exchange, where teachers initiate questions and learners have to respond to them. This type of interaction is linked to the transmission or traditional form of teaching, where the teacher takes control of the lesson content and management.

The traditional view of the teacher is that of a person who provides learners with knowledge, covers the material, and teaches the subject matter while the students sit passively (Holtrop, 1997). However, this teacher-centred pattern of communication does not encourage learners' interactional competence (Nurmasitah, 2010). Therefore, according to El Karfa , the teacher needs to create an environment that is supportive to the learners by recognizing their contributions that may help in the collaboration of the learning process. Moreover, if the teacher plays the role of a facilitator in the learning process, students will be directly engaged in the classroom activities by interacting among themselves (Fernandez, 2004). Hence, good interactive teachers are those who play the role of coordinators, organizers, managers and advisers who shift from dominating the classroom into involving learners in the different interactional activities (as cited in Ramirez, 2010).

Yet, according to McCollum (1989), in classroom teaching it is the teacher himself who selects who will be the next speaker through one of three processes. The first one is 'individual nomination' in which both the task and the student to reply are named. The second one is 'invitations to bid' wherein the task is named, bids are offered and the teacher appoints a student to answer. The last process is 'invitations to reply', here any participant has the right to floor without being named by the teacher or bidding before answering. In such interactions where the lessons are introduced by the teacher, students may interfere by their comments changing the course of the lesson only if their comments are relevant to the course.

3.4. Questions in Classroom Interaction

Questions are generally used when people lack information that another might have. In classrooms, asking questions is very crucial in the accomplishment of the learning goals. Wood and Carol (2001) found that it is likely that questions have been used a long time before Socrates and they aimed at stimulating thinking in the classroom. Similarly, in classrooms nowadays, teachers and learners ask questions for different purposes like generating

information, assessing and more importantly to stimulate thinking (Filippone, 1998). In this section, questions are tackled by defining them, discussing their types, and shedding light on their relationship with classroom interaction.

3.4.1. Definition of questions.

There has been considerable research about questions in the classroom describing how they take place in the classroom. Ruiter (2012) described questions in a form of a process. The latter starts when someone lacks information and expresses the need to get it to another person that might have it. This is done by formulating a question that leads the other person to give that information in a form of an answer. Prase and Rothkopf stated that questions are an effective and motivating form of “instructional interaction” (as cited in Arslan, 2006, p.03). These questions can thus be a tool that boosts interaction between the participants in the classroom and encourages them to investigate and enquire for more information.

3.4.2. Types of questions.

There are many ways to classify questions. According to their content, questions are classified into three categories; conceptual, empirical and value questions (Wragg & Brown, 2001). According to their dimensions, teachers have found some of them useful when reflecting on the range and nature of questions that they ask. In this sense, questions may be classified into narrow, broad, recall and clear.

- a. Conceptual questions.** This type of questions requires extracting and eliciting ideas, definitions and reasoning in the subject being studied. They aim to help learners grasp some key features of the intended item. For instance, the teacher may ask pupils to classify some animals into different groups and then ask them why they do so. (Why have you put birds and fish in the same category?), (What do you call animals that put eggs?)

Conceptual questions need to cover every aspect of the meaning of the language item and help to understand the language item itself not the situation by using simple not complicated language.

- b. Empirical questions.** This type of questions is a question that can be answered by collecting data from observation and experience and requires recalling facts and their connections with observations. Here, a series of questions are asked by the teacher and each time the learners observe and try to answer.
- c. Value questions.** This type has to do specifically with morals and social issues (poverty), health issues (drugs), and environmental issues (global warming and pollution). When discussing values, behaviour, and beliefs in health, social or personal education, such kind of questions may occur in what is thought to be right or wrong. That is, they may be asked in what is morally accepted or not.
- d. Narrow versus broad (closed versus open).**

These are questions that require brief and specific answers like for instance (*who is the president of India?*) or a wide-ranging set of possibilities like (*what precautions should be taken to avoid being a victim of a natural disaster?*). Yet, using too much of this kind of questions in classroom discussions that needs short answers may hinder interaction.

According to Babu (2014), open questions are those that do not have a fixed answer of one or two words. Following his classroom observation research, he claimed that few questions of such type are asked by teachers since learners couldn't give complete answers. On the other hand, in the same study, closed questions are said to be asked for the maximum time in the English lesson. Contrary to open questions, learners can give short and fixed answers for this type using only one to three words.

Babu (2014) assumed that it is better to ask closed questions rather than open ones because learners become confident to reply and gradually, they can answer the difficult ones more easily. Closed questions also help teachers check their learners' understanding more easily and thus can assess their teaching and learners' learning at the same time.

- e. **Recall questions.** This type of questions is definitely used at the early stages of the lesson in order to assess knowledge and starting points of the lesson as in the warming up. Yet, the recall must not be endless so that the learners would not become bored and distracted. That is there must be a limited number of questions to be asked.
- f. **Clear questions.** These questions are generally brief and direct. They have a precise language in order to avoid any ambiguity. However, confusion sometimes occurs if the teacher does not explain a specific term in a question. Wragg and Brown (2001) illustrate this idea in their book as the following:

Sometimes the confusion arises if a key term has not been explained first. One mathematics teacher, for example, confused the class by asking, 'How could we draw a stratified random sample from a population if we wanted to study, say, levels of income?' Although the class knew what a 'random sample' was, he had not explained what 'stratified' meant in this context. (p.22)

- g. **Yes-no questions:** Another type of questions that is very famous is yes-no questions. Yes-No questions are said to be one of the dominating questions asked by teachers in a degree of 40% of the total number of questions. In these questions the teacher provides information and his learners just answer by saying "yes" or "no" (Babu, 2014).

In an analysis of typescripts of lessons early last century, Stevens (1912) stated that teachers appeared to ask four hundred questions per day, that 65% of those questions were concerned with recall of textbook information that learning consisted mostly of responding to teacher questions and that virtually no questions asked by pupils were concerned directly with

learning. Later on, Haynes (1935) found that 70% of questions that teachers asked 12– to-13-year-olds required factual answers and only 17% promoted pupils' thinking. On the other hand, Gall's review (1970) claimed that 60 % of teacher questions required pupils to recall facts in much the same way as that in which they were presented, and only 20% required pupils to think beyond a level of recall; the remaining 20 % involved procedural matters such as classroom management (as cited in Wragg& Brown,2001).

3.4.3. Relationship between questions and interaction.

In everyday learning, teachers ask dozens, even hundreds of questions, thousands in a one year, over a million during a professional lifetime. Smart questioning is an important part of interactive teaching. Unsuitable use of questions, however, leads to confusion and misunderstanding. Questions are often a central part of teachers' explanations. Therefore, it can be assumed that by giving learners the opportunity to respond to teachers' questions, their learning may be significantly improved since they enjoy the process of interaction with them (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

However, many researchers argue that too much questioning makes pupils passive and thus leads to anxiety and boredom. On the other hand, as claimed by Dillon , too little amount of questions may mute thought (as cited in Wragg& Brown, 2001).

Teacher's questions are a manifestation of teacher talk. The teacher asks questions in the classroom to call for participation or to encourage involvement. This teaching technique requires teachers to be careful to some aspects to make the question effective. According to Wood and Carol (2001), when questioning, teachers should make use of "convergent" and "divergent" questions (p.03). Convergent questions aim at getting some information from students. The divergent questions, however, are open-ended and are likely to arouse more discussions and encourage an interactive atmosphere in the classroom. In addition, teachers must consider "probing" questions that seek more details, show a good management to the

students' answers, give an appropriate feedback, and allow for appropriate wait time. All these requirements imply that the teacher has to carefully deal with the questioning technique in the classroom.

Unfortunately, a few studies show that teachers often use questions ineffectively. In a study by Hollingsworth, teachers showed a preference to questions that rely on memory than questions that encourage learners to think and generate more questions (As cited in Filippone, 1998). Thornbury stated that the most asked questions are those that need the learners to show comprehension or a correct use of the language (as cited in Farahian & Rezaee, 2012). This explains why pupils tend to expect that they would be asked to recall and give back the information they learnt, rather than think and exploit their minds. However, Cullen argued that these questions are not useful as they limit learners' involvement and make them repeat the information they already know (as cited in Farahian & Rezaee, 2012). These aspects mentioned above make us think of how important it is to ask the right questions in the right manner. Thus, it is for the teachers to understand the nature of questions, their types and requirements so that they reach their goals.

Students are also participants in interaction in the classroom but in comparison to teachers' questions, there have been less research devoted to pupils' asking questions. Learners not only respond to their teacher's questions but also ask their own questions with various purposes. According to Whittaker (2002), students' questions are tools that contribute to the pupils' "construction of knowledge" (p. 587). Considerable research focused on learner initiative that covers learner's comments, raising questions, peers' corrections and asking for clarification (Mozaffari & Yaqubi 2015). It is then believed that interaction is more vivid if learners take the initiative to interact. Wittaker (2002) suggested that teachers can boost learners' active involvement by motivating them to ask as many questions as possible provided that they keep the flow of the lesson.

3.5. Classroom Interaction and Language Learning

There has been an agreement among researchers on the role classroom interaction plays in language learning. That is, interaction is one of the main means by which learning takes place in the classroom. In this section, an overview of the theories about interaction in language learning are provided, mainly the input hypothesis, the interaction hypothesis, and the output hypothesis.

3.5.1. The Input Hypothesis.

The input hypothesis, also known as the monitor model, claims to explain the relationship between what the learner is exposed to and language acquisition. According to this hypothesis, we do not learn, but acquire language by understanding input. The input hypothesis is composed of five hypotheses developed by Krashen in the 1970's and 1980's about second language acquisition. Understanding language input, spoken or written, is considered the only tool towards the development of the linguistic competence. Krashen (1982) presented these hypotheses as the acquisition learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis.

- *The acquisition-learning hypothesis.* According to this hypothesis, adults can develop competence in a second language. The first way is through language acquisition, which is subconscious and similar to the way children develop their ability in their first language. The second way, language learning, involves the explicit knowledge of the language and its rules. According to the acquisition learning theory, adults acquire the language too.
- *The Natural order hypothesis.* This hypothesis is based on the notion that it is the acquisition of language happens in a predictable order.
- *The monitor hypothesis.* This hypothesis suggests that acquisition produces utterances and it is responsible for fluency in second language and learning makes changes in the form of the utterance after its production by the acquired system.

- *The input hypothesis.* The input hypothesis suggests that acquisition is central and learning is marginal. This hypothesis attempts the question: how do we acquire language?
- *The affective filter hypothesis.* This hypothesis deals with the impact of affective factors on the acquisition of second language. These affective factors include self-confidence, anxiety and motivation.

In this theory, interaction did not have much value. Comprehensible input was claimed to be the only condition for language acquisition. Critiques to this theory hypothesis, however, praised the role of interaction in acquisition to take place.

3.5.2. The interaction hypothesis.

The interaction hypothesis by Long (1996), is a theory of second language acquisition based on the notion that interaction promotes language proficiency. This hypothesis evolved from the work by Hatch (1978) on the importance of conversation to developing grammar and from claims by Krashen that comprehensible input is a condition for second language learning. Long argues that interaction facilitates acquisition because of the conversations and the linguistic modifications that take place (as cited in Mackey, 1999). When interacting, learners receive feedback and more input which both contribute to learning.

3.5.3. The output hypothesis.

The output hypothesis, developed by Swain (1985), claims that producing language, either in speaking or in writing, constitutes to second language learning. Swain (1985) argues that learning takes place when the learner faces a gap in his second language, becomes aware of it, and can modify his output to learn new things about the second language. Interaction in this hypothesis is important as it allows the learner to finally arrive at producing correct language after failing and having to try again through interacting with others. Interaction is then necessary in second language acquisition.

Conclusion

In the field of second and foreign language learning, interaction plays a significant role. In order to have a successful and better learning atmosphere, turns are distributed among participants who interact with each other in a language classroom. Teachers may encourage learners' involvement by asking questions adequately and effectively taking into account that questions are often part of their everyday explanations. Therefore, learners must be provided with more opportunities to engage in classroom interaction as it greatly contributes to language learning.

Chapter Four: Field Work

Introduction

4.1. Population of the Study

4.2. Data Collection Procedures

4.3. Classroom Observation

4.3.1. Description of classroom observation

4.3.2. Presentation and analysis of classroom observation

4.3.3 Interpretation of Results

4.3.3.1. The impact of visuals on interaction during project work presentations

4.3.3.2. The relationship between the number of visuals used and interaction

4.3.3.3. The relationship between the quality of the visuals used and interaction

4.3.3.4. The impact of the stage in which visuals are used on interaction

Conclusion

Chapter Four: Field Work

Introduction

This chapter aims at testing the hypothesis as whether the use of visual aids in project presentations helps increasing interaction. The chapter sheds light on the population of the study and data collection procedures. It later describes the tool of investigation used, presents and analyses the classroom observation then interprets the results. This chapter closes with a conclusion that restates the findings of this piece of research.

4.1. Population and Sample of the Study

This study is carried out with secondary school pupils during the academic year 2018-2019. The sample of our study was a second-year scientific stream class of 24 pupils at Abdi Bouaziz Technical School, Jijel. The researchers are teachers and the choice of population took into account pupils' familiarity with making project presentations as they are used to making oral presentations in different subjects for more than four years. It is worth mentioning that third year pupils, who are probably more experienced, were not chosen to be our research population because of their preparation for their final examinations.

4.2. Data Collection Procedures

Our fieldwork emphasises the impact of using visual aids on interaction during the presentation of project work. In order to reach the final step of making the project work, several steps were followed.

As previously mentioned in the first chapter, the first step that was considered was the preparation phase in which the teacher introduces the topic, sets time, groups the pupils and decides on evaluation methods (*Documents d'Accompagnement du Programme d'Anglais, 2011*). Accordingly, the first procedure taken was the announcement of the project work and the discussion of the topic. The unit theme is "Disasters and Safety" and it is entitled after the English Metaphysical poet John Donne's expression "No Man is an Island". It discusses

several issues related to disasters and solidarity. The work is then related to the theme and it tackles awareness about safety measures in earthquakes. On the day of project announcement, the participants of the study were divided into 6 groups and procedures were discussed among the members of each group in the form of group work. Grouping was done randomly to allow for results that are more reliable.

During the whole unit, pupils were subject to lessons including reading materials, grammar and vocabulary that allow them to integrate new language items and skills in their work. According to Commission Nationale des Programmes (2006), the unit outcomes, which are to be used in the project work include:

- *Skills*. Reading and writing reports, writing questionnaires and conducting interviews.
- *Functions*. Reporting, quoting someone, asking for and giving advice, and asking for and giving information.
- *Vocabulary*. Words related to disasters and safety.
- *Grammar*. Reported speech, had better, should and ought to.
- *Phonology*. Intonation in yes/no questions and w/h questions.

To achieve unit outcomes, the researchers were guiding the pupils, checking their process and helping them to prepare their project work. Pupils by the end of the unit wrote a report that included the results and analysis of a survey they conducted about peoples' readiness to face earthquakes. This report also contained the language points learnt throughout the unit and suggested safety measures that have to be taken before, during, and after earthquakes.

Before the presentation of the work, the population had two trial sessions where they were given the chance to rehearse their presentations in the classroom. They practised some presentation skills, trained themselves to speak at a moderate and clear voice, and practised the use of the data show. Rehearsing is useful because it helps the presenters to feel relaxed

and confident and save them from the burden of reading from papers during their presentations (Fingerhut & Lacaine, 2002).

There were three (3) observers in charge of this operation. The observers are the two researchers and another secondary school teacher. The data collected were calculated based on the average number obtained. Researchers collected data based on a real time observation using the observation schemes above.

The last step after data collection is data analysis and interpretation where the researchers rely on the information gathered to test the hypotheses. This helps to study the rate of interaction in relation to the use of visuals to come at conclusions for this piece of research.

4.3. Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is considered the most appropriate tool because our data can be collected by watching how participants are interacting. Nunan and Bailey (2009) stand with this view admitting that observation is a suitable tool to investigate what is going on inside the classroom, while learners and teachers come together.

4.3.1. Description of classroom observation.

Classroom observation was opted for as a tool for our investigation in order to give more reliability to this research since the results are going to be observed directly or recorded by a group of teachers.

To explore more how things work in classroom observation, there are many ways or many schemes of documenting classroom observation. According to Nunan and Bailey (2009) “The advantage of observation schemes is that they serve to condense data and facilitate the process of identifying patterns” (p.270). An observer may use a variety of manual data collection procedures such as field notes, observation systems, maps, and seating charts. The observer may also depend on the electronic recordings of a lesson and start coding data or transcribing the actual student and teacher utterances that occurred during the lesson.

Furthermore, Nunan and Bailey (2009) mention three basic approaches to documenting classroom interaction.

1. Using of observation systems to code data (either in real time or using recorded data).
Real time refers to the observation that happens when the lesson is proceeding while recording means using videotapes or audiotapes of the lesson. When following the real time observation, the observer will code events each three seconds but in recording, the events are recorded just once during a fixed period regardless of how frequently they occur during that period.
2. The ethnographic narrative that is characterized by documenting the language used by participants along with comments about the social climate of the classroom. However, this latter is time-consuming and is characterized by bias inherent in the authorial comments.
3. Transcribing classroom interaction. It can be analysed using many techniques like coding. However, this way is also time-consuming since it takes twenty hours to transcribe one hour of classroom interaction.

Hence, due to time constraints, real time observation was opted for in order to collect data during project work presentation.

Classroom observation consists of the following elements:

1. A sitting scheme that helps counting the number and frequency of the pupils interacting. It helps the researchers to compare between the parts of a presentation in a group and within all groups (Appendix 1)
2. One scheme to collect data on the amount of interaction in the visually aided part and the non-visually aided part of the presentation. This serves as a medium to collect data aiming at checking the usefulness of visuals (Appendix 2)

3. A scheme about the number of visuals used in each presentation and criteria to evaluate them (Appendix 3)

Criteria about the types of visuals used and their characteristics including relevance, clarity, explanation and interest were taken into account when evaluating the quality of the visuals:

- Relevant: connected with the topic.
- Clear: Not causing ambiguity and misunderstanding.
- Explanatory: Giving facts and reasons to achieve more understanding.
- Interesting: causing the desire to learn.

A Likert scale was used for rating the quality of visuals, in which the three observers marked their evaluations and the average evaluation is counted. Accordingly, visuals were qualified as either very good, good, average, a bit good or not good at all. For example, in terms of content, if the visual used, say a picture, is very good in terms of relevance to the topic of the presentation, 5 is marked. If, however, the visual is ambiguous with unclear content, it is noted as not good at all, and 1 point is the mark given.

4.3.2. Presentation and analysis of classroom observation.

The analysis of results obtained from classroom observation is divided into three (3) sections so as to make the discussion organized. Section one investigates the impact of using visuals on interaction, section two studies the relationship between quality/quantity of visuals and interaction, and section three deals with the effect of the stage in which the visuals are used on interaction.

4.3.2.1. The impact of using visuals on interaction.

This section aims at finding out if the use of visuals has an impact on increasing interaction during project work presentation. Results obtained from our observation of the six (6) groups are displayed and discussed separately.

During the presentations, the observers took notes regarding the number of the questions asked, the number of responses for the questions and the number of comments. These are shown in the tables below.

4.3.2.1.1. Interaction of Group 1 in project work presentation

Table 4.1

Interaction during the Presentation of Group 1

	Number of questions asked	Number of responses for questions	Number of comments	Total
With visuals	5, 7 (71.25%)	4.7(67%)	0.7(20%)	11.1(56%)
Without visuals	2.3(28.75%)	2.3(33%)	4(80%)	8.6(44%)
Total	08(100%)	07(100%)	5 (100%)	19.7(100%)

The table above displays the results that the three observers obtained through classroom observation for group 1. During the visually aided part, participants contributed 11 times to the interaction. These participations were in forms of about 6 questions, 5 responses for the questions, and 1 comment.

The table also demonstrates the results obtained in the part that was not visually aided. In this part, participants contributed about 9 times to the interaction. Participations were in forms of about 2 questions, 2 responses and 4 comments.

When comparing the results obtained in the two parts of the presentation, it can be seen that questions asked during the visually aided part represented about 70% of the overall questions and the answers given represented 67% of the whole responses in the presentation. Yet, despite to the low rate of questions and responses of the non-visually aided part in comparison to the visually aided part, the comments given were higher in the non-visually aided part.

Both parts are characterised by a modest rate of participation that can be due to pupils' unpreparedness as it is the first presentation to be delivered. The bar chart below represents the number of the whole participations in addition to the number of pupils taking part in interaction

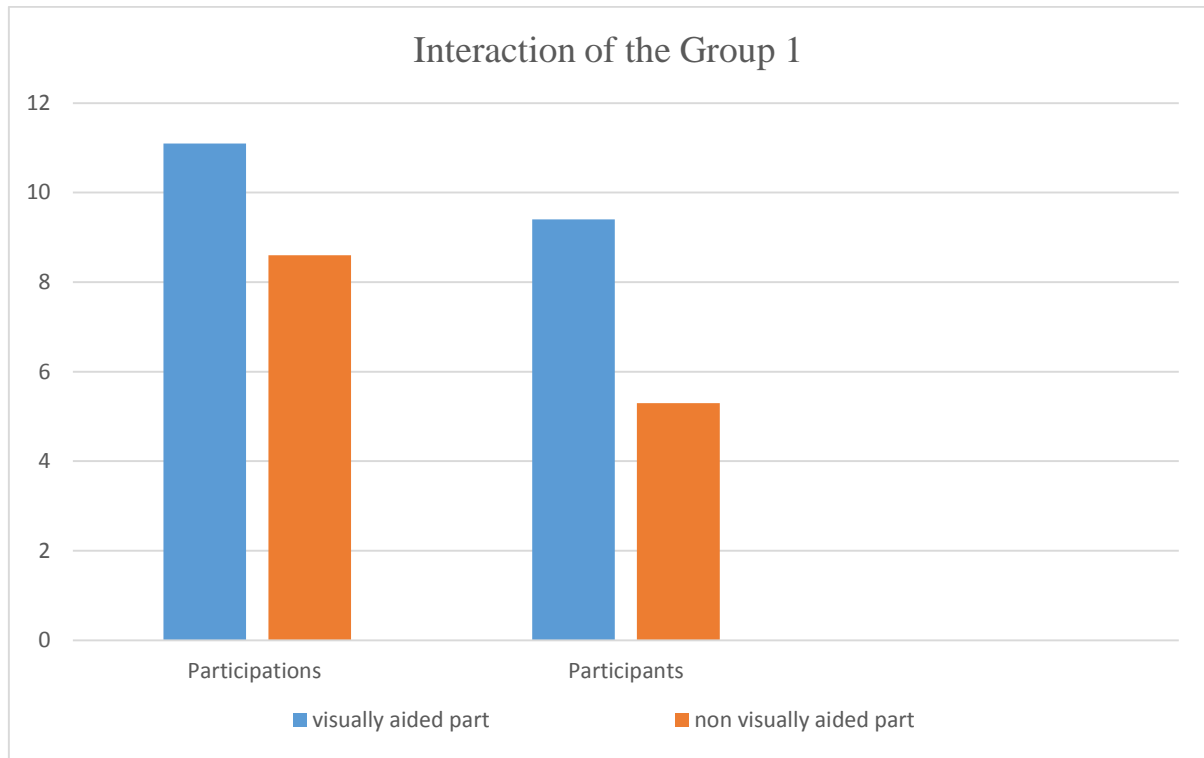


Figure 4.1. Interaction of Group 1 in Project Work Presentation

The above bar graph demonstrates how different both the number of participants and rate of interaction generated in the two parts of the presentation were. In the visually aided part, which was the introduction, 9 participants contributed to approximately 11 participations. In the non-visually aided part, 5 pupils contributed to less than 9 participations. There is therefore a difference of 4 participants and 2 participations in favour of the visually aided part.

4.3.2.1.2. Interaction of Group 2 in Project Work Presentation

Table 4.2

Interaction during the Presentation of Group 2

	Number of questions asked	Number of responses for questions	Number of comments	Total
With visuals	5.7(71%)	5(57%)	3.7(65%)	14.4(64%)
Without visuals	2.3(29%)	3.7(43%)	2(35%)	8(36%)
Total	8(100%)	8.7(100%)	5.7(100%)	22.4(100%)

The table above shows the results obtained during observation for group 2. During the visually aided part, participants contributed 14 times to the interaction. These participations were in forms of about 5 questions, 3 responses for the questions, and about 4 comments.

The table also demonstrates the results obtained in the part that was not visually aided. In this part of the presentation, participants contributed 8 times to the interaction. Participations were in forms of about 2 questions, 4 responses and 2 comments.

The results obtained in the two parts of the presentation are different in terms of the frequency of participation. The questions asked during the visually aided part represented about 70% of the overall questions; the answers given represented 57% of the whole responses, and the comments represented 65%. The percentage of questions, answers and comments during the non-visually aided part did not exceed 36% of the overall participations.

The bar chart below represents the number of the whole participations as well as the number of pupils taking part in interaction.

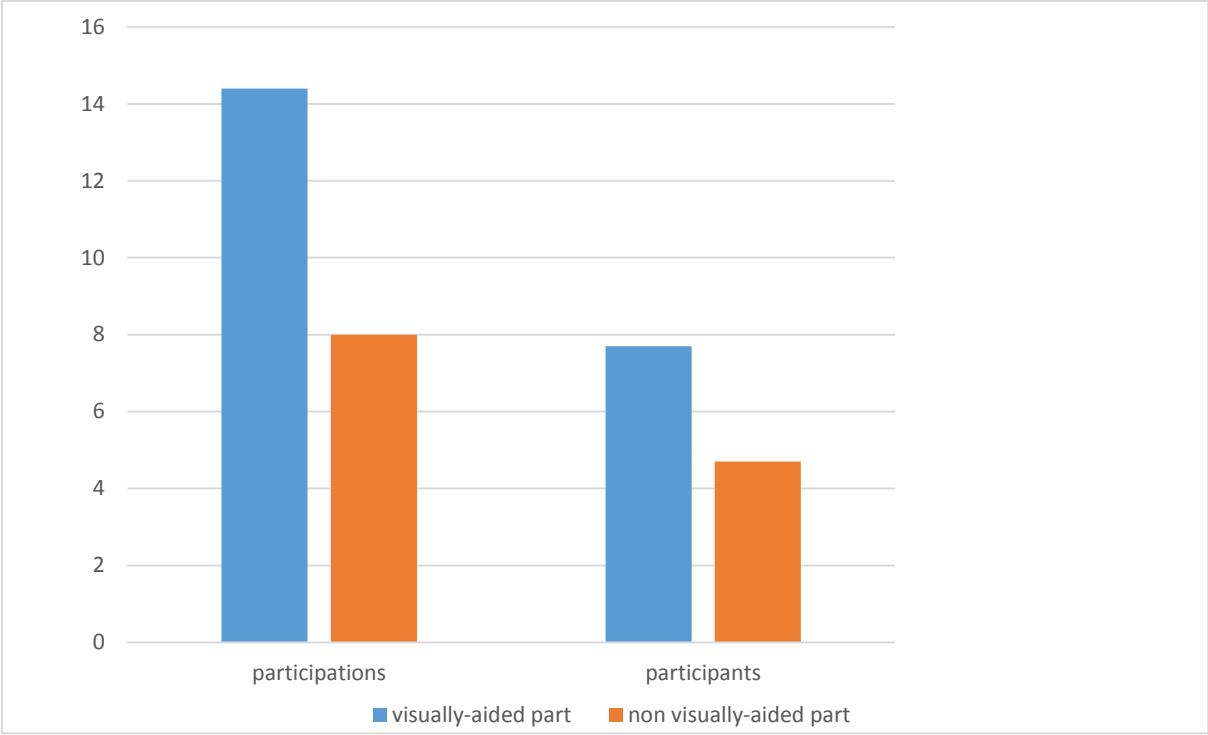


Figure 4.2. Interaction of Group 2 in Project Work Presentation

Both the number of participants and rate of interaction generated in the two parts of the presentation were distinct. In the visually aided part, which was the body of the presentation, 8 participants contributed to more than 14 participations. In the non-visually aided part, however, less than 5 pupils contributed to about 8 participations. In brief, there is a difference of 3 participants and 6 participations in favour of the visually aided part.

4.3.2.1.3. Interaction of Group 3 in Project Work Presentation

Table 4.3

Interaction during the Presentation of Group 3

	Number of questions asked	Number of responses to questions	Number of comments	Total
With visuals	3.6(51%)	5(60%)	0(0%)	8.6(53%)
Without visuals	3.3(49%)	3.3(40%)	1(100%)	7.6(46%)
Total	7(100%)	8.3(100%)	1(100%)	16.2(100%)

The table above displays the results that the three observers obtained through classroom observation for group 3. During the visually aided part, participants contributed 9 times to the interaction. These participations were in forms of about 4 questions, 5 responses for the questions, and no comments.

In the part that which was not visually aided, participants contributed 8 times to the interaction in forms of about 3 questions, 3 responses and 1 comment.

The results obtained in the visually aided part and the non-visually aided are different. The questions asked during the visually aided part represented about 51% of the overall questions and the answers given represented 60% of the whole responses. However, comments were completely absent during the visually aided part while 1 comment was given in the non-visually aided part.

The bar chart below represents the number of the whole participations in addition to the number of pupils taking part in interaction

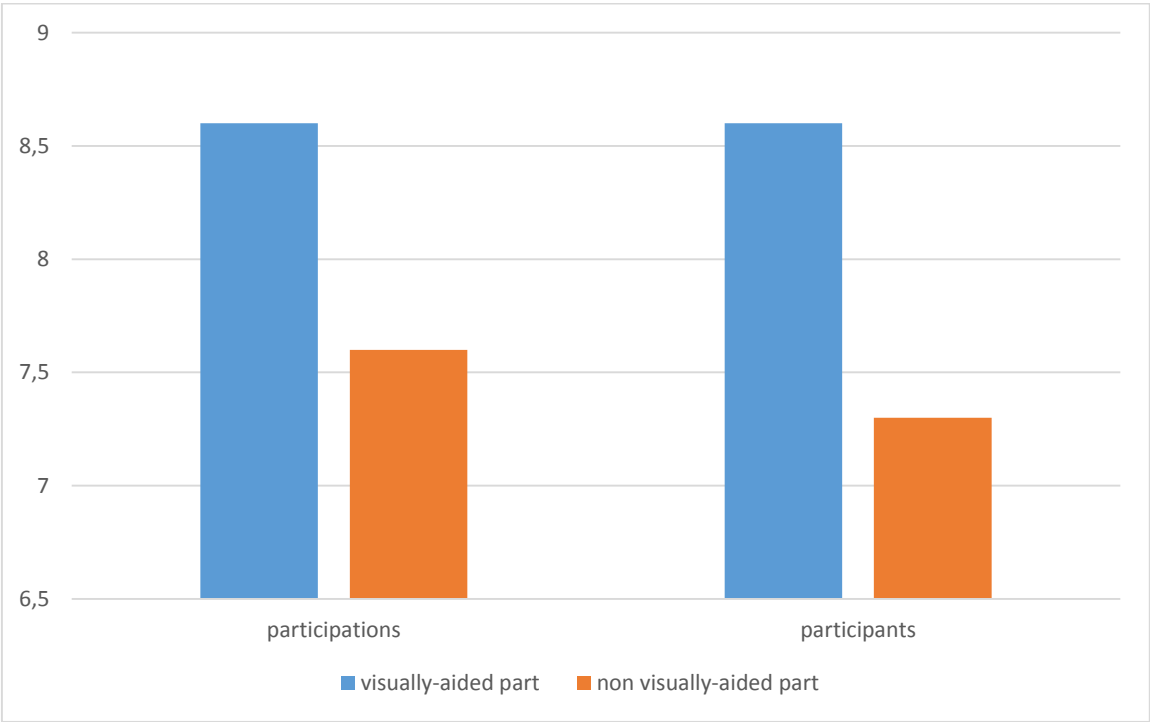


Figure 4.3. Interaction of Group 3 in Project Work Presentation

The above bar graph demonstrates how different both the number of participants and the rate of interaction generated in the two parts of the presentation were. In the visually aided part, which was the introduction of the presentation, 9 participants contributed to approximately 09 participations. In the non-visually aided part, however, 7 pupils contributed to less than 8 participations. The difference between the two parts is 2 participants and 1 participation in favour of the visually aided part.

4.3.2.1.4. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 4

Table 4.4

Interaction during the Presentation of Group 4

	Number of questions asked	Number of responses	Number of comments	Total
With visuals	11,3(70%)	9,6(68%)	3,3(77%)	24,2(70.5%)
Without visuals	4,6(30%)	4,3(32%)	1(23%)	9.9(29.5)
Total	16(100%)	14(100%)	4.3(100%)	34(100%)

The table above displays the results that the three observers obtained through classroom observation of group 4. During the visually aided part, participants contributed 24 times to the interaction. These participations were in forms of about 11 questions, 10 responses for the questions, and 3 comments.

The table also demonstrates the results obtained in the part that was not visually aided. In this part, participants contributed 10 times to the interaction. Participations were in forms of about 5 questions, 4 responses and 1 comment.

When comparing the results obtained in the two parts of the presentation, the frequency of participation is different to a great extent. The questions asked during the visually aided part represented about 70% of the overall questions; the answers given represented 68% of the whole responses, and comments 77%.

The bar chart below represents the number of the whole participations in addition to the number of pupils taking part in interaction

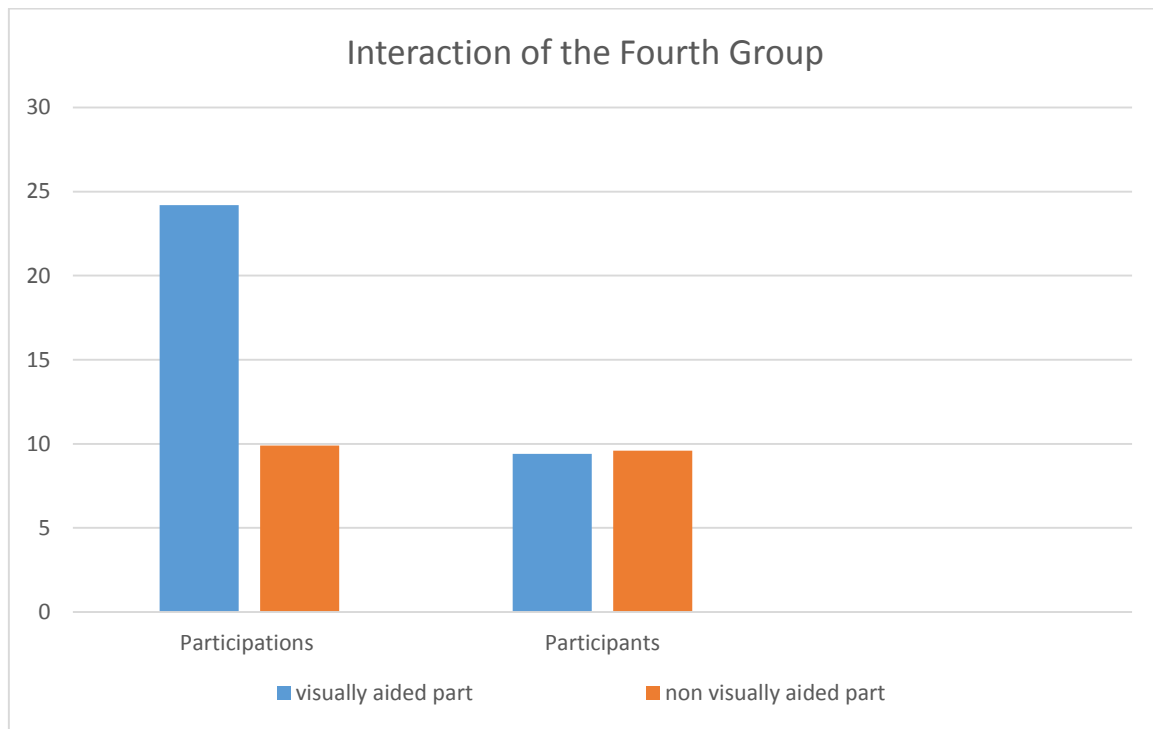


Figure 4.4. Interaction of Group 4 in Project Work Presentation

This bar graph demonstrates that the number of participants in the two parts of the presentation was the same while the rate of interaction generated was different. In the visually aided part, 9 participants contributed to about 24 participations whereas in the non-visually aided part, 9 pupils contributed to less than 10 participations. The visually aided part had 14 more participations than the non-visually aided one.

4.3.2.1.5. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 5

Table 4.5

Interaction during the Presentation of Group 5

	Number of questions asked	Number of responses	Number of comments	Total
With Visuals	4.6(50%)	05(58%)	00(0%)	9.6(53%)
Without visuals	4.6(50%)	3.6(42%)	0.3(100%)	8.5(47%)
Total	9.2(100%)	8.6(100%)	0.3(100%)	18.1(100%)

The table above demonstrates the results obtained through classroom observation for group 5. During the visually aided part, participants contributed approximately 19 times to the interaction. These participations were in forms of about 4 questions, 5 responses for the questions, and no comments.

The table also demonstrates the results obtained in the part that was not visually aided. In this part, participants contributed 9 times to the interaction. Participations were in forms of about 5 questions and 4 responses.

The frequency of participation is slightly different when comparing the results obtained in the two parts of the presentation. The questions asked during the visually aided part represented about 50% of the overall questions and the answers given represented 58% of the whole responses. Though the percentage of questions in both parts was the same, the percentage of answers in the non-visually aided part was lower, representing 42% of the overall answers.

The bar chart below demonstrates the number of the whole participations in addition to the number of participants contributing to the interaction during the presentation.

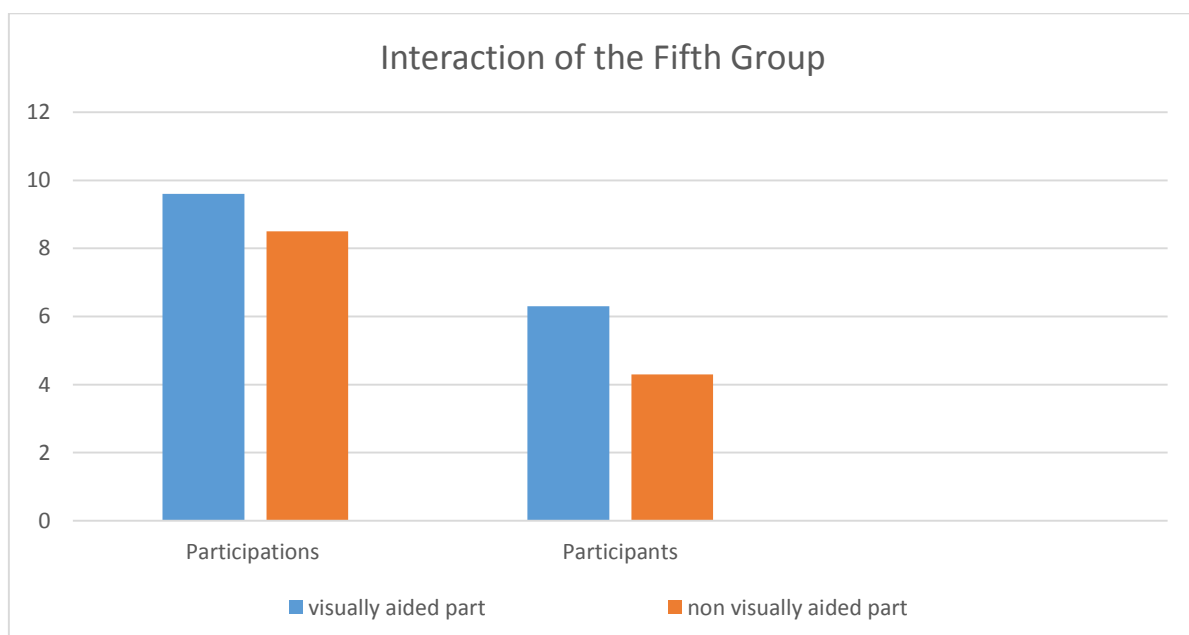


Figure 4.5. Interaction of Group 5 in Project Work Presentation

The above bar graph demonstrates the difference between interaction in the two parts in terms of number of participants and rate of interaction generated. In the visually aided part, which was the introduction, 6 participants contributed to approximately 09 participations. In the non-visually aided part, 4 pupils contributed to less than 9 participations. There is therefore a difference of 2 participants in favour of the visually aided part, yet the amount of participations was the same.

4.3.2.1.6. Interaction during the Presentation of Group 6

Table 4.6

Interaction during Presentation of Group 6

	Number of questions	Number of responses	Number of comments	Total
With visuals	7(70%)	6.6(66%)	3.6(78%)	17.2(70%)
Without visuals	3(30%)	3.3(33%)	1(22%)	7.3(30%)
Total	10(100%)	10(100%)	4.6(100%)	24.5(100%)

The table above displays the results that the three observers obtained through classroom observation for group 6. During the visually aided part, participants contributed 17 times to the interaction. These participations were in forms of about 7 questions, 6 responses for the questions, and 4 comments.

The table also demonstrates the results obtained in the part that was not visually aided. In this part, participants contributed 7 times to the interaction. Participations were in forms of about 3 questions, 3 responses and 1 comment.

When comparing the results obtained in the two parts of the presentation, it can be stated that the questions asked during the visually aided part represented about 70% of the overall

questions, the answers given represented 66% of the whole responses, and comments represented 78%. The visually aided part generated the most interaction.

This bar chart displays the number of the whole participations in addition to the number of pupils taking part in interaction.

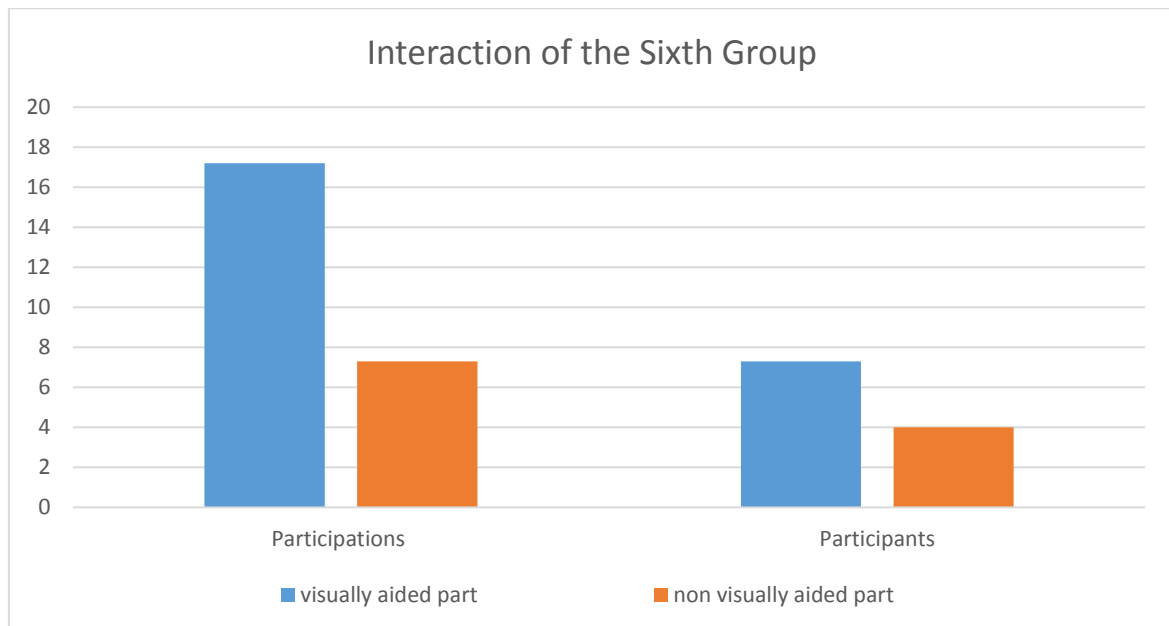


Figure 4.6. Interaction of Group 6in Project Work Presentation

The difference in the numbers of participations and participants in both parts of the presentation is shown. In the visually aided part, there are 10 more participants and 3 more participations than in the non-visually aided part.

4.3.2.1.7. Interaction in visualized Vs non-visualized parts.

After the discussion of the results of each group, the researchers collected the whole rate of interaction within the following table.

Table 4.7

Interaction in the Visually Aided Parts Vs the Non-visually Aided Parts

Group	Visually aided part		Non visually aided part	
	participations	participants	participations	Participants
Group 1	11.1	9.4	8.6	5.3
Group 2	14.4	7.7	8	4.7
Group 3	8.6	8.6	7.6	7.3
Group 4	24.2	9.4	9.9	9.6
Group 5	9.6	6.3	8.5	4.3
Group 6	17.2	7.3	7.3	4
Total	85.1	48.7	49.9	35.2
Average	14.18	8.11	8.31	5.8
Percentage	63%	58%	37%	42%

The frequency of participation in all six groups during the visually aided parts of project work presentation was 85 participations. On the other hand, the non-visually aided parts of the presentations had 50 participations. These two numbers lead us to deduce that the average of participation for each group was 14.18 participations in the visually aided part and 8.31 participations in the non-visually aided part. The percentage of participations in the visualized parts represents 63% whereas in the non-visualized parts it represents 37% of the overall interaction. The high participation rate in the visually aided parts of the presentation show that visuals were effective.

Talking about participants, the number in all six groups during the visually aided parts of project work presentation was about 49 participants. On the other hand, the non-visually aided parts of the presentations had 35 participants. These two numbers indicate that the average of participants for each group was 8 participants in the visually aided part and about 6 participants in the non-visually aided part. The percentage of participants in the visualized

parts represents 58% while in the non-visualized parts it represents 42% of the overall number of participants.

4.3.2.2. The relationship between quality/ quantity of visuals and interaction.

This section analyses results about the relationship between the quality and quantity of visuals and the interaction. To do so, the difference in interaction generated during the presentations of the six groups is studied in relation to the amount and quality of the visuals used. The table below demonstrates data about the visuals used in the presentations.

Table 4.8

Relating Number and Quantity of Visuals to Participations of all the Groups

Groups	Number of visuals used	Quality of visuals	Participations
Group 1	8	3.25	11.1
Group 2	7	3.25	14.4
Group 3	6	3.5	8.6
Group 4	7	4.5	24.2
Group 5	8	3.5	9.6
Group 6	8	4	17.2

As far as the number of visuals is concerned, there is a slight difference among the six groups. The quantity of visual aids used ranged from 6 to 8 among the whole groups. However, the rate of participation of the six groups vary to a big extent. For instance, group 5 and group 6 used eight different kinds of visuals. However, there is a big difference at the level of participation; group 5 had 9.6 as an average of participation whereas group 6 had the average of 17.2. Moreover, in group 2, using fewer visuals did not lead to less participation.

There is also a difference among the six groups in terms of the quality of their visuals. The quality of the visual aids used ranged from 3.25 to 4.5 meaning that they were all above average. For groups 4 and 6, whose visuals were classified as good, the levels of interaction were at their highest (about 24 and 17 participations, respectively). Visuals of group 2 were

characterized as approximately average. For this group, interaction was not as high as that of group 6 whose visuals were better. This bar graph illustrates the differences in quantity, quality and rate of interaction among all the groups.

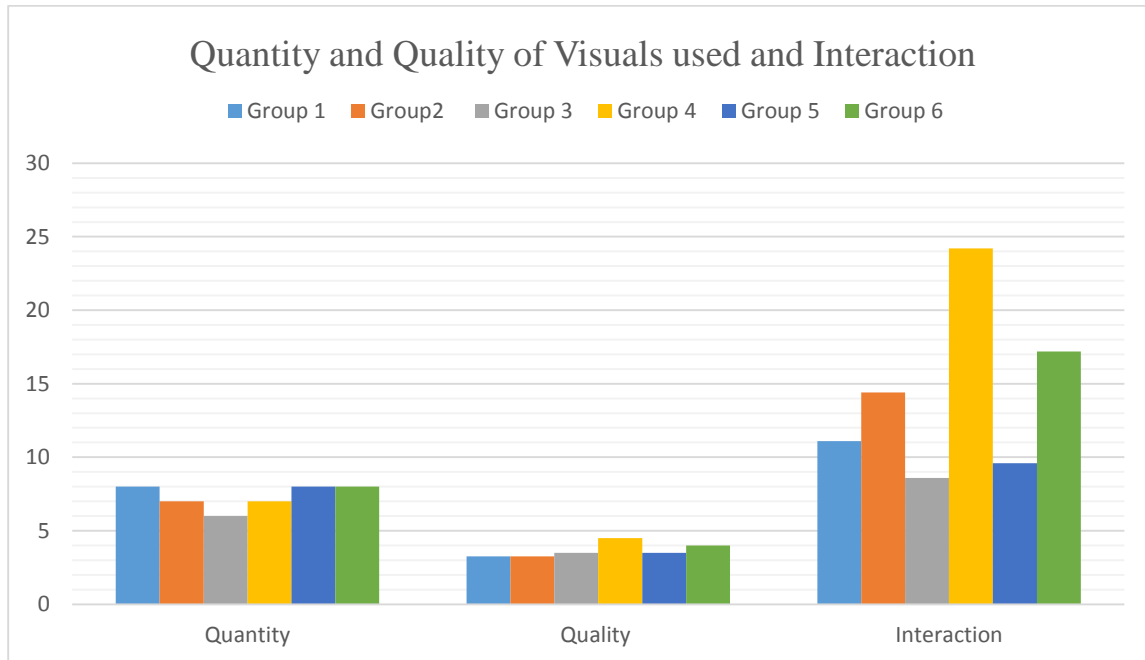


Figure 4.7. The Difference in Quantity, Quality and participation among the Six Groups

The above bar chart shows more clearly the difference in quantity, quality and interaction in the visually aided parts of the six groups. Groups 1, 5 and 6 that had the biggest number of visuals used were not the groups with the highest interaction rate. Moreover, Group 4, which had the best quality of visuals, had witnessed the highest frequency of interaction. This weakens the claim that “the more visuals are used the more interaction is generated.” At the same time, these results stress the importance of favouring the quality of visuals over their quantity.

4.3.2.3. The effect of the stage in which visuals are used.

Now that the effectiveness of using good quality visuals in increasing interaction during project work presentations was investigated, the concern shifts to finding out if employing these visuals aids at a given stage of the presentation might generate more or less interaction. That is, are visuals more effective at a given stage? In reaching this, there was a study of the

rate of interaction that was generated in the introductions of the three groups starting their presentations with visuals. This rate of interaction was compared to the rate of interaction generated with the other three groups that used visuals in the body of their presentation. The table below displays the data collected through classroom observation of the presentations.

Table 4.9

Rate of Interaction at the Two Stages of the Presentations

	Visualised Introduction			Visualized Body of the Presentation	
	Participations	Participants		Participations	Participants
Group 1	11.1	9.4	Group2	14.4	7.7
Group 3	8.6	8.6	Group 4	24.2	9.4
Group 5	9.6	6.3	Group 6	17.2	7.3
Total	29.3	24.3	Total	55.8	24.4

Participation in classroom interaction in the table above considers if the stage of the presentation was supported by visuals or not.

As already pointed to, the six groups did not use visuals at the same stage of the presentation. While three groups made use of the visual aids at the first stage (introduction), the other three groups utilized them at the second stage (the body of the presentation). The table above presents the numbers of participants and participations that occurred during the presentations organized into two categories. The first category includes groups 1, 3 and 5 that used visuals at introductions whereas the second category comprises groups 2, 4 and 6 that did not use visuals until the body of their presentations.

When comparing groups of category 1 to groups of category 2, we notice the same number of participants. This might probably be a sign that pupils who were involved in the presentations were not affected by the presence or absence of visuals. However, the extent to which these participants were involved was influenced by visuals. As seen in the table above, the number of participations was higher in category two, which used visuals at the second

stage of the presentation. Participations in groups of category 1 were estimated at 29.3 while they were estimated at 55.8 in category two. The following graphs best illustrate this difference.

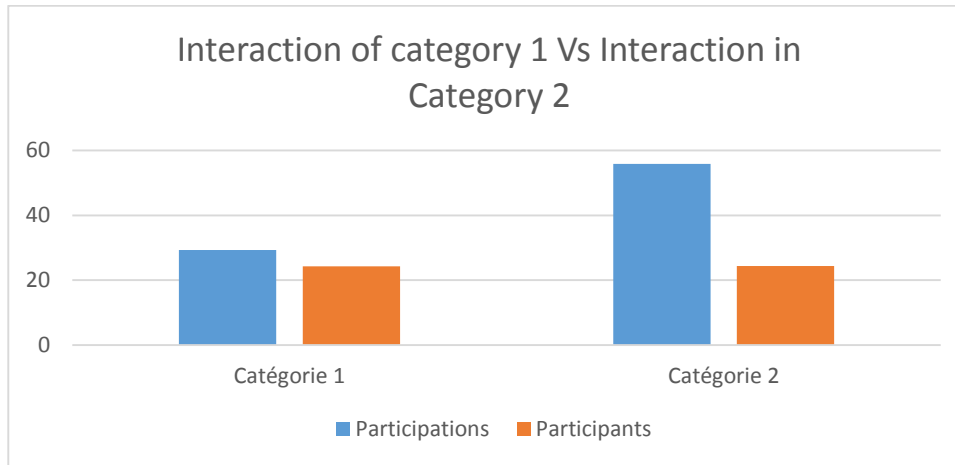


Figure 4.8. Interaction at the Introductory Stage and Body of the Presentation Stage

Based on the previous results, it is assumed that the use of visuals in the body of the presentation helps in generating more interaction. This is likely due to the fact that the body of the presentation includes more ideas, more explanations and thus arises more interaction in the form of questions and answers specifically.

4.3.3. Interpretation of Results.

The aim of this piece of research focused on investigating the impact that visuals have on interaction during project work presentations. It also aims to test if the number of visuals does really matter and if visuals with high quality generate more interaction. Eventually, there was an investigation to find out if visuals generate more interaction at the introduction of the presentation, where pupils are warmed up, or at the body of the presentation, where the content and more explanations are given. In doing so, a classroom observation was used to answer the questions raised at the starting phase of the study.

4.3.3.1. The impact of visuals on interaction during project work presentations.

The data accumulated during the observation of the presentations of all the six groups showed that the use of visuals created a more interactive atmosphere in the classroom. All the parts of the presentations wherein visuals were employed were characterized by the high rate of questions, answers and comments on different points to the presenters. Using a variety of pictures, charts or software presentation like PowerPoint does really result in more interaction during the presentation.

4.3.3.2. The relationship between the number of visuals used and interaction.

After analysing the number of visuals used in each group and studying them in relation to the interaction generated during the presentation of the same group, it was found out that regardless of the number of the visuals used, there would be a quite similar amount of interaction. Some groups used only few visuals in comparison to the other groups, but they experienced more interaction. Thus, to increase interaction in a project work presentation, the number of the visuals used is not significant.

4.3.3.3. The relationship between the quality of the visuals used and interaction.

As opposed to the number of visuals, which did not affect the amount of interaction generated, the quality of the visuals did really have an influence. The more visuals were relevant, interesting, clear and explanatory, the more interaction was noticed. On the contrary, visuals which were irrelevant, unclear, uninteresting, and providing no explanation discouraged, as it were, interaction as they allowed for less or no understanding and thus no audience engagement. Therefore, in presentations, the quality of the visuals employed is important.

4.3.3.4. The impact of the stage in which visuals are used on interaction.

It is often believed that the introductions to lessons and presentations are effective in engaging the audience (Majidi&Aydinlu, 2016). The data obtained from observing the project

wok presentations, however, revealed that visuals result in more interaction when used at the middle of the presentation. The interaction generated with the three groups who used visuals at the beginning was lower than that of the three groups who employed visuals in the body of the presentation. Visuals are then more effective when used to give information and explain the content of the topic.

The data gathered through classroom observation helped answering the questions of the study about visuals' effectiveness and the importance of their number, quality and the stage in which they are used. Visuals play an important role in creating an interactive project presentation when they are well designed and selected to serve the aim of the presentation. Though their quantity does not count, it is necessary to employ good quality visuals that are relevant, clear, explanatory and interesting and use them to supplement the content of the presentation.

Conclusion

This chapter presented the procedures that this study required to collect, analyse and interpret the results of the real time observation of project work presentations. Analysis and interpretation of the four questions raised about visuals and their influence on interaction show that using visuals in any presentation really helps in improving interaction and making pupils more engaged and participating in the presentation. In addition, the number of visuals does not really affect the pupils' participation only if these visuals have a high quality that fits the presentation and thus helps in motivating learners by providing explanations and adding to the content of the presentation. Overall, the statistics helped to assume that learners would participate more and would be motivated when the content they are exposed to is visualized.

General Conclusion

1. Putting it altogether
2. Pedagogical Recommendations
3. Limitations of the Study
4. Suggestions for Further Research

1. Putting it altogether

The present piece of research has shed light on visual aids as a technique which might help improving project work presentations. The use of visual aids aims at generating as much interaction as possible. This study is divided into two parts, a theoretical and a practical one.

Project work is the core of the competency-based approach that aims at preparing learners to real life situations. It also helps them to be autonomous and collaborative in constructing knowledge and making use of what they have learnt. In the project presentation, learners need to make use of a variety of techniques that make the audience more engaged and involved . In addition to preparation, confidence and facial expressions, learners can use visual aids to achieve the objectives of the presentation.

Visual aids supplement the content of lessons and oral presentations in EFL classes. Visualisation tools such as pictures, graphs and presentation software help in conveying meaning and urge the audience to interact. They might serve as good tool to teach English via visualised lessons in reading, grammar, vocabulary, etc. To guarantee the effectiveness of the visual aids, teachers and learners should employ visuals that are comprehensible and serving the theme in order not to mislead the audience.

In language learning theories, interaction is considered crucial. Learners acquire language through interaction with others and through language output .Learners can interact with each other and with their teacher in various contexts. Thus, teachers should encourage learners' involvement by asking questions and well managing turn taking. In language classroom thus, more opportunities must be provided to engage in more classroom interaction.

The finding of the research show that visuals do help increasing interaction in project work presentations. The data collected revealed that the quality of visuals is important in involving students especially when used to explain the content of the presentation.

2. Limitations of the Study

The researchers encountered some difficulties when conducting this piece of research , which led them to make more efforts. It was not possible to explore the effect of visuals on interaction through an experimental method due to time constraints. As the fieldwork was started in the third term, secondary school pupils had to leave the school at the beginning of June to allow for the Baccalaureate mock examinations. This pushed the researchers to have meetings of guidance in the period of exam.

This study was conducted with a population of not more than 24 secondary school pupils. The researchers had two trial sessions to prepare learners and two other sessions for the project presentations. The results, however, would be more reliable if the study was held with a larger population along the academic year.

Unlike the experimental method that might lead to more valid results, classroom observation may have wrong judgements due to subjectivity. A visual aid that seemed to be very clear to an observer might be unclear to another. The criteria in evaluating the visuals used during the presentations could be affected by the observers' personal preferences.

Among these difficulties was the population's inexperience with making visual oral presentations. Most pupils had no idea about what a PowerPoint presentation is. The authors made extra efforts to guide the pupils through their work and met with them several times to make them familiar with the basics of software presentations.

The school authorities where the classroom observation was held hesitated to give the researchers the permission at first. Making extra sessions with pupils to conduct research might be seen as exhausting for the learners. Fortunately, the headmaster did understand the situation and permitted them to conduct the study with that population as long as it contributes to the field of education.

3. Pedagogical Recommendations

This study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of visual aids in making better project work presentations. Using visuals is one way that might result in better presentations specifically in terms of interaction. Based on the findings of this study, the researchers recommend the following:

- Project work are productions that allow the pupils to work and develop their competences. They are opportunities for the pupils to work in collaboration and improve their skills and social connections. Teachers are thus required to make more efforts to give project work adequate time and value to achieve better outcomes.
- Presenting project work is a step that many teachers are neglecting. Pupils are used to work on their projects and produce a written report to be given to their teachers for correction. This can evaluate neither the pupil's understanding of the topic, nor his oral proficiency. In fact, the delivery of this written report in front of the teacher and the classmates is an activity that comprises many other tasks. It allows the pupils to collaborate, research, self and peer evaluate, correct, write, speak and present. Teachers should be more aware of the importance of "presenting" project work. They might even assign a mark for the presentation of project work taking into account some criteria for a better evaluation. This is one way to how to motivate pupils to make more efforts in preparing for their oral presentations.
- Teachers must not take pupils' inability and unwillingness to present into account. These linguistic and psychological difficulties are temporal. Once the pupils have the chance to present once and twice, the other presentations would be easier and more interesting. The principle of "practice makes perfect" must be the engine that boosts both teachers and pupils will to improve the learning and teaching environment.

- Pupils must be encouraged to make more efforts to prepare their presentations by the teacher . The latter can supervise and guide the whole process from grouping the pupils to presenting the work. Teachers ought to check the pupils' language, the materials and media used. They ought to direct their attention to how motivating it would be to use ICT's in their work. Though this might be tiring, benefits are assured.
- Teachers are recommended to make pupils aware that oral presentations are not sessions of reading already written reports. They should train them to interact among themselves during the presentations by asking and answering questions, sharing additional information, giving comments, etc. Project work is essential in CBA as it prepares learners to face real life situations.
- Teachers and course designers must stress the importance of well selecting relevant and interesting visual aids that help in explaining the topic and pave the way to more interactive lessons and oral presentations.

4. Suggestions for Further Research

In the light of the remarks and study limitations already pointed to, it is worthy to suggest some recommendations for researchers to go deeper into this theme and related issues.

- Future researchers can investigate the impact of visual aids on interaction with a large population, which allows for results that are more valid. They can choose to work with more than one group of secondary school learners with different streams, literary and scientific.
- Future studies should also investigate the same topic with more experienced learners in oral presentations. University students of English are considered more helpful as they face less trouble during their presentations compared to secondary school pupils thanks to their familiarity with making oral presentations throughout the academic year.

- The impact of visuals on interaction had better be investigated in presenting lessons as well. Future researchers may rely on a set of different lessons in EFL classrooms in order to check in which lessons visuals result in more interaction.
- Visual aids can also be studied in relation to their impact on understanding during oral presentations, as well as lessons. This can be investigated using the experimental method wherein learners are tested on the content that was delivered to them.

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VISUAL AIDS IN INTERACTION DURING PRESENTATIONS

Appendices

Appendix 1

Classroom scheme

Presenters

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Observer 1

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Observer 3

Observer 2

Appendix 2

	Frequency (with numbers)
Total participants	
Asking questions	
Answering questions	
Giving comments	

Appendix 3

Visual aid	Number	relevant	Clear	explanatory	Interesting
Pictures					
Tables					
Pie charts					
Line graphs					
ICT's					
Total					

Résumé

La recherche actuelle étudie l'impact des outils visuels lors des présentations des projets aux étudiants de l'Anglais comme langue étrangère au lycée. Ces projets sont considérés comme des tâches à effectuer à la fin de l'unité en intégrant la langue et les compétences acquises. Cette étude vise aussi à vérifier si l'utilisation de plus d'outils visuels conduit à plus, et si leur utilisation à un stade précis peut amener à de meilleurs résultats que d'autres stades. Pour atteindre le but de l'étude, nous avons utilisé l'opération de l'observation de classe avec les élèves de deuxième année secondaire au lycée Abdi Bouaziz à Jijel. Les résultats démontrent que les présentations qui utilisent les outils visuels comme les photos, les plans et le programme PowerPoint amènent à plus d'interaction que les présentations qui se reposent sur la transmission verbale. Les élèves sont plus intégrés à travers le jeu de questions réponses et les commentaires. On a aussi découvert que l'utilisation des outils visuels conduit à plus d'interaction lors de leur utilisation dans le développement de la présentation ou on fournit des détails et on explique le sujet.

Mots clés : Présentation des projets, Les outils visuels, l'interaction

ملخص

يدرس البحث الحالي تأثير الوسائل البصرية على التفاعل أثناء عروض أعمال المشاريع لطلبة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المدرسة الثانوية. تتمثل هذه المشاريع في مجموعة مهام يتعين القيام بها في نهاية الوحدة التعليمية التي تدمج اللغة والمهارات المكتسبة. تهدف هذه الدراسة أيضا الى التحقق مما إذا كان استخدام المزيد من الوسائل المرئية يؤدي الى مزيد من التفاعل وما إذا كان استخدامها في مرحلة معينة من التقديم قد يؤدي الى نتائج أفضل من المراحل الأخرى.

للاوصول الى هدف الدراسة استخدمنا عملية رصد القسم مع تلاميذ السنة الثانية ثانوي في ثانوية عبيدي بوعزيز التقنية بجيجل. توضح النتائج المتحصل عليها أن العروض التقديمية التي تستخدم الوسائل المرئية مثل الصور، المخططات وبرنامج العرض باوربوينت تؤدي الى تفاعل أكثر من العروض التقديمية التي تعتمد فقط على التوصيل اللفظي. الطلاب أكثر اندماجا عن طريق طرح الأسئلة، الاجابة عليها وابداء التعليقات. كما تم الكشف عن أن استخدام الوسائل البصرية يؤدي الى مزيد من التفاعل عند استخدامها خلال مرحلة العرض حيث يتم توفير تفاصيل وشرح حول الموضوع.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الوسائل البصرية، تقديم المشاريع، التفاعل